Dissociation of the nuclear basket triggers chromosome loss in aging yeast

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ABSTRACT:

In many organisms, aging is a clear risk factor for chromosome mis-segregation, the main
source of aneuploidy. Here, we report that old yeast cells lose chromosomes by partitioning
them asymmetrically to their daughter cells together with the pre-existing (old) spindle pole body
(SPB, centrosome equivalent in yeast). Strikingly, remodelling of the nuclear pore complex (NPC)
and the displacement of its nuclear basket triggered these asymmetric chromosome segregation
events. Simultaneously, nuclear basket displacement caused unspliced pre-mRNAs to leak into
the cytoplasm. We show that removing the introns of three genes involved in chromosome
segregation was sufficient to fully suppress chromosome loss in old cells. Promoting pre-mRNA
leakage in young cells also caused asymmetric chromosome partitioning and loss through the
same three introns. Therefore, we propose that basket displacement from NPCs and its
consequences for pre-mRNA quality control are key triggers of aging phenotypes such as
aneuploidy.

INTRODUCTION

Cellular aging results in conserved phenotypes, including chromosome mis-segregation, fragmentation
of mitochondria, accumulation of damaged or misfolded proteins, and alteration of nuclear morphology[1-
3]. Importantly, the nuclear pore complex (NPC) is remodelled in aging across evolutionary lineages, as
shown in fungi, worms, and mammals [4-6]. As the primary gateway between the nucleus and cytoplasm,
the NPC controls mRNA export and protein distribution between these two cellular compartments. The
most prominent change in the NPCs of old cells is the loss of their nuclear basket, which lies on the
nucleoplasmic side of the NPC. Nuclear basket loss is observed both in dividing cells and upon
expression of the progeric variant of Lamin A, progerin[8-9]. The protein TPR (Mlp1 and Mlp2 in *S.*
cerevisiae) is the main structural component of the nuclear basket in mammals. The nuclear basket
serves as a critical processing hub for mRNA export and nuclear retention of pre-mRNA, protein quality
control and gene regulation[10-15]. Altering the structure or function of the NPC or its nuclear basket could
have diverse and wide-ranging effects on cellular function given the NPC's broad range of functions and
central position in eukaryotic cellular information flow. Despite this and the fact that the reorganization
of NPC architecture with age is prominent in a wide range of organisms, little is known about whether
and how NPC remodelling contributes to aging.

The unicellular fungus *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, budding yeast, is a remarkably useful system for
studying the role of NPCs in cellular aging[1,3]. Budding yeast undergoes replicative aging, during which

the mother cell produces a finite number of daughter cells before dying[16]. After the mother cell enters

senescence, the rate of cell division slows. Importantly, several studies have emphasized that the yeast

NPC is remodelled during replicative aging[4-6], but the exact consequences of its reorganization are not

fully understood.

Extrachromosomal DNA circles (also called eccDNAs) accumulate in the mother cell nucleus and are

one of the key drivers of aging in the budding yeast[7-9]. These DNA circles form during the cell's lifetime

through excision of genomic segments, generally by recombination between repeated sequences[10]. The

vast majority of these circles (>99%) stems from the highly repetitive rDNA locus and are referred to as

extrachromosomal rDNA circles (ERCs)[7]. As the cell age, these circles accumulate exponentially

because they are replicated in S-phase and retained in the mother cell at mitosis[7,11]. By the end of their

life, yeast cells contain about 1000 ERCs, which represents roughly the same amount of DNA as the

rest of the genome[11]. Importantly, their retention in the mother cell relies on their anchorage to NPCs

via the acetyltransferase complex SAGA[5,12]. These NPC-ERC units are then confined to the mother part

of the dividing nucleus by a lateral diffusion barrier forming in the nuclear envelope in the future plane

of cleavage[12-14]. Yeast cells undergo a closed mitosis, meaning that they keep their nuclear envelope

intact throughout mitosis. Remarkably, anchorage of ERCs to NPCs results in the dissociation of their

nuclear basket, which is a direct result of SAGA-driven acetylation of nucleoporins on the nucleoplasmic

side of the NPC, including Nup60[12]. Consequently, most of the NPCs of old yeast cells lack a nuclear

basket[5]. However, it is unknown whether nuclear basket displacement has consequences for the

physiology and survival of the cell or contributes to the aging process.

One way to approach the question of whether nuclear basket displacement from the NPCs contributes

to the aging process is to determine whether other aging phenotypes depend on basket displacement

and if so, how. In this study, we focused on chromosome instability in old yeast cells as a case study

of an aging phenotype. In many metazoans, including humans, aging results in increasing frequency

of chromosome mis-segregation and aneuploidy, correlating with increasing risk of cancer[15,16]. Our

understanding of the molecular mechanisms of chromosome segregation errors in old cells remains

rudimentary. Here, we report evidence that NPC remodelling during yeast aging leads to chromosome

loss from old mother cells and characterize the underlying mechanisms.

RESULTS

Aging yeast cells lose chromosomes

To examine whether aging affects the karyotype of yeast cells, we visualized and followed the fate of

individual chromosomes in replicatively aging mother cells, using either TetO-labelled chromosome II or

chromosome IV as reporters. Chromosome IV is the second longest chromosome, while chromosome

II is of average size. Both chromosomes were labelled with an array of 256 TetO repeats in the vicinity

of their centromere[17,18]. These chromosomes were visualized by expressing fluorescently tagged

versions of the TetR protein, which binds to TetO repeats (TetR-GFP or TetR-mCherry; Figures 1A-B).

We then monitored budding yeast mother cells throughout their entire replicative lifespan using live-

imaging microscopy combined with a microfluidics platform[5,19]. The replicative age of each mother cell

was measured by counting the number of daughters that it budded off over time, defining how many

budding events they have already completed at a given time point (completed budding events, CBE).
Bud size and the number and position of the spindle pole bodies (SPBs, labelled with mCherry) were
used to identify the cell cycle stages at which the cells were imaged (Figure 1A).

Analysis of these images showed that all young mother cells (~0-3 CBE; t=0h) and their daughters
contained a fluorescent dot, documenting the presence of the labelled chromosomes in all of them.
However, when reaching the age of 18 to 22 CBE (t=24h), 10-15% of these now old mother cells had
lost their dot (Figures 1B-C). This was observed irrespective of which chromosome was labelled, and
which fluorescent tag was used. Fluorescence of the labelled SPB was not affected, indicating that dot
loss was not caused by fluorophore instability in old cells. A chromosome dot could be lost from aging
mother cells in three possible ways: 1) Chromosome mis-segregation during anaphase 2) Migration of
the entire nucleus into the daughter cell 3) Through the loss of a TetO array. The SPB is located in the
nuclear envelope, so the presence of the SPB but the absence of the chromosome points to
chromosome loss during anaphase, rather than the mis-segregation of the entire nucleus into the
daughter cell (Figure 1A). Nuclear mis-segregation into the daughter cells was previously reported
during replicative aging and is marked by the segregation of both SPBs to the daughter compartment
(Sup Figure 1A-B)[20]. While we do observe whole nuclei mis-segregation in ~3% of the cells, this is a
distinct event from chromosome loss, which occurs in ~10-15% of final replicative divisions.

To test if the loss of fluorescent chromosomal foci was due to the loss of the TetO array specifically or
of the entire chromosome, we included a second label (an array of 256 repeats of the LacO sequence)
in the middle of the long arm of chromosome IV (Figure 1B) and asked whether the cells that lost the
TetO array lost the LacO repeats as well. Analysis of these images showed that 85% of the cells lacking
the TetO array had indeed lost the LacO array (50/59). Thus, these cells had probably lost the entire
chromosome. Supporting this notion, loss of the TetO array was fatal to the cells. More than 99%
(145/146 chromosome II loss events) of the dot-less cells failed to divide further, as expected for a
haploid cell losing an entire chromosome. Thus, chromosome loss took place specifically in the last
division of old mother cells and likely caused their death.

Finally, we examined whether the loss of a reporter chromosome points to general chromosome
instability in old cells. To assess this possibility, we quantified how often aging cells simultaneously lost
both chromosome II and chromosome IV (Figure 1B-C). As expected, the co-loss rate (~5%) was lower
than the individual loss rates (~10-15%), but notably higher than the ~1% expected by chance alone.
Therefore, the loss of a single chromosome does not necessarily accompany the loss of another, but
the high rate of simultaneous mis-segregation points to general chromosome instability in old cells.
Considering that the budding yeast haploid genome has 16 chromosomes, the high loss frequency of a
single chromosome and the fact that individual chromosomes are lost in not fully independent manners
we estimate that 35-70 % of aging mother cells likely lose several chromosomes in their final division,
whereas the other cells die with an intact karyotype. We concluded that much like many other organisms,
yeast undergoes a burst of chromosome instability in old age (Figures 1A, C).

In contrast to chromosomes, extra-chromosomal DNA circles accumulate in the yeast mother cell with
age rather than being lost[7,12] . Similarly, deleting the centromere from a chromosome causes the
retention of both sister chromatids in the mother cell[18]. Thus, we wondered whether centromeres drive
chromosome loss in old mother cells. DNA circles containing a centromeric sequence (*CEN*) were lost
from aged mother cells at a similar rate to full-size chromosomes (~20% of old cells; Figures 1B-C).
Removing the centromere of the exact same circle was shown in previous work to cause its retention in
the mother cell rather than its loss[5,12,13]. Therefore, centromeres are necessary and sufficient for
chromosomes and mini chromosomes to be lost from aging mother cells. To exclude the possibility that
the TetO array used to label them is the cause of chromosome and mini-chromosome loss in aging, we
also characterized the stability of a circular mini-chromosome expressing short-lived GFP as a marker
instead of TetO repeats. Scoring of the GFP signal demonstrated that old mother cells lost these mini-
chromosomes at essentially the same frequency as they lose the TetO labelled one (Figures 1B-C). We
concluded that centromeres drive chromosome loss in old cells.

Aged cells asymmetrically partition both sister chromatids to the bud

Given the prominent role of the centromere in chromosome loss, we rationalized that the loss of
chromosomes in old mother cells could be due to mitotic mis-segregation events. To determine whether
it was the case, we next focused our analysis on cells imaged during mitosis in time-lapse recordings of
aging cells (Figure 2A). Analysis of anaphases in old mother cells revealed a striking increase in the
frequency of chromosome mis-segregation, using labelled chromosome II, IV and minichromosome as
reporters (Figure 2B). In 600 total anaphase events captured in our movies we found that 66 (11%) of
them co-segregated the labelled sister chromatids to a single pole with, 54/66 (82%) of the mis-
segregation events resulting in asymmetric partition of the chromatids to the bud of these old mother
cells (Figure 2C). This was virtually never observed in young cells (Figure 2A-B). Remarkably, the
frequency of chromosome loss in the old mother cells and of sister chromatids segregating
asymmetrically to the bud were in the same size order, irrespective of whether chromosome II or
chromosome IV was labelled. Therefore, chromosome loss from old mother cells seems fully explained
by a rise in sister chromatid non-disjunction with age, resulting in co-segregation of the sister chromatids
asymmetrically to the bud. Next, we examined the mechanism behind this peculiar mode of directed
chromosome mis-segregation.

In budding yeast, the pre-existing (old) SPB, which the cell inherited from the previous mitosis,
segregates in a highly biased manner to the bud (~95% of mitoses)[21-23]. Consequently, labelling of stable
SPB components, such as the core SPB protein Spc42, with mCherry causes the pre-existing SPB to
shine bright and segregate in 95% of mitoses to the bud (Figure 2A, red arrowhead), while the new one
is dim and remains in according proportions in the mother cell. This useful effect is a result of the folding
kinetics of mCherry. In short, mCherry matures slowly (~45 minutes half-time) relative to the duration of
yeast mitosis (~50 minutes from spindle assembly to completion of cytokinesis), and therefore the new
mCherry-labelled SPB is dimmer than the old one. Given the mother-daughter bias of SPB inheritance
and sister chromatid mis-segregation with age, we wondered whether the non-disjoining sister
chromatids of old cells attach to and co-segregate with the old SPB. Thus, we examined the partition of
the labelled chromosomes relative to the pre-existing and new SPBs in old mother cells (t=24h, Figures

2D, E). In about 10% of old cells, SPB inheritance is inverted, meaning that the old SPB goes to the mother cell instead of the daughter[21,22]. In a strong majority of these cases (80%), the non-disjoining sister chromatids followed the old SPB to the mother cell, instead of going to the bud (Figures 2D, E). We conclude that non-disjoining sister chromatids of old mother cells remained attached to the pre-existing SPB and partitioned with it to the bud, causing them to lose these chromosomes. In other words, SPB identity mattered more than mother-daughter identity in determining which cell inherited the mis-segregated chromosomes.

In budding yeast, sister chromatids both initially attach to the pre-existing SPB, which is available first. These syntelic attachments are then dissolved by the aurora B kinase, allowing sister chromatids to reorient, reach bi-orientation and partition symmetrically in mitosis[24,25]. Failure to correct these initial attachments errors causes sister chromatids to co-segregate with the old SPB to the bud[26]. The similarity between this phenotype and the mechanism of chromosome loss in old mother cells suggested, therefore, that the error correction pathway might be impaired in old yeast cells. To test this possibility, we analysed the effects of dampening the function of aurora B (called Ipl1 in budding yeast) during aging. Young cells carrying the temperature sensitive *ipl1-321* mutant allele and grown at a permissive temperature (27°C) showed no detectable chromosome loss (Figure 2F). However, they started losing chromosomes early in age (Figure 2F), resulting in a shortened lifespan (Sup Fig 1C). Strikingly, the chromosome loss frequency of the old *ipl1-321* mutant cells (t=24h) was indistinguishable from that of the wild type cells, indicating that the effects of age and reducing Ipl1 activity were not additive (Figure 2F). This suggests that age and the *ipl1-321* mutation affect the same pathway. We concluded that old cells lose chromosomes due to defects in correcting chromosome attachment errors.

ERC accumulation drives chromosome loss in aging

To identify mechanisms behind the deterioration of mitotic error correction with age, we investigated whether chromosome loss is causally linked to other aging events, particularly to the displacement of the basket from NPCs[5]. Given that basket displacement is triggered by accumulating ERCs and their SAGA-dependent anchorage to NPCs[5,12,13], we first investigated whether ERC accumulation promotes chromosome loss. Mutant cells lacking the deacetylase Sir2, which inhibits recombination in the rDNA locus, form ERCs at an increased rate, accumulate them quicker, and their replicative lifespan is shorter than that of wild type cells[7,27]. Supporting the notion that ERC accumulation might promote chromosome loss, these mutant cells also showed a strong and premature loss of the reporter chromosome (Figure 3A). To further test the effect of ERC accumulation, we asked whether reducing their formation rate delays chromosome loss. Recombination in the rDNA locus is stimulated by the presence of a replication fork barrier between rDNA units[28]. While these barriers prevent the transcription machinery to collide with replication forks coming from neighbouring rDNA units, the stalling forks are fragile, causing high rates of double strand breaks. Therefore, removing these fork barriers, for example by inactivating the fork barrier protein Fob1, drastically decreases the rate at which ERCs form and accumulate, stabilizes the nuclear baskets of NPCs and prolongs the life span of the cells[5,28]. Strikingly, the *fob1Δ* mutant cells trapped in our microfluidics platform lost chromosome II at a substantially reduced frequency compared to wild type cells, even after dividing 20 times or more (Figure 3A). Introducing an artificial replicative DNA circle with a different sequence than an ERC into wild type cells also promoted chromosome loss,

supporting the idea that DNA circles promote chromosome loss with age independently of their
sequence (see below). Taken together, the chromosome loss rates seen in cells with artificial DNA
circles, along with those in *sir2Δ* and *fob1Δ* cells, show that chromosome loss correlates well with the
accumulation of extrachromosomal DNA circles. Since the primary known effect of DNA circle
accumulation is to cause the displacement of the nuclear basket from NPCs, we wondered next whether
this event was causally linked to chromosome loss. Supporting this notion, removal of the SAGA subunit
Sgf73, which mediates ERC attachment to NPCs and the subsequent displacement of their nuclear
basket, phenocopied the effect of the *fob1Δ* mutation[12]: the *sgf73Δ* mutant cells failed to show any
significant increase in chromosome loss frequency at any age (Figure 3A). Thus, our data suggested
that ERC formation and anchorage to NPCs triggered chromosome loss in old yeast cells.

Nuclear basket remodelling drives chromosome loss

To investigate whether basket displacement promotes chromosome loss in some manner, we next
perturbed the nuclear basket and measured whether this accelerated chromosome loss and aging. To
do this, we disrupted the *MLP1* gene, encoding the major isoform of the structural basket protein TPR
in yeast. In stark contrast to the *sgf73Δ* and *fob1Δ* single mutants and the wild type cells, the *mlp1Δ*
single mutant cells exhibited a rapid increase in chromosome loss frequency as they aged, as
determined by using our reporter chromosome II, along with a shortened replicative lifespan (Figures
3A-B). Thus, our data suggest that displacement of the basket from NPCs as the cells age promotes
chromosome loss through some yet unknown mechanism.

Introns in genes of the aurora B pathway drive asymmetric chromosome partitioning in aging

Together our data suggested that the displacement of the nuclear basket from NPCs upon ERC
anchorage weakened the molecular pathway that corrected chromosome attachment errors (Figure 3A).
This impaired ability to correct erroneous chromosome attachments in turn caused old mother cells to
lose chromosomes to their buds. To test this hypothesis, we next investigated how basket displacement
could lead to asymmetric chromosome partitioning. The basket of the nuclear pore has been involved
in various processes, such as mRNA export[29], protein quality control[30], docking of environmentally
regulated genes to the nuclear periphery upon their induction[31], the retention of faulty mRNAs in the
nucleus, such as unspliced pre-mRNAs[32,33], as well as docking Mad1 and Mad2, two key components
of the mitotic spindle assembly checkpoint (SAC), to the NPC[34,35].

The SAC components Mad1 and Mad2 bind Mlp1, Mlp2 and Nup60 at the basket of NPCs[35]. However,
basket dissociation, which delocalizes Mad1/2 from the nuclear periphery, does not appear to interfere
with their function[35]. Nevertheless, we investigated whether SAC dysfunction could account for aging
phenotypes caused by basket dissociation and for the premature aging phenotype seen in *mlp1Δ* mutant
cells. Arguing against this hypothesis, the *mad1Δ* and *mad2Δ* single mutant cells exhibited no change
in replicative lifespan compared to wild type cells and did not phenocopy *mlp1Δ* mutant cells (Sup Fig
2A). Therefore, we searched for other mechanisms through which basket displacement could trigger
chromosome loss.

While perusing the list of genes involved in chromosome segregation (Figure 4A) we noticed that only
three of them contain an intron, *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7*. Surprisingly, these three genes all function
with Ipl1/aurora B in preventing syntelic chromosome attachment. Nbl1/borealin is a component of the
chromosome passenger complex of which aurora B/Ipl1 is the catalytic subunit. Mcm21/CENP-O is a
docking receptor for Ipl1/aurora B at kinetochores. Glc7/PP1A is the protein phosphatase 1, which
counteracts aurora B by dephosphorylating its targets at the outer-kinetochore[36-38]. Intrigued by this
remarkable convergence, we wondered whether asymmetric chromosome partitioning in aging could
stem from the presence of these three introns in error correction genes. We rationalized that
displacement of the basket from NPCs could potentially affect the regulation, export and hence
expression of intron-containing transcripts, specifically, thereby affecting the function of the *NBL1*,
MCM21 and *GLC7* genes.

To investigate the possibility that they contribute to the high rate of chromosome loss in old cells, we
removed the introns of *GLC7, MCM21, NBL1* (-*Δi* alleles) and imaged these mutant cells throughout
their replicative lifespan, monitoring chromosome II segregation. Removing each intron individually or
all three simultaneously (*3xΔi* strain) had no detectable effects on chromosome segregation in young
cells (Figure 4B), cell growth and mitotic timing (Sup. Figure 3A-C), Interestingly, whereas the removal
of *GLC7*'s intron decreases the expression of the gene by about 50% and affects cell proliferation [39-41],
we note that the *GLC7-Δi* allele is duplicated in our strain, probably owing to recombination between
transposon LTRs surrounding it (Sup Figure 3E-F). We suspect that this duplication explains why our
GLC7-Δi mutant strain grew as well as wild type cells. Simultaneously removing all three introns nearly
completely suppressed chromosome loss in old cells (Figure 4B-C). Removing them individually or in
pair did so as well, albeit the effects were milder. Importantly, the simultaneous removal of *NBL1*,
MCM21 and *GLC7* introns did not affect the duration of the last budding event (Sup Figure 3D), indicating
that it suppressed chromosome loss without alteration cell cycle progression. Removing the introns of
the two α-tubulin genes *TUB1* and *TUB3* simultaneously had no effect, indicating that the observed
effects were specifically related to the introns of *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7* and not to introns in general
(Figure 4B). The effects observed were similar for chromosome II and chromosome IV, indicating that
the role of these introns was not chromosome specific (Sup Figure 2B). Furthermore, removing these
three introns also suppressed the occurrence of asymmetric anaphases in old cells (Figure 4C),
supporting the view that asymmetric chromosome segregation and chromosome loss go hand-in-hand
and are under the control of these three introns. Strengthening this conclusion, removal of these introns
also suppressed chromosome loss in the *ipl1-321* mutant cells (Sup Figure 1D).

Remarkably, simultaneous removal of *MCM21*, *NBL1* and *GLC7* introns had also a substantial effect on
the longevity of the cells, extending their replicative lifespan up to ~20% (Figure 4D). A similar effect
was observed in the *ipl1-321* mutant cells (Sup Fig1C). Thus, chromosome loss may indeed be the first
direct cause of death for many yeast cells upon aging, although other mechanisms eventually take over
when chromosome loss is abrogated.

Basket destabilization causes intron-dependent chromosome loss in young cells

Our data were consistent with the hypothesis that basket dissociation from NPCs promotes chromosome loss through an intron-dependent dampening of the error correction pathway. To test this hypothesis in greater depth we asked whether mutations affecting the nuclear basket also promote chromosome loss outside of the aging context. Thus, we characterized chromosome segregation in young *mlp1Δ* cells (Figure 5A-C). Analysis of chromosome II segregation indicated that the *mlp1Δ* mutant cells not only exhibited a four-fold increase in their chromosome mis-segregation frequency compared to the young wild type cells, but ~80% of these mis-segregation events followed the old SPB, as in old cells (Figure 5C). Furthermore, this chromosome loss was suppressed upon removal of the introns of *MCM21*, *NBL1* and *GLC7* (Figure 5B). Therefore, although to a lower extent than in old cells, defects in the nuclear basket result in asymmetric chromosome partitioning in an intron-dependent manner in young cells as well. Interestingly, removal of these three introns also rescued the age dependent chromosome loss and partially restored the longevity of the *mlp1Δ* mutant cells (Figure 5D-E). We concluded that intron-dependent dampening of the error correction pathway is one, even if not the only progeric effects of the *mlp1Δ* mutation. Possibly, other introns promote additional aging phenotypes. Thus, we conclude that basket displacement promotes chromosome loss in young mutant cells and old wild type mother cells.

Intron deletion suppresses the effect of DNA circle accumulation on chromosome loss

As seen above, chromosome loss correlates well with conditions that promote ERC accumulation and their anchorage to NPCs. This idea gained in traction as we progressed, because ERC attachment, and the attachment of any DNA circle, to NPCs is known to mediate nuclear basket displacement[5].Thus, we further investigated the relationships between DNA circle accumulation and chromosome loss by investigating how the removal of *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7* introns affected chromosome loss observed upon DNA circle accumulation. For this, we followed two parallel approaches. First, we tested whether introducing a replicative DNA circle into the cells is sufficient to drive chromosome loss during aging, and if so, whether this event required the presence of the introns of *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7*. Thus, we transformed the wild type and the *3xΔi* mutant strains carrying the labelled chromosome II as reporter with the yeast replicative plasmid YRp17[42]. We then monitored the frequency at which these transformed cells lost the reporter chromosome as they underwent aging. YRp17 contains a replication origin (*ARS1*) but no centromere, such that it accumulates in the mother cells with each replicative cycle (Figure 6A). As expected[7], the cells carrying YRp17 showed a much shorter lifespan (10 CBE median RLS, Figure 6B). Remarkably however, the effect of YRp17 on longevity was substantially suppressed by the 3xΔi mutations (Figure 6B). Analysis of chromosome loss indicated that introducing this DNA circle promoted chromosome loss, starting early in life and increasing rapidly with age (Figure 6C). Furthermore, removal of the introns of *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7* (*3xΔi* cells) largely suppressed the effect of YRp17 on chromosome loss. However, note that the suppressive effect of the *3xΔi* mutations on longevity and chromosome loss was only partial, indicating that YRp17 promotes chromosome loss through both a mechanism that involves these three introns, and at least one additional mechanism independent of these introns.

As a second approach, we investigated whether removing the introns of *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7*
mitigates the chromosome loss phenotypes of the *sir2Δ* mutant cells. Supporting this hypothesis, the
3xΔi triple mutation significantly, though modestly, improved the longevity phenotype of these cells
(Figure 6D). As in cells carrying YRp17, the triple intron removal indeed ameliorated the premature
chromosome loss phenotype of the *sir2Δ* mutant cells (Figure 6E). As for YRp17, the effect of the 3xΔi
was substantial and significant, but partial. Thus, we concluded that the accumulation of DNA circles,
such as ERCs and others, which promote the dissociation of the basket from NPCs and thereby drive
chromosome loss at least in part through the introns of *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7.* While this effect
appeared to be the dominant one in physiologically aged cells, additional effects seem to further promote
chromosome loss in the *sir2Δ* mutant cells and cells carrying an exogenous DNA circle, such as YRp17.

Old cells leak pre-mRNA to the cytoplasm

Putting our different observations together, our data suggested that removal of the nuclear basket from
NPCs in response to the accumulation of DNA circles with age causes old yeast mother cells to lose
chromosomes to their last bud. Furthermore, the effect of nuclear basket removal from NPCs was
primarily mediated by three introns. This suggested that the nuclear basket of NPCs enforces proper
chromosome segregation through its function in pre-mRNA processing or quality control. To test this
possibility, we next investigated whether old mother cells show defects in pre-mRNA quality control.
Since, basket mutant cells fail to retain unspliced pre-mRNAs in the nucleus [32,33], we reasoned that old
yeast mother cells also might leak pre-mRNAs to the cytoplasm.

As a first proof of principle, we characterized the localization of intronic RNA sequences in young and
old cells, using single molecule RNA fluorescence in situ hybridization (smRNA FISH). Most yeast
introns are short (50-150 nucleotides) and well below the minimal size detectable by smRNA FISH (>500
nts, ideally >1 kb). In the yeast genome, only 20 introns are longer than 500 nucleotides. Thus, we
created probes for the longest introns, namely those of *DBP2* (766 nts) and *YRA1* (1002 nts), and of
GLC7 because of its role in chromosome segregation (525 nts). The introns of *NBL1* (66 nts) and
MCM21 (88 nts) are too short for smRNA FISH. Cohorts of old cells were collected using the mother
enrichment program (MEP)[43] followed by FACS sorting to reach high homogeneity (see methods). By
inducing cell death in the daughter cells specifically, the MEP ensures that aging mother cells are diluted
linearly instead of exponentially in the population, greatly facilitating the isolation of very old cells. FACS
sorting ensured that the cohorts were free of young cells and young cell debris. With each of these three
series of smRNA FISH probes, we detected one or two nuclear foci in young cells (Figure 7A). Only very
few cells ((<3%) showed a focus in the cytoplasm. No foci were detected upon deleting the
corresponding introns (Δi), demonstrating probe specificity (Sup Figure 4A-B). In contrast, for each of
the three introns tested, smRNA FISH detected intronic RNA sequences in the cytoplasm of most old
cells. This was not due to an increase in overall smRNA FISH foci number during aging (See Sup Figure
4C), but due to the change in foci distribution between nucleus and the cytoplasm. For example, in the
case of *GLC7,* ~70% of smRNA FISH foci were found in the cytoplasm of old mother cells, compared to
~3% in young cells (Figure 7A-B). Thus, 3 out of 3 tested introns showed a strong tendency to leak to
the cytoplasm in old mother cells. However, this first test did not clarify whether the full pre-mRNA or
only the intron escaped from the nucleus.

To directly address this question, we turned to a functional assay and monitored the translation of an
unspliced pre-mRNA reporter in the cytoplasm. This fluorescent reporter contains the coding sequence
for mCherry in the intron and expresses GFP upon proper splicing of the nascent transcript. Therefore,
mCherry is only translated when the unspliced pre-mRNA leaks out of the nucleus (Figure 7C)[44]. Cells
carrying this construct integrated at the *TRP1* locus were trapped and imaged in our microfluidics
platform. As cells aged, we measured the number of completed budding events and the fluorescence
levels of the two reporter fluorophores. Fluorescence signal analysis established that the mCherry/GFP
ratio increased in old compared to young cells, demonstrating elevated pre-mRNA translation in the
cytoplasm of a large majority of aged cells (Figures 7D-E).

Consistent with ERC-dependent leakage and translation of this reporter, the mCherry/GFP ratio
increased prematurely and to a higher level in the *sir2Δ* mutant, compared to the wild type cells (Figures
7D-F). The fact that signal was already observable in young *sir2Δ* mutant cells suggests that the
pleiotropic functions of Sir2 cause a fraction of these effects. Conversely, the *fob1Δ* mutant cells showed
a lowered mCherry/GFP ratio, which did not increase much during their lifespan (Figures 7D-F). Thus,
we conclude that ERC formation and accumulation promotes pre-mRNA leakage during yeast aging, as
expected from their effect on the nuclear basket.

Pre-mRNA leakage causes intron-dependent chromosome loss in young cells

Given the results above, we wondered whether chromosome loss in old cells is linked to their failure to
retain pre-mRNAs in the nucleus. Thus, we asked whether inducing pre-mRNA leakage in young cells
would trigger chromosome loss. The two yeast SR-protein Gbp2 and Hrb1 have been implicated in the
retention of pre-mRNAs in the nucleus by binding intron-containing transcripts and delaying their export
until they are properly spliced or degraded[45,46]. Accordingly*,* the *hrb1Δ gbp2Δ* double mutant cells leak
pre-mRNA to the cytoplasm at a higher rate than wild type cells[45,47]. Thus, we asked whether these
double mutant cells lost the labelled chromosome II at an increased frequency. As a control, we asked
whether the *snu66Δ* mutation, which affects the spliceosome itself directly[48,49], lead to similar
phenotypes.

The young spliceosome-defective *snu66Δ* mutant cells did exhibit a five-fold elevated level of
chromosome mis-segregation compared to young wild type cells. However, this mis-segregation was
not biased towards any specific SPB (Figures 8A-B), suggesting that it involved a distinct mechanism
than that observed in old cells and in young cells lacking the basket protein Mlp1. In contrast to the
snu66Δ mutant, the *hrb1Δ gbp2Δ* double mutant cells, showed an even further increased frequency of
chromosome mis-segregation, which was more than ten-fold above that of young wild type cells (Figure
8A). Furthermore, sister chromatid mis-segregation was strongly biased towards the old SPB (Figure
8B). Removing the introns of *GLC7, MCM21* and *NBL1* suppressed this chromosome segregation defect
(Figure 8A). Therefore, pre-mRNA leakage is sufficient to induce asymmetric chromosome partitioning
and is contingent on the presence of introns in the error correction genes *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7*.
The fact that mutations affecting the spliceosome did not promote asymmetric chromosome segregation
to any specific SPB with age indicates that the chromosome loss observed in old cells is not due to
splicing defects.

We conclude that accumulation of extrachromosomal DNA causes the displacement of the NPC basket

and subsequent leakage of pre-mRNAs. Leakage of intron-containing transcripts into the cytoplasm

impairs correction of syntelic attachments by the Ipl1/aurora B pathway, likely because three genes

involved in this pathway contain introns. This results in asymmetric partitioning of sister chromatids, and

age-associated chromosome loss. In summary, basket displacement and pre-mRNA leakage impair

error correction via an as-yet unknown mechanism involving the introns of *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7*.

DISCUSSION

Aging manifests itself through a broad diversity of conserved cellular phenotypes, but in most cases, we

know little about how these are causally linked to each other[1-3]. In this study we investigated whether

NPC remodelling in old yeast cells contributed to the emergence of other aging phenotypes, using

chromosome loss as a case study[5]. We showed that NPC remodelling is both necessary and sufficient

to drive the age-associated increase in chromosome loss and we identified the mechanisms involved.

Specifically, interventions that promoted displacement of the NPC basket, or basket defects more

broadly, enhanced non-disjunction and mis-segregation of sister chromatids to the bud, thereby

promoting chromosome loss in old yeast cells. These interventions included mutations that stimulated

ERC formation and removed the main yeast TPR isoform, Mlp1. Conversely, interventions that

prevented NPC remodelling, such as delaying ERC accumulation or preventing their anchorage and the

recruitment of SAGA to NPCs, restored proper chromosome segregation in old cells and supressed

chromosome loss. Thus, NPC remodelling appeared to be the pivotal point for triggering chromosome

loss in old cells.

Two potential caveats should be considered. First, the *sir2Δ* and *fob1Δ* mutations each have effects

beyond influencing ERC formation rates. The *sir2Δ* mutant cells lose silencing of the hidden mating type

loci, genetically behaving as diploids. They fail to silence subtelomeric regions and act through some

as-yet unknown mechanism on the maintenance of proteostasis[50-53]. Likewise, the *fob1Δ* mutation

renders the rDNA locus unstable, which might interfere with rRNA transcription and ribosome

biosynthesis[54]. However, their only clear common denominator is that they both affect ERC formation,

and hence NPC remodelling even if in opposite manners[27,28]. Moreover, the *sgf73Δ* mutation

phenocopies the effects of the *fob1Δ* mutation. Here again the only known functional overlap between

Fob1 and Sgf73 is that they promote ERC accumulation in the mother cell indirectly (Fob1) or directly

(Sgf73), ERC anchorage to NPCs and the consequent displacement of NPC basket[5,12]. Finally,

introducing another DNA circle in the form of a non-centromeric replicative plasmid, a process that also

causes basket displacement[5], promoted chromosome loss as well. Thus, our data establish that DNA

circle accumulation and attachment to NPCs trigger chromosome loss. Destabilizing the basket

independently of DNA circle accumulation also promotes the premature onset of chromosome loss,

indicating that it is the basket displacement from NPCs that triggers chromosome loss upon DNA circle

accumulation.

A second possible caveat is that chromosome loss could be linked to aging in some other manner. To

address this possibility, we investigated the molecular mechanisms that link basket displacement and

chromosome loss. Our data reveal that chromosome loss is due to the non-correction of syntelic

chromosome attachments in old cells. In young cells, the kinase aurora B and its accessory factors

enforce such corrections[24]. Our data also show that the inhibition of error correction in old cells requires

the presence of three introns, those of the genes *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7*. These three genes are the

only chromosome segregation machinery genes that contain an intron. Strikingly, the proteins Nbl1,

Mcm21 and Glc7 are all involved in the error correction pathway, together with aurora B/Ipl1[36-38].

Removing their introns restored proper attachment correction and chromosome segregation in old cells

and supressed the premature chromosome loss phenotype of the *ipl1-321* mutant cells grown at semi-

permissive temperature. Intron removal delays cell death but does not abrogate aging. Furthermore,

removing these introns not only supresses chromosome mis-segregation in old wild type cells, but also

in young *mlp1Δ* mutant cells. Thus, intron removal separates aging and chromosome loss, indicating

that these introns are part of the proximal cause of chromosome loss and act independently of age.

Therefore, our data indicate that there is a direct, intron-dependent link between basket displacement

from NPCs and chromosome loss. Our data indicate that this link involves the leakage of unspliced pre-

mRNAs out of the nucleus upon basket removal and affects the basket's function in mRNA quality

control. The fact that another, independent set of mutations that also interfere with pre-mRNA retention

in the nucleus, such as the *gbp2Δ hrb1Δ* double mutant cells, also increase the frequency of

chromosome loss through the same three introns strengthens this conclusion. Thus, together our data

establish that displacement of the nuclear basket from NPCs in old mother cell directly triggers

chromosome non-disjunction and loss through causing the leakage of the pre-mRNAs of the intron

containing genes *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7*.

This conclusion has several consequences and opens new questions. The key question stems from our

observation that releasing pre-mRNA from the nucleus relaxes the control that cells impose on

chromosome attachment. The question is, how does this work? Does it involve the translation of the

pre-mRNAs in the cytoplasm? Does it come about through the correlated loss of properly mature

mRNAs and hence, the reduced expression of their products? Two arguments speak against these

interpretations. First, if any of these two options were to account for the effect of pre-mRNA leakage,

mutations affecting splicing efficiency would lead to the same effects. However, tempering with the

spliceosome does not affect the correction of chromosome attachment errors to any extent and

specificity close to the effects of pre-mRNA leakage. Second, since Mcm21 and Glc7 have opposite

effects on chromosome correction it is unclear how impairing the expression of both would lead to the

synergistic effects that we observe between them. Finally, analysis of RNA-seq data from replicatively

aged cells indicate that if aging indeed impairs the splicing of some transcripts, such as those encoding

ribosomal proteins, it stimulates that of others[55]. This suggests that aging has a non-linear effect on

intron-containing transcripts. It will be important to determine whether basket displacement contributes

to these effects, how it does so and whether this could explain the effect it has on the error correction

pathway.

Our observation that basket displacement has such profound and highly specific impacts on processes

functionally very distant from that of the NPC, such as chromosome segregation, has several

consequences as well. First, it means that NPC remodelling could affect many more cellular functions

than only chromosome segregation. Interestingly, beyond mRNA quality control the basket of the NPC

is also involved in protein quality control and the activation of environmentally regulated genes, two
processes that are impaired in old cells[1,2]. Thus, basket displacement might contribute to these
phenotypes in aging cells. It is also very likely that the role of the basket in mRNA quality control could
affect more than only chromosome segregation. Curiously, while budding yeasts have kept only a subset
of the introns of their ancestors, these introns are not distributed randomly and seem to be enriched in
very specific processes, such as genes coding for ubiquitin-conjugating enzymes and proteasome
subunits, components of the mitochondrial respiratory chain and ribosomal proteins[56]. Interestingly,
decay of the ubiquitin-mediated protein degradation, mitochondrial membrane potential and of ribosome
assembly are classical and ubiquitous hallmarks of aging[1-3]. Thus, it is possible that basket displacement
in old cells contributes to the emergence of these aging phenotypes as well.

A second type of consequences emerging from our observations stems from the fact that displacement
of the NPCs' basket is also observed in stressed cells and not solely in the context of aging. For example,
heat shock also causes basket displacement in yeast[57]. Therefore, it is possible that the downstream
effects we observe in old cells also take place during stress response. In this respect, it is interesting to
note that heat shock has been associated with a strong rise in aneuploidy in yeast[58-60]. Furthermore,
aneuploidy is a common response to environmental stress and a primary mechanism for the emergence
of stress resistant clones in fungi[61]. Therefore, it is tempting to speculate that the chromosome mis-
segregation resulting from basket displacement might be a selected response to stress. It might be
selectively advantageous for cells to actively promote karyotype variations when their survival is in
question. It is therefore worth considering that a similar process, perhaps using similar mechanisms,
underlies the aneuploidy of cancer cells.

Third, the role of basket displacement in the emergence of aging phenotypes is likely not a peculiarity
of yeast. Using proteomics, basket displacement has been inferred to take place in aging cells such as
the hepatocytes of old mice and humans[62,63]. Little is known about whether the nuclear basket of
metazoans plays a similar role in pre-mRNA retention in the nucleus as that of yeast, but it is striking
that intron-retention is one of the hallmarks of aging on the metazoan transcriptome, and that pre-mRNA
processing genes are important for mitotic stability[64-67]. Intron retention would be expected if some
transcripts escaped the nucleus prematurely. More strikingly, perhaps the most ubiquitous effect of the
expression of the progeric variant of lamin A, progerin, across cell types is the displacement of the
nuclear basket protein TPR from NPCs[68]. We know still very little about the impact of basket
displacement in the aetiology of the Gilford-Hutchinson Progeria Syndrome, but our study suggest that
it might be relevant. If so, investigating the potential effects of progerin on pre-mRNA leakage might
become an essential step towards understanding how progerin expression causes premature aging.

In a broader sense, our findings might bring fundamental insights towards our understanding of aging.
For decades, the role of ERCs in aging has been perceived as a yeast peculiarity. However, the effect
it has on NPCs may close the gap. On one hand, it seems to illuminate what might be the commonality
between ERC-driven aging in yeast and other aging processes in other eukaryotes. Indeed, the basket-
centric view of aging that we propose here would explain how ERCs actually cause aging in yeast and
indicate that while ERC accumulation might be a yeast idiosyncrasy, its downstream effects are not. On
the other hand, this idea open two corollary questions. 1) What is the biological significance of eccDNAs

promoting basket displacement in yeast? 2) What causes basket displacement in other aging systems?
We are intrigued by the idea that ERCs and any replicating eccDNA for that matter are the closest
mimics that laboratory yeast strain may encounter of pathogenic DNA of exogenous origin. In that
perspective, basket displacement and the ensuing effects might have first appeared as a response to
infections. In other words, yeast aging might reflect the activity of a death pathway that normally
functions in pathogen control. It might represent a fungal version the inflammatory or auto-immune
response in metazoans. Therefore, it will be interesting to investigate whether exogenous or non-
chromosomal DNA, such as that of viruses, also triggers the displacement of the nuclear basket from
NPCs in yeast and other systems, and whether this contributes to either or both of anti-viral defence
and aging. If so, aging might have emerged as an anti-viral defence.

Author Contributions:
520 Conceptualization: MM, ACM, YB Investigation: MM, JM, ACM Formal Analysis: MM,JM, ACM,CD
521 Writing-original draft: YB,MM Writing – review & editing: MM,JM,JP,SAE,YB Resources: JP,SSL
522 Supervision: YB Funding acquisition: YB

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Declaration of interests:
535 Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability:
537 All the raw data generated in the manuscript will be deposited in the Mendelay online repository.

Main Figure Legends

Figure 1 Old cells lose chromosomes
A) Cells carrying labeled chromosome II (Chr II) and imaged at different ages on the microfluidic chip.
Time of acquisition is indicated on the left. Fluorescent markers are indicated on top. Replicative age of
imaged cells (completed budding event – CBE) is indicated in merged images. Scale bar (upper right
panel) is 5µm. Green arrow marks the TetR-GFP foci **B)** Schematic representation of the chromosome
and minichromosome labels used in this study. **C)** Chromosome loss frequency of indicated
chromosomes after 0h (~0-3 CBE) and 24h (~18-22 CBE) of imaging. The mode of chromosome
visualization is indicated in parenthesis, i.e., TetR-GFP (green), TetR-mCherry (red) or mini-

chromosome encoded GFP (GFP exp). Chromosome loss is defined as the absence of the label in the
mother cell in G1 shortly after the final cell cycle, or the final anaphase. Each data point represents
frequency of chromosome loss in a cohort of ~50 cells. Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).
550
Figure 2 Old cells lose chromosomes by asymmetric sister chromatid partitioning
A) Images of anaphase cells carrying the labeled chromosome II as in Fig. 1A. Red arrows mark the old
SPBs. **B)** Frequency of anaphase mis-segregation events where chromosomes are visible only in the
mother or daughter cell (n>150) Bars are labelled as in Fig 1C. Each data point represents frequency of
anaphase mis-segregation in the cohort of ~50 anaphases **C)** Fraction of anaphase mis-segregation
events that lead to TetR-GFP foci being present only in mother or daughter cell (n=66, cohorts of 10).
D) Graphical schematic of all observed anaphase mis-segregation events and their frequency.
E) Fraction of anaphase mis-segregation events biased towards the old (red) or new SPB (pink) for mini-
chromosome (n=30) and Chr II with normal (Daughter(D)) and inverted segregation of the old SPB
(Mother (M)) (n=60 and 30). Cohorts of 10-20 missegregating anaphases **F)** Frequency of chromosome
II loss in *wt*, *Ipl1-321*, at 0h (~0-3 CBE), 12h (~8-12 CBE) and 24h (~18-22 CBE) at 27°C. Each data
point represents loss frequency in a cohort of ~50 cells. Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).
563
Figure 3 ERC formation and NPC remodeling drive chromosome loss and aging
A) Chromosome II loss frequency per CBE in strains of indicated genotype (divided into categories of
5xCBE)*(N, n(cells/divisions) wt=458/8600, sir2Δ=158/1779, fob1Δ=127/2681, sgf73Δ=142/3950*
*mlp1Δ=302/4270).*Loss frequencies in the same age category are compared to wt. Unpaired T-test
(*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005). **B)** Replicative lifespan of listed genotypes (n>120 cells, Log-rank
(Mentel Cox) test *<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).
570
Figure 4 Introns drive asymmetric chromatid partitioning and chromosome loss in aging
A) A list of genes encoding kinetochore-associated proteins adapted from *Biggins et al 2013*. Intron
containing genes are marked in red. **B)** Chromosome II loss frequency at indicated aging time (top) in
cells of indicated genotype. *3xΔi stands for GLC7-Δi MCM21-Δi NBL1-Δi* triple mutant. Each data point
represents the frequency of chromosome loss in a cohort of ~50 cells. Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005,
***<0.0005). **C)** Frequency of anaphase mis-segregation of chromosome II at indicated aging time (top)
in cells of indicated genotype. *3xΔi stands for GLC7-Δi MCM21-Δi NBL1-Δi* triple mutant. Each data
point represents mis-segregation frequency in a cohort of ~50 anaphases. Loss frequencies in the same
age category are compared to wt. Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005). **D)** Replicative lifespan
upon intron removal (n>200 cells, Log-rank (Mentel Cox) test, *<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).
581
582 **Figure 5 Basket displacement causes intron-dependent chromosome loss in young and old cells**
A) Stills of symmetric and asymmetric anaphases in young cells. Arrow marks the old SPB. Scale bar
(upper right panel) is 5µm **B)** Frequency of anaphase mis-segregation of chromosome II in cells of
indicated genotypes *(n>2500 cells)*. Each data point represents anaphase mis-segregation frequency
in a cohort of >300 cells. **C)** Fraction of chromosome II mis-segregation with old (red) or new SPB (pink)
in anaphase cells of indicated genotype (n=30 cohorts of ~10 mis-segregation events) Unpaired T-test
(*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005) **D)** Chromosome II loss frequency in indicated genotype as a function of
CBE (categories of 5xCBE) *(N, n(cells/divisions) wt=458/8600, mlp1Δ=302/4270,3xΔi=469/9974 mlp1Δ*
3xΔi=295/4757) **E)** Replicative lifespan of listed genotypes. Red and green stars represent *p-values*
between the wt and the corresponding genotype. Black stars represent the p-value between *mlp1Δ* and
mlp1Δ 3xΔi (n>300 cells, Log-rank (Mentel Cox) test, *<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).
592
Figure 6 Non-centromeric DNA is sufficient to drive aging and chromosome loss
A) Schematic of transformation of chromosome II reporter strains with YRp17 (-*CEN* plasmid) and the
accumulation of non-centromeric plasmids. **B)** Replicative lifespan of strains with and without YRp17
plasmid. Red stars represent *p-value* between the YRp17 and YRp17 *3xΔi* strain. Orange stars
represent the *p-value* between YRp17 *3xΔi* and wt (n>200 cells, Log-rank (Mentel Cox) test, *<0.05,
<0.005, *<0.0005) **C)** Chromosome II loss frequency in indicated genotypes as a function of CBE
(divided into categories of 5xCBE) *(N, n(cells/divisions) wt=458/8600,3xΔi=469/9974,+YRp17*
=199,2097, + YRp17 3xΔi=200,3134). **D)** Replicative lifespan of *sir2Δ and sir2Δ3xΔi* strain. Stars
represent *p-value* between *sir2Δ and sir2Δ3xΔi* (n>200 cells, Log-rank (Mentel Cox) test, *<0.05,
<0.005, *<0.0005). **E)** Chromosome II loss frequency in indicated genotype as a function of CBE

(divided into categories of 5xCBE) *(N, n(cells/divisions) wt=458/8600,3xΔi=469/9974, sir2Δ=351,3500,*
sir2Δ3xΔi=350,3840).

Figure 7 Pre-mRNA leaks to the cytoplasm of old cells
605
A) Images of RNA FISH targeting three long introns (*GLC7, YRA1, DBP2*) in young and old cells.
B) Quantification of *GLC7* intron RNA FISH foci localization in young and old cells (n=295, cohorts of
~100 cells) **C)** Principle of the pre-mRNA translation reporter (left panel) adapted from (*Sorenson et al.*
2014). **D)** Images of the pre-mRNA translation reporter in cells (right panel) of indicated genotype (top)
at indicated ages (bottom). **E)** Ratio of mCherry/GFP signal in the same cells at 0h and after 24 hours
of aging. 119/146 cells have a ratio greater than "1" **F)** Log2 ratio of mCherry/GFP in cells of indicated
genotype as a function of age, normalized to wt median at 0h (n=60, 35, 32). Unpaired T-test comparing
mCherry/GFP intensity of cells at 12 or 24h (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).

Figure 8 Pre-mRNA leakage is sufficient to drive asymmetric chromatid partitioning
614
615 **A)** Chromosome II mis-segregation in cells of indicated genotypes *(n=2774,3000,5269,2650,1607).*
616 Each data point represents anaphase mis-segregation frequency in the cohort of >300 cells **B)** Fraction
617 of chromosome II mis-segregation with old (red) or new SPB (pink) in anaphase cells of indicated
618 genotype (n=50,30 cohorts of ~10 mis-segregation events). Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005,
619 ***<0.0005).
620
621 **Supplementary Figure Legends**
622
Figure S1 Introns affect chromosome loss, but not whole nuclei mis-segregation in aging
A) Stills of a whole nuclear mis-segregation event, with both SPBs ending up in the daughter cell.
B) Quantification of the frequency of whole nuclear mis-segregation events in wt and 3xΔi (n=450 cells,
cohorts of 50 cells, Unpaired T-test. **C)** Replicative lifespan of wt, *GLC7Δi, Ipl1-321* and *Ipl1-321 GLC7Δi*
cells grown at 27 Celsius (n=300), Log-rank (Mentel Cox) test *<0.05,**<0.005,***<0.0005.**D)** Frequency
of chromosome II loss in wt, *Ipl1-321, Ipl1-321 3xΔi (GLC7-Δi MCM21-Δi NBL1Δi)* at 0h (~0-3 CBE), 12h
(~8-12 CBE) and 24h (~18-22 CBE) at 27°C. Each data point represents loss frequency in a cohort of
~50 cells. Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005).

Figure S2 The effect of introns on chromosome loss is not chromosome-specific
A) Replicative lifespan of *wt, mad1Δ, mad2Δ* cells. n>100 cells, Log-rank (Mentel Cox) test.
B) Frequency of chromosome II, IV and GFP minichromosome loss (See Fig 1B) in wt and upon removal
of intron of *GLC7* at 24h (~18-22 CBE). Each data point represents a fraction of loss in a cohort of ~50
cells. Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).

Figure S3 The 3xΔi removal does not alter mitotic timing, growth or budding in old age due to
***GLC7Δi* duplication.**

A) Stills depicting the method of mitotic timing quantification in young cells, measuring the time between
SPB alignment and SPB separation, marking anaphase onset **B)** Mitotic timing in wt and *3xΔi* cells
(n>50, unpaired T-test). **C)** 10-fold serial dilution spot assay for different intron removal strains. YPD,
two days of growth, 30°C. **D)** Measuring the timing between the emergence of the bud and cytokinesis
in the final completed division of the replicative lifespan in wt and *3xΔi* cells(n>50, unpaired T-test). **E)**
Map of the *GLC7* locus on chromosome V, the flanking Ty1 elements, and the result of Ty1 transposition.
F) The result of tagging the duplicated locus with C-terminal ye-GFP tag. Upon tagging the *GLC7-Δi* but
not the wt *GLC7* locus, the locus duplication becomes evident.

Figure S4 smRNA FISH probes are intron specific
A) Images of smRNA FISH experiments in wt and *GLC7-Δi* cells. **B)** Quantification of smRNA FISH foci
per cell in wt and *GLC7-Δi* cells. **C)** Quantification of smRNA FISH foci per cell in wt cells at 0 and 28h
of aging (n>300, cohorts of 100+ cells).

Materials and methods

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled
by the Lead Contact, Yves Barral (yves.barral@bc.biol.ethz.ch).

Materials availability

This study generated ~50 novel yeast strains, derived either by crossing or transformation. All strains, primers and RNA FISH probes are listed in Supplementary table 1. All resources are available to the public upon request. All the raw data used in this manuscript is available in Supplementary file 1.

Experimental Model Details

Strains

All yeast strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in the **Supplementary table 1**. Strains are derived from S288C background. For every strain derived from a cross, an appropriate control strain was always selected from the same tetrad. Protein C-terminal yeGFP-tag and knock-out strains were generated using methods described in *Janke et al 2004* [69]. All cultures were grown using standard conditions at 160 rpm, in YPD or synthetic drop-out medium supplemented with 0.1% BSA for aging chips (SD-medium; ForMedium, Norfolk, UK) at 25°C or 30°C.

Intron-less strains

Intron deletions were conducted in two independent colonies of the strain JPY10I, as outlined previously in Parenteau *et al* 2008 [40]. Briefly, each intron was individually deleted using a modified two-step process (pop-in / pop-out), ensuring the absence of any additional sequence or markers post-deletion. The deletions were done in diploid strains, confirmed via PCR, and three distinct haploid strains bearing the confirmed deletions were chosen for subsequent analyses. Combinations of different Δ-intron strains have been derived by crossing and validated by PCR for the absence of the intron.

Chromosome and Plasmid reporter strains

Multiple chromosomes and minichromosome visualization strains have been used in this study: **1)** Chromosome II reporter strain, with the centromere proximal TetO array (*POA1* locus) strain was kindly provided by Elisa Dultz from the Weis Lab, ETH, institute of Biochemistry (internal reference KWY3759). **2)** Chromosome IV TetO (Centromere proximal) and LacO (centromere distal) were acquired from strains used in *Neurohr et al 2011* [17], originally derived from *Vas AC et al 2006* [70] **3)** Ubi-GFP minichromosome (PYB 2665) was derived by cloning UBIYdkGFP* from *Houser et al 2012* (PNC 1136) [71] into a PYB 2640 backbone by homologous recombination in yeast. **4)** A minichromosome reporter containing the TetO array was previously described in *Denoth-Lippuner et al 2014* [12].

Plasmids:

For the assessment of centromeric plasmid loss using the TeO-TetR-GFP system, we used the plasmid already published in *Dennoth-Lipptuner et al 2014*[12]. For construction of centromeric plasmid encoding GFP as a reporter, we used a short-lived GFP (UBIYΔkGFP*–SpHis5–TIM9 in pUC118) available from Addgene(pNC1136). Ubi-GFP was amplified from PNC1136 with primers MM 311/312 (listed in Supplementary table1). The resulting PCR product contained 50 bp homologous overhangs to another plasmid containing a centromere, pADH1 promoter and a pUG23 backbone (PYB2640). The template plasmid (PYB2640) was digested with MscI and Sac II and co-transformed with amplified UBIYΔkGFP* PCR product to yeast to assemble the plasmid with *CEN* and pADH1-UBIYΔkGFP* via homologous recombination. Successful recombinants were then selected on *-LEU* media after transformation. Recombinant plasmid was extracted from yeast and transformed into bacteria. The correct plasmid assembly was validated by sequencing. A full sequence of the assembled plasmid is available in supplementary data. For transformation of yeast with a non-centromeric plasmid, we have utilized Yeast Replicative Plasmid 17(YRp17) from *Mann et al 1983*. The full sequence of YRp17 is available online and in the supplementary data.

Materials and methods

Microscopy

For confocal fluorescent microscopy, yeast cells were precultured in YPD and then washed in synthetic drop-out medium. One ml of cells from exponential growing cultures with OD <1 was concentrated by

706 centrifugation at 1500 rcf, washed in SD complete, and resuspended in ~10 µl of low fluorescent SD-
707 medium, spotted on a round coverslip and immobilized with a SD/agar patch. The cells were imaged in
708 >15 z-stacks slices with 0.3 µm spacing, with a 100×/1.4 NA objective on a DeltaVision microscope
709 (Applied Precision) equipped with a CCD HQ2 camera (Roper), 250 W Xenon lamps, Softworx software
710 (Applied Precision) and a temperature chamber set to 30°C.
711

Aging microfluidic platform

Chromosome segregation and protein intensity during aging were assessed using the high-throughput
yeast aging analysis (HYAA) microfluidics dissection platform [19]. The PDMS (polydimethylsiloxane)
microchannel is made by soft-lithography and bonded on the 30 mm micro-well cover glass in the 55
mm glass bottom dish (Cellvis, CA, USA). For lifespan analyses, a chip with a new cell trapping design
was used [5], to ensure excellent retention of old cells.

To start the aging experiment, yeast cells were pre-cultured for 24 hr in SD-full media supplemented
with 0.1% Albumin Bovine Serum (protease free BSA; Acros Organics, Geel, Belgium). Young cells from
an exponentially growing culture were captured in the traps of the microfluidic chip; the chip was
continuously flushed with fresh medium at a constant flow of 10 µl/min, using a Harvard PHD Ultra
syringe pump (Harvard Apparatus, Holiston, MA, USA) with 60 ml syringe per lane, with inner diameter
26.7 mm (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Bright field images in a single z focal plane were
recorded every 15 min throughout the duration of the entire experiment to measure replicative age of
cells. To record fluorescent signals, images with a florescent lamp and at least 13x z-stacks (0.5 µm
step) were acquired in 12h intervals. For imaging we used an epi-fluorescent microscope (TiE, Nikon
Instruments, Tokyo, Japan) controlled by Micro-Manager 1.4.23 software [72], with a Plan Apo 60 × 1.4
NA objective. For fluorescence illumination of the GFP and mCherry labelled proteins, a Lumencor
Spectra-X LED Light Engine was used. Z stacks of >13 slices with 0.5 µm spacing were recorded for
fluorescent imaging every 12 hours to cover the entire volume of the nucleus during the aging process.
Transmitted light imaging was done in a single Z plane to minimize the light exposure of the cells. The
age of the cell was defined by the number of daughter cells that emerged during the budding cycles
(CBE).

Chromosome loss assessment

For the assessment of chromosome and mini-chromosome loss and mis-segregation in aging, trapped
cells in the chip that had the labeled chromosomes at the initial time point of 0h (~virtually all cells) were
followed in transmitted light channel and fluorescent images were acquired every 12 hours. Only cells
where the entire volume of the nucleus was in focus and imaged, and where SPB was clearly visible
were considered in the analysis. The background fluorescence was subtracted in FIJI using a subtract
background function. The aged nuclei were examined by scrolling through the z stack (>13 stacks,
0,5um step) in both channels, to validate the presence of the SPBs and TetR foci in the mother or the
daughter cell. "Chromosome loss" refers to two quantified events: 1) The absence of the chromosome
from a mother or a daughter cell compartment during anaphase 2) A G1 mother cell that just underwent
its final division and is clearly viable, with a present SPB dot, but no chromosome dot. When
"Chromosome loss" is listed, it pertains to the sum of these two events. When "chromosome loss in
anaphase" is listed, it only pertains to the loss frequency observed during anaphase. Cells which lost
chromosomes due to abnormal mitotic events in the last replicative division, such as SPB
overamplification or full nuclei migration into the bud (Combined ~10% of all cells in the final replicative
division) were discarded from the quantifications. All cells were examined in the DIC channel for signs
of disrupted morphology indicating cell death and followed up in DIC to confirm cell death after
chromosome loss. For the assessment of minichromosome loss in aging (TetO array or ubi-GFP
minichromosome) the yeast cultures were grown in SD-LEU or SD-URA selective media enabling
minichromosome maintenance in all starting young cells. When loaded onto an aging chip cell were
transferred to SD complete media, allowing them to lose the minichromosome during aging without
inducing cell death. As the cells were grown in selective media, the minichromosome loss rate at 0h is
N/A. In general, aging chips are not suitable for measurement of chromosome loss frequency in young
cells, as cells within the young population that are missegregating chromosomes are usually stressed
and enlarged, and thus cannot be loaded into the microfluidic traps intended for normal young cells. For
chromosome mis-segregation frequency in young cells, we have used classical confocal imaging on a
patch of SD agar, as described in the Microscopy section.

Measurements of chromosome loss per CBE
762
763 To measure chromosome loss probability per Completed Budding Event (CBE), we utilized at least 150
764 cells per genotype and quantified the number of cells that lost the reporter chromosome during a specific
765 replicative division. The number of losses at a specific CBE was then divided by total number of cells
766 which passed through mitosis at that CBE number to give the probability of chromosome loss per CBE.
767 Categories of 5x CBE and its mean value of chromosome loss were plotted along with its SEM.
768
769 **Mother Enrichment Program (MEP) with FACS and RNA FISH**
770
Mother Enrichment Program was performed according to the standard procedure, using the strains
acquired from the Gotchling Lab [43]. Cells were labeled with Biotin and aged for 28h, after which they
were fixed in 4% PFA for 30 minutes. The cells were then stained with streptavidin conjugated with a
FACS compatible fluorophore (647nm) and sorted using FACSAria III at the Flow Cytometry Core
Facility at ETH Zurich to enrich for old mother cells. After FACS sorting, single molecule RNA FISH with
Stellaris® probes designed for introns of *GLC7, YRA1, DBP2* was performed as described in *Rahman*
et al 2013 [73].
778
779 **Quantification and Statistical analysis.**
780
781 Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 10 software
782 **Resources table**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	Reference
Critical commercial assays		
GEL extraction	QIAGEN	Ref:28604
Plasmid extraction	MACHEREY-NAGEL	Ref:740588.250
Deposited data		
Raw data from this study	Mihailo Mirkovic	Supp table 2
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		
Full strain list	Mihailo Mirkovic	Supp table 1
Primers	Mihailo Mirkovic	See Sup. Table 1
smRNA FISH probes	Biosearch Technologies	See Sup. Table 1
Recombinant DNA		Internal reference
CEN TetO-plasmid	*Dennoth-L et al 2014*	YYB 16094
CEN Ubi-GFP plasmid	This study	PYB 2665
YRp17 plasmid	*Mann C et al 1983*	PYB 546
Software and algorithms		
Graphpad Prism	Dotmatics	
ImageJ-FIJI		
Microsoft Excel	Microsoft	
Microsoft Word	Microsoft	
Adobe Illustrator	Adobe	

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1003

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

Yeast genes encoding kinetochore-associated proteins

CBF3	CCAN	CPC	SAC
NDC10	MIF2	IPL1	MAD1
CEP3	CSE4	SLI15	MAD2
CTF13	CTF19	NBL1	BUB1
SKP1	OKP1	BIR1	BUB3
	MCM21	SPC105	MPS1
CBF1	AME1	SPC105	Motor
	CHL4	YDR532	KIP1
MIS12	CNN1	DAM1	KIP3
MTW1	WIP1	ASK1	CIN8
DSN1	MHF1	DAD1	KAR3
NNF1	MHF2	DAD2	MAPS
NSL1	MCM16	DAD3	SLK19
	CTF3	DAD4	BIK1
NDC80	MCM22	DAM1	Phosphatase
NDC80	MCM19	DUO1	GLC7
NUF2	NKP1	SPC19	CDC14
SPC24	NKP2	SPC34	
SPC25	YBP2	HSK1	

Adapted from Biggins et al 2013

B

0h   *12h*   *24h*

Chromosome II loss frequencmy

0.20, 0.15, 0.10, 0.05, 0.00

ns
**
*
ns

wt, MCM21-Δi NBL1-Δi, GLC7-Δi, 3XΔi, TUB1-Δi TUB3-Δi

C

0h   *24h*

Chr II frequency of anaphase missegregation

0.20, 0.15, 0.10, 0.05, 0.00

*
**

wt, GLC7-Δi, 3X-Δi

D

Percentage of survival (100, 50, 0)

Completed budding events (CBE) (0, 10, 20, 30, 40)

- wt
- GLC7-Δi
- GLC7-Δi NBL1-Δi
- GLC7-Δi MCM21-Δ
- 3xΔi

****
****
****
****

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Supplementary Fig 1

A

DIC

Spc42-mCherry

0min 3min 6min 9min 12min 15min

B

ns

Metaphase-Anaphase(Min)

wt 3xΔi

C

wt

3xΔi

GLC7Δi

MCM21Δi

NBL1Δi

D

ns

Duration of the final budding event (Min)

wt 3xΔi

E

GLC7 Locus chromosome V

Fw

Ty1 Intron *GLC7* Ty3 Ty1 Ty1 Ty4

Rv

Ty1 *GLC7Δi* Ty3 Ty1 Ty1 *GLC7Δi* Ty3 Ty1 Ty1 Ty4

F

Ty1 *GLC7Δi* GFP hphNT1 Ty3 Ty1 Ty1 *GLC7Δi* Ty3 Ty1 Ty1 Ty4

Intron removal results in *GLC7Δi* duplication
C-terminal yeGFP tagging reveals the second copy of *GLC7Δi*

wt Δi wt Δi

-yeGFP-hphNT1

No tag

Primers flanking *GLC7* ORF

Supplementary Fig 3

A

B

C

GLC7 intron FISH Foci count

YYB number	Genotype	Mating type	Plasmid	Strain made by
962	wt deletion collection	A		Deletion collection
3416	hoD::SCW11pr-Cre-EBD78-NatMX loxP-UBC9-loxP-LEU2 loxP-CDC20-Intron-loxP-HPHMX	α		Dan Gottschling lab
3476	trp1::TetO:TRP1, lys4::LacO:LEU2 ,his3::LacR-GFP:HIS3 ,TetR-RFP	A		Gabriel Neurohr
14507	LEU2::TetR-3mCherry POA1::TetO112:URA3	A		Karsten Weis lab(KWY3759)
16094	Spc42-mCherry:NAT leu2::LEU2 TetR-GFP	A	rec-URA3-CEN-rec-tetO-LEU2	Anna Marzelliusadottir
16128	lys4::LacO:LEU2 his3::LacR-GFP:HIS3 Spc42-mCherry:NAT	α		Anna Marzelliusadottir
16157	trp1::pRS405_Trp1_SplicingReporter	A		Anne Meinema
16161	fob1::KAN, trp1::pRS405_Trp1_SplicingReporter	A		Anne Meinema
16301	sir2::kanMX, trp1::pRS405_Trp1_SplicingReporter	A		Anne Meinema
16648	mad1::kanMX	A		Deletion collection
16934	lys4::LacO:LEU2 his3::LacR-GFP:HIS3 Spc42-mCherry:NAT	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
16935	lys4::LacO:LEU2 his3::LacR-GFP:HIS3 Spc42-mCherry:NAT *Ipl1-321*	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
16936	lys4::LacO:LEU2 his3::LacR-GFP:HIS3 Spc42-mCherry:NAT *GLC7-Δi*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
16937	lys4::LacO:LEU2 his3::LacR-GFP:HIS3 Spc42-mCherry:NAT Ipl1-321 *GLC7-Δi*	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
17198	trp1::TetO:TRP1, lys4::LacO:LEU2 ,his3::LacR-GFP:HIS3 ,TetR-mRFP fob1::hphNT1	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
17213	mad2::KanMX	A		Deletion collection
17590	wt elela intronless collection	A	PYB 2665 Ubi-GFP	Mihailo Mirkovic
17591	*GLC7Δi*	A	PYB 2665 Ubi-GFP	Mihailo Mirkovic
17592	*Ipl1-321*	α	PYB 2665 Ubi-GFP	Mihailo Mirkovic
17593	*Ipl1-321 GLC7Δi*	α	PYB 2665 Ubi-GFP	Mihailo Mirkovic
17677	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2,Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
17678	POA1::TetO112:URA3,leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2,Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 *GLC7Δi*	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
17679	POA1::TetO112:URA3,leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2,Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 *GLC7/MCM21/NBL1 ΔiΔiΔi*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
17689	*Ipl1-321*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
17690	*Ipl1-321 GLC7Δi*	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
17691	*Ipl1-321 MCM21/NBL1ΔiΔi*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
17692	*Ipl1-321 GLC7/MCM21/NBL1-ΔiΔiΔi*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
17693	wt lpl1 crosses	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
17694	*GLC7Δi*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
17695	*GLC7/MCM21/NBL1 ΔiΔiΔi*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
17834	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2,Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 fob1::Nat	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
17838	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2,Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 sir2::Nat	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
17924	lpl1-321 Glc7Δi POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42:mCherry:hphNT1	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
18019	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
18028	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42:mCherry:hphNT1	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
18029	lpl1-321 POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42:mCherry:hphNT	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
18069	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry:hphNT1	α		Jordan Mccarthy
18070	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 hrb1::kan gbp2::kan	α		Jordan Mccarthy
18071	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 hrb1::kan gbp2::kan *GLC7/MCM21/NBL1-ΔiΔiΔi*	A		Jordan Mccarthy
18100	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 *TUB1/TUB3-ΔiΔi*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
18100	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 *GLC7/MCM21/NBL1-ΔiΔiΔi*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
18213	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 snu66del::Nat	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
18214	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 *TUB1/TUB3-ΔiΔi* snu66::Nat	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
18493	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 sgf73::Nat	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
18661	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 mlp1::nat	α		Mihailo Mirkovic
18663	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 mlp1::nat , *GLC7/MCM21/NBL1-ΔiΔiΔi*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
18683	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42:mCherry:hphNT1 *NBL1Δi MCM21Δi*	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
19347	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 *GLC7/MCM21/NBL1-ΔiΔiΔi* sir2::Nat	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
19348	POA1::TetO112:URA3 leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2 Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 trp1::TetO:TRP1	A		Mihailo Mirkovic
19453	POA1::TetO112:URA3,leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2,Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1	α	YRp17(PYB546)	Mihailo Mirkovic
19454	POA1::TetO112:URA3,leu2::TetR-GFP:LEU2,Spc42-mCherry-hphNT1 *GLC7/MCM21/NBL1 ΔiΔiΔi*	A	YRp17(PYB546)	Mihailo Mirkovic

Supplementary Table 1