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H2A.Z and chromatin remodelling complexes: a focus on fungi

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ABSTRACT

Chromatin is a highly dynamic structure that closely relates with gene expression in eukaryotes. ATP-dependent chromatin remodelling, histone post-translational modification and DNA methylation are the main ways that mediate such plasticity. The histone variant H2A.Z is frequently encountered in eukaryotes, and can be deposited or removed from nucleosomes by chromatin remodelling complex SWR1 or INO80, respectively, leading to altered chromatin state. H2A.Z has been found to be involved in a diverse range of biological processes, including genome stability, DNA repair and transcriptional regulation. Due to their formidable production of secondary metabolites, filamentous fungi play outstanding roles in pharmaceutical production, food safety and agriculture. During the last few years, chromatin structural changes were proven to be a key factor associated with secondary metabolism in fungi. However, studies on the function of H2A.Z are scarce. Here, we summarize current knowledge of H2A.Z functions with a focus on filamentous fungi. We propose that H2A.Z is a potential target involved in the regulation of secondary metabolite biosynthesis by fungi.

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Chromatin; secondary metabolism; mycotoxins

Introduction

Fungi are a kingdom regrouping extremely diverse eukaryotes ("Stop Neglecting Fungi" [2017](#page-16-0)). It is estimated that there are 2.2–3.8 million fungal species on earth with a diversity of structures (Hawksworth and Lücking [2017](#page-14-0)). Among them, filamentous fungi, which are composed of a web of filaments called "hyphae", are often overlooked. Many of them are of considerable interest in biotechnology; they can be used as "living factories" to produce proteins and metabolites of inter-est (Wösten [2019](#page-17-0)), serve as decontamination agents of pollutants (Prigione et al. [2018](#page-16-0)), or as biocontrol agents (Benitez et al. [2004](#page-13-0); Zhao et al. [2016;](#page-17-0) Sarrocco et al. [2019](#page-16-0)), for example. They are also potent producers of heterogeneous secondary metabolites (SMs), many of them with beneficial properties such as antibiotic compounds (Alberti et al. [2017](#page-13-0)). Nonetheless, many fungal SMs can also be harmful, as in the case of mycotoxins which are known as food spoilers resulting in reduced yields and deteriorated grain quality, such as aflatoxins (e.g. aflatoxin B1; AFB1), fumonisins, zearalenone (ZEN), type B trichothecenes (e.g. deoxynivalenol, or DON), type A trichothecenes (e.g. T-2 toxin), and ochratoxin A (OTA) (Hussein and Brasel [2001;](#page-15-0) Alberti et al. [2017;](#page-13-0) Gruber-Dorninger et al. [2019](#page-14-0)). Many of them are

produced by Fusarium species, which are regarded as the most important fungal pathogens of plants and animals (Goswami and Kistler [2004](#page-14-0)). The production of SMs in filamentous fungi are regulated by various factors, including nutrient source, pH, or light for example (Caracuel et al. [2003](#page-13-0); Katoh et al. [2007](#page-15-0); Wong et al. [2008;](#page-17-0) Tisch and Schmoll [2010\)](#page-17-0). More recently, chromatin structure changes were proposed to play a key role in the regulation of SM biosynthesis (see Pfannenstiel and Keller ([2019](#page-16-0)) and Strauss and Reyes-Dominguez ([2011](#page-16-0)) for reviews).

Inside the nucleus of fungal (and most eukaryotic) cells, genomic DNA is packaged with histones to form nucleosomes, which are the basic unit of chromatin. Each nucleosome consists of two copies of each of the four core canonical histones H2A, H2B, H3 and H4, with \sim 150 base pairs (bp) of DNA wrapped around them (Richmond et al. [1984;](#page-16-0) Luger et al. [2012](#page-15-0)). These canonical histones are highly conserved across eukaryotic species and represent the major part of the total histone pool within an organism (Mariño-Ramírez et al. [2005\)](#page-15-0). In most eukaryotes, each of these canonical histones is encoded by multiple genes with high sequence similarity and deposited into chromatin only during the S phase of the cell cycle after DNA replication (Talbert

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and Henikoff [2014](#page-17-0)). In metazoans, histone mRNAs are devoid of introns and are not polyadenylated. Instead, they have special stem-loop structures to trigger translation (Marzluff and Koreski [2017](#page-15-0)). In yeast, histone mRNAs are polyadenylated, polyA tail lengths varying during cell cycle (Beggs et al. [2012\)](#page-13-0). They are expressed exclusively at the late G1 and S phase, i.e. when DNA replication occurs (Kurat et al. [2014](#page-15-0)). Whilst histone genes are also largely devoid of introns, with few exceptions such as one H4 gene in Yarrowia lipolytica, Basidiomycota and Ascomycota have introns in their histone genes (May and Morris [1987](#page-16-0); Nishida and Yun [2011](#page-16-0)). In Aspergillus nidulans, expression of histones was shown to be also cell cycle-regulated (Ehinger et al. [1990](#page-14-0)). At the protein level, N-terminal tails of histones are extensively marked by covalent post-translational modifications (or PTM) including methylation, phosphorylation, acetylation, or ubiquitylation, that impact gene expression by altering chromatin state (Marzluff and Koreski [2017](#page-15-0)).

Additional non-allelic isoforms of canonical histones, called histone variants, also exist in all eukaryotes (Talbert and Henikoff [2010](#page-17-0), [2014,](#page-17-0) [2017](#page-17-0)). In contrast to canonical histones, most of them are encoded by a single gene containing one or more introns expressed throughout the cell cycle, and can thus be incorporated into nucleosomes during the whole cell cycles. To date, histone variants of all canonical histone have been recognized, except for H4 (Maze et al. [2014\)](#page-16-0). In higher eukaryotes, H2A family encompasses the largest number of variants, including macroH2A, H2A.Bbd, H2A.X and H2A.Z, in which H2A.Z is considered as the most evolutionarily conserved one (van Daal et al. [1990;](#page-14-0) Thatcher and Gorovsky [1994](#page-17-0)). H2A.Z and H2A have typically $~\sim$ 60% sequence similarity (see [Figure 1](#page-3-0) for an example). H2A.Z differs from H2A in the increased acidic patch and the carboxy-terminal α -helix included in the docking domain [\(Figure 1](#page-3-0)), which is a structure involved in the interaction of the H2A-H2B dimer with the $(H3-H4)_2$ tetramer (Luger et al. [1997](#page-15-0); Suto et al. [2000](#page-17-0)).

H2A.Z has been identified by different names in various species, including hv1 in Tetrahymena thermophila (White et al. [1988\)](#page-17-0), HTA8, HTA9, and HTA11 in Arabidopsis thaliana (March-Díaz and Reyes [2009](#page-15-0)), Htz1 in Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Jackson et al. [1996](#page-15-0)), H2Az in N. crassa (Hays et al. [2002](#page-14-0)), or H2Av in Drosophila melanogaster, for example. Within these different organisms, H2A.Z variants show high levels of sequence similarity. Conservation of H2A.Z throughout evolution indicates that it plays important roles in eukaryotic cells, that cannot be replaced by H2A. Actually, the absence

of H2A.Z has been reported as lethal in many organisms such as mouse (Faast et al. [2001\)](#page-14-0), Drosophila (van Daal and Elgin [1992\)](#page-14-0), frogs and Tetrahymena (Liu et al. [1996](#page-15-0)), but not in S. cerevisiae in which deletion of H2AZ stops nonetheless cell cycle progression (Jackson and Gorovsky [2000](#page-15-0); Adam et al. [2001\)](#page-13-0). Across eukaryotes, H2A.Z has been found to be involved in a diverse range of biological processes, including genome stability (Downs et al. [2004](#page-14-0); Krogan et al. [2004](#page-15-0); Keogh et al. [2006\)](#page-15-0), DNA repair (Kalocsay et al. [2009;](#page-15-0) Xu et al. [2012](#page-17-0); Alatwi and Downs [2015;](#page-13-0) Gursoy-Yuzugullu et al. [2015](#page-14-0)) and transcriptional regulation (Marques et al. [2010](#page-15-0); Deal and Henikoff [2011;](#page-14-0) Soboleva et al. [2014](#page-16-0)). In filamentous fungi, current knowledge on the function of H2A.Z is scarce. One study about the function of H2A.Z in filamentous fungi was carried out on Neurospora crassa, finding that H2A.Z regulates oxidative stress response (Dong et al. [2018\)](#page-14-0). However, even though chromatin structure changes are of major importance in regulating the biosynthesis of several SMs, the role of H2A.Z has been overlooked. Owing to the prominent role of filamentous fungi in pharmaceutical production, food safety, agriculture and the critical function of H2A.Z in various species, a better understanding on the role of chromatin dynamics mediated by H2A.Z in these fungi warrants no delay. In this review, we summarize current knowledge of H2A.Z functions with a focus on Fusarium spp. to lay the foundation for the further study of H2A.Z that will be carried out in these species.

H2A.Z in fungi

Proteomes of 43 fungi were searched for domains matching the HMM profile for the C-terminal end of H2A (HMMER3 and PFAMv32 profile PF16211, (Bateman et al. [2000;](#page-13-0) Eddy [2009](#page-14-0)), containing the hypervariable part of H2A vs. H2A.Z docking domain. The C-terminal end of H2A is known to play a crucial role in stabilizing nucleosome particles and recognition of the linker histone H1 (Vogler et al. [2010](#page-17-0)). The length and nature of the tail in both H2A and H2A.Z have a conserved function in regulating association with nucleosomes (Wratting et al. [2012\)](#page-17-0). Here, at least two to five hits were obtained in all fungi analyzed ([Supplemental](#page-7-0) [Table S1\)](#page-7-0), and putative H2A/H2A.Z identification was proposed from the examination of partial sequence alignment of C-termini of the identified H2A/H2A.Z ([Supplemental Figure S1](#page-3-0)), containing most of the docking domain, and the derived phylogenetic tree ([Figure](#page-4-0) [2](#page-4-0); PhyML 3.3) (Guindon et al. [2010](#page-14-0)). Examining domain sequences in details ([Supplemental Figure S1](#page-3-0)), among

Figure 1. Sequence alignment of the whole protein sequences of H2A and H2A.Z from S. cerevisiae, A. nidulans, N. crassa, and F. graminearum. Sequences are numbered according to S. cerevisiae H2A (P04911) Alignment was performed with CLC Workbench 20.0 and secondary structures were predicted from S. cerevisiae H2A (P04911) and H2A.Z (Q12692) experimental models (PDB accession 1ID3 and 4M6B, respectively) using ESpript 3.0 (Robert and Gouet [2014](#page-16-0)). Identical residues are highlighted in red, highly similar ones are boxed in yellow. Helices are represented as squiggles, ß-strands with arrows, and turn as TT. H2A accessions: P04911, AN3468, NCU02437, FGRAMPH1_01T26109; H2A.Z accessions: Q12692, AN8039, NCU05347, FGRAMPH1_01T03973.

other differences, the presence of a glycine residue at position 99 (numbering according to S. cerevisiae H2A) seems to be a hallmark of H2A (versus H2A.Z). Conversely, the exchange of an asparagine for an aspartic acid in position 95 as well as the exchange of proline 118 for leucine are signatures of H2A.Z. All analyzed fungi but one were found to possess one histone H2A variant and one or more canonical H2A. Indeed, the Basidiomycota Melampsora larici-populina, the poplar leaf rust, hit on three proteins that all cluster with other H2A proteins. Regarding H2A, while all Pezizomycotina seem to possess one single H2A, yeasts and Basidiomycota have a varying number of them. Only the yeast Yarrowia lipolytica and the Basidiomycota Ustilago maydis are exceptions with one single H2A protein detected in their proteomes.

Chromatin remodelling complexes mediate H2A.Z exchange for H2A

Functions of H2A.Z in cells are linked to the dynamics of its deposition and removal from nucleosomes. These processes are mediated by several ATP-dependent chromatin remodelling complexes, often referred to as complexes belonging to the SWI/SNF or SNF2 superfamily (van Attikum et al. [2007;](#page-13-0) Gerhold and Gasser [2014\)](#page-14-0). Typically, SNF2 proteins contain two conserved motives, the DEXDc (DEAD-like helicases) and HelicC (helicase superfamily c-terminal domain) subdomains, which together constitute the ATPase domain and can use the energy derived from ATP hydrolysis to modify chromatin structure (Lusser and Kadonaga [2003](#page-15-0); Smith and Peterson [2005](#page-16-0)). This superfamily of proteins

Figure 2. Phylogenetic tree based on H2A C-terminal domain homology. Domains were aligned with hmmalign programme from HMMER3 suite using the PFAM HMM model PF16211 (Bateman et al. [2000](#page-13-0); Eddy [2009\)](#page-14-0). Texts in red are H2A.Z, identified for their protein sequence homology with S. cerevisiae Htz1; texts in black are H2A, identified for their protein sequence homology with S. cerevisiae H2A. Texts with light green background are species belong to class Eurotiomycetes, dark green are species belong to class Sordariomycetes, blue are species belong division Basidiomycota, orange are species belong to class Dothideomycetes. Texts without background are other species.

consists of a large range of chromatin remodellers of varying functions, including histone dimer exchange (Ryan and Owen-Hughes [2011\)](#page-16-0). [Figure 3](#page-5-0) is a schematic

representation of yeast subunits of chromatin remodelling complexes SWR1, INO80, and NuA4 that relate to exchange of H2A.Z, histone post-translational

Figure 3. Proteins identified as subunits of SWR1, INO80 and NuA4 complexes in S. cerevisiae. Circles include subunits belonging to the complex indicated in the corresponding white tag. Overlaps between complexes are common subunits.

modification as well as DNA repair. Strikingly, several protein subunits are shared between the three complexes, for example, Arp4p and Act1p are found in all of them, reflecting the close association between SWR1, INO80 and NuA4 complex.

The SWR-C/SWR1 complex

In S. cerevisae, the complex SWR1 belonging to SNF2 family is involved in the deposition of H2A.Z (Kobor et al. [2004](#page-15-0)). It can replace H2A-H2B with H2A.Z-H2B dimers. Yeast SWR1 complex includes 13 subunits. Among them, Act1p, Arp4p, Swc4p, Rvb1p, and Rvb2p are essential for cell viability, since the absence of any of the respective coding genes is lethal for the organism. In contrast, subunits Swr1p (catalytic subunit), Yaf9p, Arp6p, Swc2p, Swc3p, Swc5p, Swc6p, and Swc7p are not essential but are required for optimal function of the complex (Krogan et al. [2003](#page-15-0); Kobor et al. [2004;](#page-15-0) Mizuguchi et al. [2004\)](#page-16-0). Complexes similar to the yeast SWR1 have been characterised in other organisms including mammalians and plants. In humans, two complexes seem related to SWR1, namely SRCAP and Tip60/ p400. In SRCAP complex, the SNF2 protein SRCAP (SWI2/SNF2-related CBP activator protein) is identified as the ortholog of Swr1p, contributing to the recruitment of H2A.Z variants on nucleosomes (Houjian Cai et al. [2006;](#page-13-0) Ruhl et al. [2006;](#page-16-0) Wong et al. [2007\)](#page-17-0). The Tip60/p400 complex contains several chromatin-modifying enzymes, such as p400 ATPase and the Tip60 histone acetyltransferase, which also shows high sequence

resemblance to Swr1p and SRCAP (Ikura et al. [2000](#page-15-0); Eissenberg, Wong, and Chrivia [2005\)](#page-14-0). In Drosophila, the dTIP60 complex mediates the deposition of H2A.Z. The Domino protein, an ortholog of the yeast Swr1p, has been indicated as the catalytic subunit of the complex (Kusch et al. [2004](#page-15-0)).

The INO80 complex

H2A.Z can be actively removed from nucleosomes by chromatin remodellers. In yeast and human, the SWR1 related Inositol requiring 80 (INO80) complex can remove H2A.Z from nucleosomes (Morrison and Shen [2009](#page-16-0); Tosi et al. [2013](#page-17-0); Alatwi and Downs [2015](#page-13-0)). INO80 complex is another subfamily of the SNF2 family that shares several subunits with SWR1 complex, and is usually related to DNA double-strand break (DSB) repair (Clapier and Cairns [2009;](#page-14-0) Chen et al. [2013\)](#page-14-0). In humans, ANP32E is a histone chaperone reported to function by removing H2A.Z (Mao et al. [2014;](#page-15-0) Obri et al. [2014\)](#page-16-0). Homolog of INO80 has also been identified in Arabidopsis, in contrast with its function in yeast and animals, it preferentially facilitates the enrichment of H2A.Z at the ends of repressor genes, at the main floral Flowering Locus C (FLC) and MADS Affecting Flowering 4/5 (MAF4/5) (Zhang et al. [2015](#page-17-0)). Therefore, the roles of INO80 involving in H2A.Z exchange may be species or gene specific.

The NuA4 complex

The NuA4 histone acetyltransferase complex has a strong genetic and functional link with SWR1 complex.

They share four subunits including Arp4p, Act1p, Yaf9p and Swc4p [\(Figure 3\)](#page-5-0). Additionally, the subunit Eaf1p has significant homology to Swr1p outside of the SWI/ SNF-related ATPase domain (Auger et al. [2008](#page-13-0); Altaf et al. [2010](#page-13-0)). In human and yeast, it was shown that the ability of SWR1 to replace canonical H2A from nucleosome by H2A.Z is greatly enhanced due to the prior acetylation of chromatin by NuA4, probably the subunit Eaf1p (Doyon and Côté [2004](#page-14-0); Jin et al. [2005](#page-15-0); Auger et al. [2008](#page-13-0); Altaf et al. [2010](#page-13-0)). It was also observed that acetylation of histone H4 in yeast by Esa1p, the catalytic component of NuA4, is required for DNA double-strand break repair (Bird et al. [2002](#page-13-0)).

Homologs of most subunits of S. cerevisiae SWR1, INO80, NuA4 complexes can be found in filamentous fungi, such as in the sordariomycetes N. crassa and F. graminearum and the eurotiomycete A. nidulans [\(Table](#page-7-0) [1\)](#page-7-0). Protein sequences of S. cerevisiae Swr1p (belongs to SWR1 complex), Snf2p (belongs to INO80 complex) and Esa1p (belongs to NuA4 complex) were aligned [\(Figure](#page-8-0) [4;](#page-8-0) [Supplemental Figures S2, S3,](#page-4-0) [and](#page-8-0) S4). These proteins are identified as catalytic subunits of each complex. As shown in the results, highly conserved regions of the three proteins can be found in all fungi investigated. We believe that similar processes of H2A.Z exchange also occur in filamentous fungi. However, details of the process may differ from S. cerevisiae, because compositions of SWR1, INO80 and NuA4 complex are not totally equal between these species. For example, homolog of Yng2p, an essential subunit of NuA4 in S. cerevisiae, which is important for the efficient acetylation of histone H4 or histone H2A, is not found in N. crassa, A. nidulans, and F. graminearum. Therefore, the already known functions and mechanisms of H2A.Z exchange in any other species including yeast cannot be copied directly to filamentous fungi. The potential role of H2A.Z in filamentous fungi needs further investigation.

Post-translational modifications of H2A.Z

PTMs such as acetylation, phosphorylation, methylation, ubiquitylation and sumoylation have been abundantly described on N-terminal tails of canonical histones. They would influence the overall chromatin state by altering inter-nucleosomes interactions and finally regulate gene expression (Bannister and Kouzarides [2011;](#page-13-0) Audia and Campbell [2016](#page-13-0)). Similarly, PTMs also occur on the histone variant H2A.Z, leading to differences in the biochemical properties of H2A.Z-containing nucleosomes and marking functional regions of chromatin (Hu et al. [2011;](#page-15-0) Binda et al. [2013\)](#page-13-0). N-terminal tail of H2A.Z is extensively acetylated on lysines K4, K7, K11 and K13,

correlating with gene activation (Bruce et al. [2005](#page-13-0); Boyne et al. [2006](#page-13-0); Ku et al. [2012](#page-15-0); Valdés-Mora et al. [2012;](#page-17-0) Hu et al. [2013\)](#page-14-0). NuA4 is a histone acetyltransferase complex that shares several subunits with the SWR1 and INO80 complex [\(Figure 3](#page-5-0)). Their primary acetylation targets are lysines of histone H4. More recently, the function of NuA4 was shown to also involve the acetylation of H2A.Z (Smith et al. [1998;](#page-16-0) Allard et al. [1999](#page-13-0); Keogh et al. [2006\)](#page-15-0).

H2A.Z can also be mono-ubiquitinated at lysines K120, K121, and K125, mediated by the Polycomb Repressive Complex 1 (PRC1) (Sarcinella et al. [2007](#page-16-0); Draker et al. [2011;](#page-14-0) Ku et al. [2012](#page-15-0)). This modification is generally considered as a silencing mark and appears to occur solely in mammals (Sarcinella et al. [2007](#page-16-0)). SUMO (Small Ubiquitin-like MOdifier) proteins are similar to ubiquitin and can also be covalently linked to lysines (Sevilla and Binda [2014](#page-16-0)). In S. cerevisiae, H2A.Z can be SUMOylated at lysines 126 and 133, and play an important role in DNA repair by relocating unrepaired chromosomal breaks to nuclear periphery (Kalocsay et al. [2009\)](#page-15-0).

H2A.Z further regulates gene expression through collaborating with other histone marks, particularly those on H3. For example, both in human and mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells, H2A.Z is co-localized with trimethylation of K4 (H3K4me3) and K27 (H3K27me3) of histone H3 at both promoters and enhancers of genes involved in cell differentiation. In eukaryotic cells, H3K4me3 could create higher chromatin accessibility and is normally associated with transcriptional activation, while H3K27me3 is considered to mediate gene silencing (Santos-Rosa et al. [2002](#page-16-0); Creyghton et al. [2008;](#page-14-0) Ku et al. [2012](#page-15-0); Hu et al. [2013](#page-14-0)). In contrast, reduced H2A.Z deposition at the anthocyanin biosynthesis genes in Arabidopsis is accompanied by a great increase in H3K4me3 but a decrease in H3K27me3, consistent with enhanced expression levels (Carter et al. [2018](#page-13-0); Hanyang Cai et al. [2019\)](#page-13-0). Moreover, it seems that H2A.Z can act as a functional substitute for H3K9me3 in chromatin for the recruitment of Heterochromatin Protein 1 (HP1) (Ryan and Tremethick [2018\)](#page-16-0).

Recent studies indicated that SMs of many filamentous fungal are regulated by epigenetic modifications. Among them, histone methylation becomes the major currently known methods of modification. Even though deletion of HP1, which is linked with H3K9me3 and H2A.Z, did not show any cytological or morphological defect in F. graminearum, whereas HP1 is required for normal growth in N. crassa (Freitag et al. [2004](#page-14-0)), several SM gene clusters were up or down regulated (Reyes-Dominguez et al. [2012\)](#page-16-0). For example, in the HP1

a
Red: subunits of SWR1 complex; green: subunits of INO80 complex; yellow: subunits of NuA4 complex; blue: subunits shared by these three complexes; grey: subunits shared by SWR1 and NuA4 complex; purple: subunits shared by INO80 and SWR1 complex.

deletion mutant of F . graminearum, the expression of AUR genes required for the production of the pigment aurofusarin was greatly enhanced, while gene expression and metabolites involved in the deoxynivalenol (DON) pathway were inhibited. However, the absence of HP1 led to an increase of the heterochromatic mark

H3K9me3 in both gene clusters (Reyes-Dominguez et al. [2012](#page-16-0)). In F. verticillioides, mutants lacking Dim5 (or Kmt1), a lysine histone methyltransferase enzyme mediating H3K9me3 deposition, showed significant defects in fungal development and pathogenicity but increased tolerance to osmotic stress (Gu et al. [2017\)](#page-14-0). Anothertwo

Figure 4. Partial alignments of conserved domains of subunits Swr1p (A), Snf2p (B) and Esa1p (C) in S. cerevisiae, N. crassa, A. nidulans, and F. graminearum. A. DEAD-box domains (Helicase_C PFAM PF00271) of subunits Swr1p. B. DEAD-box domains (Helicase_C PFAM PF00271) of subunits Snf2p. C. MOZ_SAS (PF01853) found in acetyltransferases. For all alignments, sequences are numbered according to S. cerevisiae sequences. Alignments were performed with CLC Workbench 20.0 and secondary structures were predicted from S. cerevisiae Swr1p, Snf2p, and Esa1p experimental models (PDB accession 6GEJ, 5Z3L, and 1MJA, respectively) using ESpript 3.0. Identical residues are highlighted in red, highly similar ones are boxed in yellow. Helices are represented as squiggles, ß-strands with arrows, and turn as TT. Gene IDs are listed in [Table 1.](#page-7-0) Full alignments are proposed in [Supplemental Figures S2, S3,](#page-4-0) and S4.

histone PTMs, H3K4me2/3 and H3K27me3, which have been proved to co-localize with H2A.Z, also play critical roles in the regulation of SMs production in filamentous fungi (Connolly et al. [2013;](#page-14-0) Liu et al. [2015\)](#page-15-0). H3K4me2 is indeed required for the active transcription of genes involved in DON and aurofusarin biosynthesis in F. graminearum, although H3K4me3 is dispensable for DON production (Liu et al. [2015\)](#page-15-0). In the same species, ChIPsequencing showed that extensive segments, covering a third of the genome, were enriched with H3K27me3 (Connolly et al. [2013](#page-14-0)). Removal of the mark by mutation of the methyltransferase subunit (KMT6) resulted in the activation of more than 1500 genes, predominantly genes involved in the production or detoxification of SM or predicted to play a role in pathogenicity. Thus, H3K27me3 acts as a repressor of genes in F. graminearum (Connolly et al. [2013](#page-14-0)). In F. fujikuroi, KMT6 appears to be essential. Knock down of KMT6 reduced H3K27me3 levels at the respective gene loci and induced four otherwise silent putative SM gene clusters accompanied by the accumulation of novel metabolites (Studt et al. [2016\)](#page-16-0).

In summary, H2A.Z deposition or eviction on chromatin is associated with various PTMs such as H3K4me3, H3K27me3 to control the accessibility of chromatin. In filamentous fungi, even though no research has been carried out to investigate whether H2A.Z functions in SM production, more and more studies provide evidence that histone PTMs are key factors involved in these pathways. We hypothesize that H2A.Z also plays major roles in filamentous fungi to regulate the biosynthesis of SMs.

H2A.Z in controlling gene transcription

Roles of H2A.Z in controlling gene transcription have been extensively studied in humans, Drosophila melanogaster, A. thaliana and budding yeast, and recently reviewed with a focus on its action in gene regulation (Giaimo et al. [2019\)](#page-14-0). According to genome-wide localization maps of H2A.Z, nucleosomes containing H2A.Z are widespread in the organisms analyzed, but the distribution and density of H2A.Z vary between different chromosomes (Leach et al. [2000](#page-15-0); Zhang et al. [2005;](#page-17-0) Guillemette and Gaudreau [2006\)](#page-14-0). It is indicated that H2A.Z variant is preferentially enriched at the regions of transcriptional start sites (TSS) (Raisner et al. [2005;](#page-16-0) Guillemette and Gaudreau [2006](#page-14-0); Mavrich et al. [2008;](#page-15-0) Zilberman et al. [2008\)](#page-17-0), which suggested a relationship between H2A.Z and gene transcription. However, significant arguments still exist about whether and how

this histone variant is involved in transcriptional regulation.

RNA polymerase II (RNAPII) is a multiprotein complex found in eukaryotic cells which catalyzes the transcription of DNA to synthesize precursors of mRNA and most snRNA and microRNA (Kornberg [1999](#page-15-0); Sims et al. [2004\)](#page-16-0). As a general transcription factor, the TATA-binding protein (TBP) binds specifically to a DNA sequence called the TATA box in the promoter region of genes to initiate the recruitment of other factors required for RNA Pol II to begin transcription (Kornberg [2007](#page-15-0)). In yeast, RNAPII and TBP could not be efficiently recruited to GAL1-10 promoter in cells lacking H2A.Z (Adam et al. [2001\)](#page-13-0). Meanwhile, the elongation rate of RNAPII was slower in the absence of H2A.Z (Santisteban et al. [2011\)](#page-16-0). Generally, the entry site of the first $(+1)$ nucleosome is a larger barrier for RNAPII transiting for essentially all genes in Drosophila, while gene body nucleosomes are low barriers. Therefore, RNAPII would stall both at the entry site and near the dyad axis. Notably, H2A.Z enrichment at the $+1$ nucleosome correlates with decreased RNAPII stalling and depletion of H2A.Z from a nucleosome position results in a higher barrier to RNAPII, suggesting that the high-energy barrier to RNAPII progression can be tuned by H2A.Z deposition. Meanwhile, H2A.Z incorporation at the $+1$ nucleosome regulates productive elongation by facilitating H2A.Z/H2B dimer loss without depletion of (H3- $H4)_2$ tetramers as H2A.Z levels anti-correlate with nucleosome turnover (Weber et al. [2014;](#page-17-0) Subramanian et al. [2015\)](#page-17-0). Thus, H2A.Z deposition acts as an activator of gene transcription. Consistent with this idea, during the induced somatic cell reprogramming of mice, increased level of H2A.Z was detected in the high expressed genes involved in response to stress (hypoxia, oxygen levels, steroid hormone stimulus). Furthermore in mice, Rispal et al. ([2019](#page-16-0)) found that decrease of H2A.Z at promoters inhibits the binding of the CDX2 intestine-specific transcription factor. The authors proposed that genes containing H2A.Z can be easily marked as active signals for the recruitment of acetyltransferase enzyme complexes and supply access for the binding of transcription factors (Peserico and Simone [2011;](#page-16-0) Dong et al. [2016](#page-14-0)). However, a recent study in N. crassa revealed that H2A.Z is present at TSS of the oxidative stress resistant gene catalase-3 and function as a negative regulator (Dong et al. [2018](#page-14-0)). Under non-inductive condition, H2A.Z counteracts the positive effects of the transcription factor at cat-3 locus, CPC1, to achieve low level of cat-3 expression. Upon oxidative stress, H2A.Z is rapidly evicted from cat-3 locus to facilitate the recruitment of CPC1, contributing

to robust and full cat-3 gene expression in response to external stimuli. Therefore, H2A.Z is here regarded as barrier for RNAPII transiting (Dong et al. [2018](#page-14-0)).

The deposition of H2A.Z also relates to DNA methylation, one of several epigenetic marks that cells use to control negatively gene transcription. In A. thaliana, it is reported that H2A.Z prevents genes from DNA methylation and reduce gene activity. Meanwhile, H2A.Z can also be excluded from the site of DNA methylation in the bodies of actively transcribed genes and in methylated transposons to affect gene silencing (Zilberman et al. [2008](#page-17-0)). Recently, however, further study demonstrated that there is only minor influence on the level of DNA methylation in a novel H2A.Z loss-function line of A. thaliana (Coleman-Derr and Zilberman [2012](#page-14-0)). In addition, the highest and lowest expressed genes have the least H2A.Z enrichment near TSS. Within gene bodies, H2A.Z deposition positively regulates gene responsiveness, but may negative correlates with gene constitutive expression. The authors suggested that a major function of gene body DNA methylation is to prevent the incorporation of H2A.Z within gene bodies, and thus stabilize the expression of constitutive genes, and on the other hand H2A.Z deposition within unmethylated gene bodies could promote the expression of inducible genes, including genes response to developmental, biotic and abiotic stimuli (Coleman-Derr and Zilberman [2012](#page-14-0)). More recently, another study on A. thaliana also suggested that H2A.Z in gene bodies has a strong repressive effect on transcription, whereas in $+1$ nucleosomes, it is important for maintaining the activity of some genes (Sura et al. [2017\)](#page-17-0). These findings are consistent with results in yeast indicating that H2A.Z incorporates in coding regions of genes that are involved in genotoxic stress responses (Sadeghi et al. [2011](#page-16-0)). In addition, Hartley and Madhani [\(2009](#page-14-0)) found in budding yeast that H2A.Z deposition is dispensable for nucleosome positioning, while the establishment of nucleosome-free region is necessary for H2A.Z deposition. Finally, another study in yeast demonstrated that H2A.Z is selectively enriched at $5'$ regions of both active and inactive genes (Raisner et al. [2005](#page-16-0)). No correlation between the levels of H2A.Z deposition and either the transcription rate or RNA polymerase II occupancy can be observed (Raisner et al. [2005](#page-16-0)). Therefore, role of H2AZ in controlling gene transcription appears to be versatile and highly dependent on chromatin context.

Roles of H2A.Z on DNA repair

DNA double-strand breaks (DSB) occur as a result of genome damage, and cells have developed two major

repair pathways: homologous recombination (HR) and the non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) (Hiom [2010](#page-14-0); Grabarz et al. [2013](#page-14-0)). During DSB repair, a relaxed and open chromatin domain is required to facilitate the loading of repair factors (Kim et al. [2007](#page-15-0); Sartori et al. [2007\)](#page-16-0). Before the recruitment of 53BP1p and brca1p in the NHEJ pathway, components binding to the break site contain a variety of factors including MRX (MRN) complex and Ku proteins Ku70 and Ku80 (Daley and Sung [2014\)](#page-14-0). HR pathway is also initiated by the MRX complex in particular, then followed by the recruitment of other factors including such as RAD51 protein (Chatterjee and Walker [2017\)](#page-13-0). In budding yeast, strains lacking the subunit of INO80 complex Ino80p, Arp5p, or Arp8p are hypersensitive to DNA damaging agents and to DSBs induced by the HO endonuclease (Attikum et al. [2004\)](#page-13-0). ChIP experiments showed that Ino80p, Arp5p, and Arp8p are recruited to an HO-induced DSB, where a phosphorylated form of H2A accumulates, indicating that INO80-mediated chromatin remodelling appears to facilitate processing of the DSBs repair (Attikum et al. [2004\)](#page-13-0). Another study in yeast found H2A.Z is rapidly but transiently deposited at the break area and it is involved in DSB tethering. Meanwhile, H2A.Z SUMOylation is needed for DSB relocation (Kalocsay et al. [2009\)](#page-15-0). In human 293T cells, H2A.Z seems to be directly involved in the regulation of DSB repair through the HR and NHEJ pathway (Xu et al. [2012\)](#page-17-0). It was observed rapidly and reversibly exchanged by p400 motor ATPase onto a unique DSB, promotes the acetylation and ubiquitination of histones, function together to shift the chromatin to an open domain at the site of DSB damage, therefore helps the loading of brca1 complex (Xu et al. [2012](#page-17-0)). H2A.Z exchange also restricts single-stranded DNA production by nucleases and is essential for loading of the Ku70/Ku80 DSB repair protein (Xu et al. [2012\)](#page-17-0). Further analyses showed that, in mammalian cells, the deposition of H2A.Z on nucleosomes at DSBs is transient; it can be removed from chromatin flanking DNA damage by INO80 and histone chaperone Anp32e rapidly, which promotes DSB repair (Alatwi and Downs [2015;](#page-13-0) Gursoy-Yuzugullu et al. [2015](#page-14-0)). Here, the authors propose the rapid eviction of H2A.Z releases H4 tail for acetylation, thus disrupting interactions between nucleosomes, contributing to an open and flexible chromatin. By contrast, Taty-Taty et al. ([2014](#page-17-0)) found the absence of H2A.Z impaired cell proliferation and viability but did not lead to any DSB repair defects in the osteosarcoma U2OS cell lines and Timmortalized human fibroblasts. There was also no H2A.Z recruitment around DSBs that could be detected (Taty-Taty et al. [2014](#page-17-0)). Different ways of obtaining

H2A.Z depletion may help explain the controversy. Xu et al. used shRNA to achieve a long-term and robust depletion, while Taty-Taty et al. only obtained a partial reduction in H2A.Z expression. Taken together, these studies revealed that H2A.Z plays a critical role in remodelling chromatin structure at DSBs. The underlying molecular mechanism might be that H2A.Z is actively accumulated on nucleosomes at DSBs. However, the H2A.Z-H2B dimer could be rapidly removed by INO80 complex and the histone chaperone ANE32E, resulting in loss of acidic patch and release of the H4 tail for acetylation by Tip60. Histone acetylation at DSBs can create a more open conformation of chromatin and further promotes ubiquitylation, which is necessary for the loading of braca1.

In filamentous fungi, many homologs of DNA repair factors of S. cerevisiae have been identified. For example, genetic and molecular analyses of Neurospora mutants revealed that MEI-3 (homolog of RAD51p), MUS-51 and MUS-52 (homologs of Ku70p and Ku80p) are involved in the HR and NHEJ pathway, respectively (Hatakeyama et al. [1995](#page-14-0); Ninomiya et al. [2004](#page-16-0); Ishibashi et al. [2006](#page-15-0)). Compared to yeast, HR frequencies in filamentous fungi are extremely low, meaning that DNA DSBs are predominantly repaired by NHEJ, which makes generation of gene knock-out mutants by HR time-consuming Ishibashi et al. [2006](#page-15-0); (Nielsen et al. [2006;](#page-16-0) Nielsen, Nielsen, and Mortensen [2008](#page-16-0)). Therefore, studies have been extensively carried out to increase the efficiency of gene targeting by inhibiting NHEJ. Indeed, better success at gene targeting has been observed in KU-deficient mutants of N. crassa, Aspergillus nidulans, A. fumigatus, A. sojae, A. oryzae, and Cryptococcus neoformans. Taking into account the roles of H2A.Z in HR and NHEJ pathway in other organisms including yeast, maybe it is another potential target for the optimization of gene targeting in filamentous fungi.

H2A.Z affects nucleosome stability

Within the nucleosome, histone-histone or histone-DNA interactions play an important role in the stability of the entire particle. In some cases, H2A.Z stabilizes nucleosome structure (Park et al. [2004;](#page-16-0) Thambirajah et al. [2006;](#page-17-0) Jin and Felsenfeld [2007\)](#page-15-0). When using fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) to compare nucleosomes containing the histone variant H2A.Z with canonical nucleosomes containing replication-dependent major histones, the dissociation of the (H2A.Z-H2B) dimer from the nucleosome occurs at higher salt concentrations, and over a broader salt range compared with the (H2A-H2B) dimer. A similar study revealed that

H2A.Z could stabilize chromatin, but it is dependent on the acetylation of core histones (Thambirajah et al. [2006\)](#page-17-0). Jin and Felsenfeld [\(2007\)](#page-15-0) reported that all nucleosome core particles (NCPs) contain H3.3 reduced stability compared with H3 NCPs. in addition, NCPs that contain both H3.3 and H2A.Z are even less stable than NCPs containing H3.3 and H2A. Intriguingly, NCPs containing H3 and H2A.Z are at least as stable as H3/H2A NCPs. By contrast, some studies indicated that even though the crystal structure of NCP containing H2A.Z is similar to that of the nucleosome structure containing major histone proteins, histone H2A.Z variant may result in subtle destabilization of chromatin, which may be important for transcriptional activation (Suto et al. [2000;](#page-17-0) Abbott et al. [2001;](#page-13-0) Zhang et al. [2005\)](#page-17-0). The partners of H2A.Z within NCP may thus be key factors in determining nucleosome stability (Jin and Felsenfeld [2007\)](#page-15-0). When H2A.Z is coupled with H3, it might form an unusually stable chromatin conformation. Otherwise, it may destabilize the nucleosomes. Such characteristics are consistent with the physiological roles of H2A.Z, especially its involvement in the transcriptional regulation and DNA repair.

In fungi, most of the studies of NCP focus on S. cerevisiae; the NCP of filamentous fungi has been much less characterized. Using predicted-predicted protein interactions based on knowledge transfer from other eukaryotes (Szklarczyk et al. [2019](#page-17-0)), H2A.Z is likely to interact extensively with other proteins through both direct or indirect ways in F. graminearum [\(Figure 5;](#page-12-0) Letunic et al. [2015;](#page-15-0) Letunic and Bork [2018](#page-15-0)). For example, according to this network, the relationship between H2A.Z and Swr1p has been experimentally determined in yeast and humans, while it is predicted to co-occur with RuvB-like helicase1, histone H4 as well as an uncharacterized protein. There is also a co-expression with histone H2B and H3 [\(Figure 5\)](#page-12-0). In future studies on roles of H2A.Z in controlling nucleosome stability, validating such predictions in filamentous fungi and taking into account the interaction of H2A.Z with other proteins may enlighten us more on the functions fulfilled.

Conclusions

Chromatin is a highly dynamic architecture mainly controlled by three ways, including ATP-dependent chromatin remodelling, histone variants and PTMs, and DNA methylation. H2A.Z is a highly conserved histone variant which can be deposited or removed from chromatin by the chromatin remodelling complex SWR1 or INO80, respectively. This process is accompanied by various histone PTMs as well as the conditions of DNA

Gene name	Annotation	Gene ID
H2A.Z	Histone Variant H2A.Z	FGRAMPH1 01G03973
H2B	Histone H ₂ B	FGRAMPH1 01G26111
H ₃	Histone H3	FGRAMPH1 01G14931
Spt16	FACT complex subunit SPT16	FGRAMPH1 01G07139
CENP-T hypothetical	Histone H4 partial	FGRAMPH1 01G14929
Ryb ₁	RuvB-like helicase 1	FGRAMPH1 01G17223
Asf1	Histone chaperone ASF1	FGRAMPH1 01G00927
Swr1	Helicase SWR1	FGRAMPH1 01G18675
jmJ demethylase	JmjC domain-containing histone demethylase; targets	FGRAMPH1 01G03799
	tri- and dimethylated H3K36; predicted	
CENP-A	Histone H3 centromeric variant, putative	FGRAMPH1 01G06247
CENP-T hypothetical	Histone H4 partial	FGRAMPH1 01G18051

Figure 5. Predicted functional partners of H2A.Z in F. graminearum. FgH2A.Z (FGRAMPH1_01G03973P0) was used as query for The Simple Modular Architecture Research Tool (SMART; (Letunic et al. [2015;](#page-15-0) Letunic and Bork [2018\)](#page-15-0) to predict the corresponding interacting network of proteins pulling data from the Protein-Protein Interaction Networks data base STRING (Szklarczyk et al. [2019\)](#page-17-0) using default settings. Each node represents all the proteins produced by a single, protein-coding gene locus. Edges represent protein-protein associations colour coded by source of information (see legend in the figure).

methylation, finally leading to the change of chromatin state. Normally, a more opened, flexible chromatin is necessary for many biological processes such as gene transcription and binding of DSB repair factors. According to the studies mentioned above, the status of chromatin in response to H2A.Z exchange varies between organisms, gene types as well as locations, meaning that the function of H2A.Z is very likely context-specific. It can act as a positive regulator under certain conditions, but might also be a negative regulator. Specific properties of H2A.Z-containing nucleosomes also linked with the incorporation with other histones or histone variants. For example, it was suggested that nucleosomes containing both H2A.Z and H3.3 histone

variants are much less stable than nucleosomes of other composition (Jin and Felsenfeld [2007\)](#page-15-0).

In filamentous fungi, regulation of SMs biosynthesis is highly linked to patterns of deposition of epigenetic markers such as H3K27me3, H3K4me3, and HP1. According to previous studies carried out in other species, some of these markers always co-localize with H2A.Z, suggesting the potential role of H2A.Z involved in filamentous fungi. Indeed, in N. crassa, it is reported that under normal and oxidative stress conditions, H2A.Z antagonized the positive effect of the transcriptional activator CPC1 to regulate the expression of catalase-3, an oxidative resistant gene (Dong et al. [2018\)](#page-14-0). To date, this is the only study that focuses on H2A.Z in

filamentous fungi. As illustrated above, homologs of yeast Swr1p, Snf2p and Esa1p subunits, which are involved in the deposition/removal/acetylation of H2A.Z, can be identified in both F. graminearum and F. fujikuroi. We guess that H2A.Z also plays critical roles in central biological processes of Fusarium species, including the secondary metabolism.

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