# LEM domain proteins control the efficiency of adaptation through copy number variation 

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#### Abstract

While loss of genome integrity is at the basis of numerous pathologies, including cancer, genome plasticity is necessary to adapt to a changing environment and thus is essential for long-term organismal success. Here we present data supporting a targeted mechanism that promotes adaptation to environmental stress by driving site-specific genome instability tied to transcriptional induction and the formation of RNA-DNA hybrids. Using an in vitro evolution assay we observe that the inner nuclear membrane LEM domain proteins Heh1 and Heh2 play antagonistic roles in inhibiting or promoting adaptation through copy number expansion, respectively, which is also reflected in their genetic interaction networks with genes responsible for transcription-dependent genome instability. Taken together, our data suggest the existence of a LEM domain proteinmediated mechanism by which an immediate transcriptional response to a changing environment drives targeted genome instability to promote increased variation on which selection can act to support long-term adaptation.


## Introduction

The success of an organism relies in part on its ability to maintain fitness in the face of a changing environment, often sensed by increased cellular stress. It has been proposed that multiple mechanisms drive adaptation, differing in the time scale over which they take place, how long they can be sustained, their heritability, and their reversibility(Yona et al., 2015). These mechanisms fall into two major classes: non-genetic changes rooted in physiological responses that drive transcriptional and/or epigenetic modifications, and genetic changes occurring through point mutations and/or gene copy number variation (CNV). A model in which rapid, non-genetic physiological responses could drive adaptive genetic changes has been suggested to couple these two mechanisms [1]. Consistent with this model, recent work suggests that genes poised to respond transcriptionally to environmental challenges may also be subject to "stimulated" adaptive copy number variation of these genes [2]. However, the mechanisms coupling transcriptional up-regulation to local genome instability that can drive copy number variation have yet to be fully delineated.

In neo-Darwinian theory, genetic change occurs gradually and constantly in a stochastic fashion independent of the environment, becoming fixed in the genome as a consequence of providing a fitness advantage. However, in principle an inducible system where bursts of mutations are produced only in conditions of stress [3, 4] provides advantages over a system based on a constitutive, high mutator phenotype that could prove deleterious under conditions where an organism is well-adapted [5]. Indeed, Barbara McClintock provided the first evidence that elevated insertion-deletion
(indel) events, CNV, and other genome rearrangements are driven by elevated transposon activity in response to stress, which acts independently of stochastic environmental or metabolic damage to the DNA [6]. A similar phenomenon has been observed in prokaryotes, in which a mutagenic "SOS response" and DNA break repair mechanisms are up-regulated in response to stress (reviewed in [7]. Interestingly, the role of "stress induced mutagenesis" (SIM) might occur in diverse eukaryotes from yeasts [8-10], to algae [11], nematodes [12], and human cancer cells [13, 14], suggesting its broad conservation. However, as the SOS response appears to be prokaryote-specific, we lack a coherent framework that explains the mechanistic details of how stress may drive mutagenic processes in eukaryotic organisms.

Physiological changes including transcriptional induction and the landscape of epigenetic modifications that facilitate the rapid response to stress have also been suggested to drive genome instability [15, 16], thereby coupling non-genetic and genetic sources of adaptive potential, although whether high levels of transcription drive an increase in mutation rate in the absence of selection remains debated [17-19]. The ribosomal DNA repeats in S. cerevisiae provide an example of a genomic locus undergoing controlled genetic changes in a transcription-dependent manner that is linked to epigenetic modifications [20-24]. In this case, the repetitive nature of the rDNA supports frequent CNV (also called "repeat instability"); likely fitness advantages provide a selective pressure for maintaining an ideal rDNA copy number, for example cultures of strains engineered to have decreased rDNA copy number rapidly "acquire" additional rDNA copies [25]. Hints that an active mechanism may explain such observations have
emerged. For example, it has been suggested that cells possess mechanisms to control rDNA copy number by modulating either the frequency of local DNA stability within the locus and/or the mechanism of homology-directed repair (HDR) used to repair local DNA lesions [26, 27]. One influence on this process may be the sub-nuclear compartmentalization of the rDNA in the nucleolus, which is associated with the inner nuclear membrane (INM) in yeasts. Indeed, disrupting an rDNA tether to the nuclear envelope, provided by the integral inner nuclear membrane LEM (LAP2, emerin, MAN1) domain protein Heh1/Src1, increases rDNA CNV [28, 29], although the mechanism remains obscure. Moreover, it remains largely unexplored if similar mechanisms act elsewhere in the genome to modulate the frequency of CNV or point mutations, and, if so, how such mechanisms might contribute to adaptation.

Here we identify a stress-response pathway that modulates cellular adaptation through CNV. Interestingly, the extent of CNV is controlled at the INM, where genetic deletion of HEH1 drives increased CNV through a mechanism that requires its ohnologue, HEH 2 [30]. Our findings support a model in which Heh2 acts antagonistically to Heh1 through a pathway that leads to the transcription-dependent formation of RNA-DNA hybrids. We suggest a model in which non-genetic changes at specific genetic loci that associate with the nuclear periphery drive local CNV to promote adaptation.

## Results

To study the innate mechanisms by which cells adapt to changes in their environment through CNV, we adopted the S. cerevisiae multicopy ENA gene locus as an
experimental model, which comparative genomics approaches had suggested to undergo high levels of CNV [31]. Genome assemblies of budding yeast strains suggest that up to five ENA gene copies (with $\approx 98 / 99 \%$ identity) reside in a tandem array[32-35]; our WT W303 strain has four tandem ENA coding sequences, as confirmed by PCR, which we refer to here as ENA1-4 (Figure 1A; Supplemental Figure 1A-B). Consistent with the idea that the ENA locus encodes pumps responsible for salt efflux, it is rapidly induced $\approx 3$-fold in the presence of 100 mM LiCl (Figure 1B) and is essential under high salt conditions [36, 37] (Figure 1C).

To identify pathways that impact ENA CNV, we devised an in vitro evolution assay wherein cells are grown in liquid medium containing 100 mM LiCl by serial culturing for $\approx 200$ generations (see Materials and Methods)(Figure 1D). Prolonged culturing in LiCl resulted in WT adapted ("WT-A") strains that tolerate high concentrations (up to 300 mM ) of LiCl compared to the WT parental ("WT-P") strain (Figure 1E). To test the underlying basis for improved fitness of WT-A, we measured ENA gene copy number by qPCR. The adapted strain expanded its ENA gene dosage by $500 \%$, possessing an average of 20 copies per genome (Figure 1F). To differentiate whether the increase in gene copy number occurred through intrachromosomal or extra-chromosomal expansion (historically referred to as a "homogenous staining region" (HSR) or double minutes (DMs), respectively), we tested whether salt tolerance was inherited through a Mendelian or random genetic segregation in meiosis (Figure 1G). The WT-A strains was crossed with a WT strain with a genetic marker integrated adjacent to the ENA locus to monitor segregation; WT::URA3-P) and meiosis was induced. We observed a

Mendelian inheritance pattern where two of the four progeny (F1 and F4) maintained $\approx 20$ copies of the ENA locus (Figure 1 F ) with concomitant salt tolerance (Figure 1 H ). These data support the conclusion that cells adapt to high salt through an intrachromosomal expansion of the ENA genomic locus ( $\approx 20$ ENA genes; Figure 1F-H), and not through the production of extrachromosomal DMs.

Copy number expansion is typically driven by non-conservative homology-directed repair processes downstream of replication fork collapse or the formation of DNA double-strand breaks[38]. As it has been suggested that high levels of transcription can drive local genome instability [15], and ENA expression is transcriptionally induced upon growth in high salt (Figure 1B), we next tested if transcription drives ENA locus instability. We devised a genome stability assay similar to that used to reveal the nonuniform rate of mutation across the budding yeast genome[39, 40]. Here, counterselection for Ura3 activity, which converts 5-Fluoroorotic acid (5-FOA) to the toxic metabolite, 5-fluorouracil, allows the frequency of mutations in (or loss of) URA3 to be defined. We inserted the URA3 gene in three different positions at the ENA locus (Figure 2A) and measured the spontaneous instability at each position over a single cell cycle (2 hours growth before plating on 5-FOA; loss of URA3 must occur prior to plating). In all positions, Ura3 activity is lost at rates at least an order of magnitude higher than at the endogenous URA3 locus ( $\approx 10^{-8}$; Figure $2 B$ ), suggesting a high level of local instability. As expected due to flanking tandem repeats [41-44], the highest level of instability $\left(\approx 10^{-5}\right)$ is observed when URA3 is inserted within the ENA copies (Figure 2B ("In"); in this case, the URA3 gene is always lost, presumably by non-allelic
homologous recombination; Supplemental Figure 2A). Interestingly, the instability downstream ( $3^{\prime}$ ) of the ENA gene locus $\left(\approx 10^{-6}\right)$ is markedly higher than upstream ( $5^{\prime}$; $\approx 10^{-7}$ ), suggesting a potential role for ENA transcription in modulating URA3 stability. Consistent with this idea, inducing ENA gene expression by addition of LiCl during the single generation (2 hours) of release (from -uracil to 5-FOA) drives a higher frequency of 5-FOA resistant colonies specifically at URA3 inserted downstream of the ENA locus ( $\approx 30 \%$ ). Consistent with the idea that this effect is a direct result of transcription, it was abolished in cells harboring a loss of function allele of RNA polymerase II, rpb1-1 [45, 46] (Figure 2C). In contrast, the region upstream of the ENA locus showed a lower frequency of 5-FOA resistant colonies in the presence of $\mathrm{LiCl}(\approx 40 \%)$ while the stability of the endogenous URA3 locus is unaffected (Figure 2C).

5-FOA resistant colonies derived from strains with URA3 inserted downstream of the ENA locus almost all map to the URA3 gene, with an increase in the number of mutations per URA3 gene upon exposure to LiCl (from $\approx 5 \%$ to $\approx 25 \%$ of 5 -FOA-resistant clones have 2-4 mutations in URA3; Figure 2D). By contrast, the mutation profile of the upstream position is very similar to that of the endogenous locus, where $\sim 30 \%$ of the 5 -FOA-resistant colonies occur outside the URA3 gene (Figure 2D) and does not change in response to LiCl . A more detailed mutational signature analysis shows that mutations driving 5-FOA-resistance at URA3 integrated downstream of ENA are enriched in transversions ( $\approx 90 \%$ ), which shifts to an increase of transitions ( $\approx 30 \%$ ) and indels ( $\approx 15 \%$ ) after LiCl exposure (Figure 2E); this contrasts with URA3 integrated upstream of the ENA locus, which is unaffected by addition of LiCl and matches the
transition/transversion rate typical of the budding yeast genome as a whole ( $\approx 0.6$ )[47]. At the endogenous URA3 locus in the absence of LiCl we observe a mutational profile in line with previous studies [39](Figure 2E). Here we also observe a shift from transversions to transitions after LiCl treatment, although these events remain relatively rare given the low rate of recovering mutations at URA3 (Figure 2B,D).

These observations suggest that local factors might drive genome instability and/or the fidelity of repair [40, 48]. To gain further insight we turned to a genome-wide analysis of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) distribution across twenty-one S. cerevisiae strains $[49,50]$, in which we defined peaks of significantly locally high SNP density ("islands"; Figure 2F; see Methods). Ranking SNP islands according to their integrated peak height and width to give rise to a SNP island score (see Methods), we found that the highest ranked islands (18 of the top 20; 41 of the top 50, Supplemental Figure 2B, Table S1) harbor genes that fall into at least one of two categories: subtelomeric genes and genes with paralogues (many of which are ohnologues arising from the whole genome duplication in the $S$. cerevisiae lineage), both of which are established to undergo rapid changes in sequence content [51-53]; indeed, none of the genes located in the top 20 SNP islands are essential. Surprisingly, the essential KRS1 gene, which lies immediately downstream of the ENA locus, scored $21^{\text {st }}$ of all ranked islands (Table S1); the unusually high mutational frequency within $K R S 1$ was in fact noted in the initial comparative genomic sequence analysis of budding yeast strains [54]. More generally, the entire genomic region downstream of the ENA locus has a high SNP load compared to the region upstream of the ENA genes (Figure 2F), consistent with the heightened
instability of URA3 at this position.

To gain insight into the factors that might underlie the high SNP load and relative instability of the KRS1-ENA region, we investigated its sub-nuclear localization by integrating a lac Operator array just upstream of ENA1 and monitored its position in cells expressing GFP-lacl and Hmg1-mCherry, a nuclear envelope/ER marker. Interestingly, the ENA locus is more strongly enriched at the nuclear envelope compared to the URA3 locus (Supplemental Figure 3), raising the possibility that the nuclear periphery might play a role in modulating the stability of this genomic region. As Heh1 was previously implicated in modulating the stability of the rDNA [29], we investigated if Heh1 (and/or its ohnologue, Heh2; Figure 3A) influences the chromosomal expansion of the ENA locus in response to salt stress by carrying out the in vitro LiCl evolution experiment for WT, heh14, heh2 $\Delta$, and heh1 1 heh2 $2 \Delta$ strains. All four genetic backgrounds acquired improved fitness on media containing LiCl ( 100 mM and 300 mM ) after 200 generations of culturing in 100 mM LiCl (Figure 3B). However, we uncovered marked differences in ENA copy number in the adapted strains by qPCR depending on genotype. In WT strains, ENA copy number is stable at 4 copies over 60 generations but increases to $\approx 6$ at around 90 generations, and ultimately reaches $\approx 20$ by 200 generations (Figure 3C). Interestingly, the heh1s strain undergoes a more rapid expansion of $E N A$ copies, doubling to $\approx 8$ at 60 generations and reaching a maximum copy number of $\approx 32$ by 90 generations, which is maintained until $\approx 200$ generations. Surprisingly, the ablation of the paralogous HEH2 has the opposite effect, delaying the ENA copy number expansion at all time points. Cells lacking both HEH1 and HEH2
behave nearly like WT, suggesting the possibility of antagonism between these two ohnologues on ENA locus copy number.

The observed ENA copy numbers directly correlate with growth fitness in the presence of LiCl as only heh1 $\Delta$ is resistant to growth in LiCl at $\approx 60$ generations, while at $\approx 90$ generations the heh $2 \Delta$ is the least fit as it only has 4 copies (on average) of the ENA genes (Figure 3C-D). The copy number increase is driven by intra-chromosomal expansion as for WT strains in all cases (Supplemental Figure 4) and is reproducible (Supplemental Figure 5). Importantly, the influence of HEH1 and HEH2 on copy number expansion cannot be explained by changes in inherent salt tolerance or ENA expression at baseline as assessed by RT-qPCR (Figure 3B and E). Moreover, levels of the ENA transcript increase proportionally with gene copy number in the adapted strains, although the relative influence of LiCl on $E N A$ transcript levels is diminished with increasing copy number (in the WT and heh1s backgrounds, compare parental to adapted strains, Figure 3E). Lastly, to gain insight into the stability of the expanded ENA copy number in the absence of salt stress, we serially re-streaked the adapted strains on rich media. Interestingly, only the heh14 strain shows a loss of ENA copy number (almost 50\%), while the other strain backgrounds remain stable (Figure 3F,

Supplemental Figure 5). This suggests that loss of Heh1 increases CNV in an unbiased fashion, while selection acts to determine if the ENA copy number expands or contracts depending on fitness for the environment.

To understand how HEH1 and HEH 2 achieve this effect, we investigated their synthetic
genetic interaction networks [55-60]. Interestingly, HEH1 shows synthetic sickness with genes involved at different stages of transcription: TOP1, which prevents negative DNA supercoiling, the THO-TREX/TREX2 complex, which influence transcriptional elongation and termination (coordinated with mRNA export), and XRN1 and RRP6, which participate in RNA surveillance and degradation. All these genes play a major role in preventing the formation or persistence of RNA-DNA hybrids (R-loops) that constitute a major threat to genome stability [61]. Intriguingly, HEH2 consistently displays the opposite effect of HEH1, acting as a genetic suppressor of the same genetic network. For example, deletion of HEH2 substantially rescues the growth of synthetically sick heh1 $\Delta s a c 3 \Delta$, heh1 $1 \mathrm{xrn} 1 \Delta$ and heh1 $\mathrm{rrrp6} \mathrm{\Delta}$ strains (Figure 4B, Supplemental Figure 6). Interestingly, the deletion of the Heh2 winged-helix domain is enough to partially rescue the fitness loss of heh1 $\Delta$ sac $3 \Delta$ (Figure 4B). These genetic interactions suggest the possibility that Heh1 and Heh2 might modulate R-loop formation or resolution, which we first tested genetically by examining interactions between HEH1 and HEH2 and the ribonuclease H 1 and H 2 enzymes involved in the removal R -loops in S . cerevisiae, encoded by RNH1 and RNH2O1 [62]. Loss of HEH2 is suppressive of the growth defect of the rnh1 $\Delta r n h 201 \Delta$ genotype in the presence of hydroxyurea, driving a marked increase in fitness with the colony size increasing by $\approx 75 \%$ (Figure 4C).

To directly test how HEH1 and HEH2 influence the accumulation of R-loops at the ENA locus, we carried out targeted RNA-DNA immunoprecipitation (DRIP) using the monoclonal antibody S9.6 [63] followed by qPCR. We detected robust RNA-DNA hybrids across the ENA region (Figure 4D). However, there is a marked asymmetry,
with the gene KRS1 accumulating almost twice the extent of hybrids detected at the ENA or RSM10 genes, thus correlating with the stability of the exogenous URA3 gene inserted at these locations (Figure 2). Interestingly, the deletion of HEH1 drives an overall increase of RNA-DNA hybrids, most dramatically at KRS1 (Figure 4D); heh2د, or the combined heh1s heh2 2 genetic backgrounds do not produce any measurable change compared to WT cells, suggesting that loss of HEH1 only drives accumulation of RNA-DNA hybrids when HEH2 is present. Taken together, these orthogonal approaches suggest that the presence of HEH2 favors the formation RNA-DNA hybrids, while HEH1 opposes this activity.

## Discussion

This work provides evidence for pathway in which the act of transcription and the LEM domain protein HEH2 promote CNV at the ENA locus, while HEH1 opposes this activity. In cells lacking HEH1, RNA-DNA hybrids accumulate downstream of the ENA locus, which is associated with a more rapid rate of both CNV expansion (in the presence of selective pressure) and contraction (in the absence of selective pressure). This model is further supported by a network of opposing genetic interactions between HEH1 and HEH2 and genes encoding factors influencing transcription termination, RNA turnover, or metabolizing RNA-DNA hybrids. We speculate that the expansion of the ENA locus and salt tolerance provides just one example of the biological contexts in which specific sites in the genome undergo this type of stress-induced CNV pathway, although further studies will be required test this notion.

While it has previously been appreciated that tandem genomic repeats frequently undergo reciprocal exchanges that can drive changes in copy number [38] (which can then be acted upon by selection) and that accumulation of RNA-DNA hybrids is tied to local, increased genome instability [61], these processes are largely thought to take place due to faulty repair mechanisms or incidental (and often deleterious) effects. At the same time, substantial evidence supports the notion that CNV is exploited to promote adaptation in yeasts [64,65], but also in a broad array of other organisms and context, for example resistance to antibiotics in prokaryotes or chemotherapy resistance in the setting of cancer (reviewed in [7, 66]). Here we provide evidence that the antagonistic functions of conserved LEM domain proteins [67], likely through modulating RNA-DNA hybrids, influence the local loss of "genome stability" and fuel CNVdependent adaptation. Our findings extend previous recent observations that CNVs can be driven in response to environmental stress in a manner that requires both transcription [2] and its associated histone modifications [2, 68]. Importantly, here we find that such processes result not only from stochastic losses of genome integrity resulting from collisions between the replication fork and RNA-DNA hybrids and subsequent repair processes, but also from a balance of HEH1- and HEH2-dependent influences that regulate a local loss of genome stability in response to physiological cues. Importantly, in this context we conclude that spontaneous gain/loss of copy number and selection for copy gain (growth in LiCl ) alone cannot explain our observations.

How might the balance of LEM domain protein activities influence RNA-DNA hybrid
formation? It is interesting to note that paralogues (in this case the HEH1 and HEH2 ohnologues arising from the whole genome duplication in the history of S. cerevisiae) often evolve to carry out antagonistic functions [69, 70]. The genetic interaction network of HEH1 and HEH2 (Fig. 4) supports the notion that these factors antagonize each other to regulate either transcriptional termination, leading to stalled RNA-DNA hybrids, or instead the removal of RNA-DNA hybrids by RNase H. Interestingly, the domain of Heh2 necessary to impart its activity, its C-terminal winged helix domain, is structurally shared among the RNA-interacting components of the THO-TREX complex [71], although further studies will be necessary to define the biochemical activities or interactions by which these LEM domain proteins influence the accumulation of RNADNA hybrids.

In addition to changes in copy number, here we also demonstrate that the ENA locus is also a hot spot for point mutations, in a manner that is at least partly influenced by its transcriptional response to high concentrations of LiCl. For example, the rates of mutation within URA3 5' and 3 ' to the ENA gene cluster is substantially higher than the median rate observed across tens of URA3 insertion sites on chromosome VI [40], raising the question of why this locus is so unusually unstable. As the ENA locus is replicated early [72], and the occupancy of Pol II is similar both up and downstream of the ENA locus [73], we favor the idea that, as was described for the acquisition of suppressor of ochre mutations in budding yeast due to non-random mutations to one of the six tRNA-Tyr genes [74], the orientation of the ENA transcriptional unit (and the associated RNA-DNA hybrids) drives collisions with the replication fork that initiates
from a nearby ARS, only 21 kbps 5 ' to the ENA gene cluster. The change of the mutational signature in the presence of LiCl downstream of the $E N A$ locus is compatible with the mutation profile observed for DNA polymerases involved in gene conversion (Pol $\delta$ and Pol $\varepsilon$ ) interrogated at another highly unstable region of the budding yeast genome, the mating type locus [75], suggesting that they may be products of DNA repair acting after replication fork collapse, although translesion synthesis, which can drive single base pair substitutions, may also play a role [76-78]. This model echoes the observations that the recombinase RecA and DNA synthesis are required for "directed mutagenesis" in bacteria $[79,80]$ but supports the existence of mechanisms that drive a "regional" (rather than random) mutagenesis followed by selection rather than a preference for adaptive mutations.

Oncogene amplification represents a major driver of carcinogenesis and a challenge to cancer therapy [81-83]. The results presented here suggest that adaptive mechanisms that drive CNV can be disabled to combat oncogenesis and therapy resistance. The antagonistic effect of HEH1 and HEH2 on this process highlights the need for further investigation into how members of the LEM domain family in mammals, which includes LAP2, emerin, LEM2 and MAN1, impact on genome integrity; to date this potential connection has gone largely uninvestigated [84].

## Materials and Methods

Yeast strain generation and culturing. All yeast strains used in this study and their derivation are listed in Table S2. Unless otherwise stated, all experiments were conducted at $30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. The rpb1-1 strain (derived from KWY1302, a gift K. Weis, ETH Zurich, Switzerland) was cultured at room temperature (RT) as described in the Figure Legends. All strains were grown in YP (1\% yeast extract and 2\% peptone) with 2\% dextrose (YPD) with the addition of different concentration of LiCl , as described. Standard yeast manipulations including transformations, tetrad dissection, and PCRbased integration were performed as described[85]. The LacO integrations were generated as described[86].

In vitro evolution experiment. The strains were initially grown overnight at $30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in 2 ml YPD. In the morning, the density of the culture was quantified using an automated cell counter (Moxi ${ }^{2}$ - Orflo) and 50,000 cells were diluted into 50 ml of YPD with100mM LiCl and grown for 24 h . This procedure of quantification and dilution of the culture was repeated for 18 days (~200 generations). Every day samples were collected and stored for fitness and gene copy number analysis.

Reverse transcription PCR and qPCR. RNA was prepared using the MasterPure Yeast RNA purification Kit (Epicentre) according to manufacturer's instructions from cells growing in exponential phase at $30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in YPD, and after 10 min exposure to YPD with 100 mM LiCl. DNA contamination was removed by treating samples with DNasel for 45 min at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. cDNA was synthesized from 500 ng of total RNA using Superscript $®$ III

First-Strand Synthesis (Invitrogen) with oligo-dT primers. cDNA was added to the iTaq ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ Universal SYBR® Green supermix (BIORAD) with primers to amplify ENA1-4 (the primers anneal in regions that are identical between all 4 gene copies) and ACT1 as internal load control. Reactions mixes were cycled in a CFX96 Touch Real-Time PCR Detection system (BIORAD). To calculate relative gene expression we used the $2^{-}$ ${ }^{\Delta \Delta C t}$ method of analysis[87]. Log2 $2^{-\Delta \Delta C t}$ values were from three independent experiments were normalized to control condition ( 0 mM LiCl ) and plotted as shown in Figs. 1B, 3E. Primers listed in Table S3.

## Genomic DNA extraction and copy number quantification by qPCR. Genomic DNA

 was prepared using a modified Winston method. Cells were grown overnight to saturation in YPD, washed with 1 ml of water and resuspended in 10 mM Tris- $\mathrm{HCl}, \mathrm{pH}$ 8.0, 2\% TRITON X-100, 1\% SDS, $100 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaCl}, 1 \mathrm{mM}$ EDTA. $200 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alchol (25:24:1) (Fisher Scientific) and $100 \mu$ of glassbeads were added to the cell suspension and vortexed for 5 min . After adding $200 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA (TE), the suspension was centrifuged for 5 min at 17000 x g, the supernatant transferred to a new tube and genomic DNA was precipitated with $100 \%$ ethanol. The pellets were washed with $70 \%$ ethanol, air dried and resuspended in TE containing $50 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mu \mathrm{l}$ RNase. The method adopted for measuring copy number was adapted from Weaver et al.[88] with minor modifications. Briefly, we used the following approach: $2^{-\Delta \Delta C q}$ based on a target assay $T(E N A)$ for the DNA segment being interrogated for copy number variation and a reference assay R (ALG9) for an internal control segment which is a single copy gene. The $\Delta C_{q}=\left(C_{q, E N A}-C_{q, A L G 9}\right)$ is a measure ofthe copy number of the target segment (ENA) relative to the reference segment (ALG9). The next step in determining the relative copy number is to calibrate the $\Delta C_{q}$ value to a sample with a single copy number for the target (ENA) and for reference gene (ALG9) $\Delta C_{q, C}=\left(C_{q, E N A}-C_{q, A L G 9}\right)$. Assuming that the efficiencies of the target and reference assay are similar and close to 1[87], the relative copy number is calculated from the formula $2^{-}$ ${ }^{\Delta \Delta C q}$ where $\Delta \Delta C_{q}=\Delta C_{q}-\Delta C_{q, c}$. For every target and calibrator sample, three different concentrations of genomic DNA were tested, each in triplicate, thus allowing us to evaluate the efficiency for every sample analyzed.

Genome stability assay. Cells were grown in selective media (CSM-URA) for two days starting from a single colony obtained from a freshly re-streaked strain. After two days, the cells were resuspended in complete YPD media for a single cell cycle (2 hrs. for WT strains) and then plated on YPD plates (to determine the total number of cells plated) and on 5-fluoorotic acid (5-FOA)-containing plates to identify the number of cells that lost URA3 activity. In the case of LiCl treatment, cells were released for a single cell cycle (2 hrs. for WT) in YPD containing 100 mM LiCl . The data are reported as a ratio between the number of cells growing in 5-FOA plates versus the total number of cells measured on YPD plates.

Microscopy. For the imaging experiments, cells were grown to mid-log phase and immobilized on a 1.4\% agarose pad containing complete synthetic medium (CSM) with 2\% glucose and sealed with VALAP (1:1:1 Vaseline/lanolin/paraffin). The microscopy experiments were carried out on a wide-field deconvolution microscope (DeltaVision;

Applied Precision/GE Healthcare) equipped with a $100 \times$, 1.40 NA objective lens and solid state illumination. The images were acquired using an Evolve EMCCD camera (Photometrics). Temperature control was achieved through the enclosure of the microscope within an environmental chamber. In all cases, a z-series of images with 200 nm spacing were acquired and further processed as described under "Image processing and analysis."

Image processing and analysis. The 3D reconstruction of the nuclear envelope, fitting of the Lacl-GFP/LacO focus and the position of the Lacl-GFP/LacO with respect to the nuclear envelope were determined as described in our published work[89].

Single nucleotide polymorphism analysis. Variant data was obtained for 21 S . cerevisiae strains, kindly provided by Dr. J. Michael Cherry[49], which includes BC187, BY4741, BY4742, CEN.PK2-1Ca, D273-10B, DBVPG6044, FL100, FY1679, JK9-3d, K11, L1528, RedStar, RM11-1A, SEY6210, Sigma1278b-10560-6B, SK1, UWOPS05_217_3, W303, X2180-1A, YPS163, and YS9. The genome build used as the reference and for plots was UCSC sacCer3. Individual SNPs were excluded if any of the following criteria were met: allele balance for heterozygous genotype $>0.75$, read depth $>360$, strand bias $>-0.1$, or those flagged for low quality. These 21 filtered files were combined and a variant frequency file was generated, which lists the number of strains for which a variant was identified at each position for each chromosome. The variant frequency file was divided by the total number of variants across the genome $(729,305)$ to make a distribution file. Peaks were called (and island scores were
determined) using SICER[90] with the following settings: window size $=100 \mathrm{bp}$, gap size $=100 \mathrm{bp}, \mathrm{E}$-value $=100$, FDR of $2.1 \%$.

Epistasis analysis. Genetic interactions were assessed by spotting equivalent numbers of cells in six 10 -fold serial dilutions incubated at $30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $2-4$ days. For epistasis analysis the size of 60 colonies from three independent growth assays were measured using Fiji[91]. For each replicate the strains tested were isolated directly from spores obtained from tetrad dissection.

DNA:RNA immunoprecipitation (DRIP). Yeast strains grown in YPD were harvested in exponential phase, washed with 1 ml of water and frozen in liquid nitrogen. The cells were lysed with RA1 buffer (Macherey-Nagel) supplemented with 100 mM NaCl and $1 \%$ $\beta$-mercapthoethanol. The cell suspension was mixed with phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) (Fisher Scientific) and glass beads. Cells were broken by mechanical shaking using a pulsing vortex mixer. After spinning, the upper phase was transferred to a new tube and nucleic acids were precipitated with 1 ml of isopropanol followed by centrifugation. Pellets were washed with $70 \%$ ethanol, air dried, resuspended in 50 mM Tris-HCl, $75 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{KCl}, 3 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{MgCl}$, 10 mM DTT, 5 mM EDTA and sonicated with a Bioruptor (Diagenode) to obtain 100-500 bp fragments. Fifteen micrograms of sonicated nucleic acids were diluted in 1 ml of IP buffer (0.1\% SDS, $1 \%$ Triton X-100, 10 mM HEPES $\mathrm{pH} 7.7,0.1 \%$ sodium deoxycholate, 275 mM NaCl ) and incubated overnight on a rotating wheel at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with $1 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of S 9.6 antibody (Kerafast), followed by precipitation with $25 \mu$ l of Dynabeads protein G (Life Technologies) pre-blocked with bovine serum
albumin and $E$. coli DNA. Beads were washed 5 times with IP buffer, and the DNA fragments were collected by PCR cleanup kit (QIAGEN). The collected DNA fragments were quantified by qPCR using the primers listed in Table S3, and values for DRIP were calculated using the formula $\Delta C_{q}$ "- antibody" $=2^{-(C q \text { "beads only" }-C q \text { "input chromatin" })}$ and $\Delta C_{q}{ }^{\prime \prime}+$ antibody" $=2^{-(C q \text { "beads only" - Cq "input chromatin") }}$. The values were normalized to CEN16, which was set to a value of 1 in order to compensate for differences in immunoprecipitation efficiency[92].

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## Figure Legends

Figure 1. ENA copy number expansion favors adaptation to high salt. (A)
Schematic of the ENA genomic locus, including the ENA genes (green, numbered from 1 to 4), RSM10 (upstream of the ENA locus, violet), and KRS1 (downstream of the ENA locus, grey). Arrowheads indicate the direction of transcription. (B) The level of the ENA1-4 transcript increases after 10 min . in the presence of 100 mM LiCI. RT-qPCR analysis of ENA1-4 transcript in 100 mM LiCl normalized to 0 mM LiCl . Mean $\pm$ SD from 3 independent experiments. (C) Deletion of ENA1-4 leads to cell death in the presence of 100 mM LiCl. Serial dilutions, 1:10, were grown on YPD plates with or without 100 mM LiCl. (D) Schematic of the in vitro evolution experiment. Cells were cultured for $\approx 200$ generations in YPD containing 100 mM LiCl ; every 24 h cells were diluted to 1,000 cells $/ \mathrm{ml}$ in fresh media. (E) The adapted strain (WT-A) has a fitness advantage over the parental strain (WT-P) when grown on YPD plates containing 100 mM and 300 mM LiCl . Serial dilutions as in (C). Note that plates containing LiCl were imaged after growth for an additional 24 h . (F) The copy number of the ENA locus is increased in WT-A and its meiotic progeny (described in G-H) as measured by qPCR. Mean $\pm$ SD of three independent experiments. (G) Schematic of the predicted genotypic and phenotypic (relative growth in LiCl denoted by + and -) differences of progeny (F1) derived through Mendelian inheritance (homogenous staining region/HSR; expansion on the chromosome) and non-Mendelian double minutes (DM; generation of episomes) during meiotic segregation. The chromosome (in red) can contain the parental ENA genomic locus (in blue), or the adapted ENA locus (in green, HSR as single band or DM as circles). (H) The spores inheriting the adapted ENA locus (F1-1 and F1-4) retain
improved growth on media containing 300 mM LiCl . Serial dilutions as in (C).

Figure 2. ENA locus instability is biased toward the $3^{\prime}$ region and is promoted by transcription. (A) Schematic representing the location of URA3 insertions at the ENA locus. (B) The ENA genomic locus and its flanking regions have higher spontaneous instability compared to URA3 at its endogenous locus. Measure of the loss of URA3 activity as the rate of obtaining clones resistant to 5-FOA compared to total cells plated. Mean $\pm$ SD of three independent experiments. (C) Addition of LiCl to induce ENA expression (Fig. 1B) drives increased instability specifically downstream of the ENA locus. This effect is abrogated in cells harboring a mutation that ablates Pol II function (rpb1-1). Data is expressed as the ratio for LiCl-treated to untreated cells. Mean $\pm$ SD of three independent experiments. (D) Increasing ENA gene expression affects the number of mutational events within URA3 specifically downstream of the ENA locus. In blue are events driving 5-FOA resistance outside the URA3 gene. (E) Addition of LiCl to induce ENA expression alters the mutational signature specifically downstream of the ENA locus. (F) The SNP load is biased downstream of the ENA locus. SNP depth derived from 21 S. cerevisiae strains (black) processed to identify SNP peaks (gray), which were further analyzed to identify significant SNP islands (shaded in blue tones by score; see Methods).

Figure 3. LEM domain proteins control adaptation efficiency through ENA copy number variation. (A) Schematic of the topology and domain architecture of Heh1 and Heh2. The conserved domains LAP2-emerin-MAN1 (LEM, blue), MAN1 C-terminal
homology domain/winged helix (WH, green), and transmembrane domains (grey) are indicated. INM is inner nuclear membrane. (B) The adapted (A) strains have better fitness than the parental strains (P) growing on YPD plates containing 100 mM and 300 mM LiCl. The adapted strains were obtained after serial culturing ( $\sim 200$ generations) in YPD containing 100 mM LiCI. Serial dilutions as in Fig. 1C. (C) Deletion of HEH1 and/or HEH2 influences the rate of ENA copy number expansion. qPCR measures of the ENA copy number through the course of the in vitro evolution experiment. (D) Fitness comparison of the four genetic backgrounds at $\sim 60$ and $\sim 90$ generations. Serial dilutions as in Fig. 1C. (E) ENA1-4 transcript levels increase in the adapted strains. Transcript levels of parental and adapted strains in control conditions (YPD) and after incubation for 10 min with 100 mM LiCl . The data are normalized to WT-P grown in YPD. Mean $\pm$ SD of three independent experiments. (F) HEH1 influences the stability of the adapted ENA locus in the absence of selective pressure. qPCR analysis of ENA copy number of adapted strains before and after 4 serial re-streaking on media lacking LiCl.

Figure 4. HEH1 and HEH2 are part of a genetic pathway modulating R-loop
formation. (A) Schematic of the tested genetic interactions (red and green lines) and those reported in the literature (red dashed lines). Red lines indicate a synthetic growth defect and green lines indicate a synthetic growth rescue for the connected gene pairs. (B) Synthetic genetic interactions between SAC3 and HEH1/2. Serial dilutions, 1:10, cells were grown on YPD plates. Quantification of the colony size (expressed in $\mathrm{cm}^{2}$ ), for 60 colonies for each strain from three independent experiments are plotted. Mean $\pm$

SEM. ${ }^{* * * *} p<0.0001$ (ANOVA). (C) Synthetic genetic interactions between RNH1/201 and HEH1/2. Serial dilutions, 1:10, cells were grown on YPD and on YPD containing 50 mM HU . Measurements of the colony size (expressed in $\mathrm{cm}^{2}$ ) for 60 colonies for each strain from three independent experiments are plotted. Mean $\pm$ SEM. ${ }^{* * * *} p<0.0001$ (ANOVA). n.s. is not significant. (D) R-loop analysis by DRIP-qPCR across the ENA
 RSM10 were analyzed by qPCR. The values for no-antibody (-Ab) and antibody S9.6 (+Ab) were calculated as described in Methods, and normalized to CEN16 to compensate for differences in IP efficiency. Mean $\pm$ SD of three biological replicates, each analyzed by qPCR three times.

A
KRS1 - ENA4-ENA3-ENA2-ENA1-RSM10



F
E




H


Figure 2


F

Chromosome IV:


540 kb
548 kb
YDR034W-B

ARO3
$\langle$ YDR034C-A











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Figure 3
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## Colombi et al., Supplemental Figures 1-6, Supplemental Tables 1-3

Supplemental Figure 1. Characterization of ENA genomic locus in W303. (A) PCR amplification of the ENA genomic locus from genomic DNA extracted from a strain containing a single ENA gene. The locus is schematized above the gel and the red arrows indicate the position of the PCR primers. (B) PCR amplification of the ENA genomic locus of our WT W303 strain finds four ENA gene copies (validated by qPCR, Fig. 1F).

Supplemental Figure 2. (A) The URA3 gene inserted between the ENA repeats ("In") is lost in the clones that become resistant (FOA-R) to growth on 5-FOA. 1 to 5 represents five different clones analyzed. The PCR in the lower panel shows the presence of the ENA genes even in clones that lost URA3. On the right are the schematics of the PCR primer binding sites (red) at the starting locus prior to 5-FOA selection. (B) The genomic region 3' to the ENA locus has a very high SNP load as assessed by comparative genomics (red, see also Table 1).

## Supplemental Figure 3. The ENA locus is associated with the nuclear periphery.

(A) Fluorescent micrographs of one $z$ section of cells expressing Hmg1-mCherry and Lacl-GFP. The Lac operator (LacO) array was inserted in proximity to the ENA locus. Green and red channels are shown, in addition to the merge. Dotted lines denote cell boundaries. (B) Distribution of the normalized distance between the LacO array and the nuclear envelope (NE) derived from the 3D reconstructions. Here the ENA locus is
enriched at the NE and it is depleted the nuclear interior, while the endogenous URA3 locus is relatively depleted from the NE and enriched at the nuclear interior. (C) Cumulative distribution of the normalized distance of the LacO array from the NE. The dashed lines represent the raw data while the continuous lines represent the binned data.

## Supplemental Figure 4. The ENA locus undergoes intra-chromosomal expansion

 in heh1 $\Delta$, heh2 $2 \Delta$ and heh1 $\Delta h e h 2 \Delta$ cells. (A, C, and E) The adapted ENA locus segregates in a Mendelian fashion in the adapted (A) heh1t, heh2 $\Delta$ and heh1theh2s strains, respectively. The ENA gene copy number of the four spores (F1-1-F1-4) was assessed by qPCR. (B, D, F) The spores from (A, C and E) that inherit the adapted ENA locus also show improved fitness on media containing 300 mM LiCl over those inheriting the WT ENA locus. Serial dilutions as in Fig. 1C.Supplemental Figure 5. Independent biological replicates of ENA expansion and contraction. (A) qPCR to determine ENA copy number through the in vitro evolution experiment of the indicated strains. (B) Second independent experiment showing that HEH1 influences the stability of the adapted ENA locus in the absence of selective pressure. qPCR analysis of ENA copy number of adapted strains before and after 4 serial re-streakings on complete media.

Supplemental Figure 6. Synthetic genetic interactions between XRN1 (top), RRP6 (bottom) and HEH1/2. Serial dilutions as in Fig. 1C. Measurement of the colony size
(expressed in $\mathrm{cm}^{2}$ ); 60 colonies from each strain from three independent experiments are plotted. Mean $\pm$ SEM. ${ }^{* * *} p<0.001,{ }^{* *} p<0.01$ (ANOVA).

## Supplemental Tables

Table 1. Top SNP islands (see Methods). Coordinates for each island, as well as gene features, whether the region is in the subtelomere (defined as within 25 kb of the chromosome end) and whether the region contains a gene with a paralogue are indicated. The $K R S 1 / E N A$ region, ranked $21^{\text {st }}$, is highlighted.

Table 2. S. cerevisiae strains used in this study.

Table 3. Oligonucleotide primers used in this study.

Supplemental Figure 1

$$
3718 \mathrm{br}
$$

3718 bp
KRS1
p

A

B
15303 bp

-

A


B





Relative distance from locus to NE

Supplemental Figure 4


C
ENA copy number


E

## ENA copy number



B
YPD, 300 mM LiCl


D
YPD, 300 mM LiCl


F
YPD, 300 mM LiCl
heh1/2د-A WT-P
F1-1


Supplemental Figure 5

$\rightarrow$ WT
_ heh1s
heh2 $\Delta$ heh1 $\Delta$
$\rightarrow$ heh2د

B





| Table 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Island 1 (1:26800-32299) | Score=2535.74205583 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | FLO9 | 1:24000-27968 |  | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Subtelomere | Paralog=FLO1(203403,208016,within_species_paralog) |  |
|  | GDH3 | 1:31567-32940 | + | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Paralog=GDH1(1041678,1043042,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
| Island 2 (VIII:92100-94499) | Score=2510.93794873 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | YHL008C | VIII:92627-94510 |  | INTERSECTS on 3' side |  |  |  |
| Island 3 (1:195900-199099) | Score=2185.10497897 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | SWH1 | 1:192619-196185 | + | INTERSECTS on 3' side | Paralog=OSH2(417663,421514,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
| Island 4 (VII:8800-13499) | Score=1568.13180526 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | YPS5 | VII:8470-8967 | + | INTERSECTS on 3' side | Subtelomere |  |  |
|  | YGL258W-A | VII:9162-9395 | + | CONTAINED | Subtelomere |  |  |
|  | VEL1 | VII:11110-11730 | + | CONTAINED | Subtelomere | Paralog=YOR387C(1069621,1070241,within_species_paralog) |  |
|  | MNT2 | VII:12481-14157 | - | INTERSECTS on 3' side | Subtelomere | Paralog=MNT4(736803,738545,within_species_paralog) |  |
| Island 5 (X:23900-26699) | Score=1500.59105166 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | REE1 | x:23133-23729 | + | BORDERS on its 3' side | Subtelomere |  |  |
|  | IMA5 | X:24341-26086 | - | CONTAINED | Subtelomere | Paralog=IMA2(22525,24294,within_species_paralog) |  |
|  | YJL215C | $\mathrm{x}: 26412-26771$ | - | INTERSECTS on 3' side |  |  |  |
|  | HXT8 | $\mathrm{x}: 26887-28596$ | + | BORDERS on 5' side | Paralog=HXT7(1154216,1155928,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
| Island 6 (VII:15300-20299) | Score=1494.78069198 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | ADH4 | VII:15159-16307 | + | INTERSECTS on 3' side | Subtelomere |  |  |
| Island 7 (V:191100-194599) | Score=1027.4792738 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | FAB1 | VI:184502-191338 | + | INTERSECTS on 3' side |  |  |  |
|  | YFR020W | V:192737-193435 | + | CONTAINED |  |  |  |
|  | ATG18 | V:194812-196314 | + | BORDERS on 5' side |  |  |  |
| Island 8 (XIV:735700-739299) | Score=990.60266807 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | BIO3 | XIV:734291-735733 | + | INTERSECTS on 3' side |  |  |  |
|  | MNT4 | XIV:736803-738545 | + | CONTAINED | Paralog=MNT2(12481,14157,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
| Island 9 (1:202300-204299) | Score=921.303304748 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | FLO1 | 1:203403-208016 | + | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Subtelomere | Paralog=FLO9(24000,27968,within_species_paralog) |  |
| Island 10 (IX:424200-429699) | Score=905.210691146 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | GTT1 | IX:423809-424513 | - | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Subtelomere |  |  |
| Island 11 (XVI:19400-24199) | Score=871.83879674 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | SAM3 | XVI:22938-24701 | + | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Subtelomere | Paralog=MMP1(17956,19707,within_species_paralog) |  |
| Island 12 (IX:392600-397699) | Score=842.282242453 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | FLO11 | IX:389572-393675 | - | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Paralog=BSC1(384601,385587,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
|  | YIR020C | IX:394255-394557 | - | CONTAINED |  |  |  |
|  | YIR020W-A | IX:394917-395159 | + | CONTAINED |  |  |  |
|  | YIRO2OC-B | IX:397215-397949 | - | INTERSECTS on 3' side |  |  |  |
|  | MRS1 | IX:397294-398385 | + | INTERSECTS on 5 ' side | Paralog=CCE1 | ,within_species_paralog) |  |
| Island 13 (XV:42800-44599) | Score=832.127565367 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | FRE7 | XV:40748-42610 | + | BORDERS on its 3' side | Paralog=FRE5(1061564,1063648,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
|  | GRE2 | XV:43694-44722 | + | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Paralog=YDR541C(1519664,1520698,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
|  | YOL150C | XV:44473-44784 | - | INTERSECTS on 3' side |  |  |  |
|  | DCP1 | xv:44938-45633 | + | BORDERS on 5' side |  |  |  |
| Island 14 (V:17600-21599) | Score=815.921605548 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | AGP3 | VI:17004-18680 | + | INTERSECTS on 3' side | Subtelomere | Paralog=ALP1(135940,137661,within_species_paralog) |  |
|  | YFL054C | VI:20847-22787 | - | INTERSECTS on 3' side | Subtelomere |  |  |
| Island 15 (V:560600-566799) | Score=799.622588886 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | PUG1 | V:559454-560365 | + | BORDERS on its 3' side | Subtelomere | Paralog=RTA1(918512,919465,within_species_paralog) |  |
|  | YER186C | V:561705-562625 | - | CONTAINED | Subtelomere |  |  |
|  | YER187W | v:566230-566655 | + | CONTAINED | Subtelomere |  |  |
| \|sland 16 (XIII:907400-908699) | Score=796.390381503 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | YMR316C-B | XIII:907321-907629 | - | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Subtelomere |  |  |
|  | YMR317W | XIII:907364-910786 | + | SURROUNDS | Subtelomere |  |  |
| Island 17 (XIV:742100-744499) | Score=770.538949961 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | FRE4 | XIV:739951-742110 | + | INTERSECTS on 3' side | Paralog=FRE2(9091,11226,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
|  | YNR061C | XIV:742881-743540 | - | CONTAINED |  |  |  |
|  | YNR062C | XIV:744360-745343 | - | INTERSECTS on 3' side |  |  |  |
| Island 18 (XV:29600-32399) | Score=754.549508367 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | HPF1 | XV:28703-31606 | - | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Paralog=YIL169C(23119,26106,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
| Island 19 (IX:26200-28499) | Score=747.593492399 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | YIL169C | IX:23119-26106 | - | BORDERS on its 5' side | Subtelomere | Paralog=HPF1(28703,31606,within_species_paralog) |  |
| Island 20 (IX:385400-390299) | Score=744.156960663 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | YAP5 | IX:384609-385346 | + | BORDERS on its 3' side | Paralog=YAP7(270633,271370,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
|  | YIR018C-A | IX:385564-385701 | - | CONTAINED |  |  |  |
|  | FLO11 | \|X:389572-393675 | - | INTERSECTS on 3' side | Paralog=BSC1(384601,385587,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
| Island 21 (IV:525400-527099) | Score=741.861880103 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | KRS1 | IV:525440-527215 | + | INTERSECTS on 5 ' side |  |  |  |
|  | ENA5 | IV:527422-530697 | - | BORDERS on 3 ' side |  |  |  |
| Island 22 (VII:20500-22399) | Score=718.621667044 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | ZRT1 | VII:20978-22108 | + | CONTAINED | Subtelomere | Paralog=ZRT2(402794,404062,within_species_paralog) |  |
|  | FZF1 | VII:22304-23203 | + | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Subtelomere |  |  |
| Island 23 (XII:788300-789399) | Score=683.448164996 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | CHS5 | XII:787664-789679 | + | SURROUNDS |  |  |  |
| Island 24 (X:26900-31199) | Score=652.656962559 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | YJL215C | x:26412-26771 | - | BORDERS on its 5' side |  |  |  |
|  | HXT8 | $\mathrm{x}: 26887$-28596 | + | INTERSECTS on 3' side | Paralog=HXT7 | 28,within_species_paralog) |  |
| Island 25 (XV:384200-386599) | Score=647.244160489 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | CIN5 | XV:383533-384420 | - | INTERSECTS on 5' side | Paralog=YAP6(974631,975782,within_species_paralog) |  |  |
|  | YORO29W | XV:384600-384935 | + | CONTAINED |  |  |  |
|  | DFG16 | XV:386825-388684 | + | BORDERS on 5' side |  |  |  |
| Island 26 (XIII:21000-21599) | Score=639.536122198 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | ERG13 | XIII:19060-20535 | - | BORDERS on its 5' side | Subtelomere |  |  |
|  | PGA3 | XIII:20761-21699 | - | SURROUNDS | Subtelomere | Paralog=CBR1(274072,2749 | ,within_species_paralog) |

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| Table 2 |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| Name | Genotype | Location | Source |
| W303 | ade2－1 can1－100 his3－11，15 leu2－3，112 trp1－1 ura3－1 |  | Euroscarf |
| PCCPL565 | W303，xrn1：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL566 | W303，heh1：：TRP1 xrn1：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL567 | W303，heh2：：natMX6 xrn1：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL568 | W303，heh1：：TRP1 heh2：：natMX6 xrn1：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL569 | W303，rrp6：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL570 | W303，heh1：：TRP1 rrp6：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL571 | W303，heh2：：natMX6 rrp6：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL572 | W303，heh1：：TRP1 heh2：：natMX6 rrp6：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL625 | W303，ena1／2／3／4ム ：＂kanMX6 |  | this work |
| PCCPL647 | W303，heh14：：natMX6 |  | this work |
| PCCPL648 | W303，heh24：：kanMX6 |  | this work |
| PCCPL649 | W303，heh14：：natMX6 heh24：：kanMX6 |  | this work |
| PCCPL654 | W303，Lacl－GFP：：HIS3 ENA1－LacO：：TRP1 HMG1－mCherry：：kanMX La | LacO inserted on ChrlV： 539221 | this work |
| PCCPL666 | W303，sac3：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL668 | W303，rnh1：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL686 | W303，heh14：：natMX6 sac3：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL687 | W303，heh24：：kanMX6 sac3：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL689 | W303，heh14：：natMX6 heh24：：kanMX6 sac3：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL732 | W303，URA3 | URA3 inserted ChrlV： 527281 | this work |
| PCCPL733 | W303，URA3 | URA3 inserted ChrlV： 531025 | this work |
| PCCPL741 | W303，heh2：：（1－570）HA：：HIS sac3：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL742 | W303，heh14：：natMX6 heh2：：（1－570）HA：：HIS sac3：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL774 | W303，URA3 | URA3 inserted ChrlV： 539591 | this work |
| PCCPL775 | W303，URA3 | URA3 at the endogenous locus | this work |
| PCCPL809 | W303，rnh201：：HIS3 |  | this work |
| PCCPL814 | W303，URA3 rpb－1 | URA3 inserted ChrlV： 527281 | rpb1－1 derived KWY1302 from Green et al． 2012 |
| PCCPL828 | W303，rnh1：：HYG rnh201：：HIS3 |  | this work |
| PCCPL829 | W303，heh14：：natMX6 rnh1：：HYG rnh201：：HIS3 |  | this work |
| PCCPL830 | W303，heh2ム $:$ ：kanMX6 rnh1：：HYG rnh201：：HIS3 |  | this work |
| PCCPL831 | W303，heh14：：natMX6 heh24：：kanMX6 rnh1：：HYG |  | this work |
| PCCPL832 | W303，heh14：：natMX6 heh24 ：：kanMX6 rnh201：：HIS3 |  | this work |
| PCCPL833 | W303，heh1汭natMX6 heh24：：kanMX6 rnh1：：HYG rnh201：：HIS3 |  | this work |
| PCCPL841 | W303，Lacl－GFP：：HIS3 URA3－LacO：：TRP1 HMG1－mCherry：：kanM＞L | LacO inserted on ChrV： 116227 | this work |

Table 3

| Name | Sequence | Source | Target |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PRPC355-f | GGGTCCTGTATGGCTTCATTTA | Lab. | ENA 1-4 |
| PRPC355-r | GCCGCAGAACGTGATCTATAA | Lab. | ENA 1-5 |
| PRPC500-f | GCACCGGTAGTGAATGTATGTA | Lab. | ALG9 |
| PRPC500-r | CACCTGGAAGAAGACCATCAA | Lab. | ALG9 |
| PRPC354-f | TACTGCGACCCAGACTCTTA | Lab. | KRS1 |
| PRPC354-r | CTTCACCTTCACCACCTTTCT | Lab. | KRS1 |
| PRPC358-f | CCGAAGTGCTACAGATGTTGATA | Lab. | RSM10 |
| PRPC358-r | GAACCCAAGTCCAGCGATATT | Lab. | RSM10 |
| PRPC359-f | GATTCCGGTGATGGTGTTACTC | Lab. | ACT1 |
| PRPC359-r | TCAAATCTCTACCGGCCAAATC | Lab. | ACT1 |
| PRPC722-f | TGAGCAAACAATTTGAACAG | Hage et al., 2014 | CEN16 |
| PRPC722-r | CCGATTTCGCTTTAGAAC | Hage et al., 2014 | CEN16 |

