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# The histone chaperones ASF1 and HIRA are required for telomere length and 45S rDNA copy number homeostasis

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## SUMMARY

Genome stability is significantly influenced by the precise coordination of chromatin complexes that facilitate the loading and eviction of histones from chromatin during replication, transcription, and DNA repair processes. In this study, we investigate the role of the Arabidopsis H3 histone chaperones ANTI-SILENCING FUNCTION 1 (ASF1) and HISTONE REGULATOR A (HIRA) in the maintenance of telomeres and 45S rDNA loci, genomic sites that are particularly susceptible to changes in the chromatin structure. We find that both ASF1 and HIRA are essential for telomere length regulation, as telomeres are significantly shorter in asf1a1b and hira mutants. However, these shorter telomeres remain localized around the nucleolus and exhibit a comparable relative H3 occupancy to the wild type. In addition to regulating telomere length, ASF1 and HIRA contribute to silencing 45S rRNA genes and affect their copy number. Besides, ASF1 supports global heterochromatin maintenance. Our findings also indicate that ASF1 transiently binds to the TELOMERE REPEAT BINDING 1 protein and the N terminus of telomerase in vivo, suggesting a physical link between the ASF1 histone chaperone and the telomere maintenance machinery.

Keywords: chromatin, telomeres, histone chaperones, ASF1, HIRA, 45S rDNA, Arabidopsis thaliana.

## INTRODUCTION

Chromatin is composed of chains of nucleosomes, each comprising approximately 146 base pairs of DNA wrapped around an octamer of H3, H4, H2A, and H2B histones. Histones exist in the form of different histone variants providing distinct structural and functional attributes to the nucleosome and are subject to numerous post-translational modifications, thereby modifying DNA accessibility and contributing to controlling access of DNA repair, replication, and transcription machinery (Buschbeck & Hake, 2017; Probst et al., 2020). The

accurate storage, deposition, and turnover of histones are mediated by protein complexes called histone chaperones (Li et al., 2019; Typas, 2023).

In yeast, plants, and vertebrates, H3–H4 histones are handled by several histone chaperones, including ANTI-SILENCING FUNCTION 1 (ASF1A and ASF1B) (Le et al., 1997; Moshkin et al., 2002; Zhu et al., 2011), the HIS-TONE REGULATOR A (HIRA) (Duc et al., 2015; Lamour et al., 1995; Nie et al., 2014; Ray-Gallet et al., 2002), and the CHROMATIN ASSEMBLY FACTOR 1 (CAF-1) complex (Kaufman et al., 1995; Tyler et al., 1999). In Arabidopsis

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thaliana, the latter consists of FASCIATA 1 (FAS1), FAS-CIATA 2 (FAS2), and MULTICOPY SUPPRESSOR OF IRA 1 (MSI1) (Kaya et al., 2001; Kirik et al., 2006). CAF-1 is responsible for the deposition of H3.1 in a DNA-synthesisdependent manner (Benoit et al., 2019; Jiang & Berger, 2017; Verreault et al., 1996). The HIRA complex comprising UBINUCLEIN (UBN1 and 2), CABIN 1, and HIRA (Duc et al., 2015; Nie et al., 2014) mainly deposits H3.3 throughout the cell cycle through DNA-synthesisindependent assembly during transcription and DNA repair (Adam et al., 2013; Bouvier et al., 2021; Ray-Gallet et al., 2002; Torne et al., 2020). ASF1 proteins bind H3–H4 dimers without distinguishing between replicative H3.1 and replacement H3.3 histone variants (English et al., 2006; Le Goff et al., 2020).

Despite the strong conservation of histone chaperones and their functions, variations across different model systems provide interesting insight into functional specifications. For instance, yeast has one ASF1 protein, whereas mammals have two paralogs, ASF1A and ASF1B (Abascal et al., 2013). Both interact with CAF-1's middle-size (p60) subunit and are essential for S-phase progression, but only ASF1A interacts with HIRA (Abascal et al., 2013; Groth et al., 2007; Tagami et al., 2004; Tyler et al., 1999). Arabidopsis has also two mostly functionally redundant ASF1 paralogs, with abnormal phenotypes only observed upon the loss of both (Min et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2011).

Plant ASF1 proteins play a role in replication and DNA repair processes, as evidenced by the altered S phase and sensitivity to replication fork stalling (Zhu et al., 2011). which may relate to its function in buffering excess histones as in mammals (Groth et al., 2007). A recent study showed the formation of HIRA-ASF1A or ASF1B complexes, indicating ASF1's predominant role in replication-independent nucleosome assembly (Zhong et al., 2022).

Arabidopsis plants deficient in ASF1, CAF-1, or HIRA exhibit altered distribution of H3.1 and H3.3 (Kolarova et al., 2021; Otero et al., 2016; Wollmann et al., 2012; Zhong et al., 2022) and changed nucleosome positioning (Duc et al., 2015; Munoz-Viana et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2022). Notably, hira mutants display nucleosome occupancy changes in transcribed regions and heterochromatin (Duc et al., 2015; Nie et al., 2014), while in fas2 mutants, non-transcribed regions are more affected (Munoz-Viana et al., 2017, Zhong et al., 2022). The nucleosome landscape in asf1a1b resembles that of hira mutants (Zhong et al., 2022).

Proper chromatin assembly through the accurate deposition, turnover, and modifications of histones is important not only for the stability of the epigenome but also for genome integrity. This is illustrated by the progressive loss of 45S ribosomal RNA gene copies (45S rDNA) or telomeres in fas1 and fas2 plants (Mozgova et al., 2010). Due to their repetitive nature, these loci are challenging to replicate and are especially sensitive to changes in chromatin composition (Dvorackova et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2021).

Telomeres are key elements in resolving the end-replication problem and end protection (McClintock, 1930; Olovnikov, 1992; Richards & Ausubel, 1988). This is mediated through the Shelterin protein complex (de Lange, 2005; Weinert, 2005) and by telomerase (Fajkus et al., 1998; Greider & Blackburn, 1985, 1996). TELOMERE REPEAT BINDING FACTORs 1–3 (AtTRB1-3) are part of Arabidopsis' telomere protective complex (Hofr et al., 2009; Schrumpfova et al., 2014, 2019). They interact with components of telomerase (Lermontova et al., 2007; Schorova et al., 2019; Schrumpfova et al., 2014), localize to telomeres, and accumulate in the nucleolus (Dreissig et al., 2017; Dvorackova et al., 2010), possibly affecting telomerase function and trafficking, similar to their role in mammals (Lee et al., 2014; Schrumpfova et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2002). Additionally, plant telomeres belong to the nucleolus-associated domains (Pontvianne et al., 2013).

Recent work confirmed an old hypothesis that telomere chromatin is arranged in a columnar structure, which may cause higher susceptibility to DNA damage (Fajkus & Trifonov, 2001; Soman et al., 2022). Given that telomeres are enriched in H3.3 (Vaquero-Sedas & Vega-Palas, 2013; Wong et al., 2009), we investigate the roles of H3.3 histone chaperones ASF1 and HIRA in telomere maintenance. We show that they are both necessary to control telomere length and that the two paralogs ASF1A and ASF1B play redundant roles. The function of ASF1 and HIRA in genome stability is not restricted to telomeres, as silent 45S rRNA gene copies are reactivated and 45S rDNA copy number is affected in both mutants. Moreover, global heterochromatin organization is reduced in *asf1a1b* mutant plants. Finally, our results from bimolecular fluorescence complementation assays show that ASF1 interacts transiently with the N-terminal domain of telomerase and TRB1 in vivo, establishing a link between ASF1 and telomere length control. This highlights the importance of the histone chaperone network in preserving genome stability.

## RESULTS

## ASF1 function is required for telomere length homeostasis

To understand the potential involvement of the histone chaperone ASF1 in telomere maintenance, we first investigated whether the loss of ASF1A and ASF1B in A. thaliana affects the homeostasis of telomere repeats, similar to observations in other model species (Jiang et al., 2011; O'Sullivan et al., 2014). To this end, we carried out terminal restriction fragment (TRF) analysis to quantify telomere length in *asf1a1b* double mutants (Figure 1a; Figure S1a). In this assay, genomic DNA is digested by restriction endonucleases, leaving the telomeric DNA intact. From the

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Figure 1. Telomeres in asf1a1b mutants are shortened without disruption of telomerase activity.

(a–c) Telomere length of WT and mutant plants determined by terminal restriction fragment (TRF) analysis with subsequent evaluation of the range of telomere signals by the WALTER software. From the initial generation (Fx, Gx) (Zhu et al., 2011), we propagated mutant plants for an additional two generations. (a) asf1a1b (F2 and F3 generations), (b) asf1a, and (c) asf1b (G2 and G3 generations). Three sister plants (1-3) and their progeny are shown. Box charts present the first and third quartiles separated by the median value. The maximum and minimum telomere lengths are represented by the whiskers above and under the boxes. \*\*P < 0.05 for asf1a1b compared to WT based on t-test. For asf1a and asf1b, the t-test showed no significant changes in telomere length compared to WT.

(d) Phenotype of asf1a, asf1b, and asf1a1b plants. Representative images of 6-week-old plants.

(e) Telomere repeat amplification protocol (TRAP) in WT, asf1a1b, asf1a, and asf1b mutants showed similar telomerase activity in all tested samples. Samples were compared to the protein extract-free reaction buffer used as negative control (NC).

(f) Telomere localization pattern obtained by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) with consequent super-resolution microscopy (3D SIM) on nuclei of 10 day-old seedlings in WT and asf1a1b. Nuclei were probed by the biotin-labeled telomeric probe (magenta), and DNA was counterstained with 4,6-diamidino-2phenylindole (DAPI, blue). Dashed lines indicate the contours of the nuclei and nucleoli. The scale bar represents 5  $\mu$ m.

(g) Quantification of the mean volume and the intensity of individual telomeric signals in WT and asf1a1b; the number of nuclei  $N = 68$  in WT and 52 in asf1a1b; 3D SIM images. Box charts show the first and third quartiles separated by the median value. The maximum and minimum values are represented by the whiskers above and under the boxes. \*\*\*\*P < 0.005 based on the Kruskal-Wallis test. Most measured nuclei were of elongated shape, as seen in the bottom image of (f).

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initial generation (Fx), which had been used in a previous study (Zhu et al., 2011), we propagated asf1a1b double-mutant plants for an additional two generations (F2 and F3). Compared to wild-type (WT) plants, which have a mean telomere length of around 3 kb, we measured a significantly shorter telomere length of 2 kb in both later generations of asf1a1b double mutants. As progressive shortening, for example, in telomerase-deficient plants, can drop beyond this level (Fitzgerald et al., 1999), the observed telomere length of 2 kb may represent a limit specific to asf1a1b double-mutant plants. Our results, therefore, show that, compared to mammals, where telomere lengthening is observed upon siRNA suppression of ASF1 homologs (O'Sullivan et al., 2014), the simultaneous loss of plant ASF1A and ASF1B had the opposite effect on telomere maintenance. This suggests functional diversification between plant and mammalian ASF1 proteins in telomere length regulation.

We next asked whether reduced telomere length requires disruption of both ASF1 genes or if one of the two paralogs plays a major role in telomere length maintenance. Quantification of telomere length in single asf1a and asf1b mutants showed telomere length comparable to WT (Figure 1b,c; Figure S1b,c). We conclude that the two ASF1 proteins compensate for each other's function in telomere length maintenance. This is consistent with previous work (Zhu et al., 2011) and our observations (Figure 1d) that single mutants do not display macroscopic phenotypic defects. Functional redundancy between ASF1A and ASF1B was also observed in caf-1 mutant background, as telomere length in fas1 asf1a, fas1 asf1b, fas2 asf1a, and fas2 asf1b seedlings is shortened to around 2 kb similar to the telomere size observed in plants deficient for only FAS1 and FAS2 as previously shown (Mozgova et al., 2010) (Figure S2a,b). To gain a deeper understanding of the telomere shortening phenotype in asf1a1b mutants, we next tested whether telomere shortening could be caused by telomerase malfunction in the double-mutant background. We subjected protein telomerase-enriched extracts from WT and asf1a1b mutant plants to the telomere repeat amplification protocol (TRAP) (Kim et al., 1994). Using this assay, we observed an identical level of telomere primer amplification in all examined plants (Figure 1e), indicating that the loss of ASF1 proteins does not affect telomerase function. Given the observed telomere shortening, we next wanted to determine the extent to which the nuclear distribution of telomeres is affected by the loss of ASF1 function. We therefore carried out fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) for telomere repeats and imaged nuclei using 3D structured illumination microscopy (SIM, Figure 1f). In WT plants, we detected the expected distribution of telomeres with the majority surrounding the nucleolus (Armstrong et al., 2001; Probst et al., 2003). This organization was unaffected in *asf1a1b*  mutants, and the average number of telomere signals was similar (WT = 7.6,  $asf1a1b = 7.3$ ). Detailed quantification revealed a reduction in both the volume and intensity of telomere signals in *asf1a1b* mutants (Figure 1g), consistent with the decrease in telomere length revealed by TRF analysis (Figure 1a).

## Loss of ASF1 affects 45S rDNA copy number and heterochromatin organization

The reduced telomere length in asf1a1b mutant plants recalls observations in the fas1 and fas2 mutants, in which occurs also a dramatic 45S rDNA loss (Mozgova et al., 2010). Therefore, we decided to investigate the organization of 45S rDNA by FISH, asking whether ASF1 function is additionally required for maintenance of these repeats. The condensed 45S rDNA signals co-localize with chromocenters as expected and remain compact in asf1a1b, with no sign of decondensation (Figure 2a). Since the 45S rDNA signals were significantly smaller in asf1a1b (Figure 2a,b), we determined 45S rDNA copy number by quantitative PCR in single WT and asf1a1b plants in two different generations (a = F2 and b = F4) (Figure  $2c$ ). We consistently found a lower 45S rDNA copy number in asf1a1b (Figure 2c), but less pronounced compared to caf-1 mutants that show strong progressive 45S rDNA loss (30–50% of repeats per generation) (Mozgova et al., 2010; Muchova et al., 2015). To explore whether loss of ASF1 would also impact rRNA gene expression, we analyzed the relative abundance of 45S rDNA variants in rRNA transcripts in the same *asf1a1b* plants. VAR1 rRNA genes, situated on NOR2 and transcriptionally silent in WT plants (Chandrasekhara et al., 2016; Pontvianne et al., 2013), are expressed in asf1a1b mutants, indicating a connection between reduced copy number and transcriptional activation (Figure 2d).

Telomeres and 45S rDNA repeats are important elements of chromosomal architecture, which determines the distribution of genetic material during cell divisions in mitosis and meiosis. Especially changes in telomere functions can cause chromosome instability, for example, by generating chromosome fusions (Jaske et al., 2013; Riha et al., 2001). Therefore, we counted the occurrence of chromosome end-to-end fusions visible as anaphase bridges (Figure S3a,b). This marker of genome instability was not increased in asf1a1b when compared to WT, indicating that ASF1 deficiency does not induce chromosome aberrations.

Given that both telomere and 45S rDNA copy numbers are affected, we asked whether ASF1 is required for global maintenance of heterochromatin organization in Arabidopsis. To answer this question, we determined nuclear morphology and chromocenter volume in guard (GC) and pavement cell (PC) nuclei of the cotyledon epidermis (Figure 2e; Figure S3c) using biom3D, bioRxiv

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Figure 2. Loss of ASF1 causes reduced 45S rRNA gene copy number and reduced chromocenter volume.

(a) 45S rDNA localization pattern obtained by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) with consequent super-resolution microscopy (2D SIM) on nuclei of 10day-old WT and asf1a1b seedlings. 45S rDNA probe (yellow) and DNA counterstained with 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, blue); dashed lines indicate contours of nuclei and nucleoli. The scale bar represents 5  $\mu$ m.

(b) Quantification of the area of 45S rDNA signals in WT and asf1a1b; number of nuclei N = 161 in WT and 106 in asf1a1b; 2D-SIM images. Box charts show the first and third quartiles separated by the median value. The maximum and minimum values are represented by the whiskers above and under the boxes. \*\*P < 0.05; compared to WT, Kruskal–Wallis test. Most measured nuclei were of elongated shape, as seen in the bottom image of (a).

(c) 45S rDNA copy number was determined by quantitative PCR (qPCR) in 4-week-old leaves in WT and three different asf1a1b biological replicates (F2 and F4 generations). Sister plants (1a-3a; F2) and their progeny (1b-3b; F4; mean of two biological replicates). Relative 45S rDNA copy number, with WT set to 1 and using UBIQUITIN 10 as a reference, is shown. \*\*\*  $P < 0.01$ , \*\*  $P < 0.05$  compared to WT, two-sided t-test.

(d) Reverse transcription followed by PCR (RT-PCR) amplification of 45S rRNA variant transcripts in 14-day-old seedlings in three sister plants of asf1a1b mutants compared to 7-day-old and 14-day-old seedlings of WT. ACTIN was used as a control.

(e) Representative guard cell (GC) and pavement cell (PC) nuclei from cotyledon epidermis of WT and asf1a1b seedlings. Left: DAPI-stained nuclei. Right: Overlay of segmented nucleus (light blue) and chromocenters (dark blue) on top of the DAPI-stained nucleus. Scale bars represent 2 µm.

(f) Quantification of mean chromocenter volume (Vcc) and relative heterochromatin fraction (RHF) in GC and PC of three independent biological replicates (10 day-old (WT and asf1a1b 1 and 2) or 14-day-old (WT and asf1a1b 3) seedlings). GC: WT 1,  $n = 193$ ; WT 2,  $n = 189$ ; WT 3,  $n = 154$ ; asf1a1b 1,  $n = 147$ ; asf1a1b 2, n = 194; asf1a1b 3, n = 122. PC: WT 1, n = 72; WT 2, n = 225; WT 3, n = 109; asf1a1b 1, n = 72; asf1a1b 2, n = 293; asf1a1b 3, n = 119. \*\*\*\*P < 0.005 Tukeys multiple comparison test.

(Mougeot et al., 2024). Loss of ASF1 affects neither nuclear shape nor volume, except for GC nuclei, which are larger in two of the  $asf1a1b$  mutant replicates (Figure  $S3c$ ). We next quantified the mean chromocenter volume and the relative heterochromatin fraction (RHF), defined as the total chromocenter volume divided by the nuclear volume. In asf1a1b plants, both parameters are significantly reduced in PC nuclei and in two GC nuclei replicates (Figure 2f). Altogether, these data reveal that ASF1 is required for 45S rDNA copy number control and silencing as well as heterochromatin organization.

## ASF1A and ASF1B interact with several members of the H3–H4 histone chaperone network

ASF1 is part of a large histone chaperone network that handles the basic histone proteins from synthesis to deposition, and there are other well-characterized components. To study the interaction of ASF1 with these components, we used a well-established bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) assay in the Arabidopsis root protoplast system (Kolarova et al., 2021; Nespor Dadejova et al., 2022). We first tested the interaction between ASF1A and ASF1B with HIRA, identified as a major interactor by immunoprecipitation followed by mass spectrometry (IP-MS) (Zhong et al., 2022) and also here by a yeast-2-hybrid (Y2H) screen using ASF1B as bait (Figure 3a; Table S1). In root protoplasts, we confirmed that both ASF1A and ASF1B interact with HIRA in the nucleus (Figure 3b), which corresponds to the results obtained by co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) of in vitro translated proteins (Figure 3c). Since we noticed that ASF1A, ASF1B, and HIRA can produce false-positive nuclear signals when fused to the C-terminal part of YFP (Figure S4; Table S2), we tested other candidates, namely, NAP1-RELATED PROTEIN 1 (NRP1), and NRP2 (also identified in IP-MS) (Zhong et al., 2022). NRP1 and NRP2 interact with ASF1A and ASF1B in the nucleus and the cytoplasm (Figure S5a,b), confirming the functionality of the BiFC constructs. We also observed that both ASF1A and ASF1B interact with histone H3.1 and H3.3 (Figure 3d), as previously shown by Y2H (Le Goff et al., 2020). We further found that FAS1 interacts predominantly with H3.1 but also occasionally with H3.3 (Table S2), while HIRA binds only H3.3 under these conditions (Figure 3d). In mammals, ASF1A and B bind the p60 subunit of the CAF-1 complex via its B domain (Abascal et al., 2013). While we could not find direct interaction between FAS2 and ASF1A or ASF1B in Co-IP (Figure S5c), we identified FAS2 as an ASF1A and ASF1B interaction partner in Y2H screens (Figure 3a; Table S1) and observed interaction between FAS2 and ASF1B in BiFC (Figure 3e). This suggests that interactions between FAS2 and ASF1 proteins are either weak or only transient (Kerppola, 2008).

## The histone chaperone HIRA is required for telomere and 45S rDNA maintenance

In mammals, ASF1 protects telomeres from elongation via alternative homologous recombination-based mechanisms, while HIRA promotes telomere elongation (Hoang et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2011; O'Sullivan et al., 2014). In plants, the contribution of HIRA to telomere length maintenance has not been investigated. We therefore assessed the TRF profile of hira mutants and found telomere shortening down to approximately 2.5 kb in length (Figure 4a; Figure S6). Next, we checked whether HIRA is also required for 45S rDNA copy number regulation. In individual plants from two independent seedling pools, we observed moderately reduced 45S rDNA amount with variations in 45S rDNA loss between individual plants and seedling pools (Figure 4b). The reduced copy number observed by quantitative PCR (qPCR) in plants from pool 1 was confirmed by quantification of 45S rDNA FISH images (Figure 4c,d). We further analyzed 45S rRNA transcript variants in individual plants of those hira mutants for which we examined 45S  $rDNA$  copy number (Figure  $4e$ ). We found that similar to asf1a1b mutant seedlings, silencing of 45S rRNA VAR1 genes required HIRA (Figure 4e). However, in contrast to asf1a1b, differences in telomere length are not accompanied by changes in heterochromatin organization in GC and PC epidermis nuclei in hira mutants (Figure 4f; Figure S7). It suggests that defects in the HIRA-mediated replication-independent histone deposition cause less dramatic changes in the nuclear structure and repeat abundance compared to loss of ASF1 proteins.

## Relative nucleosome occupancy at telomeres is not significantly affected in asf1a1b and hira mutants

Deficiency in histone chaperones disturbs the maintenance of the nuclear histone pool as well as nucleosome assembly, which in turn affects nucleosome occupancy and chromatin organization. We therefore examined whether nucleosome occupancy at telomeric repeats is affected in asf1a1b and hira mutant plants and performed H3 chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-seq) in WT, asf1a1b, hira, and fas1 mutants. In addition, we included recently published ChIP-seq experiments in WT and asf1a1b mutant plants (Zhong et al., 2022) to determine telomere size and to quantify H3 enrichment at telomeric repeats. We initially quantified the number of telomeric repeats in the *asf1a1b*, hira, and fas1 mutant genomes using ChIP input DNA. For this, we determined the ratio of reads mapping to a stretch of five (TTTAGGG) $_5$ telomere repeats to the reads mapping to the entire genome (Figure 5a). We confirmed reduced telomere length in all three histone chaperone mutants, with the most pronounced reduction observed in fas1 plants and comparable levels in asf1a1b and hira mutants, consistent

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Figure 3. ASF1 proteins interact with HIRA, FAS2, and histone variants H3.1 and H3.3.

(a) Interactors identified in a yeast-two-hybrid (Y2H) screen of Arabidopsis thaliana cDNA library (prey, pGADT7) with ASF1A or ASF1B as baits (pGBKT7). (b, d, e) Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) on protoplasts from root tips of 10-day-old seedlings. Protoplasts were co-transfected with (b) nYFP/ ASF1A or nYFP/ASF1B and cYFP/HIRA, (d) nYFP/HIRA, nYFP/ASF1A, nYFP/ASF1B or nYFP/FAS1 with cYFP/H3.1 or cYFP/H3.3, (e) nYFP/ASF1A or nYFP/ASF1B with cYFP/FAS2. Bright field, nuclear localization signal mRFP-NLS (magenta, used as a transformation control), YFP fluorescence (yellow), and the combined images were visualized by confocal microscopy 16 h after transfection. The scale bar represents 10 µm. Experiments were repeated twice with similar results. (c) Co-immunoprecipitation analysis (CoIP) of HIRA and ASF1A or ASF1B. Radioactively labeled HIRA with non-labeled Myc-tagged ASF1A or ASF1B was used as a sample (S); in the negative control (NC), no Myc-tagged interaction partner was present. (I) input, (U) unbound, (B) bound.

with the TRF analysis. We then determined the relative H3 occupancy at telomeres in the WT and mutant backgrounds, correcting for the differences in telomere length in each mutant. Although there was a trend toward reduction in the *asf1a1b* and *hira* mutants, the relative H3 occupancy at telomeres was not significantly different from

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Figure 4. Loss of HIRA causes reduced 45S rRNA gene copy number and telomere shortening.

(a) Telomere length in hira. Two seedling pools (14-day-old) from independent generations G5 (1) and G7 (2) are shown. Box charts show the first and third quartiles separated by the median value. The maximum and minimum telomere lengths are represented by the whiskers above and under the boxes. \* $P < 0.1$ , t-test compared to WT.

(b) 45S rDNA copy number was determined by quantitative PCR (qPCR) in hira and WT. For hira, two seedling pools (14-day-old) from independent generations G5 (1) and G7 (2) and individual sister plants (5-week-old leaves, 1a-c and 2a-c) are shown. Relative 45S rDNA copy number, with WT set to 1 and using UBI-QUITIN 10 as a reference, is shown.  $***P < 0.01$ ,  $**P < 0.05$  compared to WT, two-sided t-test.

(c) Quantification of the signal area of 45S rDNA signals obtained by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) with consequent super-resolution microscopy (2D SIM) on nuclei of 10-day-old seedlings in WT and hira (G5). One hundred nuclei of WT and hira were hybridized with the 45S rDNA probe. Box charts show the first and third quartiles separated by the median value. The maximum and minimum values are represented by the whiskers above and under the boxes.  $*P < 0.05$ ; compared to WT, Kruskal–Wallis test.

(d) 45S rDNA localization pattern obtained by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) with consequent super-resolution microscopy (2D SIM) on nuclei of 10day-old WT and hira seedlings. Approximately 100 nuclei of WT and hira mutant seedlings were probed with a 45S rDNA probe (yellow) and DNA counterstained with DAPI (blue). Dashed lines indicate the contours of nuclei and nucleoli. The scale bar represents 5 um. Note that images of the WT nuclei are the same as in Figures 1f and 2a.

(e) Reverse transcription followed by PCR (RT-PCR) amplification of 45S rRNA variants in 14-day-old hira mutant seedlings compared to 7-day and 14-day-old WT seedlings. Two independent generations G5 (1) and G7 (2) of hira were analyzed.

(f) Quantification of mean chromocenter volume (Vcc) and relative heterochromatin fraction (RHF) in GC and PC of three independent biological replicates. GC: WT 1, n = 193; WT 2, n = 189; WT 3, n = 154; hira 1, n = 115; hira 2, n = 194; hira 3, n = 64, PC: WT 1, n = 72; WT 2, n = 225; WT 3, n = 134; hira 1, n = 67; hira 2,  $n = 160$ ; hira 3,  $n = 59$ . \*\*\*\* $P < 0.005$ ; \*\* $P < 0.05$  Tukeys multiple comparison test.



Figure 5. Relative H3 occupancy at telomeres is unchanged in histone chaperone mutants.

(a) Abundance of telomeric repeats and (b) relative H3 occupancy at telomeres are shown as RPM (reads containing telomere sequences per million reads mapped to the genome) in WT and *asf1a1b, fas1*, and *hira* mutants. H3 ChIP data were normalized by the relative number of telomeric reads in the respective inputs as determined in (a). Four replicates for the input (a) and two replicates for the H3-ChIP (b) were used for each genotype.  $***P < 0.01$  and  $**P < 0.05$  compared to WT, ANOVA one way and Dunnett's test.

that of wild type (Figure 5b; Figure S8). We conclude that loss of either HIRA or ASF1 does not specifically affect nucleosome occupancy at telomeres.

## ASF1 and HIRA interact with telomere-associated proteins in vivo

Telomere stability is defined by interactions with telomerespecific proteins and general chromatin-binding factors (Fulneckova et al., 2021; Kolarova et al., 2021; Schorova et al., 2019; Schrumpfova et al., 2014). Since the list of ASF1B interactors (Zhong et al., 2022) included selected telomere candidates, namely, dyskerin, TRB1, TRB3 (three components of the putative Arabidopsis protective telomere complex, Schrumpfova et al., 2019), we next addressed whether ASF1 could be directly interacting with telomere protein complexes in vivo, specifically testing telomerase and TRB1. Our experiments revealed ASF1A and TRB1 interactions in the nucleus and nucleolus (Figure 6a; Table S3). Interestingly, we found that the ASF1-TRB1 interaction is modulated in hira or fas1 mutant backgrounds, where these ASF1 binding partners are lacking. In the *hira* or fas1 mutant context, TRB1 interacts with both ASF1A and ASF1B predominantly in the nucleolus (Figure 6b,c). Finally, to test the interaction with telomerase, we used two N-terminal fragments (RID with a nuclear localization sequence [NLS] and TEN without this motif) that both localize to the nucleus and the nucleolus (Zachova et al., 2013). Notably, ASF1A and ASF1B bind to RID (Figure 6d) but not to TEN (Figure S9a), indicating that the lacking part of the telomerase protein in TEN is required for histone chaperone binding. Additionally, using

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available ChIP-seq data (Zhong et al., 2022), we confirmed the enrichment of ASF1A and ASF1B at telomeric DNA (Figure S9b).

In conclusion, our results indicate the existence of a complex of histone chaperones and telomere proteins potentially held together by telomerase interacting with ASF1A. Furthermore, the interaction between ASF1 and the RID version of the telomerase establishes a physical link between the chaperone and the telomere maintenance enzyme and could explain the requirement of ASF1 proteins in telomere length homeostasis.

## **DISCUSSION**

## ASF1 interacts with members of the histone chaperone network

Precise chromatin assembly, mediated by histone chaperones, profoundly influences genome organization at multiple levels, including the regulation of gene expression, site-specific silencing, and the formation of heterochromatin (Anderson et al., 2009; Benoit et al., 2019; Ono et al., 2006; Sharp et al., 2001), or long-distance genome associations (Feng et al., 2022; Picart-Picolo et al., 2020). To achieve these different functions, histones are handled by a network of histone chaperones for deposition, eviction, or recycling during replication and transcription (Typas, 2023). Arabidopsis ASF1 is involved in multiple interactions within this network. Using BiFC, Y2H, and Co-IP, we find that ASF1 interacts with HIRA, consistent with previous observations from mass spectrometry (Zhong et al., 2022). We also found interactions between ASF1 and FAS2 by BiFC and identified FAS2 as bait in an Y2H screen. Since FAS2 was not detected by mass spectrometry (Zhong et al., 2022), this suggests rather transient interactions between ASF1 and the CAF-1 complex (Kerppola, 2008; Miller et al., 2015), consistent with previous observations in mammals where interaction between human ASF1 and CAF-1 is frail and lost upon high salt washes (Klimovskaia et al., 2014). Though the BiFC system is excellent for detecting even weak interactions, if they occur in a short time window, they may still evade detection – a possible scenario for FAS1-ASF1B. In addition, we reveal interactions with NRP1 and NRP2, demonstrating that ASF1 can interact with several players of the histone chaperone network either directly or mediated by histone contacts.

## ASF1 deficiency causes telomere instability

Telomere length is reduced in both asf1a1b and hira plants, establishing that both histone chaperones are required for reliable maintenance of telomere length in Arabidopsis. Consistent with the plant phenotypes of the respective genotypes, telomere defects only occur in the asf1a1b double mutant but not in single mutants, and

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Figure 6. ASF1A and ASF1B interact with TRB1 and telomerase.

(a–d) Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) in protoplasts from root tips of 10-day-old seedlings. Protoplasts were co-transfected with (a–c) nYFP/ ASF1A or nYFP/ASF1B and cYFP/TRB1, (d) nYFP/RID with cYFP/ASF1A or cYFP/ASF1B plasmids. Bright field, nuclear localization signal mRFP-NLS (magenta, used as a transformation control), YFP fluorescence (yellow), and the combined images were visualized by confocal microscopy 16 h after transfection. White arrows indicate protein-protein interactions in the nucleolus. The scale bar represents 10 µm. Experiments were repeated twice with similar results.

deletion of either ASF1A or ASF1B in a fas mutant background does not exacerbate telomere defects. This strongly suggests that ASF1A and ASF1B act redundantly in telomere length regulation and that they can compensate for each other's function even in the sensitized mutant background for CAF-1, which is already affected in the replication-dependent histone assembly pathway. Contrary to findings in yeast, where the depletion of ASF1 leads to telomere mis-localization without affecting telomere length (Hiraga et al., 2008), the majority of telomeres are localized near the nucleolus in asf1a1b as in WT, but telomeres are shorter. Upon depletion of ASF1, mammalian cell lines exhibit rapid initiation of the alternative telomere lengthening (ALT) pathway, associated with telomere elongation and downregulation of telomerase expression (O'Sullivan et al., 2014), which also contrasts with the telomere defects in asf1a1b. Thus, distinct from the conserved role of ASF1 in histone handling, our findings contribute to the emerging picture revealing functional divergence of ASF1's roles in telomere maintenance in plant, yeast, and mammalian models.

In mammals, a dedicated histone chaperone complex, DEATH DOMAIN-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN (DAXX) and the Α-LPHA-THALASSEMIA/MENTAL RETARDATION SYNDROME X-LINKED PROTEIN (ATRX) (Goldberg et al., 2010; Lewis et al., 2010), mediates chromatin assembly at telomeres and centromeres. When ATRX is depleted in mammals, HIRA is recruited to telomeres to enhance ALT and to form ALT-associated bodies (Hoang et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2011). Loss of ATRX in plants causes reduced H3.3 levels and impacts 45S rRNA expression (Duc et al., 2017); however, whether it plays a role in telomere maintenance in plants and cooperates with ASF1 remains to be explored. Given the unique composition of telomeric chromatin, and signs of transcriptional activity initiated within genes near telomeres (Vrbsky et al., 2010), it is reasonable to suggest that a functional chromatin configuration at chromosome ends depends on the coordinated efforts of several histone deposition and recycling pathways. The observation that the absence of ASF1 or HIRA does not result in significant changes in relative H3 occupancy at telomeres may also suggest a possible modulation of the balance between individual histone variants, as previously demonstrated (Kolarova et al., 2021; Zhong et al., 2022).

## A general role for ASF1 in genome stability and heterochromatin organization

Apart from the prominent effect of ASF1 on telomere length, we noticed that the loss of ASF1 leads to 45S rDNA instability with a reduction in 45S rRNA gene copy number and reactivation of the normally silent VAR1 45S rRNA genes localized on NOR2 (Chandrasekhara et al., 2016). In line with this observation, we also find that heterochromatin organization is more generally affected upon loss of ASF1, as the mean volume of chromocenters, which represent clusters of centromeric, pericentromeric, and rDNA (Fransz et al., 2002; Probst et al., 2003), is significantly reduced. Histone chaperones are crucial for chromocenter formation (Arakawa et al., 2015; Guthmann et al., 2023), for example, the altered histone deposition in fas2 mutants leads to aberrant heterochromatin clustering and accumulation of H3.3 in chromocenters that are normally enriched in H3.1 (Benoit et al., 2019; Otero et al., 2016). Similarly, yeast histone chaperone mutants often show reduced transcriptional silencing (Huang et al., 2007; Sharp et al., 2001; Wu et al., 2017). Yeast ASF1 is enriched at telomeres, centromeres, and rDNA (Dewari & Bhargava, 2014), and we see the association of ASF1 with telomeres also in Arabidopsis. Similarly, Drosophila ASF1 physically associates with heterochromatin at centromeres (Moshkin et al., 2002). Whether the reduced heterochromatin fraction results from a defect in the clustering of the repeats or a reduction in the number of centromeric repeats or transposons remains to be investigated. Mutants in HIRA have defects in 45S rDNA silencing as well as heterogeneity in 45S rRNA gene copy number, but chromocenter volumes are unaffected, in contrast to *asf1a1b*. This indicates that, at repetitive sequences, ASF1 may have a function beyond facilitating HIRA-mediated deposition, possibly linked to the replicative chromatin assembly via the CAF-1 complex.

## Telomeres, DNA damage hotspots during DNA and chromatin replication

Telomere length homeostasis is maintained through the coordinated actions of telomerase (Fajkus et al., 1998; Greider & Blackburn, 1985, 1996), telomere-specific complexes that recruit telomerase to chromosomal ends, thereby preventing misidentification of these regions as DNA break sites (Palm & de Lange, 2008; Timashev et al., 2017) and telomerase-independent processes (Riha et al., 2001; Ruckova et al., 2008). Here, we show that, in Arabidopsis, depletion of ASF1 and HIRA causes telomere shortening, adding to the previous work on caf-1 mutants (Mozgova et al., 2010). Based on the rate of telomere shortening in these different mutant contexts, we hypothesize that the underlying molecular mechanisms differ. In Arabidopsis mutants lacking telomerase (tert), the rate of erosion equals 250–600 base pairs per generation, as the failure to fully replicate the lagging strand of the telomere is not corrected by telomerase (Riha et al., 2001). Telomerase activity is unaffected in asf1a1b mutants; moreover, neither asf1a1b nor hira plants show progressive telomere erosion. In *fas1*, telomere loss is progressive (Mozgova et al., 2010), yet, telomerase independent (Jaske

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et al., 2013; Mozgova et al., 2010). It rather involves the NAP1 histone chaperone (Kolarova et al., 2021) and DNA repair kinase ATAXIA TELANGIECTASIA MUTATED (ATM) (Eekhout et al., 2021). Therefore, the mechanism of telomere erosion in histone chaperone mutants may not include regulation of the enzyme processivity but may be linked to the reparative processes. For example, in fas1, the G1/S checkpoint is overridden in favor of G2/M signaling, and fas1 mutants show a continuous activation of DNA repair genes (Eekhout et al., 2021; Exner et al., 2006; Kolarova et al., 2021). The observation that ATM deficiency does not cause telomere reversion in tert (Vespa et al., 2007) indicates that the reparative processes activated in fas1 are likely stimulated by defects arising upon replication. In mammals, ASF1 supports the process of non-homologous end joining at telomeres, being directed to dysfunctional telomeres via RIF1 (RAP1-interacting factor homolog) (Silverman et al., 2004; Tang et al., 2022). The function of the ASF1–RIF1 complex in DNA damage repair is distinct from the histone chaperone activity of ASF1, indicating the potentially diverse functions of this histone chaperone (Tang et al., 2022).

A similar situation occurs in Arabidopsis asf1a1b mutants that display S phase arrest, upregulation of repair genes, and accumulation of damaged DNA (Zhu et al., 2011). Unlike fas1 mutants, both cell cycle checkpoints are active in *asf1a1b* mutants, as evidenced by their sensitivity to hydroxyurea (Eekhout et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2011). Telomeres, as well as 45S rDNA, are particularly susceptible to changes in chromatin composition and represent challenging templates for replication (Dvorackova et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2021). Deficient histone recycling or de novo deposition of H3 variants at the replication fork results in altered chromatin characteristics and may impact replication timing, thereby increasing the susceptibility to DNA breaks (Klein et al., 2021). Such a direct role for chromatin maturation in influencing DNA repair at replication forks has been recently shown for the recruitment of the DNA repair protein TONSOKU that is recruited via interaction with unmodified H3.1 tails but released upon chromatin maturation including methylation of the histone tail (Davarinejad et al., 2022). Therefore, one way how ASF1 might prevent erosion of telomeres is by preventing DNA damage and allowing efficient repair through controlled histone recycling and de novo deposition.

## Evidence for direct interaction between ASF1 and the telomere maintenance/protection machinery

Beyond its role in histone handling, ASF1 may contribute to telomere maintenance by directly interacting with telomere proteins (Zhong et al., 2022). Indeed, we found evidence that ASF1 interacts with the N-terminal domain of telomerase. This interaction might be transient and only occur in vivo at telomere sites. Telomerase (TERT) also

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interacts with the Arabidopsis NAP1 histone chaperones within the nucleus and nucleolus (Fulneckova et al., 2021) and with MCM5 of the MCM helicase complex (Fulneckova et al., 2021). Notably, the mammalian MCM helicase complex has also been shown to interact with ASF1 via a histone bridge (Groth et al., 2007). The nucleolus has been discussed to be a possible location for telomerase assembly (Schrumpfova et al., 2019), and the telomere positioning around the nucleolus has been linked to their size control in Arabidopsis (Pontvianne et al., 2016). Chromatin assembly, replication, and DNA repair may therefore occur in close association with the nucleolus, where the telomerase RNA-binding protein dyskerin and TERT gather (Kannan et al., 2008; Lermontova et al., 2007). Finally, according to ChIP-seq data (Zhong et al., 2022), ASF1 is enriched at telomere sequences.

We also observe the interaction of ASF1 with TRB1, a nuclear protein found in both the nucleus and the nucleolus that binds telomere repeats via its Myb domain (Dvorackova et al., 2010). TRB1, similarly to RAP1 or RIF1, is not a telomere-exclusive protein (Schrumpfova et al., 2016; Teano et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2016). We find more nuclei showing ASF1B–TRB1 interactions in hira and fas1 mutant plants, where interactions occur preferentially in the nucleolus. Similarly, the ASF1A–TRB1 complex is more often found in the nucleolus in mutant backgrounds, suggesting that alternative complexes are formed at least transiently when conserved histone chaperones are missing. The functional relevance of these interactions between ASF1 and telomere proteins needs to be further tested, but the data strongly suggest that ASF1 plays an indirect role at telomeres through the maintenance of chromatin organization as well as a more direct role through interaction with telomere maintenance proteins.

#### EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

#### Plant material and growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana ecotype Columbia-0 was used as a WT; all mutants are the previously described T-DNA insertion lines: fas1-4 (SAIL\_662\_D10) (Mozgova et al., 2010); fas2-5 (SALK\_147693) and hira (WiscDsLox362H05) (Duc et al., 2015); asf1a-2 (GK-200G05) and asf1b-1 (SALK\_105822) (Zhu et al., 2011). asf1a-2, asf1b-1, and asf1a1b seeds were kindly provided and described by Zhu et al. (2011). Double mutants asf1a fas1, asf1b fas1, asf1a fas2, and asf1b fas2 were obtained by crossing. F2 progeny from heterozygous F1 plants was genotyped for the respective allele combinations (Tables S4 and S5) and then propagated into F3–F6 consecutive generations. All seeds were surface-sterilized (75% ethanol/5 min and then 96% ethanol/5 min) and plated on half-strength agar Murashige and Skoog medium (½ MS medium) with 1% sucrose. After 2 days of stratification (4°C/dark), plants were grown in a growth chamber under short-day (SD) conditions (8 h light – 21°C; 16 h dark – 19°C; 50–60% relative humidity) and for biom3D image analysis under long-day conditions (16 h light/8 h dark). Seedlings were transferred into soil 2 weeks after germination and were grown under the same illumination and temperature conditions.

#### DNA isolation and plant genotyping

DNA for TRF from 5-week-old rosette leaves or 14-day-old seedlings was isolated according to Dellaporta et al. (1983) with minor changes (see Data S1). For genotyping, DNA was isolated using a modified protocol (Edwards et al., 1991) or GenElute Plant Genomic DNA Miniprep Kits (MERCK, Rahway, NJ, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA concentration was determined using Qubit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) or NanoDrop2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) systems. One microlitre of DNA was used in a PCR reaction using  $0.3 \mu$ M primers and 5 U of MyTaq™ Red DNA Polymerase (Bioline, Memphis, TN, USA). Primers are listed in Tables S4 and S5.

#### TRF analysis

Telomere length was determined with total DNA isolated from 5 week-old rosette leaves or 14-day-old seedlings as described (Kolarova et al., 2021). TRF signals were visualized using a Typhoon FLA-7000 imaging system (Fuji film) and evaluated using the WALTER toolset (Lycka et al., 2021). Statistically significant differences between two groups of mutants or two WT were determined using a two-tailed Welch's t-test.

#### Telomere repeat amplification protocol

TRAP assays for plant telomerase activity were performed on 10 day-old seedlings as described previously (Fitzgerald et al., 1996). For more details, see Data S1.

#### Slide preparation and FISH

Root nuclei from 3-week-old A. thaliana seedlings were isolated and processed as described in Data S1. FISH was performed as described (Zavodnik et al., 2023). We used a custom LNA telomeric (TTTAGGG<sub>3</sub> – Alexa Fluor 488) and biotin-labeled 45S rDNA probe, prepared with nick-translation of the T15P10 BAC covering 45S rDNA (10 nm final concentration for both probes). Slides were covered with a glass coverslip and sealed with rubber cement, denatured together with probes at 80°C for 3 min, and hybridized overnight in a humid chamber at 37°C. Post-hybridization washing steps included  $3 \times 5$  min in 50% formamide/2 $\times$  5 min in 2 $\times$  SSC at 42°C and 2 $\times$  5 min in 2 $\times$ SSC at room temperature. Chromosomes were counterstained with 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; 1 mg m $I^{-1}$ ) in Vectashield (Vector Laboratories). Structured illumination microscopy was performed on the Zeiss Elyra 7 super-resolution microscopy system, using a  $63\times$  oil plan-apochromat objective and the corresponding filter cubes (DAPI, Alexa Fluor 488, and Texas Red). SIM image reconstruction was performed in batch using the built-in Zeiss proprietary SIM reconstruction algorithm in Zen Blue 3.0.

#### Image analysis and statistical analysis

After SIM image reconstruction, images were processed by background subtraction using the same threshold for all samples. Telomeric and 45S rDNA spots were analyzed in Imaris 10 software (Bitplane, Oxford). Signals were automatically discriminated by the object detection algorithm and manually checked for possible artifacts (Figure S10a). Only the spots inside plant nuclei were selected to export volume (or area) and intensity. Statistical tests were performed in the SciPy Python library. Statistical differences between WT and mutants or between groups were determined using the Kruskal–Wallis and Wilcoxon rank-sum tests, respectively. Most analyzed nuclei showed an elongated shape, with the average number of spots per nucleus close to 7.5 for telomeres and 2.5 for 45S rDNA, indicating similar ploidy (Figure S10b).

#### Nuclear morphology and chromatin organization analysis

Cotyledons from 10-day-old (replicates 1 and 2) and 14-day-old (replicate 3) WT, asf1a1b, and hira seedlings were prepared as previously described (Desset et al., 2018), DNA stained overnight with Hoechst (Hoechst 33258 at 1  $\mu$ g ml<sup>-1</sup> final concentration) and cotyledons mounted in PBS:glycerol (20:80). Microscopic observations were performed as described in Desset et al. (2018), and 3D images containing one single nucleus were obtained using the NucleusJ 2.0 auto-crop option (Dubos et al., 2020). Each epidermal nucleus was assigned to either guard cells or pavement cells after combining a maximum Z-projection of a wide-field stack and a single plane image under transmission light using differential interference contrast. Nuclear morphology and chromocenter volume were obtained using the deep learning Python package biom3D, an in-house developed deep learning tool for volumetric image segmentation ([https://github.com/Guillaume](https://github.com/GuillaumeMougeot/biom3d) [Mougeot/biom3d\)](https://github.com/GuillaumeMougeot/biom3d). In short, biom3d was used to train deep learning models on image datasets of Arabidopsis nuclei, for which the nuclear volume ( $N = 103$ ) and the chromocenters ( $N = 85$ ) were segmented manually using the Napari software. Two separate models, one to segment nuclear volume and the other to segment chromocenters, were generated. All segmentation predictions were verified by eye after overlay with the respective raw image, and obviously aberrant predictions were discarded. Quantitative parameters were subsequently extracted from the resulting segmentations.

#### Quantitative PCR

For the relative quantification of 45S rDNA copy number, total DNA from 4- or 5-week-old leaves from a single plant or a mix of 14-day-old seedlings was used. qPCR was performed according to standard procedures using SensiFAST™ SYBR® Hi-ROX (Meridian Bioscience) and a combination of primers for 18S rDNA (226 bp long product) normalized to UBIQUITIN 10 (see Tables S4 and S5). The analysis was performed by StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems) under the following conditions: 95°C/3 min; 35 cycles of 95°C/5 sec, 60°C/20 sec, 72°C/10 sec, and 72°C/1 min followed by standard melting analysis. Reactions for each sample were carried out in technical triplicates in leaves of three independent biological replicas (asf1a1b) or leaves or seedlings from two independent hira mutant seed batches. Standard deviation visualizes the variability among technical replicas. The ttest was used for statistical evaluation when comparing the copy numbers of mutants and WT controls.

#### Cloning

Cloned sequences used for protein–protein interaction studies (BiFC, Y2H, and Co-IP) were FAS1, FAS2, ASF1A (see Kolarova et al., 2021), TRB1 (Schrumpfova et al., 2014), RID, TEN (see Zachova et al., 2013). The remaining genes were cloned according to Kolarova et al. (2021). For more details, see Data S1.

## Co-IP and yeast-2-hybrid screen

Co-IP was performed in vitro according to Schrumpfova et al. (2014) and Kolarova et al. (2021). Yeast-2-Hybrid screening using ASF1A and ASF1B as baits was performed as in Le Goff et al. (2020). See Data S1 for details.

#### Bimolecular fluorescence complementation

To prepare protoplasts, the roots of 7-day-old seedlings were chopped with a razor blade and processed according to Kolarova

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et al. (2021). Fluorescence signals were observed using a Zeiss LSM 800 laser scanning confocal microscope with YFP (Alexa Fluor 488) and RFP (Texas Red) filters, equipped with Plan-Apochromat  $63\times/1.40$  water objective. For image analysis and contrast enhancement, ZEN 2.5 lite blue edition software was used.

#### H3 ChIP-seq and bioinformatic data processing

ChIP-seq experiments were performed as described by Song et al. (2014) using 1 g of 3-week-old WT, asf1a1b, hira, and fas1 in vitro-grown seedlings. Chromatin was sheared using the COVARIS system in 130 µl Covaris microTubes (Intensity: 5, Duty cycle: 15%, Cycles/burst: 300, Duration: 420 sec, Mode: frequent sweeping) and spiked with 10% of chromatin from Drosophila S2 cells. ChIP-seq libraries were generated using the NEBNext<sup>®</sup> Ultra<sup>™</sup> II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina<sup>®</sup> (New England BioLabs) from 10 ng of starting material. Sequencing was performed on a HiSeq2500, with paired-end reads of 50 bp lengths, quality checked by FASTQC and mapped to Drosophila and Arabidopsis reference genomes (Table S6). To estimate differences in telomere length, reads from input samples from this study and from Zhong et al. (2022) (PRJNA779072) were mapped to five consecutive telomere repeats (TTTAGGG)<sub>5</sub> using Computel (Nersisyan & Arakelyan, 2015) and normalized to the total number of reads mapping to the Arabidopsis genome (Naish et al., 2021) with the same alignment options used by Computel (bowtie2 --end-to-end --phred33 --n-ceil 38 -D 20 -R 3 -N 1 -L 16 -i S,1,0.5) (Langmead et al., 2009). To determine relative H3 occupancy at telomere repeats, the same procedure was applied, and ratios were corrected for measured telomere length in the respective mutants. ASF1-ChIP-seq signals (PRJNA779072 data set) were processed using an established ChIP-seq pipeline and analyzed for telomere repeats; see Data S1 for details.

#### Expression of 45S rDNA variants

Expression analysis of rRNA variants was performed using 7- and 14-day-old WT as control and 14-day-old mutant seedlings according to established protocols (Pontvianne et al., 2013); see Data S1 for details.

#### ACCESSION NUMBERS

FAS1 (At1G65470), FAS2 (At5G64630), ASF1A (At1G66740), ASF1B (AT5G38110), HIRA (At3g44530), TRB1 (At1G49950), RID and TEN (both At5G16850), NRP1 (At1G74560), NRP2 (At1G18800), H3.1 (At5G10400), and H3.3 (At4G40040).

#### AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

MD and AVP provided ideas and the concept for the project and obtained funding. AM performed the majority of the experimental work, data analysis, and preparation of the figures. CD generated some of the original plant material, SLG performed Y2H screens with AM, and JB carried out ChIP-seq. MD, JS, and LS performed the bioinformatic analysis. GM developed Biom3D; SD and AVP performed biom3D image analysis. MND participated in BiFC and co-IP experiments; MF contributed to the telomere and 45Sr DNA FISH; MD participated in TRF and NGS-data analysis. MD, AVP, and AM wrote the manuscript with input from MND.

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#### CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

### DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The authors responsible for the distribution of materials integral to the findings presented in this article are Martina Dvorackova ([martina.dvorackova@ceitec.muni.cz](mailto:martina.dvorackova@ceitec.muni.cz)) and Aline V. Probst [\(aline.probst@uca.fr](mailto:aline.probst@uca.fr)). Raw images, datasets for training, and predictions are available here: <https://omero.bio.fsu.edu/webclient/?show=project-4901>. Models are attached to their training datasets. The associated script can be accessed at [https://github.](https://github.com/GuillaumeMougeot/biom3d%E2%80%8C) [com/GuillaumeMougeot/biom3d.](https://github.com/GuillaumeMougeot/biom3d%E2%80%8C) Input and H3 ChIP-seq datasets correspond to Bioproject PRJNA1131763.

#### SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

Figure S1. Telomeres in the *asf1a1b* double mutant are shortened without disruption of telomerase activity.

Figure S2. Telomere length in fas1 or fas2 mutants deficient for ASF1A or ASF1B.

Figure S3. asf1a1b double mutants show no chromosomal aberrations and globally unaffected nuclear volume and sphericity except for larger nuclear volume in guard cells.

Figure S4. Control experiments for protein–protein interaction tests by bimolecular fluorescence complementation.

Figure S5. ASF1 proteins interact with NRP histone chaperones.

Figure S6. Telomere length in hira single mutants.

Figure S7. Nuclear volume and shape are unchanged in GC and PC epidermis nuclei in hira mutants compared to WT.

Figure S8. H3 occupancy at telomeres in asf1a1b plants compared to WT.

Figure S9. ASF1 and HIRA proteins do not interact with TEN, but ASF1 is present at telomeres.

Figure S10. Evaluation of the telomere/45S rDNA signals in WT and asf1a1b mutant nuclei obtained by super-resolution microscopy (2D SIM) using Imaris software.

Table S1. List of interacting proteins identified in an Y2H screen using ASF1A and ASF1B as baits.

Table S2. BiFC experiments of histone chaperone proteins, empty vectors, and H3 variants.

Table S3. BiFC experiments of histone chaperones with telomeric proteins.

Table S4. List of primers.

Table S5. Primer combinations.

Table S6. Percentage of reads mapping to Drosophila and Arabidopsis genomes in Drosophila-spiked WT, asf1a1b, hira and fas1 input, and ChIP-seq datasets.

Data S1. Experimental procedures.

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