Title: H2A.Z and elongation factor Spt6 form an ancient bridge shaping transcription in

eukaryotes

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SUMMARY

Since eukaryogenesis, chromatin has evolved to regulate gene expression. The histone variant H2A.Z is an ancestral, essential feature of eukaryotic chromatin linked to transcription. Curiously, it is a transcriptional activator in some species and a repressor in others, suggesting species-specific differences shape its function. Here we engineer H2A.Z sequence variants from diverse eukaryotes into a single host, *Schizosaccharomyces pombe,* to understand H2A.Z's transcriptional impact. We show that H2A.Z sequences representing more than a billion years of evolution encode functional variation attributable to as little as single amino acid substitutions in the unstructured loop 2 (L2) region of H2A.Z's core domain. We show that L2 binds elongation factor Spt6, with L2 sequence influencing its binding to Spt6 and whether it promotes or restricts transcription elongation. In this way, the H2A.Z-Spt6 interaction clarifies H2A.Z's fundamental regulatory function, providing a direct physical and functional linkage between transcription and its chromatinized template across eukaryotes.

INTRODUCTION

Eukaryotic RNA polymerase II (RNAPII) transcribes mRNA from DNA that is organized into repeating units of ~147 bp of DNA wrapped around a multi-subunit protein complex, the nucleosome.[1] Over the past fifty years, an enormous body of work has established the importance of nucleosomes in regulating transcription[2-7] in development,[8] disease,[9] and in response to stress.[10] The prevailing model is that nucleosomes are obstacles to transcription initiation, and that chromatin remodeling (moving or removing nucleosomes) is required to enable the first steps of gene expression.[11-20] This model centers on the first nucleosome of the transcriptional unit positioned adjacent to the transcription start site, which is known to be critical for transcription initiation.[21-23] However, there is a clear linkage between the degree to which a gene is expressed and its nucleosome composition throughout the transcriptional unit,[24-26] suggesting that nucleosomes throughout the gene body likely also contribute to transcriptional output.

One of the most prominent features of nucleosome composition is the frequent presence of a histone H2A variant, H2A.Z.[4,27-32] First discovered nearly 45 years ago,[33,34] genes encoding H2A.Z have been identified in divergent eukaryotes, suggesting that it might be an ancient paralog, dating back to the last eukaryotic common ancestor.[35] H2A.Z is essential in many species,[36-38] reduces nucleosome stability both *in vitro*[39,40] and *in vivo,*[41,42] and has been linked to transcription.[43-47] Yet, precisely how H2A.Z affects the activity of RNAPII is unclear.

Studies of various model organisms have yielded apparently conflicting conclusions. For example, whereas works in *Tetrahymena*, *Drosophila*, and budding yeast suggested that H2A.Z has an activating role in transcription,[2,3,27,33,41,46,48] other studies—in fission yeast, plants, human cells, and *in vitro*—have supported a repressive role.[28,47,49-53] Whether these divergent findings might be explained by species-specific differences in the primary sequence of H2A.Z has not been established.

Here, we use phylogenetic analysis and a synthetic approach to identify a direct molecular link between H2A.Z and the transcription machinery, establishing its fundamental mode of action and rationalizing its variable, species-specific impact on transcription. We evaluate the impact of H2A.Z sequence variation representing more than a billion years of eukaryotic evolution in a single experimentally tractable synthetic system, the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, replacing the endogenous *S. pombe* H2A.Z (Pht1) with H2A.Z sequences from diverse eukaryotes. We identify the transcription elongation factor Spt6 as a direct physical interactor of the loop 2 (L2) region of the H2A.Z core domain. Finally, we establish that even single amino acid differences in the L2 region impact transcription at the level of elongation. Together, our findings indicate that an ancient interaction between H2A.Z and Spt6 connects RNAPII directly to the chromatin template, providing insight into its fundamental role in eukaryotic gene expression.

RESULTS

H2A.Z is an ancient histone variant

To test our hypothesis that species-specific differences in the primary sequence of H2A.Z might explain their differences in function, we first identified H2A proteins from diverse eukaryotes in the EukProt database (Figures 1, S1 and S2A; Supplementary Table S1; Supplementary Data File 1; Methods). We used the sequences of these H2A proteins to build phylogenetic trees from which we could investigate the evolutionary history of H2A.Z in the context of other H2A histones. As previously suggested from analyses of smaller datasets,[35,54] we found that H2A.Z forms a monophyletic clade that spans nearly the entirety of known eukaryotic diversity (Figure 1A, Figure S2B). Almost all sequences in this clade, but very few outside of it, harbor the signature DEELD motif located in a C-terminal region of H2A.Zs referred to as the docking domain (DD).[35] A small cluster of sequences, mostly from the

unicellular flagellate *Carpediemonas membranifera* (phylum Metamonada), branch just

outside the H2A.Z clade, contain a near-perfect, but nevertheless variable, DEELD motif and

might represent rare, divergent forms of H2A.Z (Figure S2B). Other H2A variants either have

a more restricted phylogenetic distribution (e.g. macroH2A and H2A.W) or cannot be traced

to a single ancestral sequence, appearing paraphyletic (e.g. H2A.X) (Figure 1A and 1B).

Importantly, we found H2A.Z orthologs in nearly every eukaryotic genome, even in deep-

branching clades like Metamonada that were previously thought to lack H2A.Z[55] (Figure S2B).

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

common ancestor (LECA), and broadly retained throughout the evolution of eukaryotes. These

findings support the view that H2A.Z is the only H2A variant whose ancestry can be traced

back to the LECA.

Phylogenetically diverse H2A.Z sequences drive distinct gain-of-function transcriptional states

To investigate how sequence divergence affects H2A.Z function, we selected nine

H2A.Z sequences from across the phylogenetic tree (Figures S2B and S3A, Supplementary

Data File S2). The sequences were selected to maximize the number of eukaryotic supergroups

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

evolution, these representative H2A.Z proteins were ~65–90% identical in their core domain

(excluding highly divergent N- and C-terminal tail regions; Figure S3B), highlighting their

high degree of conservation.

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

representative H2A.Z proteins, we synthesized *S. pombe* codon-optimized versions of the nine

H2A.Z ortholog coding sequences, and generated yeast lines in which the endogenous gene

encoding H2A.Z (*pht1*) was replaced by one of these orthologs (Figure 2A). We then assessed

whether these replacement lines phenocopied the wild-type (WT) gene, resembled a H2A.Z

deletion mutant (*pht1⁻*), or differed from both.

We assessed global transcriptional changes in the replacement lines by using strand-

specific mRNA-seq. Consistent with prior reports,[2] *pht1⁻* cells exhibited modest transcriptional

changes, affecting ~10% of detected transcripts (Figure S3C). By contrast, many H2A.Z

replacement lines showed changes in ≥20% of detected transcripts when compared with WT

(Figure S3C). To investigate this further, we examined how similar the transcriptomes of the

nine H2A.Z replacement lines were to either WT or *pht1⁻* using principal component analysis.

Replacement lines differed markedly both from WT and *pht1⁻* (Figure 2B), suggesting that

H2A.Zs from different species are not simply gradations of total loss of function alleles, but

give rise to sequence-specific gain-of-function states.

We next asked whether transcriptional variation in H2A.Z from different species had

consequence at the level of phenotype. To do this, we assessed the growth of H2A.Z

replacement lines using a plate-based assay in the presence of stress conditions targeting

metabolism (rapamycin[56]), protein folding (low-dose guanidinium hydrochloride[57]), cell wall

biogenesis (clotrimazole[58]), fermentation (ethanol[59]), or either directly (doxorubicin[60],

formamide[61]) or indirectly (caffeine[62]) transcription and chromatin (Figure 2C). Consistent

with functional variation at the level of transcriptomes, the growth of all nine replacement lines

differed substantially from WT and *pht1⁻* cells across all tested conditions (Figure 2C), with

most lines growing more slowly than *pht1⁻* cells. Notably, greater sequence divergence of

replacement orthologs from *S. pombe* Pht1 correlated with weaker growth in several stress

conditions, with the strongest correlation being for conditions known to be linked directly to

transcription (doxorubicin, formamide) or stresses known to require a transcriptional response

(ethanol[59]) (Figure 2D, Figure S3D). By contrast, we saw no strong correlation between the

level of H2A.Z expression and growth (Figure 2D, Figure S3D), indicating that these effects

were not attributable to differential expression of H2A.Z but likely related to differences in the

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

different species to variation in its function and confirm a tight linkage between H2A.Z and

transcription.

The L2 region of H2A.Z is a key determinant of its function

Histone proteins are composed of a core histone-fold domain, characterized by a nearly

sequence-invariant bundle of three alpha helices (α1, α2, and α3), bounded by mostly

unstructured N- and C-terminal tails and separated by two unstructured loop regions, L1 and

L2 (Figure 3A).[1] To pinpoint which sequence domains of H2A.Z are responsible for changes

in transcriptional output across the set of orthologs tested above, we first examined sequence

conservation across the full H2A.Z dataset (Figure 1), calculating sequence identity along the

length of H2A.Z using a 3-residue sliding window average (Figure 3A). As expected, we

observed high conservation of the core alpha-helical bundle and relatively lower conservation

of the tails and the L1 (Figure 3A). Surprisingly, however, we found that parts of the L2 region,

specifically around the core motif KDLKVK, were as highly conserved as the core α-helices

(Figure 3A). This was especially striking when compared with the H2A variant H2A.X, which

was notably less conserved in this region.

The unexpectedly high sequence conservation of the L2 region suggested it might play a

role in determining the global changes in transcription we observed in the replacement *S.*

pombe lines. To test this, we engineered a series of chimeric histone genes whereby the N, C,

L1, L2, or docking domain[35] (DD) regions of *S. pombe pht1* were substituted into histone H2A

(*hta1*) (Figure 3B, Figure S4A). We expressed each of these chimeric genes by knocking them

into the *pht1* locus and assayed their ability to complement the *pht1*⁻ null allele by measuring

the growth of the chimeric lines under selected stress conditions based on prior experiments

with the representative full-length H2A.Z replacement lines (Figure 2). The chimeric histone

genes fell into two groups across all phenotypes tested: those that partially complemented the

pht1⁻ mutant (those encoding H2A/Z^{DD}, H2A/Z^{N}, and H2A/Z^{L1}) and those that fully

complemented the *pht1*⁻ mutant in all tested conditions (those encoding H2A/Z^{L2} and H2A/Z^{C}),

making them indistinguishable from WT (Figure 3C). These data indicate that both the L2

region and the C-terminal tail play key roles in determining H2A.Z function.

To investigate whether sequence variation in the L2 region of H2A.Z alone is sufficient

to explain the transcriptional differences we observed in our full-length H2A.Z replacement

lines, we looked for a correlation between transcriptional divergence and sequence divergence

from WT *S. pombe* in any of the structurally defined primary sequence regions of H2A.Z.

Although the short L2 affords limited resolution, we observed a strong correlation between L2

sequence divergence and transcriptional divergence ($\rho = 0.63$, $p < 10^{-3}$, Figure 3D). By

contrast, the sequence divergence of the C-terminal tail, which fully complemented the *pht1*⁻

mutant in growth assays, did not correlate with transcriptional divergence ($\rho = 0.056$, $p = 0.8$,

Figure 3D). There was also a correlation between the sequence divergence of the N-terminal

tail and transcriptional divergence ($\rho = 0.5$, $p < 10^{-2}$; Figure S4B). This was likely due to co-

variation with the L2 sequence, as there was a tight correlation between sequence variation in

these two regions ($\rho = 0.77$, $p < 10^{-5}$, Figure S4B) and the N-terminal tail chimera, H2A/Z^{N},

did not strongly complement *pht1*⁻. Together, these data show that the L2 region of H2A.Z is

an important contributor to its function.

The L2 region of H2A.Z binds to transcription elongation factor Spt6

The L2 region of H2A.Z is largely solvent accessible,[63] particularly during transcription

when the DNA is unwrapped from the nucleosome.[64,65] We therefore hypothesized that L2

might alter transcription by physically interacting with proteins involved in transcription, rather

than by influencing histone–DNA contacts, as is the case for the L2 region of histone H3.[1,66]

To identify proteins in the *S. pombe* nuclear proteome that might interact with the L2 region of

Pht1, we used AlphaFold2 Multimer[67] to predict physical interactions. We first performed a

virtual interaction screen of WT Pht1 L2 against the *S. pombe* annotated proteome[68,69] (Figure

4A), identifying 247 proteins with an interface predicted template modelling (IPTM) score

threshold of >0.5 (Supplementary Table S2). To further refine potential interactors, we

reasoned that L2 interactors responsible for driving functional variation in transcriptional

output must vary in their interaction in accordance with their L2 primary sequence. We thus

selected 17 unique single-residue variants of the L2 core motif from our database of H2A.Z

sequences (Figure 1, Supplementary Data File S1), performing an AlphaFold2 virtual

interaction screen with correspondingly mutated Pht1 L2 sequences against a subset of 500

nuclear proteins based on their IPTM score with WT Pht1 L2 (Figure 4B, Figure S5A,

Supplementary Table S3). To assess differences in predicted binding across Pht1 mutants, we

then calculated the variance in IPTM score for each candidate interactor protein (Figure 4C).

In most cases, the variance was very low, suggesting that the candidate interacting proteins do

not respond to variation in L2 (Figure 4C, Figure S5A, Supplementary Table S3). Among the

candidate interactors with the highest variance, the transcription elongation factor Spt6 (Figure

4D and 4E, Supplementary Table S3) was the only component of RNAPII.[70,71] It interacts with

nucleosomes,[72-74] had highly robust folding models across multiple simulations (Figure S5B),

and closely matched experimentally derived structures (Figure S5C).

We first experimentally validated the AlphaFold2-predicted interaction between Pht1

and Spt6, using glutathione-S-transferase (GST) as negative control. H2A was previously

reported to bind to Spt6 and was used as positive control.[75] We expressed and purified

recombinant *S. pombe* GST-tagged Pht1 and Hta1, and His-tagged Spt6 in *Escherichia coli*

(Figure 4F) and assessed binding *in vitro* to nickel resin (binds the His tag). Pht1 bound Spt6

(Figure 4G), confirming the Pht1–Spt6 interaction. Further, we noted a qualitative difference

in the amount of Hta1 and Pht1 bound to Spt6, suggesting that the two histone proteins might

interact differently with Spt6. To verify this finding, we repeated Spt6-Pht1 pulldown

experiments under more stringent binding conditions, where the amount of bound Pht1 was

considerably less than that of Hta1 (Figure S5D), reinforcing the suggestion Hta1 and Pht1

may interact with Spt6 differently. Together, these data establish a physical interaction between

Spt6 and Pht1.

To test whether the L2 region was sufficient to mediate the Pht1–Spt6 interaction, we

synthesized a biotinylated peptide corresponding to this region of *S. pombe* Pht1 and assayed

its binding to His-tagged Spt6 (Figure 4H). As a negative control, we used a peptide

corresponding to the docking domain (DD) of *S. pombe* Pht1, which is adjacent to the L2 region

and important for the interaction of Pht1 with H3 and H4[63] and Swr1-C.[76] Whereas the DD

peptide did not bind Spt6, the peptides corresponding to the L2 region of Hta1 or Pht1 bound

Spt6 (Figure 4I), consistent with the results of our experiments with the full-length proteins.

These data establish that the L2 region alone is sufficient to explain the interaction of Pht1 with

Spt6.

To test whether sequence variation in the L2 region of H2A.Z alters its binding to Spt6,

we synthesized L2 peptides from five of the original set of representative H2A.Z sequences

and assayed their binding to *S. pombe* Spt6, as above. Consistent with the sequence of L2

determining its interaction with Spt6, we observed variable amount of each peptide bound to

Spt6 across species (Figure 4I), with *A. godoyi*, *T. globosa*, and *P. marinus* H2A.Z L2 peptides

having the greatest qualitative difference relative to *S. pombe* Pht1 L2. Although there were

clear differences between peptides derived from different species, we did not observe a strong

association between Spt6-binding and sequence similarity (Figure 4I), suggesting that specific

sequence features of the peptides, rather than overall sequence divergence, must govern their

association with Spt6. Indeed, when we compared the sequence of the three species' L2

peptides that had discernable differences relative to Pht1 to those that did not, we noted that all

of them had substitutions within the L2 core motif (Figure S5F), especially at position L83.

To investigate the role of sequence variation in the core motif around L83 in

determining the binding of Pht1 L2 to Spt6, we further examined AlphaFold2 models. Pht1 is

predicted to bind to the Spt6 death-like domain (DLD) (Figure 4D). This domain, whose

function has remained uncharacterized, is the most highly conserved feature of the Spt6

surface,[77] suggesting an important functional role. To assess this further, we gathered Spt6

sequences from the same EukProt database we used previously to identify H2A.Zs, calculating

sequence conservation of the DLD across known eukaryotic diversity (Figure 4J). When we

examined the amino acid composition of the DLD, we noted large numbers of hydrophobic

residues that were not only highly conserved in absolute terms (Figure 4J), but also relative to

other hydrophobic residues in Spt6 ($p < 0.005$, Wilcoxon test; Figure S5F). These residues

were organized into a hydrophobic groove, many of which contacted the Pht1 L2 core motif in

AlphaFold2 models (Figure 4E, Figure S5E). Further, these contacts were predicted to vary

according to the H2A.Z L2 sequence, both when examining models for L2s from different

species (Figure S5E), as well as Pht1 mutants to the L83 position we identified earlier (Figure

4E), suggesting a rationale for why sequence variation at this Pht1 position might affect

binding.

To test the contribution of Pht1 L2 sequence variation, particularly at position L83, to

the Pht1–Spt6 interaction in the context of the DLD hydrophobic groove, we synthesized three

mutated Pht1 L2 peptides with either more hydrophobic (L83F) or more hydrophilic (L83M,

L83N) substitutions and tested their binding to Spt6. Whereas L83F mutant L2 peptide bound

Spt6 similarly to WT Pht1 peptide, Spt6 bound both more hydrophilic substitutions (L83M/N)

to a much lesser extent than WT Pht1 L2 (Figure 4I). These relative binding abilities

corresponded to their hydrophobicities, and are thus consistent with AlphaFold2 predictions

that the L2 region of Pht1 interacts with the hydrophobic groove of the DLD of Spt6 (Figure

4D). Notably, although L83 is important for the Pht1–Spt6 interaction, the more hydrophilic

L83N substitution, which corresponds to Hta1 residue N75, does not recapitulate the binding

of full-length Hta1 (Figure 4D), reinforcing our earlier conclusion that numerous other primary

sequences differences in Hta1 (Figure S4A) must contribute to its binding. Together, these

findings suggest that the hydrophobic L2 region of H2A.Z determines its binding to the DLD

of Spt6.

H2A.Z L2 regulates transcription elongation

Since Spt6 is a transcription elongation factor,[70,71] we hypothesized that sequence

variation in the L2 region of H2A.Z might be sufficient to affect transcription elongation,

thereby explaining species-specific differences in reported H2A.Z function. To test this, we

first developed a growth-based reporter assay using the uracil biosynthesis gene *ura4*. In this

assay, the amount of transcription of *ura4* is directly related to the amount of growth in media

lacking uracil (Figure 5A). Assaying a growth-based reporter has the advantage that it can be

used to test multiple conditions and it is not easily confounded by global transcriptional

changes. We first confirmed that our reporter gene accumulates Pht1 by ChIP-qPCR (Figure

S6A). We then introduced point mutations corresponding to those found in the L2 core motif

of our nine representative H2A.Z orthologs (Figures S3A and S5F) into the endogenous *pht1*

(H2A.Z) gene in *S. pombe* (Figure 5B). Whereas *pht1⁻* cells gave rise to a modest increase in

reporter expression (Figure 5C), supporting a repressive function of H2A.Z in *S. pombe* as in

some other model systems,[47,49,50,53] half of L2 mutants had a significant increase (by ~1.3–1.5

fold for L83F, L83N and L83Q) or decrease (by ~2 fold for L83M) in reporter expression.

These results were not confounded by general fitness defects in the mutant strains (Figure

S6B), and all the mutants were epistatic to Swc2, an essential subunit of the Swr1-C chromatin

remodeling complex, which incorporates H2A.Z into nucleosomes[78,79] (Figure S6C). Together

these results establish that reporter expression differences are driven by Pht1 presence at the

reporter gene and suggest that L2 sequence variation is sufficient to impact transcription.

We next tested whether differences in reporter expression across Pht1 mutant lines were

specifically attributable to transcription elongation through two orthogonal approaches. First,

focusing on the four Pht1 mutant lines with the strongest differences in reporter expression

relative to WT (L83M, L83N, K86Q, and L83F), we made use of the drug mycophenolic acid

(MPA) to specifically interfere with RNAPII elongation by lowering cellular GTP levels.[80] In

this experiment, if a mutant has increased or decreased RNAPII elongation relative to WT, then

it should be resistant or sensitive to MPA, respectively. Treatment of WT cells with MPA

caused a ~40% reduction in growth relative to the control (Figure 5D). By contrast, *pht1⁻* and

the Pht1 mutants L83N, K86Q, and L83F, which all have relatively high levels of transcription,

were more resistant to MPA than the WT (~25–35% reduction in growth; Figure 5D),

consistent with increased transcription elongation in these lines. By contrast, the single mutant

that had decreased reporter expression (L83M) was also the most sensitive to MPA treatment

(~60% reduction, $p_{adj} < 10^6$, Figure 5D), confirming its reduction in transcription elongation

activity. Together, these data establish that Pht1 L2 mutants are sufficient to impact elongating

RNAPII.

Finally, as an orthogonal measure to our reporter-based assays, we probed the impact of

Pht1 L2 mutants on transcription elongation by measuring nascent transcription using precision

run-on sequencing (qPRO-seq).[81,82] Sequencing nascent transcripts allowed us to position

RNAPII in the transcriptional unit and to distinguish between promoter-proximal paused

RNAPII and gene body-located RNAPII participating in active elongation across all expressed

genes, albeit without accurately quantifying specific parameters of RNAPII activity. Consistent

with results of our reporter assays, differential expression analysis of gene body-located qPRO-

seq counts in the WT and *pht1*⁻ lines showed a modest increase in active elongation by RNAPII

at ~100 genes in *pht1*⁻ cells (Figure 5E). Similar analyses of the Pht1 point mutant lines

identified three classes of mutant. In one class, comprising half of the tested mutants (L83M,

L83G, A80S, and V85A), we observed essentially no change in RNAPII elongation, when

compared with WT at the level of differentially transcribed genes (Figure 5E). Notably, this

class included the single super-repressive L2 mutant (L83M). Since it was also the sole Pht1

mutant that maintained a mild transcriptional phenotype in a *swc2*⁻ background (Fig. S6C), it

may have acquired an additional interaction driving its function. The second class comprised a

single mutant (K84H), which had a modest increase in RNAPII engaging in elongation, very

similar to that of *pht1*⁻ (Figure 5E). The third class comprised three mutants (L83N, K86Q, and

L83F) in which we observed a robust increase in RNAPII engaging in elongation at ~50%

more genes than in *pht1*⁻ (Figure 5E), consistent with their impact on reporter gene

transcription. Together, these data establish that sequence variation in the L2 region is

sufficient to explain species-specific effects of the presence of H2A.Z in gene bodies on

transcription.

DISCUSSION

We set out to understand why H2A.Z function diverges across eukaryotes—why it activates transcription in some species and represses it in others. In *S. pombe*, as in plants and mammalian cells,[49,50] H2A.Z (Pht1) is generally antagonistic towards transcription elongation. We show here that H2A.Z basic activity can be modified by sequence variations as small as single point mutations in the L2 core motif, which through their physical interaction with Spt6 give rise to changes in transcriptional output. In this way, although H2A.Z itself is deeply conserved across species, it is likely that its specific qualitative role in transcription regulation––i.e. activation, repression—is not. Rather, we propose the conserved and core function of H2A.Z across eukaryotes is its very potential to regulate RNAPII via Spt6. In this way, H2A.Z helps build the 'ground state' of transcription. Its presence (or absence) within nucleosomes specifies the chromatin template's inherent potential to be efficiently transcribed by RNAPII, communicating through the Spt6 subunit. This ground state might be refined and sculpted by chromatin remodelers and modifiers to achieve context-specific gene expression, setting the stage for dynamic modes of transcription regulation—e.g. transcription factors. That small sequence variants can become rapidly amplified, resetting the ground state of transcription genome wide accounts for the observation that H2A.Z has both species- and locus-specific complexity.

We establish that H2A.Z L2 binds Spt6, which allosterically regulates RNAPII[83] to impact transcription elongation.[70,71] To date, work seeking to address a potential link between Spt6 and chromatin has focused on its chaperone-like functions in maintaining chromatin structure during transcription,[72,73,75] yet Spt6 contains several functional domains.[77] We suggest that the DLD of Spt6 is a key driver of its function in shaping transcription[73,75] as it directly interacts with H2A.Z and this is sufficient to change the rate of elongation by RNAPII. In this way, our findings highlight the inherent complexity of RNAPII, pointing to a need to

understand how the often parallel, yet still interdependent, functions of transcription are orchestrated in time and space.

How the interaction between H2A.Z and Spt6 mechanistically influences the function of RNAPII remains a question for future studies. One mechanism, however, might be by inducing conformational changes in RNAPII. Conformational changes to negative elongation factor (NELF) were recently demonstrated to control the transition of RNAPII from paused to poised for transcription by allosterically changing the active site of RNAPII to a more permissive state.[84] Structural work will establish if H2A.Z–Spt6 uses a similar mechanism and whether this explains why even single change of amino acids participating in this interaction induce strong changes in transcription. If so, this might explain why cross-species comparisons of even highly conserved proteins often yield inconclusive models of exact molecular function if small, perhaps overlooked, changes in primary sequence are amplified by allosteric protein–protein interactions.

For much of the past 50 years, investigations into variation in the core histone fold have focused on its interaction with DNA and, in particular, the fact that H2A variants impact the stability of the nucleosome.[39-41,85-89] Our findings, by contrast, highlight the importance of the histone core domain for genomic regulation through protein–protein interactions, corroborating similar recent reports,[66,90,91] identifying a mechanism based on the interaction of H2A.Z and the Spt6 DLD that, due to the ubiquity of these two proteins across the eukaryotic tree of life, likely originated with the birth of eukaryotes. That we uncover sequence variation in just seven residues of the L2 core motif of H2A.Z can give rise to enormous phenotypic complexity at the level of transcriptional output and the H2A.Z–Spt6 interaction, it is plausible that many protein–protein interactions with the nucleosome core domain remain to be discovered. Indeed, given the extreme depth of conservation of not only H2A.Z and Spt6, but also the entire chromatin and transcription apparatus across eukaryotic evolution, [92] it seems

likely that the nucleosome core is the center of a rich and extensive world of chromatin

regulation.

Limitations of the study

A key limitation of this study is that we have not studied the roles of H2A.Z orthologs in the

various species in which they were identified. This poses a formidable technical challenge

given the lack of experimental tractability of non-model species, particularly those harboring

H2A.Z sequence variants with the greatest impact on transcriptional output. Also, we do not

take into account any mechanisms that might compensate for functional defects in H2A.Z

orthologs expressed in *S. pombe*. This might be a fruitful avenue to discover potentially new

mechanisms regulating histone and chromatin biology.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization: ZHH, FB, and TW; Methodology: ZHH, KS, and TW; Validation: ZHH and KS; Formal Analysis: ZHH, KS, and TW; Investigation: ZHH, KS, and TW; Data Curation: ZHH, KS, and TW; Writing – original draft: ZHH, TW, and FB; Visualization: ZHH, KS, and TW; Supervision: FB, TW; Project Administration: ZHH; Funding Acquisition: ZHH, FB, and TW.

DECLARATIONS OF INTEREST

Z.H.H. and F.B. are inventors on a patent submitted by the Gregor Mendel Institute at the Austrian Patent Office (A50392/2024) pertaining to the modification of transcription and fitness by engineering H2A.Z L2.

409 **FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS**

Figure 1. H2A.Z is an ancient histone variant. 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.

Figure 2. Phylogenetically diverse H2A.Z sequences drive distinct gain-of-function

transcriptional states. A, Experimental scheme describing the replacement of endogenous *S.*

pombe pht1 by representative H2A.Zs taken from the H2A phylogeny (Figures 1A and S2B).

B, Principal component analysis (PCA) for the top 500 variable genes from mRNA-seq data

generated for H2A.Z replacement lines. **C**, 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. **D**, Example

Spearman's correlations between the growth from (C) with either sequence distance (as in C)

of each H2A.Z relative to WT *S. pombe*, or the expression of the respective H2A.Z (from

mRNA-seq).

Figure 3. The L2 region of H2A.Z is a key determinant of its function. 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**,

Experimental scheme for generation of Hta1/Pht1 chimeras. **C**, Mean growth (AUC) for four

biological replicates in each indicated condition, which are as in Figure 2B. **D**, Spearman's

correlation analysis between the sequence divergence from *S. pombe* Pht1 of either the L2 or

C-terminal tail region and principal component 1 from mRNA-seq analysis from Figure 2B. 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 Figure S4B.

Figure 4. The L2 region of H2A.Z binds to transcription elongation factor Spt6. A, Scheme explaining the AlphaFold2 virtual interaction screen against *S. pombe* Pht1. **B,** Scheme explaining the AlphaFold2 approach used to calculate the IPTM variance for 17 Pht1 L2 variants, which is plotted in **C**. The reduced nuclear proteome was defined by the top 500 WT *S. pombe* H2A.Z interactors from (A). **D,** AlphaFold2 predicted structure of the Pht1 L2 interaction with Spt6, with the the death-like-domain (DLD) highlighted with shading. **E,** Example AlphaFold2 structures of *S. pombe* Pht1, Hta1, and Pht1 mutants. Spt6 DLD is colored with a lipophilicity surface, and each H2A position 83 (e.g. L83 for Pht1) is labelled to highlight its interaction with the Spt6 hydrophobic groove. **F,** Experimental scheme for *in vitro* interaction assays of full-length GST-Pht1, GST-Hta1, with 14xHis-Spt6(282-1159). **G,** Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE gel of Ni-NTA-pulldowns of recombinant *S. pombe* GST-Pht1 or GST-Hta1 with *S. pombe* His-Spt6(282-1159). Detection done with colloidal Coomassie staining. **H,** Experimental scheme showing the pulldown experiment modified for biotinylated peptides. **I,** Binding assay of Pht1-derived peptides to *S. pombe* 14xHis-Spt6(282-1159) immobilized on Ni-NTA resin. Detection was done either by colloidal Coomassie staining (for 14xHis-Spt6 loading control) or by a streptavidin-HRP conjugate (for biotinylated peptides). Representative of five experiments, each with similar results. **J,** Conservation analysis of Spt6 DLD. Conservation is calculated as the mean pairwise amino acid identity across Spt6 orthologs (see Methods). The location of hydrophobic residues are highlighted in red, with those predicted to interact with Pht1 L2 further indicated by an asterisks (*). The following residues are considered as hydrophobic for the purpose of this analysis: A, V, I, L, F, M, W, Y.

Figure 5. H2A.Z L2 sequence variation explains species-specific effects on transcription.
A, Experimental scheme explaining the *ura4*+ reporter gene. **B,** Experimental scheme describing the generation of H2A.Z point mutants. **C,** Growth of H2A.Z point mutant strains bearing the transcriptional reporter from (D) in EMM-Uracil. The mean of WT is represented with a dashed line. Each boxplot represents 12 biological replicates, adjusted *p*-values (p_{adj}) are calculated using a two-way ANOVA followed by a post-hoc Tukey test. **D,** 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 9 biological replicates and 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. **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.

Figure S1. Related to Figure 1. 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.

Figure S2. Related to Figure 1. A, Overview of histones identified by different core histone

HMMs in the context of eukaryotic phylogeny. **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.

Figure S3. Related to Figure 2. 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. **D,** Spearman's correlations for the phenotypes of H2A.Z replacement lines from

(2B) with themselves, as well as either their sequence distance from WT *S. pombe* or their

expression.

Figure S4. Related to Figure 4. A, Alignment of *S. pombe* H2A and H2A.Z identifying the

five regions used to generate chimeras from (3A). **B,** Additional Spearman's correlation

analyses of mRNA-seq data from (2B) against the sequence distance for each complemented

H2A.Z in the indicated regions from (A).

Figure S5. Related to Figure 4. 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,** AlphaFold2 predicted error alignment (PAE) for

the 5 replicate models of WT *S. pombe* Pht1 against *S. pombe* Spt6. **C,** 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. **D,** As in Figure 4G, but with 300 mM NaCl. **E,** Example AlphaFold structures for *S.*

pombe Pht1 and H2A.Z L2s from selected species, with Spt6 being represented as a

lipophilicity surface as in (Fig. 4D). **F,** Alignment of peptides used in experiments for Figure

4I, with the L2 core motif highlighted with bold text, and amino acid differences from S.

pombe Pht1 indicated in red. Numbering corresponds to the position of the given amino acid

in Pht1. **G,** Hydrophobic residue conservation analysis. Mean pairwise sequence identity for

hydrophobic residues within vs. outside of the Spt6 DLD. The following residues are

considered as hydrophobic for the purpose of this analysis: A, V, I, L, F, M, W, Y. Statistical

significance (*** $p<0.005$) was calculated with a Wilcoxon test.

Figure S6. Related to Figure 5. A, ChIP-qPCR data for $ura4^+$ reporter in either WT or $pht1^-$ cells. Plotted are data from three independent ChIP experiments and are the average of 4 technical replicates. **B,** Growth of H2A.Z point mutant strains in the absence of selection (EMM). Plotted are four biological replicates, with their mean and standard error. **C,** As in Figure 5C, but in a $swc2^-$ background. Plotted are 5 biological replicates with their mean and standard error. P_{adj} is calculated as a Tukey post-hoc test of a 2-way ANOVA.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES AND DATA FILES LEGENDS

Supplementary Data Table S1. Pan-H2A dataset annotations, related to Supplementary Data File S1.

Supplementary Data Table S2. AlphaFold2 multimer IPTM vs. PTM predictions for *S. pombe* Pht1 L2 mutants against *S. pombe* nuclear proteins.

Supplementary Data Table S3. AlphaFold2 multimer IPTM vs. PTM predictions for H2A.Z L2 mutants against *S. pombe* nuclear proteins.

Supplementary Data Table S4. *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* strains used in this study.

Supplementary Data File S1. Pan-H2A sequence database used in this study.

Supplementary Data File S2. Representative H2A.Z sequences used in this study.

Supplementary Data File S3. Spt6 sequence database used in this study.

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[93] to build

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

curated histone sequences in HistoneDB 2.0.[94] 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),[95] 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 (Fig. S1A).

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 (Fig. S1B). Even

though E-values can be used to identify the correct variant in most instances (Fig. S1C), 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 (Fig. 1).

These putative H2A sequences were aligned using MAFFT (command= mafft --

localpair --maxiterate 1000).[96] ModelTest-NG[97] 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)[98]. Sequences associated with long

branches (Fig. 1A) were manually inspected but not removed as their presence does not affect

conclusions. Trees were plotted using iTOL.[99]

Sequence conservation of Spt6

S. pombe Spt6 (Uniprot ID: Q09915) is part of EukProt orthogroup OG0001365.

Sequences belonging to this orthogroup were downloaded (12-2-2024) and filtered to only

contain proteins from species also present in the final filtered H2A dataset, and further filtered

to only contain one ortholog per species, retaining the proteins with the highest pairwise

identity to Q09915. These sequences were aligned using MAFFT-linsi and conservation

assayed as average pairwise sequence identity at residues present in Q09915.

Yeast Culture, Strain Manipulation, and Phenotypic Assays

All strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table S4. Yeast (*S. pombe* 972

h-) were cultured under standard conditions (32 ºC). Unless otherwise stated, media used were

either EMM2 (Edinburgh Minimal Media)[100] or YES (Yeast Extract with Supplements)[101] for

S. pombe.

S. pombe strains were manipulated either using one-step PCR-based HR mutagenesis[102]

or the SpEDIT CRISPR editing platform.[103] For both, heat-shock was used to transform

chemically-competent parent strains.[104] Donor templates for homologous recombination were

prepared using either Gibson assembly[105] using reagents supplied by the IMP Molecular

Biology Service combined, with site directed mutagenesis, or by direct synthesis from

commercial vendors (IDT, Genscript). All manipulations were verified by PCR genotyping

and where appropriate sequencing of the relevant locus.

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

indubating with peptide for 90 min at RT. Afterwards, b-Marcapthoethanol 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 (*pht1*-) for both Western blot and ChIP

applications (Fig. S6A), and aliquoted antibodies were stored at -80 ºC.

All 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.

Expression 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 probe: 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, 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 2h 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 chemiluminesce 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.

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[106] 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 were 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[107]. Differential expression analysis was

performed using DESeq2[108] in R, in which all subsequent data manipulation was performed.

PRO-seq Library Generation and Analysis

We performed a variant of PRO-seq, qPRO-seq, as recently published[82], with

modifications[81] 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

℃. 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 $MgCl_2$, 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 ºC 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 ºC,

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

ºC 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 ºC 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 ºC 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 ºC, 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. The data analysis was performed by adapting

available pipelines.[82] Briefly, we created a Nextflow container (URL/Github) to perform all

QC, alignment, and read processing steps, generating strand-specific bigwig files that were

subsequently analyzed in R.

ChIP-qPCR

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

fixed with 1% formaldehyde for 15 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, 0.1% Triton X-100, 1X Roche Complete Protease Inhibitors), and then lysed

using acid-washed glass beads in a Precellys for four rounds 20 sec maximum speed, 1 min on

ice. 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 $20,000 \times g$ 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) antibody (2μg) 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 50 µl of lysis buffer. Prepared beads were then combined with overnight chromatin samples, and incubated for 4 hrs at 4 °C 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, 0.1% 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 °C, then 65 °C overnight in a thermocycler. The next morning, proteinase K was added (final concentration 0.2 mg/mL) and incubated at 55 °C for 1 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 up as previously described, with samples being diluted 100-fold.

Quantification and Statistical Analysis

Unless otherwise noted, all statistical analyses were performed in R (v4.1.3) using the RStudio IDE (v2022.12.0+353) on x86_64-apple-darwin17.0 (64-bit) under macOS 13.6.3. All statistical tests used are stated in corresponding figure legends. Quantification of sequence distances was performed using CLC Main Workbench 10 (Qiagen). Processing of NGS data, as well as all AlphaFold2 Multimer analyses, were performed using the CLIP cluster (https://clip.science).

Data, Code, and Materials Availability

PRO-seq pipeline and scripts used for data analysis are available as a container on Github, and all other scripts used in analysis are available upon request to the lead contact.

NGS data (PRO-seq, mRNA-seq) are deposited in GEO under accession number GSE265749

and GSE265775, respectively. For material request (e.g. strains), please contact the lead

(zachary.harvey@gmi.oeaw.ac.at).

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