

Evolutionary erosion of yeast sex chromosomes by mating-type switching accidents

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Abstract

We investigate yeast sex chromosome evolution by comparing genome sequences from 16 species in the family Saccharomycetaceae, including new data from genera *Tetrapisispora*, *Kazachstania*, *Naumovozyima* and *Torulaspota*. We show that although most yeast species contain a mating-type (*MAT*) locus and silent *HML* and *HMR* loci structurally analogous to those of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, their detailed organization is highly variable and indicates that the *MAT* locus is a deletion hotspot. Over evolutionary time, chromosomal genes located immediately beside *MAT* have continually been deleted, truncated, or transposed to other places in the genome in a process that is gradually shortening the distance between *MAT* and *HML*. Each time a gene beside *MAT* is removed by deletion or transposition, the next gene on the chromosome is brought into proximity with *MAT* and is in turn put at risk of removal. This process has also continually replaced the triplicated sequence regions, called Z and X, that allow *HML* and *HMR* to be used as templates for DNA repair at *MAT* during mating-type switching. We propose that the deletion and transposition events are caused by evolutionary accidents during mating-type switching, combined with natural selection to keep *MAT* and *HML* on the same chromosome. The rate of deletion accelerated greatly after whole-genome duplication, probably because genes were redundant and could be deleted without requiring transposition. We suggest that, despite its mutational cost, switching confers an evolutionary benefit by providing a way for an isolated germinating spore to re-form spores if the environment is too poor.

Keywords: genome evolution | gene transposition | gene truncation | DNA repair | *Saccharomyces*

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The *MAT* locus is the only site in the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* genome that is continually cleaved and repaired as part of the normal life cycle (1, 2). The *MAT* locus exists in two versions (idiomorphs) that contain either *MATa* or *MAT α* genes, enabling it to specify three cell types: haploid **a**, haploid α , and diploid **a**/ α . Mating-type switching is a programmed DNA rearrangement process that occurs in haploid cells and converts a *MATa* idiomorph into a *MAT α* idiomorph, or *vice versa*. During switching, DNA at the *MAT* locus is removed and replaced with DNA copied from either the *HML* or the *HMR* locus. *HML* and *HMR* are 'silent cassettes' that store the α -specific and **a**-specific sequence information, respectively, but are transcriptionally inactive due to chromatin modification (2-4).

The ability to switch mating type does not exist in all fungi, but originated independently at least twice (5): once in the family Saccharomycetaceae that includes *S. cerevisiae* and *Kluyveromyces lactis*, and once in the Schizosaccharomycetaceae that includes *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*. In the Saccharomycetaceae, switching evolved in a two-step process (6, 7). The first step was the origin of the *HML* and *HMR* cassettes, which occurred at the base of this family after it had diverged from other families such as Debaryomycetaceae and the *Candida albicans* clade (8). All species having silent cassettes, for example *Lachancea waltii* (9), are probably able to switch mating types using the homologous recombination machinery. However, in some clades a second evolutionary step increased the rate and/or precision of switching by directing a dsDNA break to the *MAT* locus in cells that are about to switch. This second step occurred independently, by two different mechanisms, in two groups of yeasts. In the 'post-WGD' clade (species that underwent whole-genome duplication (10)), and their closest relatives such as *Zygosaccharomyces rouxii*, the dsDNA break is made by the HO endonuclease (6, 11). The *HO* gene does not exist outside this clade. In the genus *Kluyveromyces*, the dsDNA break is made by the excision of a mobile genetic element from the *MAT α* idiomorph, during the switch from *MAT α* to *MATa* (12, 13). The mobile element contains a gene, $\alpha 3$, that is only present in *Kluyveromyces*. To switch in the opposite direction, from *MATa* to *MAT α* , *Kluyveromyces* induces a dsDNA break at *MATa* by a different but uncharacterised mechanism (12).

In all species that have silent cassettes, DNA repair at *MAT* is guided by two regions of sequence (the Z and X regions) that are almost identical between *MAT*, *HML* and *HMR*. In *S. cerevisiae*, the Z region contains the 3' end of the $\alpha 1$ gene, and the X region contains the 3' end of $\alpha 2$ and the 5' end of the neighboring chromosomal gene *BUD5* (Fig. 1). The idiomorph-specific region between them is called Y, the two versions of which ($Y\alpha$ and Ya) have no sequence similarity to one another. In *S. cerevisiae*, switching begins when the HO endonuclease cleaves the Y/Z junction in the *MAT* locus (1, 2, 14). The old *MAT*-Y region is degraded. The Z and X sequences direct the use of *HML* or *HMR*

as a template for repair, during which both strands of DNA at *MAT-Y* are newly synthesized in an error-prone fashion (15, 16). Repair is initiated by invasion of a 3' end from *MAT-Z* into the *HM* donor (17, 18), so the first strand of the *MAT-Y* region is always synthesized in the direction from Z to X. Switching takes about one hour (18).

Switching does not occur during every cell cycle, but is a strategy that enables a 'lonely' haploid yeast cell (that is, an isolated single cell that cannot find a partner of the opposite mating type) to produce diploid descendants (19-21). The haploid cell buds mitotically, the mother cell switches mating type, and the mother and daughter cells then mate to produce a homozygous diploid that can continue to replicate mitotically (22). In natural populations of *S. paradoxus*, switching has been estimated to occur approximately once per 20,000 cell generations (23). The average generation time of natural yeast populations is not known (21), but generation times of 100 minutes (24), 100 hours or 100 days would correspond approximately to one mating-type switch per 4 years, 200 years, or 5000 years respectively. Even at the lowest of these rates, two yeast species that diverged 10 million years ago would each have gone through 2000 switches since they shared a common ancestor, so switching needs to be efficient and accurate. For species that grow primarily as haploids, the rate of switching may be much higher. In this paper, we report evidence that switching errors do accumulate along evolutionary lineages and have had a profound effect on the structure of the *MAT*-containing chromosome in post-WGD species.

Results

Conservation of *MAT-HML* linkage. We compared *MAT* locus organization in 16 species of the family Saccharomycetaceae (25). We augmented existing data with new genome sequences for seven species: two each from the post-WGD genera *Kazachstania*, *Tetrapisispora* and *Naumovozyma*, and one from the non-WGD genus *Torulasporea*. The new data support previous hypotheses that the 3-cassette structure (*MAT*, *HML*, *HMR*) originated at the base of the Saccharomycetaceae (6-8), that the HO endonuclease is younger than the 3-cassette structure (6, 12), and that the loss of the *MATa2* gene (6, 26, 27) occurred on the same branch of the phylogenetic tree as the WGD. No losses of the *MATa1*, *MAT α 1* or *MAT α 2* genes occur in the Saccharomycetaceae species, in contrast to the multiple losses of *MAT* genes in the *Candida* clade (28, 29).

Among the 14 species in which mating-type switching appears to be possible, we find that *MAT* and *HML* are always on the same chromosome (86–310 kb apart) and the genotype of *HML* is always α . *HMR* is often on a different chromosome (30), and some species have two *HMR* loci (31). *HML* and

HMR are usually but not invariably subtelomeric. The conservation of *HML* and *MAT* in *cis*, and of the α genotype at *HML*, is probably due to conservation of the recombination enhancer (RE) site among species. The RE, which has so far only been found in *S. cerevisiae* (32, 33), is located in the interval between *HML* and *MAT*. It increases the frequency of productive switching by biasing the choice of donor (32), and operates by binding the $\alpha 2$ protein (34, 35). The two species that may be unable to switch mating type are *Lachancea kluyveri* which has no *HML* or *HMR* (6, 36), and *Kazachstania africana* which appears to have separate *MAT α* and *MATa* loci due to a genomic rearrangement and has lost *HML*, *HMR* and the *HO* endonuclease gene.

Turnover of Z and X regions. Although the *MAT* loci of most of the species are organized in a manner analogous to that of *S. cerevisiae*, the detailed structure of the Z and X regions varies extensively in terms of which *MAT* genes and neighboring chromosomal genes extend into them (Fig. 2). The X regions of *S. cerevisiae* and *Kaz. naganishii*, for instance, have nothing in common. This variation is surprising because the Z and X regions are virtually identical among the three copies within each genome, and were previously found to be among the most slowly-evolving sequences in the genome (with >96% identity) among four species in the genus *Saccharomyces* that are separated by tens of millions of years (37). Therefore the Z and X region sequences have low rates of nucleotide substitution but can be completely replaced. There is an evolutionary requirement for triplicated sequences flanking *MAT*, *HML* and *HMR* to guide mating-type switching, but the requirement is for triplication *per se* and not for any particular sequence.

A general principle of *MAT* locus organization apparent from Figure 2 is that the idiomorph-specific region $Y\alpha$ must contain parts of both the $\alpha 1$ and $\alpha 2$ genes, and Ya must contain parts of the $a 1$ and (where present) $a 2$ gene, so that the gene fragments in the *MAT*-Z and *MAT*-X regions are incapable of expression in cells with the 'wrong' genotype. Beyond this principle, however, it does not seem to matter which *MAT* genes extend into Z and X (Fig. 2), although in species with the *HO* endonuclease the Y/Z junction has been stabilized to a site in *MAT $\alpha 1$* . *Tetrapisispora phaffii* is puzzling because it seems to violate the principle: it has no Ya region (there is no DNA between the Z and X regions in its *MATa* idiomorph), so it is not clear how (or if) *MATa 1* expression is prevented in *MAT α* cells of this species.

Collision and truncation of chromosomal genes flanking *MAT*. The Z and X regions often include parts of flanking chromosomal genes whose functions are not related to cell identity (colored blue in Fig. 2), again with much variation among species. These genes are partially duplicated at *HML* and *HMR*. Remarkably, there is often almost no intergenic DNA between the flanking genes and the *MAT* genes and in some cases they overlap (Fig. 2; Fig. S1). Some flanking genes are truncated, such as

S. cerevisiae *BUD5* whose start codon overlaps the stop codon of *MAT* α 2. The Bud5 protein is only half the length of its orthologs in other species, lacking an SH3 domain at its N-terminus (38). *SLA2*, *SWI6* and *LAA1* in other species are all similarly truncated at their ends closest to *MAT* (Fig. S2). These features are all suggestive of a process that tends to delete nonessential DNA beside the *MAT* locus.

Progressive DNA deletion beside *MAT*. To investigate how the *MAT* locus acquired different flanking genes in different post-WGD species, we compared the genomes to the 'Ancestral' gene order (39) inferred to have existed just before the WGD occurred. In the Ancestral genome nomenclature (39), *HML* and *MAT* are on chromosome 1 (Anc_1), with *HML* α 1 and *HML* α 2 being the first two genes on this chromosome (Anc_1.1 and Anc_1.2) and the *MAT* locus about 120 genes further along (positions Anc_1.120 to Anc_1.122) (Fig. 3). The genes ancestrally flanking *MAT* are *SLA2* and *DIC1*, an arrangement that appears to be quite old and stable because it is conserved in *Komagataella phaffii* (*Pichia pastoris*) (40) and *Ogataea (Hansenula) polymorpha* (6). Ancestral chromosome 1 was duplicated as part of the WGD, giving rise to two daughter chromosomes. We call one daughter the '*MAT* chromosome' because it retained the *MAT* and *HML* loci, and the other the 'non-*MAT* chromosome' because it lost its copies of these loci. Both chromosomes underwent further rearrangement after the WGD, but in each post-WGD species the chromosomal regions derived from the *MAT* and the non-*MAT* chromosomes can be identified by tracing the products of each rearrangement event (39) and are shown in Fig. 3.

Strikingly, large deletions are seen on the *MAT* chromosome in each post-WGD species, beginning at the *MAT* locus and extending in the Z direction (leftwards as drawn in Fig. 3). These deletions brought genes that were originally further away in the interval between *HML* and *MAT* into direct proximity with *MAT*. In *Vanderwaltozyma polyspora*, for example, *SWI6* (Anc_1.60) is now the neighbor of *MAT* α 1 (Anc_1.122) on the *MAT* chromosome, and almost all the ancestral genes between them were retained on the non-*MAT* chromosome instead (Fig. 3). This non-random distribution of genes between sister chromosomal regions contrasts with the usual pattern of gene losses after WGD (31, 41). The most obvious explanation is that 60 consecutive genes were removed from the *MAT* chromosome in the *V. polyspora* lineage by deletion(s) that occurred soon after WGD, while most of its genome was still duplicated. The deletions have different endpoints in different post-WGD species, so that among the nine post-WGD species in Fig. 3 the current neighbors of *MAT* on the Z side are *KCC4* (Anc_1.52), *SWI6* (Anc_1.60), *EMG1* (Anc_1.64), *TAF2* (Anc_1.76) and *CAN1* (Anc_1.83). A similar but less extensive deletion process has occurred on the other (X) side, where the genes flanking *MAT* are *RNH203* (Anc_1.130), *RCY1* (Anc_1.131) and *BUD5* (Anc_1.134) in different post-WGD species. In *T. blattae*, a translocation has joined the X side of *MAT* to a telomeric region.

Rearrangements like this probably cannot occur on the Z side due to the evolutionary constraint to maintain *MAT* and *HML* on the same chromosome.

In contrast to the situation for post-WGD species, none of the non-WGD species show large deletions beside the *MAT* locus. They all retain an organization similar to *Torulaspota delbrueckii*, which is shown for illustration in Fig. 3. In different non-WGD species the genes neighboring *MAT* on the Z-side are *SLA2* (Anc_1.119) and *SUII* (Anc_1.118), and on the X-side *DICI* (Anc_1.123), *LAAI* (Anc_1.127), *RNH203* (Anc_1.130) and an unnamed zinc finger gene located between Anc_1.123 and 1.124 (Fig. 2). In *Z. rouxii*, similarly to *T. blattae*, a translocation has joined the X side of *MAT* to a telomeric region containing *CHAI*.

Gene transpositions provide a timeline. Instead of being deleted, some genes transposed away from the vicinity of the *MAT* locus. For instance *S. cerevisiae* *JJJ3* (Anc_1.113) is not found in the expected region of the *MAT* or the non-*MAT* chromosome (parts of chromosomes III and XIV, respectively), but instead is on chromosome X (*YJR097W*). *JJJ3* and its neighbor *YJR098C* (Anc_1.114) transposed from the *MAT* chromosome to a new genomic location descended from Ancestral chromosome 7, where they were inserted between genes Anc_7.468 (*YJR096W*) and Anc_7.470 (*YJR099W*). We found 39 separate such events of transposition away from *MAT* and use letters A–Z and AA–MM to identify them (Fig. 3). Each transposition event moved 1–3 genes. Of the 39 events, 35 are on the Z side of *MAT* and four are on the X side.

The transposition of *JJJ3* and *YJR098C* to the site on Ancestral chromosome 7 (event A in Fig. 3) is shared by the genomes of six post-WGD species, so it must have occurred in their common ancestor. Further to the left (Z side) of the *MAT* locus, events B, C, D and E are transpositions shared by *S. cerevisiae* and *Candida glabrata* (they have the same four insertion sites), but not other species. Further left again, events F, G, H and I are unique to *S. cerevisiae* and then we reach the gene (*TAF2*, Anc_1.76) that is the current neighbor of *MAT* in *S. cerevisiae*. A similar pattern is seen in each other post-WGD species (Fig. 3; Table S1). It is evident that the genes transposed in a particular order, with those closest to Anc_1.120 moving before those further to the left, over a long time period during which the post-WGD lineages diverged from one another as shown by the phylogenetic tree in Fig. 3.

We therefore infer that the *MAT* locus tends to cause the deletion or transposition of the gene that is its immediate neighbor on the Z-side. When one neighbor is removed, the next comes under attack. During the 100–200 million years since WGD, this process has removed a series of 44–60 *MAT*-neighboring genes in different post-WGD species. On the X (right) side, only four transpositions are

seen but again an older transposition (event JJ) involved a gene that was ancestrally closer to the *MAT* locus than the younger transpositions (events KK–MM).

Discussion

We hypothesize that the evolutionary deletions, gene truncations, and transpositions beside the *MAT* locus were made during recovery from occasional accidents that occurred during mating-type switching. DNA synthesis during switching in *S. cerevisiae* is highly prone to errors including microhomology-mediated jumps to ectopic templates (16). The evolutionary deletions resemble the long one-sided deletions found extending up to 12 kb from the HO site, in the Z direction, in about 2% of *S. cerevisiae* cells in experiments by Yu and Gabriel (42) in which the cleaved chromosome was repaired by microhomology-mediated end joining (MMEJ) because no donor sequence was available. During switching in *S. cerevisiae*, the HO double-strand break is processed (resected) to generate a long single-stranded tail that can include all the Z region and extend into the flanking gene (*TAF2*) beyond it (17). If this tail broke and lost the Z region, no homologous donor would be available; to repair the chromosome in a way that satisfies the constraint (imposed by the RE) to keep *MAT* and *HML* in *cis* would require re-ligation by MMEJ, deleting part or all of *TAF2*. If instead the tail invaded some other place in the genome, it could cause transposition of *TAF2* before the *HML-MAT* linkage is restored. The greater extent of deletions and transpositions seen on the Z-side than on the X-side (Fig. 3) may be because DNA strand exchange initiates in the Z region (17, 18). Successful repair of the chromosome would also require the new sequence flanking *MAT* to be copied to *HML* and *HMR* to become a new Z region; the fact that different chromosomal genes are incorporated into the Z and X regions in different species (Fig. 2) shows that such a feedback mechanism exists.

We infer that a tendency to delete DNA beside the *MAT* locus exists in non-WGD species as well as post-WGD species, because we see flanking gene truncations and some small gene deletions in non-WGD species (Fig. 2; Fig. S2; (43)). However, the effects of the deletion process are much more drastic in post-WGD species (Fig. 3). We hypothesize that the difference is because the WGD brought redundancy into the genome. Suddenly no genes beside the *MAT* locus were essential because they all had a second copy on the non-*MAT* chromosome, so large deletions were possible. As time progressed, duplicated genes were lost from throughout the post-WGD genome, and some genes in the interval between *HML* and *MAT* became single-copy. We propose that when the deletion process brought *MAT* adjacent to an essential single-copy gene, the process stalled until the gene transposed away from beside *MAT*. It is notable that some genes such as *TAM41* (Anc_1.86) transposed independently in multiple lineages to different genomic sites (events G, L, W and Z; Fig. 3 and Table S1). We suggest that its paralog on the non-*MAT* chromosome was lost soon after WGD, making

TAM41 essential and so requiring it to be relocated in each lineage when *MAT* encroached on it. Some patterns of transposition (events HH, AA, BB, and CC) also indicate that a gene can be 'trapped' in the Z region for a period of time while genes further to its left are deleted. *Eremothecium gossypii SUII* (Anc_1.118) may be an example of a trapped gene because *CWC25* (Anc_1.117) has transposed from between it and *VPS75* (Anc_1.116) (Fig. 2).

Our analysis suggests that errors during mating-type switching, combined with natural selection to keep *MAT* and *HML* on the same chromosome, have subjected the genes flanking the *MAT* locus to a continual process of attempted deletion and occasional transposition during evolution. Deletions were rampant in the immediate aftermath of the WGD but the rate at which *MAT* is moving towards *HML* is slowing (Fig. S4) because more genes are single-copy and need to be rescued by transposition. The deletion process removes genes and is therefore likely to impact on the biology of the species in which it occurs. One likely gene loss due to this process was a cyclin gene similar to *Candida albicans CCN1* (44), which has no ortholog in *S. cerevisiae*. This gene is located between positions Anc_1.77 and Anc_1.78 in non-WGD species. It has been lost from all post-WGD genomes, except in the genus *Kazachstania* where it survives because the *MAT* locus has only deleted Z-wards as far as Anc_1.83 in that genus (Fig. 3). Another possible casualty is the *MATa2* gene itself, whose loss led to rewiring of the cell identity pathway (26, 27).

Sex chromosomes are subject to unique evolutionary processes and mechanisms (5, 45-47). Our observations about the yeast *MAT* chromosome are reminiscent of the movement of genes out of the mammalian X chromosome (48, 49), but unlike that process we do not suggest that the 'out-of-*MAT*' gene movements are driven by natural selection. Instead, we propose a mechanical explanation: that mating-type switching is accident-prone, and that recovery from these accidents erodes the flanking chromosomal DNA. The fact that switching has been an evolutionarily successful strategy (23) implies that it must confer a benefit that outweighs the mutational costs of the deletions described here, and of the error-prone DNA synthesis that occurs during switching (16). What is this benefit? Unlike recombination, switching does not create or maintain any genetic diversity. And since switching occurs both in species that grow primarily as diploids (such as *S. cerevisiae* and most post-WGD lineages) and in others that grow primarily as haploids and sporulate immediately after mating (such as *K. lactis* and most non-WGD lineages), the benefit cannot simply be one of diploidy over haploidy. We suggest that the benefit of switching may be that, in effect, it makes spore germination reversible. Consider a single isolated spore that finds itself in a poor environment. In a yeast species that cannot switch mating types, if the spore germinates it commits itself irreversibly (50) to mitotic growth until it finds a mating partner. If the environment is too harsh, this cell lineage will go extinct. In contrast, in a species that can switch, an isolated spore that germinates in a harsh environment can

form new spores genetically identical to itself after just two mitotic cell divisions (51), followed by switching, mating, and sporulation. In this way, mating-type switching may have the benefit of allowing spores to test environments of uncertain quality. In poor environments one could envisage spores going through repeated cycles of germination, switching, and re-sporulation, possibly leading to periodic bursts of switching and increased rates of DNA erosion at the *MAT* locus.

Materials and Methods

Sequencing. The new genomes were sequenced using Roche FLX technology with the aim of achieving high contiguity and establishing the order of genes along chromosomes. We sequenced the type strains, purchased from the Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures, of these species in the family Saccharomycetaceae (25): *Tetrapisispora phaffii* (CBS 4417; 17 scaffolds), *Tetrapisispora blattae* (CBS 6284; 10 scaffolds), *Naumovozyma dairenensis* (CBS 421; 12 scaffolds), *Kazachstania africana* (CBS 2517; 12 scaffolds), *Kazachstania naganishii* (CBS 8797; 13 scaffolds) and *Torulaspora delbrueckii* (CBS 1146; 7 scaffolds). We also completed the sequence of *Naumovozyma castellii* (CBS 4309; previously called *Saccharomyces castellii* or *Naumovia castellii*; 10 scaffolds), which was draft-sequenced by Cliften *et al.* (52, 53). Sequencing was done under contract by Eurofins MWG Operon. Each genome was sequenced to >20x coverage (> 1 million reads) using a Roche GS FLX instrument with Titanium reagents, with a mixture of paired (3 kb, 8 kb and 20 kb genomic DNA inserts; 1/4 of data each) and unpaired (1/4 of data) sequence reads. Data was assembled into contigs and scaffolds using the Celera assembler (54). All inter-contig joins in the scaffold data were checked manually by reference to the paired-end reads and by comparison to other species. All scaffolds appear to correspond to complete chromosomes, except for one unplaced 15-kb scaffold in *T. phaffii*. Ribosomal DNA was assembled and integrated into the scaffolds manually. Mitochondrial genomes were not assembled.

Annotation. We developed a pipeline, to be described in detail elsewhere, that utilizes gene order and sequence data from the YGOB database (55) to annotate new yeast genomes. The pipeline uses an approach based on TBLASTN to overcome frameshift sequencing errors.

Data access. Genomes can be viewed in the YGOB database (<http://wolfe.gen.tcd.ie/ygob>). Sequences have been deposited in the EMBL database (accession numbers HE576752-HE576761, HE580267-HE580278).

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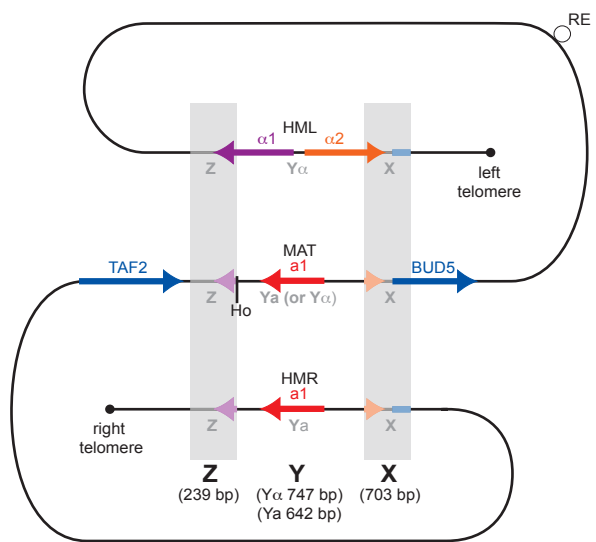
Figure legends

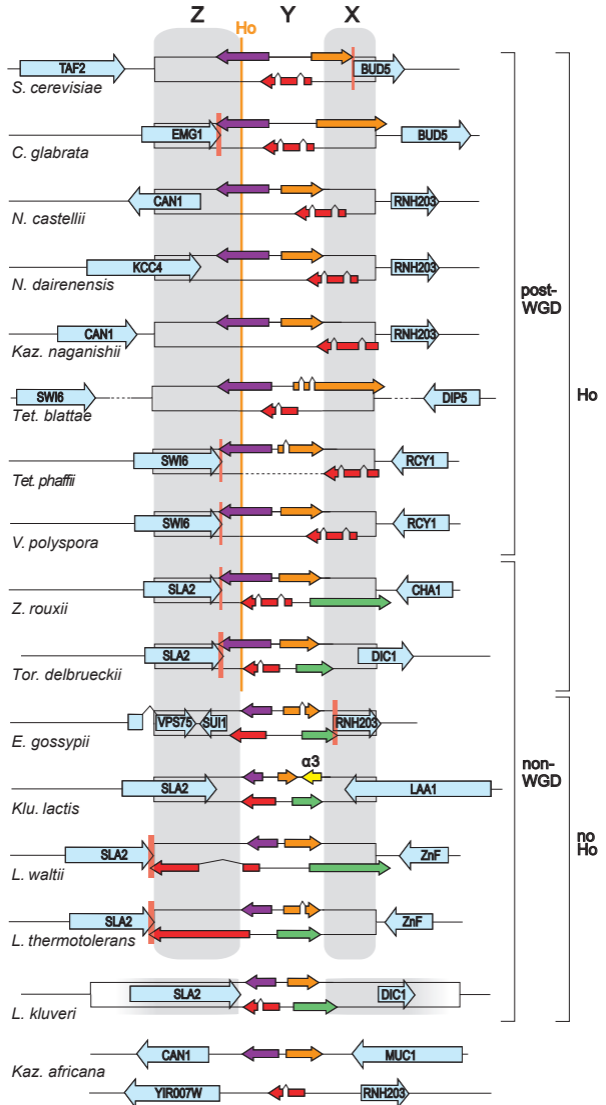
Fig. 1. Organization of the *MAT*, *HML* and *HMR* loci on chromosome III of a *MATa* *S. cerevisiae* cell. The Z and X regions occur in three copies in parallel orientation and include parts of the $\alpha 1$, $\alpha 2$ and *BUD5* genes. The Y region between them occurs in two versions (idiomorphs), $Y\alpha$ and Ya , which are completely dissimilar. This diagram is reversed relative to the standard *S. cerevisiae* orientation (2) to maintain compatibility with Figures 2 and 3 despite species-specific inversions in *S. cerevisiae* (30). Note on nomenclature: We define X and Z as the regions that occur in three copies. In *S. cerevisiae* (2, 56) these are usually called X and Z1, and two duplicated regions that extend the similarity between *MAT* and *HML* (but not *HMR*) beyond them are called W and Z2. There are similar duplicated extensions at the outer edges of the triplicated regions in the other species studied here, but we did not see any consistent patterns of organization.

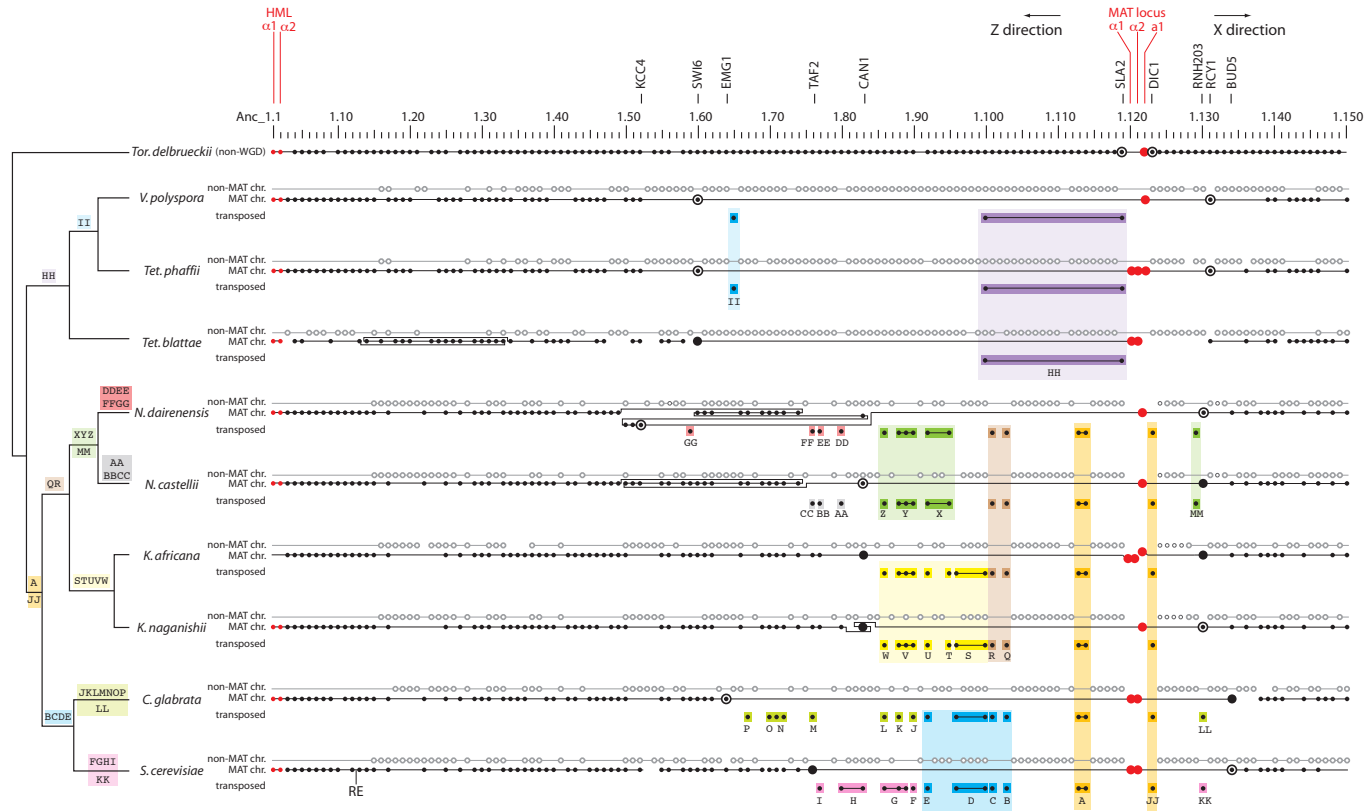
Fig. 2. Schematic organization (not to scale) of the *MAT* locus in 16 species. Both possible versions of the Y region are shown for each species. $Y\alpha$ contains the genes $\alpha 1$ (purple) and $\alpha 2$ (orange). Ya contains the genes $a 1$ (red) and $a 2$ (green, only in non-WGD species (6, 26)). Caret symbols indicate introns. Gray shading indicates the extent of the Z and X regions. HO endonuclease, where present, cleaves the *MAT* locus at the Y/Z boundary at a site in the $\alpha 1$ gene. Flanking chromosomal genes are shown in blue. Pink vertical bars indicate gene overlaps (broad bars) or intergenic distances ≤ 5 bp (narrow bars). In *L. kluyveri* there are no *HML* and *HMR* cassettes (36) but the sequenced strain is diploid so only the inner boundaries of Z and X are defined. In *Kaz. africana* there are two *MAT*-like regions and no *HO* gene. The dashed line for *T. phaffii* Ya represents zero length of sequence. Fig. S3 shows the same regions drawn to scale.

Fig. 3. Progressive loss of genes flanking the *MAT* locus by deletion and transposition. The scale indicates gene positions along part of Ancestral chromosome 1, from Anc_1.1 to Anc_1.150. Each circle represents a gene, with *HML* and *MAT* genes in red (each genome sequence is arbitrarily either *MAT α* or *MATa*). Horizontal lines connect genes that are currently neighbors; zigzags show inversions. For each post-WGD species, genes are assigned to three groups: those derived from the *MAT* chromosome (the chromosome that retained the *MAT* locus after WGD; black circles); those derived from the non-*MAT* chromosome (the paralogous chromosome that lost the *MAT* locus after WGD; open circles); and those that transposed from the *MAT* chromosome to other places in the genome (letters A-Z and AA-MM; colored backgrounds). Each transposition can be inferred to have

occurred on a particular branch of the phylogenetic tree on the left, based on the clade of species that share the insertion site, as shown by the different colors. Genes named above the scale are the current neighbors of the *MAT* locus in the species shown here; these genes are identified by bullseyes (for flanking genes that extend into the Z or X regions) or large black circles. Due to a large inversion in *S. cerevisiae* that spans the *MAT* locus and the centromere (30), the Z and X directions as indicated at the top correspond to rightwards and leftwards, respectively, on chromosome III. More details are given in Fig. S5.







Supporting Information

Figure S1. Details of the gene overlaps indicated in Figure 2.

Figure S2. Truncation of genes flanking the *MAT* locus. Shown are dot-matrix plots of concatenated protein sequences from all species for (A) Bud5, (B) Swi6, (C) Sla2, (D) Laa1, (E) Emg1 and (F) Rnh203. The number of amino acid residues in each protein is indicated. Pink highlighting denotes regions whose coding sequence lies inside the Z or X region. Each cell in the grids is a comparison between two species. If the proteins are alignable along their whole lengths, the diagonal signal runs into the corners of the cell. If one of the proteins is truncated, the signal does not go into a corner. For example, in C, the *Z. rouxii* Sla2 protein has no region homologous to the C-terminus of Sla2 in many other species including *S. cerevisiae*; and in A, the *S. cerevisiae* Bud5 protein has no region homologous to the N-terminus of Bud5 in many other species including *C. glabrata*. Bud5, Swi6, Sla2 and Laa1 are severely truncated in some species. Emg1 and Rnh203 are slightly shorter in the species in which they overlap the Z or X regions than in other species. In the comparison between the truncated Sla2 proteins of *T. delbrueckii* and *Z. rouxii*, the Z-overlapping region is seen to be conserved between the two species and the *T. delbrueckii* protein shows a deletion just upstream of the Z region. Plots were made using the program Dotter (1).

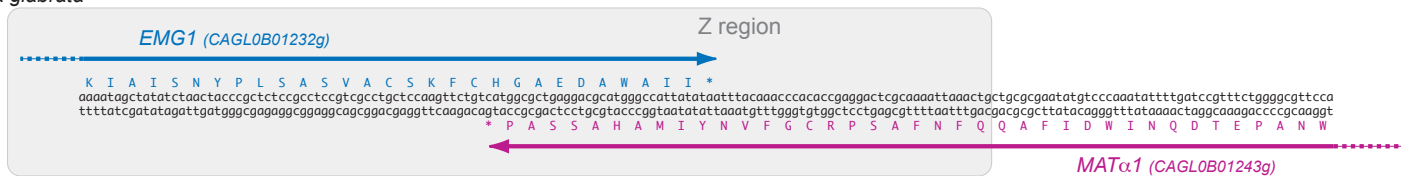
Figure S3. Scale representation of *MAT* loci. Gray polygons show the extents of the Z and X regions.

Figure S4. Detailed version of Figure 3. Gene names are indicated at the ends of each segment of the *MAT* and non-*MAT* chromosomes that remains intact in each species. The names of transposed genes are given in Table S1. Some small inversions, and genes not in the ancestral genome, are not shown. Small open circles (e.g. Anc_1.124 in *N. dairenensis*) represent genes whose assignment to the *MAT* or non-*MAT* chromosome was uncertain; these are arbitrarily shown on the non-*MAT* chromosome. Dashed lines denote large inversions in *S. cerevisiae* and *T. blattae* that span the *MAT* locus. In both of these species, the inversion of *MAT* has been compensated by a small inversion of the *HML* genes, maintaining the parallel orientation of *MAT* and *HML*. The topology of the phylogenetic tree is based on Hedtke *et al.* (2), except that we find that *Tetrapisispora phaffii* is more closely related to *V. polyspora* than to *T. blattae* (in PhyML analysis of 30 protein-coding genes retained in duplicate in all post-WGD species, *T. phaffii* grouped with *V. polyspora* 44 times, and with other species 16 times).

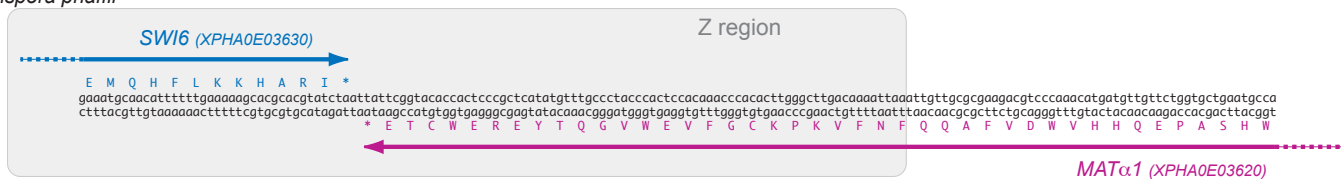
Table S1. Details of the gene transposition events shown in Figure 3. These events can be viewed in YGOB (3) (temporary URL: <http://wolferine.gen.tcd.ie/reviewer> with username review and password 3r0s10n) by entering a gene name or Anc name.

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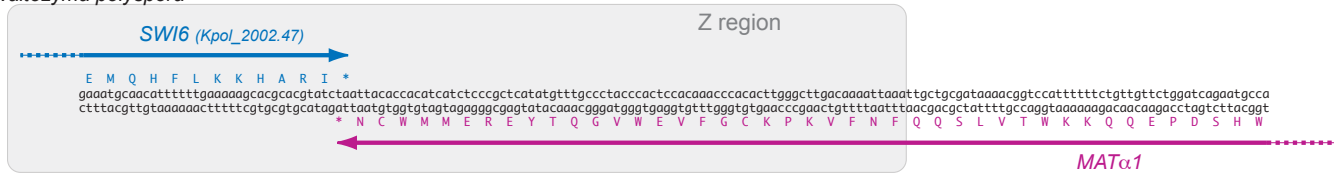
Candida glabrata



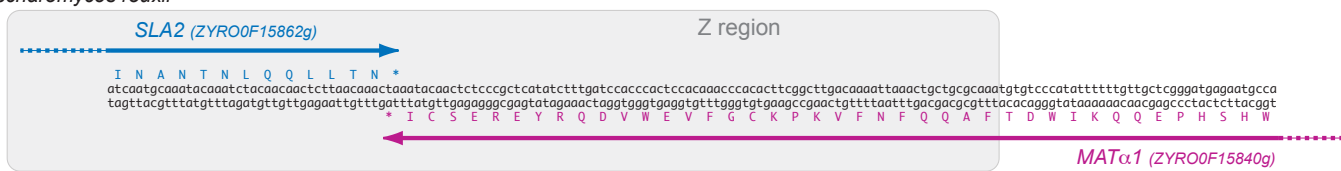
Tetrapisispora phaffii



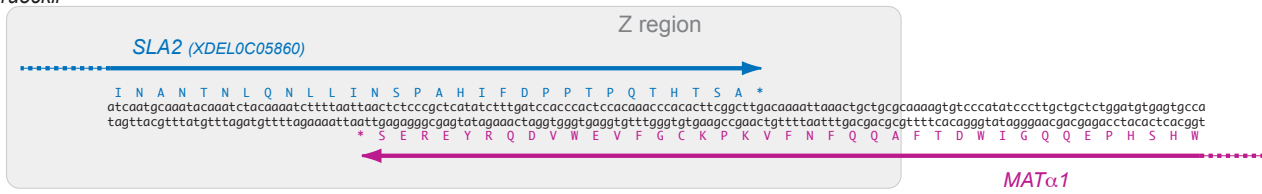
Vanderwaltozyma polyspora



Zygosaccharomyces rouxii



Torulaspora delbrueckii



Lachancea waltii



Lachancea thermotolerans



Saccharomyces cerevisiae



Eremothecium gossypii

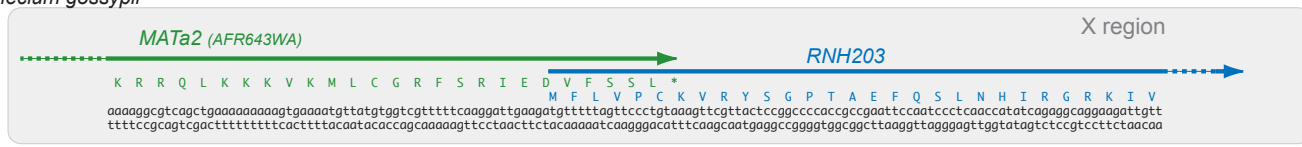
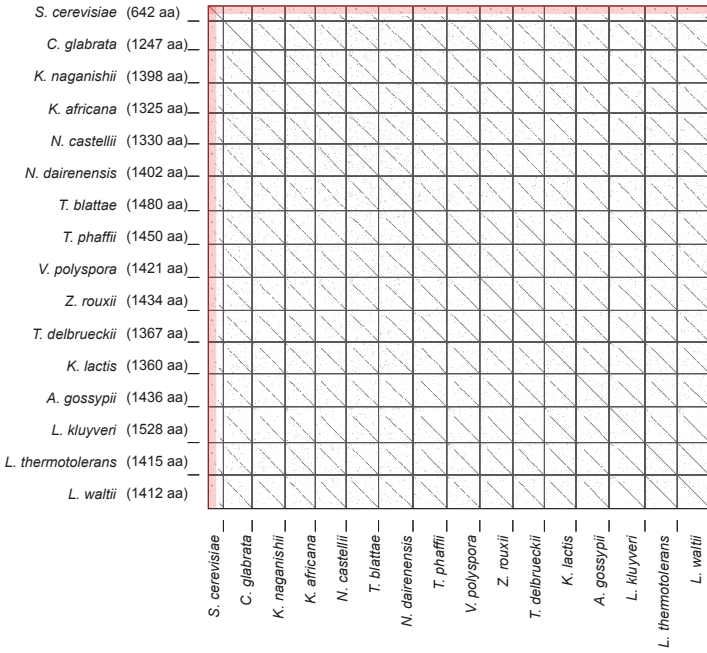
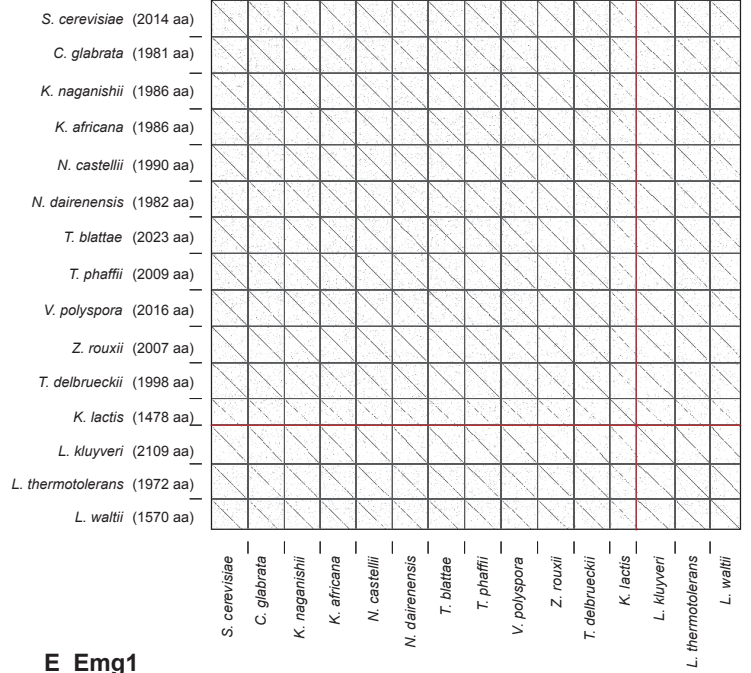


Figure S1

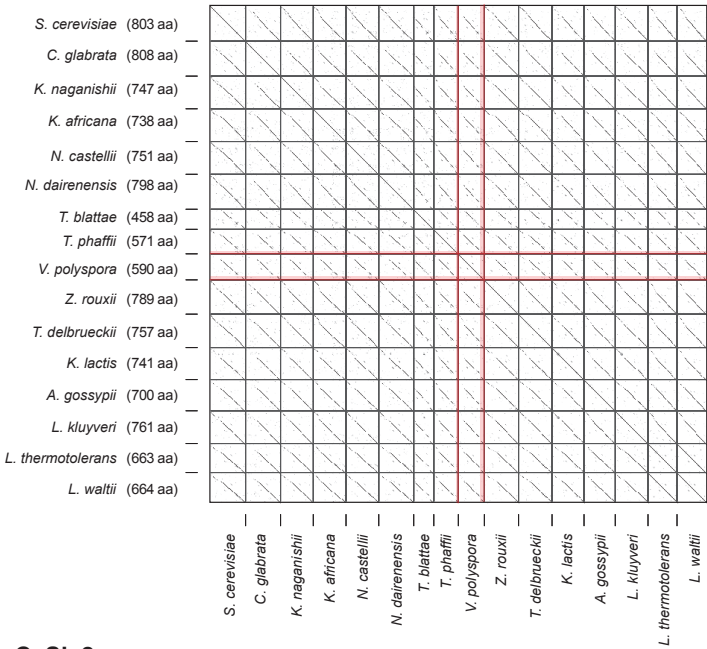
A Bud5



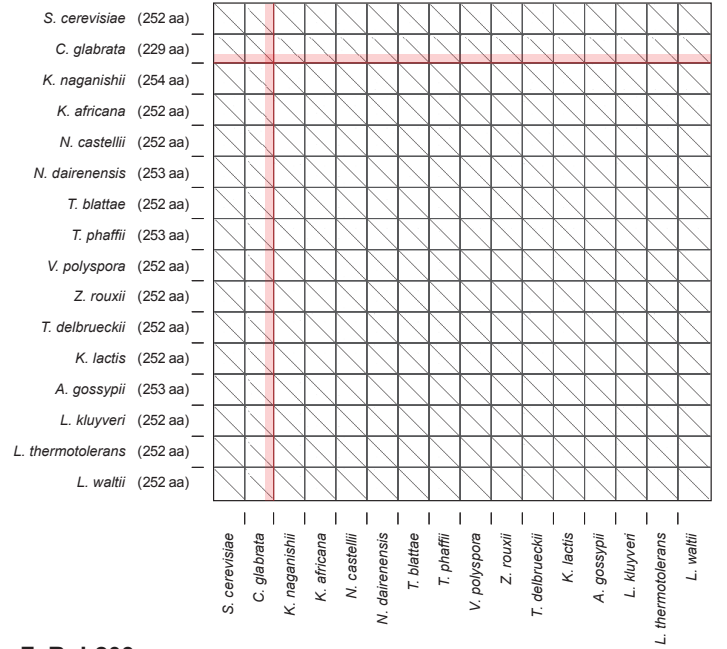
D Laa1



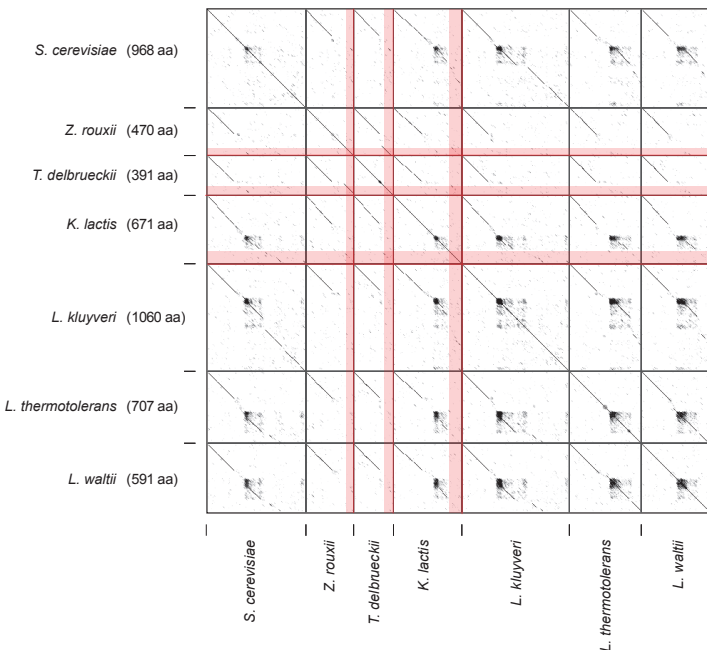
B Swi6



E Emg1



C Sla2



F Rnh203

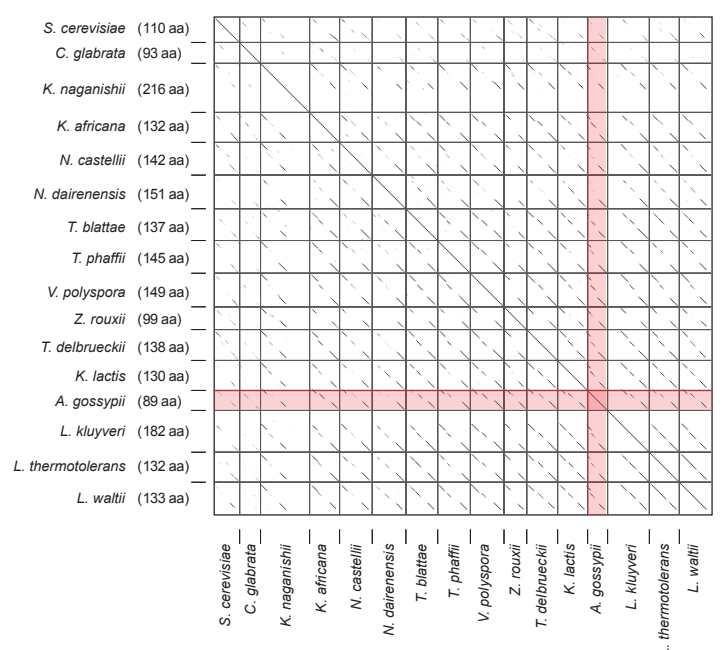


Figure S2

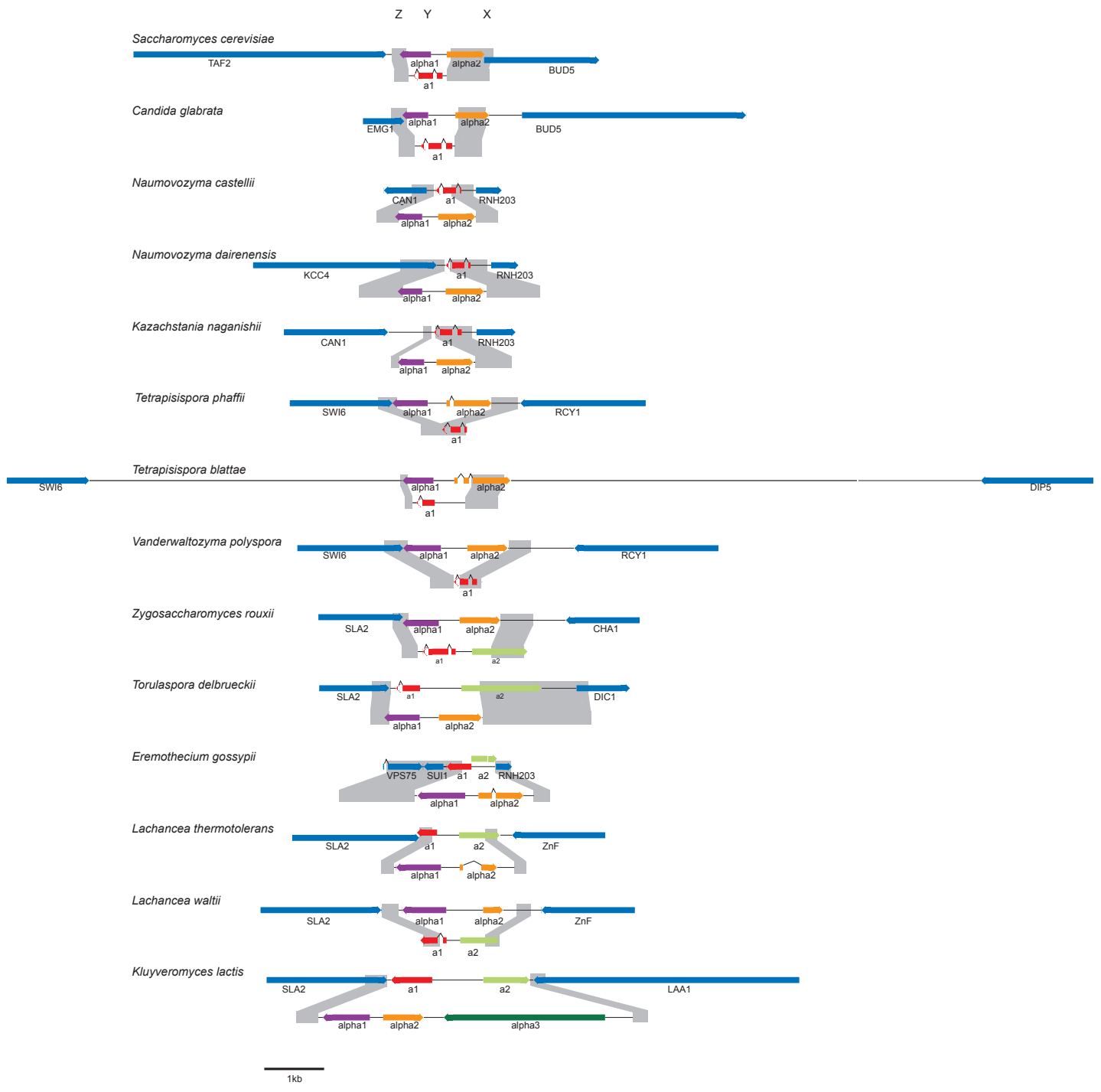
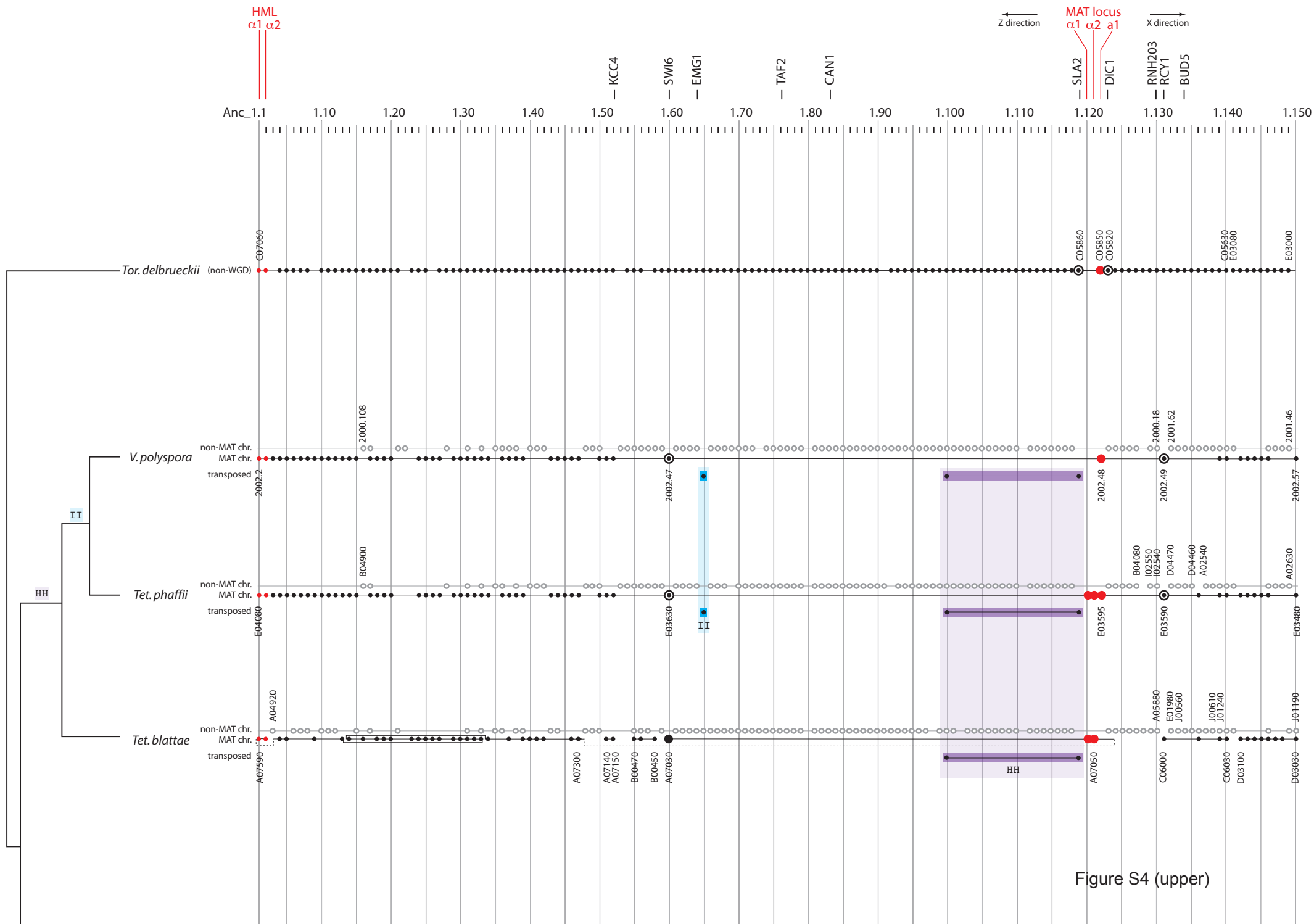


Figure S3



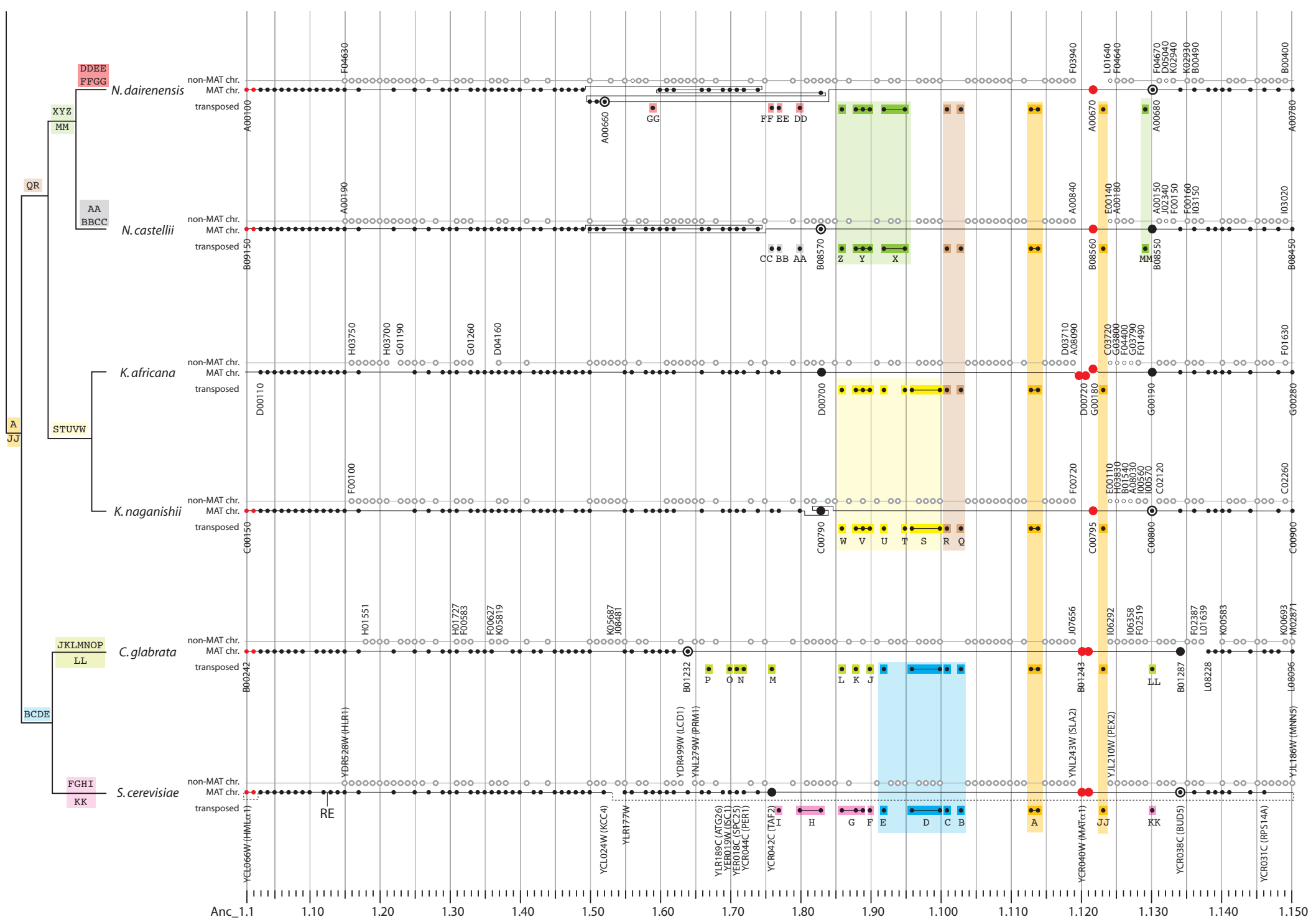


Figure S4 (lower)

Table S1. Details of the gene transposition events shown in Figure 3. These events can be viewed in YGOB by entering a gene name or Anc name.

Transposition event	Ancestral (old) location of transposed genes (name of <i>S. cerevisiae</i> ortholog in parentheses)	Species with transposition	Transposed gene(s)	Current (new) location†			
				Left neighbor at insertion site		Right neighbor at insertion site	
				Anc name	Gene	Anc name	Gene
A	Anc_1.113 (JJJ3), Anc_1.114 (YJR098C)	Scer Cgla Knag KafR Ncas Ndal	YJR097W (JJJ3), YJR098C CAGLOC04565g, CAGLOC04587g XNAG0D01360, XNAG0D01350 XAFR0G00910, XAFR0G00900 NCAS0H00550, NCAS0H00540 NDAI0D00500, NDAI0D00490	Anc_7.468 Anc_7.468 Anc_7.468 Anc_7.468 Anc_7.468 Anc_7.467	YJR096W CAGLOC04543g XNAG0D01370 XAFR0G00920 NCAS0H00560 NDAI0D00510	Anc_7.470 Anc_7.470 Anc_7.470 Anc_7.470 Anc_7.470 Anc_7.470	YJR099W (YUH1) CAGLOC04609g XNAG0D01330 XAFR0G00890 NCAS0H00530 NDAI0D00480
B	Anc_1.103 (COQ6)	Scer Cgla	YGR255C (COQ6) CAGL0F08239g	Anc_5.62 Anc_5.62	YGR254W (ENO1) CAGL0F08261g	Anc_5.55 Anc_5.76	YGR256W (GND2) CAGL0F08217g
C	Anc_1.101 (TGL2)	Scer Cgla	YDR058C (TGL2) CAGL0E04708g	Anc_3.306 Anc_3.306	YDR057W (YOS9) CAGL0E04686g	Anc_3.308 Anc_3.308	YDR059C (UBC5) CAGL0E04752g
D	Anc_1.96 (LIN1), Anc_1.100 (YSP1)	Scer Cgla	YHR156C (LIN1), YHR155W (YSP1) CAGL0I02002g, CAGL0I01980g	Anc_5.89 Anc_5.89	YHR157W (REC104) CAGL0I02068g	Anc_5.94 Anc_5.94	YHR154W (RTT107) CAGL0I01958g
E	Anc_1.92 (CWC23)	Scer Cgla	YGL128C (CWC23) CAGL0I09526g	Anc_6.116 Anc_1.336	YGL127C (SOH1) CAGL0I09504g	Anc_6.227 Anc_6.227	YGL129C (RSM23) CAGL0I09548g
F	Anc_1.90 (YGL140C)	Scer	YGL140C	Anc_2.335	YGL141W (HUL5)	Anc_6.241	YGL139W (FLC3)
G	Anc_1.86 (TAM41), Anc_1.88 (TFC4), Anc_1.89 (UFD1)	Scer	YGR046W (TAM41), YGR047C (TFC4), YGR048W (UFD1)	Anc_4.189	YGR044C (RME1)	Anc_4.191	YGR049W (SCM4)
H	Anc_1.80 (AVT1), Anc_1.83 (CAN1)	Scer	YEL064C (AVT2), YEL063C (CAN1)	Anc_6.17	YEL062W (NPR2)	none (telomeric)	YEL065W (SIT1)
I	Anc_1.77 (SLP1)	Scer	YOR154W (SLP1)	Anc_5.500	YOR153C (PDR5)	Anc_5.501	YOR155C (ISN1)
J	Anc_1.90 (YGL140C)	Cgla	CAGL0K08206g	Anc_1.194	CAGL0K08184g	Anc_1.220	CAGL0K08228g
K	Anc_1.88 (TFC4)	Cgla	CAGL0A03630g	Anc_2.398	CAGL0A03586g	Anc_3.122	CAGL0A03652g
L	Anc_1.86 (TAM41)	Cgla	CAGL0G03861g	Anc_4.32	CAGL0G03883g	Anc_4.35	CAGL0G03795g
M	Anc_1.76 (TAF2)	Cgla	CAGL0L00297g	Anc_1.176	CAGL0L00319g	none (telomeric)	CAGL0L00227g
N	Anc_1.71 (SPC25), Anc_1.72 (PER1)	Cgla	CAGL0M11858g, CAGL0M11880g	Anc_7.55	CAGL0M11902g	Anc_7.59	CAGL0M11836g
O	Anc_1.70 (LSC1)	Cgla	CAGL0E06556g	Anc_5.247	CAGL0E06534g	none (telomeric)	CAGL0E06600g
P	Anc_1.67 (MDL1)	Cgla	CAGL0E00385g	Anc_6.377	CAGL0E00407g	none (telomeric)	CAGL0E00363g
Q	Anc_1.103 (COQ6)	Knag KafR Ncas Ndal	XNAG0B00490 XAFR0F04240 NCAS0E00580 NDAI0I02990	Anc_3.530 Anc_3.530 Anc_3.530 Anc_3.530	XNAG0B00500 XAFR0F04230 NCAS0E00570 NDAI0I02980	Anc_3.531 Anc_6.359 Anc_3.524 Anc_3.531	XNAG0B00480 XAFR0F04250 NCAS0E00590 NDAI0I03000
R	Anc_1.101 (TGL2)	Knag KafR Ncas Ndal	XNAG0A07210 XAFR0I01710 NCAS0H02970 NDAI0C00700	Anc_2.572 Anc_2.572 Anc_2.572 Anc_2.570	XNAG0A07200 XAFR0I01720 NCAS0H02980 NDAI0C00680	Anc_2.577 Anc_2.577 Anc_2.585 Anc_2.585	XNAG0A07220 XAFR0I01690 NCAS0H02960 NDAI0C00710
S	Anc_1.96 (LIN1), Anc_1.100 (YSP1)	Knag KafR	XNAG0K02480, XNAG0K02490 XAFR0A08480, XAFR0A08490	Anc_3.31 Anc_3.30	XNAG0K02500 XAFR0A08500	Anc_3.35 Anc_3.35	XNAG0K02470 XAFR0A08470
T	Anc_1.95 (ORC5*)	Knag KafR	XNAG0D03580 XAFR0F03460	Anc_4.148 Anc_4.148	XNAG0D03570 XAFR0F03450	Anc_4.150 Anc_4.150	XNAG0D03590 XAFR0F03470
U	Anc_1.92 (CWC23)	Knag KafR	XNAG0B01890 XAFR0A01530	Anc_1.282 Anc_1.282	XNAG0B01880 XAFR0A01520	Anc_1.284 Anc_1.284	XNAG0B01910 XAFR0A01540
V	Anc_1.88 (TFC4), Anc_1.89 (UFD1), Anc_1.90 (YGL140C)	Knag KafR	XNAG0C00550, XNAG0C00540, XNAG0C00530 XAFR0D00470, XAFR0D00460, XAFR0D00450	Anc_1.46 Anc_1.47	XNAG0C00520 XAFR0D00440	Anc_1.48 Anc_1.48	XNAG0C00560 XAFR0D00480
W	Anc_1.86 (TAM41)	Knag KafR	XNAG0H02120 XAFR0H03410	Anc_2.270 Anc_2.270	XNAG0H02130 XAFR0H03420	Anc_2.272 Anc_2.272	XNAG0H02110 XAFR0H03400
X	Anc_1.92 (CWC23), Anc_1.95 (ORC5*)	Ncas Ndal	NCAS0H03480, NCAS0H03490 NDAI0C00200, NDAI0C00190	Anc_2.661 Anc_2.661	NCAS0H03470 NDAI0C00210	Anc_2.662 Anc_2.662	NCAS0H03520 NDAI0C00180
Y	Anc_1.88 (TFC4), Anc_1.89 (UFD1), Anc_1.90 (YGL140C)	Ncas Ndal	NCAS0B08010, NCAS0B08020, NCAS0B08030 NDAI0B05320, NDAI0B05310, NDAI0B05300	Anc_1.231 Anc_1.231	NCAS0B08000 NDAI0B05330	Anc_1.235 Anc_1.235	NCAS0B08040 NDAI0B05290
Z	Anc_1.86 (TAM41)	Ncas Ndal	NCAS0B01420 NDAI0E01340	Anc_8.649 Anc_8.649	NCAS0B01410 NDAI0E01350	Anc_8.651 Anc_8.651	NCAS0B01430 NDAI0E01330
AA	Anc_1.80 (AVT2)	Ncas	NCAS0J01840	Anc_4.305	NCAS0J01830	Anc_4.308	NCAS0J01850
BB	Anc_1.77 (SLP1)	Ncas	NCAS0H02780	Anc_5.567	NCAS0H02770	Anc_5.569	NCAS0H02790
CC	Anc_1.76 (TAF2)	Ncas	NCAS0B07500	Anc_1.311	NCAS0B07510	Anc_1.312	NCAS0B07490
DD	Anc_1.80 (AVT2)	Ndal	NDAI0I00130	Anc_6.350	NDAI0I00140	none (telomeric)	NDAI0I00120
EE	Anc_1.77 (SLP1)	Ndal	NDAI0F02310	Anc_6.190	NDAI0F02300	Anc_6.192	NDAI0F02320
FF	Anc_1.76 (TAF2)	Ndal	NDAI0B04850	Anc_4.29	NDAI0B04860	Anc_4.30	NDAI0B04840
GG	Anc_1.59 (VTA1)	Ndal	NDAI0J02120	Anc_4.227	NDAI0J02100	Anc_4.230	NDAI0J02130
HH	Anc_1.100 (YSP1), Anc_1.119 (SLA2)	Vpol Tpha Tbla	Kpol_1028.50, Kpol_1028.49 XPHA0D03870, XPHA0D03880 XBLA0I02320, XBLA0I02330	Anc_6.328 Anc_6.328 Anc_6.328	Kpol_1028.51 XPHA0D03860 XBLA0I02310	Anc_6.330 Anc_6.330 Anc_6.330	Kpol_1028.48 XPHA0D03890 XBLA0I02340
II	Anc_1.65 (PRM1)	Vpol Tpha	Kpol_388.9 XPHA0F00270	Anc_4.21 Anc_4.24	Kpol_388.8 XPHA0F00280	Anc_4.25 Anc_4.25	Kpol_388.10 XPHA0F00260
JJ	Anc_1.123 (DIC1)	Scer Cgla Knag KafR Ncas Ndal	YLR348C (DIC1) CAGL0G01166g XNAG0B05730 XAFR0A06340 NCAS0A03540 NDAI0A03380	Anc_4.180 Anc_4.180 Anc_4.180 Anc_4.180 Anc_4.180 Anc_4.180	YLR347C (KAP95) CAGL0G01144g XNAG0B05720 XAFR0A06350 NCAS0A03530 NDAI0A03370	Anc_4.182 Anc_4.182 Anc_4.183 Anc_4.182 Anc_4.185 Anc_4.185	YLR350W (ORM2) CAGL0G01188g XNAG0B05740 XAFR0A06330 NCAS0A03550 NDAI0A03390
KK	Anc_1.130 (RNH203)	Scer	YLR154C (RNH203)	Anc_8.367	YLR153C (ACS2)	rDNA, Anc_8.376	YLR163C (MAS1)
LL	Anc_1.130 (RNH203)	Cgla	CAGL0F00341g	Anc_1.526	CAGL0F00363g	Anc_1.529	CAGL0F00319
MM	Anc_1.129 (NCE101)	Ncas Ndal	NCAS0D04660 NDAI0I00300	Anc_6.349 Anc_6.349	NCAS0D04650 NDAI0I00310	Anc_6.377 Anc_6.377	NCAS0D04670 NDAI0I00290

* The transposed gene is a paralog of *S. cerevisiae* ORC5.

† In most cases the left and right neighbors at the insertion site are a few positions apart in the Ancestral genome (they are not perfectly consecutive due to gene loss after WGD). In a few other cases (gray highlighting), the transposition is to a telomeric region, or coincides with a site of rearrangement relative to the Ancestral genome.