Dissociation of the nuclear basket triggers chromosome loss in aging yeast

Mihailo Mirkovic[1], Jordan McCarthy[1], Anne Cornelis Meinema[1], Julie Parenteau[2], Sung Sik Lee[1,3], Sherif Abou Elela[2], Yves Barral[1]

1-Institute of Biochemistry, Department of Biology, ETH Zürich, Zürich, Switzerland

2- Département de microbiologie et d'infectiologie, Faculté de médecine et des sciences de la santé, Université de Sherbrooke, Sherbrooke, QC, Canada

3-Scientific Center for Optical and Electron Microscopy, ETH Zürich, Switzerland

ABSTRACT:

In many organisms, aging is a clear risk factor for increased rates of chromosome mis-segregation, the main source of aneuploidy. Here, we report that old yeast mother cells lose chromosomes by partitioning them asymmetrically to their daughter cells together with the pre-existing (old) Sindle Pole Body (centrosome equivalent in yeast). Strikingly, remodelling of the NPC and the displacement of its nuclear basket triggered these asymmetric segregation events. Concomitantly, basket displacement also caused unspliced pre-mRNAs to leak to 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. Furthermore, promoting pre-mRNA leakage in young cells also caused asymmetric chromosome partition and loss through the same three introns. Therefore, we propose that basket displacement from NPCs and its ensuing effects on pre-mRNA quality control are a key trigger of aging phenotypes such as aneuploidy.

INTRODUCTION

Cellular aging results in several conserved phenotypes, including chromosome mis-segregation, fragmentation of mitochondria, accumulation of damaged or misfolded proteins, and alteration of nuclear morphology[1-3]. Strikingly, in organisms as distinct as fungi, worms and mammals[4-6] aging also correlates with remodelling of the Nuclear Pore Complex (NPC), a ~50 MDa gateway that controls mRNA export and the nucleo/cytoplasmic distribution of proteins [7]. At least in dividing cells and upon expression of the progeriatric variant of Lamin A, progerin, the most prominent change observed on NPC is the loss of their nuclear basket[8,9]. This structure is formed by the protein TPR on the nucleoplasmic side of the NPC and acts in processes as diverse as mRNA export, the retention of pre-mRNAs in the nucleus, protein quality control and gene regulation [10-15]. The central position of the NPC in eukaryotic information flow and the broad range of function assumed by its basket suggests that altering their function could have very diverse effects on cell function. However, despite this and the fact that the reorganization of NPC architecture with age is prominent in a wide range of organisms, we know little about whether and how NPC remodelling contributes to aging.

The unicellular fungus *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, a budding yeast, is a remarkably useful system for studying the role of NPCs in cellular aging [1,3]. Indeed, budding yeast undergoes replicative aging, causing the mother cell to bud off a limited number of daughter cells until it starts slowing down its division rate, enter senescence and die[16]. Importantly, several studies have emphasized that the yeast

NPC is remodelled during replicative aging[4,17,18], but the exact consequences of its reorganization are not fully understood.

A prominent driver of replicative aging in budding yeast is the accumulation of extrachromosomal DNA circles (also called eccDNAs) in the mother cell nucleus [19-21]. These DNA circles form during the cell's lifetime through excision of genomic segments, generally by recombination between repeated sequences [22]. The vast majority of these circles (>99%) stems from the rDNA locus and are referred to as extrachromosomal rDNA circles (ERCs)[19]. As the cell age, these circles accumulate exponentially through their replication in S-phase and their retention in the mother cell at mitosis[19,23]. 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[23]. Importantly, their retention in the mother cell relies on their anchorage to NPCs via the megadalton protein complex called the SAGA complex [4,24]. 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 [24-26]. Indeed, yeast cells undergo a closed mitosis, i.e., they do not undergo nuclear envelope breakdown (NEBD). Remarkably, anchorage of ERCs to NPCs results in the dissociation of their nuclear basket due to SAGA acetylating nucleoporins such as Nup60 on the nuclear side of the NPC [24]. Consequently, a majority of the NPCs of old yeast cells lack a basket[4]. However, it is unknown whether this has consequences for the physiology and survival of the cell and contributes to the aging process.

One way to approach the question of whether displacement of the basket from the NPCs contributes to the aging process is to determine whether other aging phenotypes depend on basket displacement and if so, how. Here we focused on chromosome instability in old yeast cells. In many metazoans, including humans, aging results in increasing rates of chromosome mis-segregation and aneuploidy, correlating with increasing prevalence of cancer [27,28]. 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 investigate 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 are labelled through inserting an array of 256 TetO repeats in the vicinity of their centromere[29,30]. These chromosomes were visualized by expressing fluorescently tagged versions of the TetR protein (TetR-GFP or TetR-mCherry; Figures 1A-B). We then monitored them throughout the entire replicative lifespan of yeast mother cells trapped under the microscope using a microfluidics platform [4,31]. 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/Centrosome equivalent, 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 irrespectively 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 some instability of fluorophores in old cells. To test if the loss of these 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. Indeed, 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. We concluded that much like many other organisms, yeast undergoes a burst of chromosome instability when reaching an 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 [30,32]. Similarly, deleting the centromere from a chromosome causes the retention of both sister chromatids in the mother cell [30]. Remarkably, inserting a centromeric sequence (*CEN*) into a DNA circle, was sufficient to cause this mini-chromosome to be lost from aged mother cells at a similar rate as that observed for full-size chromosomes (~20% of old cells; Figures 1B-C). 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 rate as they lose the TetO labelled one (Figures 1B-C). Therefore, the presence of a centromere was necessary and sufficient for chromosomes and mini chromosomes to be lost from aging mother cells. We concluded that chromosome loss in old cells is driven by their centromere.

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 the cells that were imaged during their mitosis in our time-lapse recordings of aging cells (Figure 2A). Analysis of anaphases in old mother cells revealed a striking increase in the rate of chromosome II, IV and minichromosome missegregation (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 missegregation 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-C). 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 and
the resulting segregation of chromosomes asymmetrically to the bud. Thus, we examined the
mechanism behind this peculiar mode of directed chromosome mis-segregation.

In budding yeast, the pre-existing (old) SPB, i.e., the SPB that the cell inherited from the previous
mitosis, segregates to the bud in ~95% of mitoses, i.e., in a highly biased manner [33-35]. This can be
easily monitored when stable SPB components, such as the core SPB protein Spc42, are labelled with
mCherry, the maturation of which is relatively slow (~45 minutes half-time) relative to the duration of
yeast mitosis (~50 minutes from spindle assembly to completion of cytokinesis). Therefore, in cells
expressing Spc42-mCherry as a reporter, the old SPB (Figure 2A, red arrowhead) shines brighter than
the newly synthesized one. Given the convergent bias of SPB and sister-chromatid inheritance by the
bud of old cells, we asked whether in old mother cells it is the old SPB that drives the non-disjoining
sister-chromatids to the bud. In other words, we wondered whether the co-segregating sister-chromatids
attach to and co-segregate with the old SPB. To test this possibility, we examined the partition of the
labelled chromosomes relative to the old and new SPBs in old mother cells (t=24h, Figures 2D, E). In
about 10% of old cells, SPB inheritance is inverted, i.e., the old SPB mis-segregates to the mother cell
[33,34]. Analysis of these events indicated that the non-disjoining sister-chromatids followed the old SPB
to the mother cell in 80% of the cases instead of going to the bud (Figures 2D, E). We conclude that
chromosome loss in aging mother cells is due to preferential attachment of sister-chromatids to the old
SPB, which then partitions them asymmetrically to the bud.

In budding yeast, both sister chromatids initially attach in a syntelic manner to the old SPB upon
replication, as this SPB is the first to be available. These initial syntelic attachments are then dissolved
by the aurora B kinase to allow sister-chromatids to reorient and ultimately reach bi-orientation and
partition symmetrically in mitosis [36,37]. As a consequence, failure to correct initial attachments errors
causes sister-chromatids to co-segregate with the old SPB to the bud [38]. Therefore, we hypothesized
that the loss of chromosomes by mother cells to their daughters might be due to the error correction
pathway being impaired in old yeast cells. To test this idea, we analysed the effects of reducing
Ipl1/aurora B function during aging. Cells carrying the temperature sensitive *ipl1-321* mutant allele and
grown at a permissive temperature (27°C) showed no detectable chromosome loss at a young age
(Figure 2F). However, they started losing chromosomes prematurely during replicative aging (Figure
2F), resulting in a shortened lifespan (Sup Fig 1A). Strikingly, the chromosome loss rate of the old *ipl1-*
321 mutant cells (t=24h) was undistinguishable 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 the
pathway dedicated to 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[4]. Given that basket displacement is triggered by accumulating ERCs and their

SAGA-dependent anchorage to NPCs[4,24,25], we first investigated whether ERC accumulation promotes

chromosome loss. Recruitment of the deacetylase Sir2 to rDNA repeats is one of the mechanisms by

which cells keep the rate of ERC formation low. Therefore, the *sir2Δ* mutant cells show an increased

rate of ERC formation, accumulate these circles quicker and prematurely compared to wild type cells,

and show a reduced longevity[19,39]. Supporting the notion that ERC accumulation might promote

chromosome loss, these mutant cells also showed a strong increase in chromosome loss, prematurely

in life (Figure 3A and Sup 2A). To test further whether ERC accumulation could promote chromosome

loss, we asked whether reducing the rate of ERC formation delays it. Recombination in the rDNA locus

and the consequent excision of ERCs is stimulated by the presence of a replication fork barrier between

rDNA units. 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[4,40]. Thus, we asked whether inactivating Fob1 had any

effect on chromosome loss in old cells. Analysis of chromosome II presence in *fob1Δ* mutant cells

trapped in our microfluidics platform demonstrated that only very few of them had lost the TetO signal

even after dividing 18 times or more (t=24h; Figure 3A; Sup Fig 2A). We concluded from these data that

chromosome loss correlated remarkably well with ERC levels, suggesting that ERC accumulation and

hence, possibly the displacement of the basket from NPCs might promote chromosome loss. Further

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[24]. Unlike the wild type cells, the *sgf73Δ* mutant cells failed to show any significant increase in

chromosome loss at any age (Figures 3A Sup Fig 2A). Thus, our data suggest that ERC formation and

anchorage to NPCs triggers chromosome loss in old yeast cells.

Nuclear basket remodelling drives chromosome loss

We reported that SAGA-dependent anchorage of ERCs to NPCs leads to the displacement of the NPCs'

nuclear basket[24]. To investigate whether basket displacement promotes chromosome loss in some

manner, we sought next to genetically destabilize the basket and determined whether this accelerated

aging and the concomitant rise of chromosome instability. To do this, we disrupted the *MLP1* gene,

encoding the major isoform of the core basket protein TPR in yeast, and monitored the effect of that

mutation on chromosome II stability in aging cells. In stark contrast to the *sgf73Δ* and *fob1Δ* single

mutant and the wild type cells, the *mlp1Δ* single mutant cells exhibited a rapid increase in their

chromosome loss as they aged, along with a shortened lifespan (Figures 3A-B Sup Fig 2A). 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 partition in aging

The displacement of the nuclear basket from NPCs upon ERC anchorage weakened the molecular

pathway that corrects chromosome attachment errors (Figure 3A). This in turn caused old mother cells

to lose chromosomes to their buds. We wondered about the molecular mechanism linking asymmetric
chromosome partition to basket displacement. The basket of the nuclear pore has been involved in
various processes, such as mRNA export [41], protein quality control [11], docking of environmentally
regulated genes to the nuclear periphery upon their induction [15], as well as the retention in the nucleus
of faulty mRNAs, such as unspliced pre-mRNAs [10,42], as well as docking Mad1 and Mad2, two key
components of the mitotic Spindle Assembly Checkpoint(SAC), to the NPC[43,44].

The SAC components Mad1 and Mad2 bind Mlp1 and Mlp2 as well as Nup60 at the basket of the NPC
[44]. However, basket dissociation, which delocalizes Mad1/2 from the nuclear periphery, does not appear
to interfere with their function [44]. Nevertheless, we investigated whether SAC dysfunction could account
for aging phenotypes caused by basket dissociation and for the premature aging phenotype of the *mlp1Δ*
mutant cells. Arguing against this hypothesis, the *mad1Δ* and *mad2Δ* single mutant cells exhibited no
change in replicative longevity compared to the wild type cells and did not phenocopy *mlp1Δ* mutant
cells (Sup Fig3A). Therefore, we searched for other mechanisms through which basket displacement
could trigger chromosome loss.

While perusing through the list of genes involved in chromosome segregation (Figure 4A) we noticed
that, surprisingly, only three of them contain an intron, namely *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7*. Strikingly,
these three genes 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 [45-47]. Intrigued by this remarkable convergence, we wondered whether asymmetric
chromosome partition in aging could stem from the presence of these three introns in error correction
genes. Indeed, 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 the introns of *GLC7, MCM21, NBL1* contribute to the rise of
chromosome loss in old cells, we removed them from each of the three genes (-*Δi* alleles) and imaged
the mutant cells throughout their replicative lifespan. Removing their introns individually or all three
simultaneously (*3xΔi* strain) had no detectable effects on chromosome segregation in young cells
(Figure 4B). In sharp contrast, 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. Removing the introns of the two α-tubulin genes *TUB1* and *TUB3* simultaneously
had no effect, indicating that the effects observed with the introns of *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7* were
specific (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 3B). 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 1B).

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 Fig1 A). This suggests that chromosome loss is 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

Thus, our data indicate that basket dissociation from NPCs promotes chromosome loss through an
intron-dependent dampening of the error correction pathway. To test this idea more in 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 rate 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 effect
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 of the nuclear basket result in asymmetric
chromosome partition also in young cells. Like in aging, these effects are mediated through the introns
of *MCM21*, *NBL1* and *GLC7.* Interestingly, while the lifespan of the *mlp1Δ* mutant cells was shortened
compared to wild type, removal of these three introns rescued chromosome loss and partially restored
the longevity of the cells (Figure 5D-E). We concluded that intron-dependent dampening of the error
correction pathway is one, even if not the only one, progeriatric effects of the *mlp1Δ* mutation. Possibly,
other introns contribute to other aging phenotypes. Thus, our data indicate that basket displacement
promotes chromosome loss in young mutant cells and old wild type mother cells.

Old cells leak pre-mRNA to the cytoplasm

Furthermore, our data suggested that the role of the nuclear basket in enforcing proper chromosome
segregation involved its function in mRNA processing and quality control, and particularly in some
process related to splicing or to intron function. Thus, to explore this possibility, we next investigated
whether old mother cells show defects in pre-mRNA quality control. Indeed, basket mutant cells fail to
retain unspliced pre-mRNAs in the nucleus [10,42]. We therefore reasoned that old yeast mother cells might
show similar defects.

As a first proof of principle, we went on to characterize the localization of intronic RNA sequences in
young and old cells, using single molecule RNA fluorescence in situ hybridization (smRNA FISH). For
these studies, we focused on three introns, namely those of the *DBP2*, *YRA1* and *GLC7* genes. Indeed,
most yeast introns are short (50-150 nucleotides) and well below the size detectable by smRNA FISH
(>500 nts, ideally >1 kb). In the yeast genome, only 20 introns are longer than the required minimal size.
Thus, we chose to develop probes for the long introns, namely those of *DBP2* (766 nts), and *YRA1*
(1002 nts), and for obvious reasons for *GLC7* (525 nts). The introns of *NBL1* (66 nts) and *MCM21* (88
nts) are too short for this method. Cohorts of old cells were collected using the Mother Enrichment
Program (MEP)[48] followed by FACS sorting to reach high homogeneity. 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 simplifying 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. Only very rarely did we observe

a focus in the cytoplasm (<3% of the cells). No foci were detected in the corresponding *Δi* strains,

demonstrating probe specificity (Sup Fig4). In contrast, for each of the three introns tested, smRNA

FISH detected intronic RNA sequences in the cytoplasm of the majority of old cells. 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 (Figures 6A-B Sup Fig4). Together, these data indicated that 3 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 address this question very directly, we turned to a functional assay and monitored the translation of

an unspliced pre-mRNA reporter in the cytoplasm. This fluorescent reporter construct expresses GFP

upon proper splicing of the nascent transcript, or mCherry, coded in the intron, when the unspliced pre-

mRNA leaks out of the nucleus and hence, becomes translated (Figure 6C) [49]. Cells carrying this

construct integrated at the *TRP1* locus were trapped and imaged in our microfluidics platform. The

fluorescence levels of the two reporter fluorophores as well as the number of completed budding events

of the recorded cells were measured as they aged. Analysis of the fluorescence signal established that

the mCherry/GFP ratio increased in old compared to young cells, demonstrating elevated translation of

the pre-mRNA in the cytoplasm of aged cells compared to young ones (Figures 6D-E).

Consistent with leakage and translation of this reporter depending on ERC accumulation, the

mCherry/GFP ratio increased prematurely and to a higher level in the *sir2Δ* mutant, compared to the

wild type cells. In reverse, the *fob1Δ* mutant cells showed a lowered mCherry/GFP ratio, which did not

increase much during their lifespan (Figures 6D-E). Thus, we conclude that ERC formation and

accumulation promotes pre-mRNA leakage during yeast aging, as expected from their effect on the

NPCs' nuclear basket.

pre-mRNA leakage induces asymmetric chromosome partition

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 would alone be

sufficient for triggering 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[50,51].Therefore*, hrb1Δ gbp2Δ* double

mutant cells leak pre-mRNA to the cytoplasm at a higher rate than wild type cells [10,50-52]. Thus, we asked

whether these double mutant cells showed any tendency to lose the labelled chromosome II. As a

control, we asked whether the *snu66Δ* mutation, which affects the spliceosome itself directly [53,54], 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 7A-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 stronger increase in their rate of chromosome mis-segregation, which was more than ten-fold above that of young wild type cells. Furthermore, sister-chromatid mis-segregation was strongly biased towards the old SPB. Removing the introns of *GLC7, MCM21* and *NBL1* suppressed this chromosome segregation defect (Figure 7A). Therefore, pre-mRNA leakage is sufficient to induce asymmetric chromosome partition 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 cause such an asymmetric segregation of chromosome to the bud indicates that the effects observed in old cells cannot be explained simply by splicing defects.

We conclude that the loss of the NPCs' basket and subsequent leakage of pre-mRNAs impairs the correction of syntelic attachments by the Ipl1/aurora B pathway, resulting in asymmetric partition of sister-chromatids and chromosome loss with age. Basket displacement and pre-mRNA leakage inhibited error correction by some yet unknown mechanism involving the introns of the *NBL1*, *MCM21* and *GLC7* genes, specifically.

DISCUSSION

Aging manifests itself through a broad diversity of conserved cellular phenotypes but except in few cases we know little about how these relate or are causally linked to each other[1-3]. In this study we investigated whether NPC remodelling in old mother cells contributes to the emergence of other aging phenotypes, taking chromosome loss as a study case[4]. We show that NPC remodelling is both necessary and sufficient for the raise of chromosome loss with age and provide insights into the mechanisms involved. Indeed, interventions that promote displacement of the NPCs' basket and basket defects in general promoted non-disjunction and mis-segregation of sister-chromatids to the bud, and hence chromosome loss in the old mother cell. These interventions include mutations that stimulate ERC formation and removal of the main yeast TPR isoform, Mlp1. In reverse, interventions that prevent NPC remodelling, such as delaying ERC accumulation, their anchorage to NPCs and the recruitment of SAGA to NPCs, restored proper chromosome segregation in old cells and prevented chromosome loss. Thus, NPC remodelling appeared as the pivotal point for triggering chromosome loss in old cells.

Two potential caveats should be considered. First, the *sir2Δ* and *fob1Δ* mutations have each more effects than only influencing ERC formation. The *sir2Δ* mutant cells lose silencing of the hidden mating type loci, genetically behaving as diploids, fail to silence subtelomeric regions and act through some yet unknown mechanism on the maintenance of proper proteostasis[55-58]. Likewise, the *fob1Δ* mutation renders the rDNA locus unstable, which might interfere with rRNA transcription and ribosome biosynthesis[59]. However, their only clear common denominator is that they both affect ERC formation, and hence NPC remodelling even if in opposite manners[39,40]. Moreover, the *sgf73Δ* mutation phenocopies the effects of the *fob1Δ* mutation. Here again the only known functional overlap between Fob1 and Sgf73 resides in their requirements for the accumulation of ERCs in the mother cell, and indirectly (Fob1) or directly (Sgf73), for their anchorage to NPCs and the consequent displacement of NPCs' basket[4,24]. In fitting, the fact that destabilizing the basket also promotes the premature onset of chromosome loss reinforces the notion that it is indeed the displacement of the basket from NPCs that triggers chromosome loss upon ERC accumulation.

A second possible caveat is that chromosome loss could be linked to aging in some other manner. The
effects of the diverse perturbations listed above would promote chromosome loss indirectly, via the
effects that they have on cellular aging. 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, such
corrections are enforced by the kinase aurora B and its accessory factors[36]. Our data also show that the
inhibition of correction in old cells requires the presence of three introns, those standing in the genes
NBL1, *MCM21* and *GLC7*. These three genes are the only genes of the chromosome segregation
machinery to have kept an intron. Strikingly, the proteins Nbl1, Mcm21 and Glc7 are all involved in the
error correction pathway, together with aurora B/Ipl1[45-47]. Removing their introns sufficed for restoring
proper attachment correction and chromosome segregation in old cells and for suppressing 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, the
suppression of chromosome mis-segregation upon removal of these introns is not only observed in old
wild type cells but also in young *mlp1Δ* mutant cells. Thus, intron removal separates aging and
chromosome loss, indicating that the action of these introns is part of the proximal cause of chromosome
loss and is independent of age. Therefore, our data indicate that there is a direct, intron-dependent link
between basket displacement from NPCs and chromosome loss. We suggest that this link relates to the
role of the nuclear basket of the NPC in inhibiting the export of unspliced pre-mRNAs out of the nucleus,
and hence, 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 rate 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 triggers
chromosome non-disjunction and loss.

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[60]. This suggests that aging has a non-univocal 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 observations 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. 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 indeed impaired in old cells[1,2]. Thus, basket displacement might contribute to these phenotypes
in aging cells. It is also very tempting to speculate that the role of the basket in mRNA quality control
could affect more than only chromosome segregation. Indeed, 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 suggestive genes, such as genes coding for ubiquitin-conjugating enzymes and
proteasome subunits, components of the mitochondrial respiratory chain and ribosomal proteins[61].
Since decay of the ubiquitin-mediated protein degradation, mitochondrial membrane potential and
function and of ribosome assembly are classical and ubiquitous hallmarks of aging[1-3], 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[62]. 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 raise in aneuploidy in yeast[63-65]. Furthermore,
aneuploidy is a frequent response to environmental stresses and a primary mechanism for the
emergence of stress resistant clones in fungi[66]. Therefore, it is tempting to speculate that the
chromosome mis-segregation resulting from basket displacement might be a selected response to
stress. It might indeed be selectively advantageous for cells to have means to 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[6,67]. Little is known about whether the nuclear basket plays any
similar role in pre-mRNA retention in the nucleus of metazoans as of yeast cells, but it is still striking that
intron-retention is one of the hallmarks of aging on the metazoan transcriptome, and that pre-mRNA
processing genes are important in mitotic stability[68-71]. Such intron-retention would be expected if some
transcripts tend to escape the nucleus prematurely. More striking maybe, the perhaps most ubiquitous
effect of the expression of the progeriatric variant of lamin A, progerin, across cell types is the
displacement of the nuclear basket protein TPR from NPCs[8]. We know still very little about the impact
of basket displacement in the etiology of the Gilford-Hutchinson Progeria Syndrome, but our yeast
studies 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 and perhaps mitigating the
effects of progerin expression.

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 an idiosyncrasy of yeast, the downstream events 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 some fungal version of what an auto-inflammatory or auto-immune response in metazoans would be. Therefore, it will be interesting to investigate whether exogenous or non-chromosomal DNA, such as possibly 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:

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

Acknowledgments:

We acknowledge Dr.Dan Jarosz, Dr. Gabriel Neurohr, Dr. Madhav Jagannathan, Dr. Patrick Meraldi ,Dr Anna Marzelliusardottir for critical reading and suggestions on the Manuscript. We acknowledge the ScopeM facility at the Institute of Biochemistry, ETH for their technical assistance. We acknowledge Elisa Dultz for providing the Chromosome II strain with the POA1::TetO array.

Funding:

MM: grant 31003A-105904 from the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF) and the ETH postdoctoral fellowship 19-1 FEL-10

JM: grant 31003A-105904 from the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF)

JP: CIHR (Canadian institute of health research) 201809PJT-407549-BMB-CFDA-53473.

SSL: Scope M facility of ETH Zurich, Institute of Biochemistry

SAE: CIHR (Canadian institute of health research) 201809PJT-407549-BMB-CFDA-53473.

YB: grant 31003A-105904 from the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF)

Declaration of interests:

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability:

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 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 labels used in this study. **C)** Chromosome loss fraction 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 a fraction of chromosome loss in a cohort of ~50 cells. Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).

Figure 2 Old cells lose chromosome by asymmetric sister chromatid partition
A) Images of anaphase cells carrying the labeled chromosome II as in Fig. 1A. Red arrows mark the old SPBs. **B)** Fraction 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 missegregation in the cohort of ~50 anaphases **C)** Fraction of anaphase missegregation events that lead to TetR-GFP foci being present in the mother or the daughter cell (n=66, cohorts of 10). **D)** Graphical schematic of all observed anaphase missegregation 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)** Fraction 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).

Figure 3 ERC formation and NPC remodeling drive chromosome loss and aging
A) Loss fraction of Chromosome II in strains of indicated genotype as a function of CBE (divided into categories of 5xCBE)*(N, n(cells/divisions) wt=458/8600, sir2Δ=158/1779, fob1Δ=127/2681, sgf73Δ=142/3950 mlp1Δ=302/4270)* **B)** Replicative lifespan of listed genotypes (n>120 cells , Log-rank (Mentel Cox) test *<0.05,**<0.005,***<0.0005).

Figure 4 Introns drive asymmetric chromatid partition 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)** Fraction of Chromosome II loss 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 a fraction of chromosome loss in a cohort of ~50 cells. Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005). **C)** Fraction of anaphase missegregation of Chromosome II at indicated aging time (top) in cells of indicated genotype. *3xΔi stands for GLC7-Δi MCM21-Δi NBL1-Δl triple mutant.* Each data point represents missegregation frequency in a cohort of ~50 anaphases. 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).

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)** Anaphase mis-segregation of Chromosome II in cells of indicated genotypes *(n=2774,3000,2700).* Each data point represents anaphase missegregation fraction in the cohort of >300 cells. **C)** Fraction of Chromosome II missegregation with old (red) or new SPB (pink) in anaphase cells of indicated genotype (n=30 cohorts of ~10 missegregation events) Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005) **D)** Chromosome II loss probability in indicated genotype as a function of CBE (divided into categories of 5xCBE) *(N, n(cells/divisions) wt=458/8600, mlp1Δ=302/4270, 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).

Figure 6 Pre-mRNA leaks to the cytoplasm in aging

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)** 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 the log2 ratio of mCherry/GFP intensity of cells at 12 or 24h (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).

Figure 7 Pre-mRNA leakage is sufficient to drive asymmetric chromatid partition

A) Anaphase mis-segregation of Chromosome II in cells of indicated genotypes *(n=2774,5269,2650,1607).* Each data point represents anaphase missegregation fraction in the cohort of >300 cells **B)** Fraction of Chromosome II missegregation with old (red) or new SPB (pink) in anaphase cells of indicated genotype (n=50,30 cohorts of ~10 missegregation events). Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).

Supplementary Figure Legends

Figure S1 Introns inhibit mitotic error correction in aging

A) 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.**B)** Fraction 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 Chromosome loss in aging is ERC and NPC remodeling dependent

A) Fraction of Chromosome II loss (*POA1:TetO* /TetR-GFP) in wt, *fob1Δ,sir2Δ,* sgf73Δ and *mlp1Δ* mutant cells at 0h (~0-3 CBE),12h (~8-12 CBE) and 24h (~18-22 CBE). Each data point represents a fraction of loss in a cohort of ~50 cells. Stars correspond to *p-values* of wt vs genotype of listed color at the corresponding timepoint. Unpaired T-test (*<0.05, **<0.005, ***<0.0005).

Figure S3 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)** Fraction of Chromosome II, IV and GFP minichromosome loss (See Fig 1B) upon removal of intron of *GLC7* 0h (~0-3 CBE) and 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 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 are available to the public upon request

Experimental Model Details

Strains and plasmids

All yeast strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in the **Supplementary file1**. 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

570 generated using methods described in *Janke et al 2004* [72]. All cultures were grown using standard
571 conditions at 160 rpm, in YPD or synthetic drop-out medium supplemented with 0.1% BSA for aging
572 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 [73]. 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* [29], originally derived from *Vas AC et al 2006* [74] **3)** Ubi-GFP
minichromosome (PYB 2665) was derived by cloning UBIYdkGFP* from *Houser et al 2012* (PNC 1136)
[75] 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* [24].

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

Aging microfluidic platform

Chromosome segregation and protein intensity during aging were assessed using the high-throughput
yeast aging analysis (HYAA) microfluidics dissection platform [31]. 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 the lifespan analyses, a chip with a new cell trapping
design was used [4], 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 [76], 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 in order 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 rate 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 the normal young cells. For
chromosome missegregation rates 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

654 To measure chromosome loss probability per Completed Budding Event (CBE), we utilized at least 150
655 cells per genotype and quantified the number of cells that lost the reporter chromosome during a specific
656 replicative division. The number of losses at a specific CBE was then divided by total number of cells
657 which passed though mitosis at that CBE number to give the probability of chromosome loss per CBE.
658 Categories of 5x CBE and its mean value of chromosome loss were plotted along with its SD.

Mother Enrichment Program (MEP) with FACS and RNA FISH

Mother Enrichment Program was performed according to the standard procedure, using the strains
acquired from the Gotchling Lab [48]. 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* [77].

Quantification and Statistical analysis.

672 Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 10 software

676 **Resources table**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	Reference
Critical commercial assays		
GEL extraction	QIAGEN	Ref:28604
Plasmid extraction	MACHEREY-NAGEL	Ref:740588.250
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		
Full strain list	Mihailo Mirkovic	Supp file 1
Primers	Mihailo Mirkovic	See Supp file 1
smRNA FISH probes	Biosearch Technologies	See Supp file 1
Recombinant DNA		
CEN TetO-plasmid	*Dennoth-L et al 2014*	YYB 16094
Ubi-GFP plasmid	This study	PYB 2665
Software and algorithms		
Graphpad Prism	Dotmatics	
ImageJ-FIJI		
Microsoft Excel	Microsoft	
Microsoft Word	Microsoft	
Adobe Illustrator	Adobe	

References

1.   Denoth Lippuner, A., Julou, T., and Barral, Y. (2014). Budding yeast as a model organism to study the
effects of age. FEMS Microbiol Rev *38*, 300-325. 10.1111/1574-6976.12060.
2.   Lopez-Otin, C., Blasco, M.A., Partridge, L., Serrano, M., and Kroemer, G. (2023). Hallmarks of aging: An
expanding universe. Cell *186*, 243-278. 10.1016/j.cell.2022.11.001.
3.   Janssens, G.E., and Veenhoff, L.M. (2016). Evidence for the hallmarks of human aging in replicatively
aging yeast. Microb Cell *3*, 263-274. 10.15698/mic2016.07.510.
4.   Meinema, A.C., Marzelliusardottir, A., Mirkovic, M., Aspert, T., Lee, S.S., Charvin, G., and Barral, Y.
(2022). DNA circles promote yeast ageing in part through stimulating the reorganization of nuclear pore
complexes. Elife *11*. 10.7554/eLife.71196.
5.   D'Angelo, M.A., Raices, M., Panowski, S.H., and Hetzer, M.W. (2009). Age-dependent deterioration of
nuclear pore complexes causes a loss of nuclear integrity in postmitotic cells. Cell *136*, 284-295.
10.1016/j.cell.2008.11.037.
6.   Ori, A., Toyama, B.H., Harris, M.S., Bock, T., Iskar, M., Bork, P., Ingolia, N.T., Hetzer, M.W., and Beck,
M. (2015). Integrated Transcriptome and Proteome Analyses Reveal Organ-Specific Proteome
Deterioration in Old Rats. Cell Syst *1*, 224-237. 10.1016/j.cels.2015.08.012.
7.   Dultz, E., Wojtynek, M., Medalia, O., and Onischenko, E. (2022). The Nuclear Pore Complex: Birth, Life,
and Death of a Cellular Behemoth. Cells *11*. 10.3390/cells11091456.
8.   Larrieu, D., Vire, E., Robson, S., Breusegem, S.Y., Kouzarides, T., and Jackson, S.P. (2018). Inhibition
of the acetyltransferase NAT10 normalizes progeric and aging cells by rebalancing the Transportin-1
nuclear import pathway. Sci Signal *11*. 10.1126/scisignal.aar5401.
9.   Merideth, M.A., Gordon, L.B., Clauss, S., Sachdev, V., Smith, A.C., Perry, M.B., Brewer, C.C., Zalewski,
C., Kim, H.J., Solomon, B., et al. (2008). Phenotype and course of Hutchinson-Gilford progeria
syndrome. N Engl J Med *358*, 592-604. 10.1056/NEJMoa0706898.
10.   Galy, V., Gadal, O., Fromont-Racine, M., Romano, A., Jacquier, A., and Nehrbass, U. (2004). Nuclear
retention of unspliced mRNAs in yeast is mediated by perinuclear Mlp1. Cell *116*, 63-73. 10.1016/s0092-
8674(03)01026-2.
11.   Niepel, M., Molloy, K.R., Williams, R., Farr, J.C., Meinema, A.C., Vecchietti, N., Cristea, I.M., Chait, B.T.,
Rout, M.P., and Strambio-De-Castillia, C. (2013). The nuclear basket proteins Mlp1p and Mlp2p are part
of a dynamic interactome including Esc1p and the proteasome. Mol Biol Cell *24*, 3920-3938.
10.1091/mbc.E13-07-0412.

12. Saroufim, M.A., Bensidoun, P., Raymond, P., Rahman, S., Krause, M.R., Oeffinger, M., and Zenklusen,
D. (2015). The nuclear basket mediates perinuclear mRNA scanning in budding yeast. J Cell Biol *211*,
1131-1140. 10.1083/jcb.201503070.
13. Albert, S., Schaffer, M., Beck, F., Mosalaganti, S., Asano, S., Thomas, H.F., Plitzko, J.M., Beck, M.,
Baumeister, W., and Engel, B.D. (2017). Proteasomes tether to two distinct sites at the nuclear pore
complex. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *114*, 13726-13731. 10.1073/pnas.1716305114.
14. Aksenova, V., Smith, A., Lee, H., Bhat, P., Esnault, C., Chen, S., Iben, J., Kaufhold, R., Yau, K.C.,
Echeverria, C., et al. (2020). Nucleoporin TPR is an integral component of the TREX-2 mRNA export
pathway. Nat Commun *11*, 4577. 10.1038/s41467-020-18266-2.
15. Raices, M., and D'Angelo, M.A. (2017). Nuclear pore complexes and regulation of gene expression. Curr
Opin Cell Biol *46*, 26-32. 10.1016/j.ceb.2016.12.006.
16. Mortimer, R.K., and Johnston, J.R. (1959). Life span of individual yeast cells. Nature *183*, 1751-1752.
10.1038/1831751a0.
17. Rempel, I.L., Steen, A., and Veenhoff, L.M. (2020). Poor old pores-The challenge of making and
maintaining nuclear pore complexes in aging. FEBS J *287*, 1058-1075. 10.1111/febs.15205.
18. Rempel, I.L., Crane, M.M., Thaller, D.J., Mishra, A., Jansen, D.P., Janssens, G., Popken, P., Aksit, A.,
Kaeberlein, M., van der Giessen, E., et al. (2019). Age-dependent deterioration of nuclear pore
assembly in mitotic cells decreases transport dynamics. Elife *8*. 10.7554/eLife.48186.
19. Sinclair, D.A., and Guarente, L. (1997). Extrachromosomal rDNA circles--a cause of aging in yeast. Cell
91, 1033-1042. 10.1016/s0092-8674(00)80493-6.
20. Jin, M., Li, Y., O'Laughlin, R., Bittihn, P., Pillus, L., Tsimring, L.S., Hasty, J., and Hao, N. (2019).
Divergent Aging of Isogenic Yeast Cells Revealed through Single-Cell Phenotypic Dynamics. Cell Syst
8, 242-253 e243. 10.1016/j.cels.2019.02.002.
21. Morlot, S., Song, J., Leger-Silvestre, I., Matifas, A., Gadal, O., and Charvin, G. (2019). Excessive rDNA
Transcription Drives the Disruption in Nuclear Homeostasis during Entry into Senescence in Budding
Yeast. Cell Rep *28*, 408-422 e404. 10.1016/j.celrep.2019.06.032.
22. Moller, H.D., Mohiyuddin, M., Prada-Luengo, I., Sailani, M.R., Halling, J.F., Plomgaard, P., Maretty, L.,
Hansen, A.J., Snyder, M.P., Pilegaard, H., et al. (2018). Circular DNA elements of chromosomal origin
are common in healthy human somatic tissue. Nat Commun *9*, 1069. 10.1038/s41467-018-03369-8.
23. Bitterman, K.J., Medvedik, O., and Sinclair, D.A. (2003). Longevity regulation in Saccharomyces
cerevisiae: linking metabolism, genome stability, and heterochromatin. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev *67*, 376-
399, table of contents. 10.1128/MMBR.67.3.376-399.2003.
24. Denoth-Lippuner, A., Krzyzanowski, M.K., Stober, C., and Barral, Y. (2014). Role of SAGA in the
asymmetric segregation of DNA circles during yeast ageing. Elife *3*. 10.7554/eLife.03790.
25. Shcheprova, Z., Baldi, S., Frei, S.B., Gonnet, G., and Barral, Y. (2008). A mechanism for asymmetric
segregation of age during yeast budding. Nature *454*, 728-734. 10.1038/nature07212.
26. Baldi, S., Bolognesi, A., Meinema, A.C., and Barral, Y. (2017). Heat stress promotes longevity in
budding yeast by relaxing the confinement of age-promoting factors in the mother cell. Elife *6*.
10.7554/eLife.28329.
27. Boveri, T. (2008). Concerning the origin of malignant tumours by Theodor Boveri. Translated and
annotated by Henry Harris. J Cell Sci *121 Suppl 1*, 1-84. 10.1242/jcs.025742.
28. Jacobs, P.A., Court Brown, W.M., and Doll, R. (1961). Distribution of human chromosome counts in
relation to age. Nature *191*, 1178-1180. 10.1038/1911178a0.
29. Neurohr, G., Naegeli, A., Titos, I., Theler, D., Greber, B., Diez, J., Gabaldon, T., Mendoza, M., and
Barral, Y. (2011). A midzone-based ruler adjusts chromosome compaction to anaphase spindle length.
Science *332*, 465-468. 10.1126/science.1201578.
30. Kruitwagen, T., Chymkowitch, P., Denoth-Lippuner, A., Enserink, J., and Barral, Y. (2018). Centromeres
License the Mitotic Condensation of Yeast Chromosome Arms. Cell *175*, 780-795 e715.
10.1016/j.cell.2018.09.012.
31. Jo, M.C., Liu, W., Gu, L., Dang, W., and Qin, L. (2015). High-throughput analysis of yeast replicative
aging using a microfluidic system. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *112*, 9364-9369.
10.1073/pnas.1510328112.
32. Gehlen, L.R., Nagai, S., Shimada, K., Meister, P., Taddei, A., and Gasser, S.M. (2011). Nuclear
geometry and rapid mitosis ensure asymmetric episome segregation in yeast. Curr Biol *21*, 25-33.
10.1016/j.cub.2010.12.016.

33.   Lengefeld, J., Hotz, M., Rollins, M., Baetz, K., and Barral, Y. (2017). Budding yeast Wee1 distinguishes
spindle pole bodies to guide their pattern of age-dependent segregation. Nat Cell Biol *19*, 941-951.
10.1038/ncb3576.
34.   Pereira, G., Tanaka, T.U., Nasmyth, K., and Schiebel, E. (2001). Modes of spindle pole body inheritance
and segregation of the Bfa1p-Bub2p checkpoint protein complex. EMBO J *20*, 6359-6370.
10.1093/emboj/20.22.6359.
35.   Hotz, M., Leisner, C., Chen, D., Manatschal, C., Wegleiter, T., Ouellet, J., Lindstrom, D., Gottschling,
D.E., Vogel, J., and Barral, Y. (2012). Spindle pole bodies exploit the mitotic exit network in metaphase
to drive their age-dependent segregation. Cell *148*, 958-972. 10.1016/j.cell.2012.01.041.
36.   Biggins, S., Severin, F.F., Bhalla, N., Sassoon, I., Hyman, A.A., and Murray, A.W. (1999). The
conserved protein kinase Ipl1 regulates microtubule binding to kinetochores in budding yeast. Genes
Dev *13*, 532-544. 10.1101/gad.13.5.532.
37.   Cheeseman, I.M., Anderson, S., Jwa, M., Green, E.M., Kang, J., Yates, J.R., 3rd, Chan, C.S., Drubin,
D.G., and Barnes, G. (2002). Phospho-regulation of kinetochore-microtubule attachments by the Aurora
kinase Ipl1p. Cell *111*, 163-172. 10.1016/s0092-8674(02)00973-x.
38.   Tanaka, T.U., Rachidi, N., Janke, C., Pereira, G., Galova, M., Schiebel, E., Stark, M.J., and Nasmyth, K.
(2002). Evidence that the Ipl1-Sli15 (Aurora kinase-INCENP) complex promotes chromosome bi-
orientation by altering kinetochore-spindle pole connections. Cell *108*, 317-329. 10.1016/s0092-
8674(02)00633-5.
39.   Kaeberlein, M., McVey, M., and Guarente, L. (1999). The SIR2/3/4 complex and SIR2 alone promote
longevity in Saccharomyces cerevisiae by two different mechanisms. Genes Dev *13*, 2570-2580.
10.1101/gad.13.19.2570.
40.   Defossez, P.A., Prusty, R., Kaeberlein, M., Lin, S.J., Ferrigno, P., Silver, P.A., Keil, R.L., and Guarente,
L. (1999). Elimination of replication block protein Fob1 extends the life span of yeast mother cells. Mol
Cell *3*, 447-455. 10.1016/s1097-2765(00)80472-4.
41.   De Magistris, P. (2021). The Great Escape: mRNA Export through the Nuclear Pore Complex. Int J Mol
Sci *22*. 10.3390/ijms222111767.
42.   Bonnet, A., and Palancade, B. (2015). Intron or no intron: a matter for nuclear pore complexes. Nucleus
6, 455-461. 10.1080/19491034.2015.1116660.
43.   Iouk, T., Kerscher, O., Scott, R.J., Basrai, M.A., and Wozniak, R.W. (2002). The yeast nuclear pore
complex functionally interacts with components of the spindle assembly checkpoint. J Cell Biol *159*, 807-
819. 10.1083/jcb.200205068.
44.   Scott, R.J., Lusk, C.P., Dilworth, D.J., Aitchison, J.D., and Wozniak, R.W. (2005). Interactions between
Mad1p and the nuclear transport machinery in the yeast. Molecular Biology of the Cell *16*, 4362-4374.
10.1091/mbc.E05-01-0011.
45.   Pinsky, B.A., Kotwaliwale, C.V., Tatsutani, S.Y., Breed, C.A., and Biggins, S. (2006). Glc7/protein
phosphatase 1 regulatory subunits can oppose the Ipl1/aurora protein kinase by redistributing Glc7. Mol
Cell Biol *26*, 2648-2660. 10.1128/MCB.26.7.2648-2660.2006.
46.   Poddar, A., Roy, N., and Sinha, P. (1999). MCM21 and MCM22, two novel genes of the yeast
Saccharomyces cerevisiae are required for chromosome transmission. Mol Microbiol *31*, 349-360.
10.1046/j.1365-2958.1999.01179.x.
47.   Nakajima, Y., Tyers, R.G., Wong, C.C., Yates, J.R., 3rd, Drubin, D.G., and Barnes, G. (2009). Nbl1p: a
Borealin/Dasra/CSC-1-like protein essential for Aurora/Ipl1 complex function and integrity in
Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol Biol Cell *20*, 1772-1784. 10.1091/mbc.e08-10-1011.
48.   Lindstrom, D.L., and Gottschling, D.E. (2009). The mother enrichment program: a genetic system for
facile replicative life span analysis in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics *183*, 413-422, 411SI-413SI.
10.1534/genetics.109.106229.
49.   Sorenson, M.R., and Stevens, S.W. (2014). Rapid identification of mRNA processing defects with a
novel single-cell yeast reporter. RNA *20*, 732-745. 10.1261/rna.042663.113.
50.   Hackmann, A., Wu, H., Schneider, U.M., Meyer, K., Jung, K., and Krebber, H. (2014). Quality control of
spliced mRNAs requires the shuttling SR proteins Gbp2 and Hrb1. Nat Commun *5*, 3123.
10.1038/ncomms4123.
51.   Hurt, E., Luo, M.J., Rother, S., Reed, R., and Strasser, K. (2004). Cotranscriptional recruitment of the
serine-arginine-rich (SR)-like proteins Gbp2 and Hrb1 to nascent mRNA via the TREX complex. Proc
Natl Acad Sci U S A *101*, 1858-1862. 10.1073/pnas.0308663100.

52. Windgassen, M., Sturm, D., Cajigas, I.J., Gonzalez, C.I., Seedorf, M., Bastians, H., and Krebber, H.
(2004). Yeast shuttling SR proteins Npl3p, Gbp2p, and Hrb1p are part of the translating mRNPs, and
Npl3p can function as a translational repressor. Mol Cell Biol *24*, 10479-10491.
10.1128/MCB.24.23.10479-10491.2004.
53. Stevens, S.W., and Abelson, J. (1999). Purification of the yeast U4/U6.U5 small nuclear
ribonucleoprotein particle and identification of its proteins. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *96*, 7226-7231.
10.1073/pnas.96.13.7226.
54. Murphy, M.W., Olson, B.L., and Siliciano, P.G. (2004). The yeast splicing factor Prp40p contains
functional leucine-rich nuclear export signals that are essential for splicing. Genetics *166*, 53-65.
10.1534/genetics.166.1.53.
55. Haber, J.E. (2012). Mating-type genes and MAT switching in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics *191*,
33-64. 10.1534/genetics.111.134577.
56. Rine, J., and Herskowitz, I. (1987). Four genes responsible for a position effect on expression from HML
and HMR in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics *116*, 9-22. 10.1093/genetics/116.1.9.
57. Gottschling, D.E., Aparicio, O.M., Billington, B.L., and Zakian, V.A. (1990). Position effect at S.
cerevisiae telomeres: reversible repression of Pol II transcription. Cell *63*, 751-762. 10.1016/0092-
8674(90)90141-z.
58. Smith, J.S., and Boeke, J.D. (1997). An unusual form of transcriptional silencing in yeast ribosomal
DNA. Genes Dev *11*, 241-254. 10.1101/gad.11.2.241.
59. Kobayashi, T., Heck, D.J., Nomura, M., and Horiuchi, T. (1998). Expansion and contraction of ribosomal
DNA repeats in Saccharomyces cerevisiae: requirement of replication fork blocking (Fob1) protein and
the role of RNA polymerase I. Genes Dev *12*, 3821-3830. 10.1101/gad.12.24.3821.
60. Gomez-Montalvo, J., de Obeso Fernandez Del Valle, A., De la Cruz Gutierrez, L.F., Gonzalez-Meljem,
J.M., and Scheckhuber, C.Q. (2024). Replicative aging in yeast involves dynamic intron retention
patterns associated with mRNA processing/export and protein ubiquitination. Microb Cell *11*, 69-78.
10.15698/mic2024.02.816.
61. Lim, C.S., Weinstein, B.N., Roy, S.W., and Brown, C.M. (2021). Analysis of Fungal Genomes Reveals
Commonalities of Intron Gain or Loss and Functions in Intron-Poor Species. Mol Biol Evol *38*, 4166-
4186. 10.1093/molbev/msab094.
62. Carmody, S.R., Tran, E.J., Apponi, L.H., Corbett, A.H., and Wente, S.R. (2010). The mitogen-activated
protein kinase Slt2 regulates nuclear retention of non-heat shock mRNAs during heat shock-induced
stress. Mol Cell Biol *30*, 5168-5179. 10.1128/MCB.00735-10.
63. Yona, A.H., Manor, Y.S., Herbst, R.H., Romano, G.H., Mitchell, A., Kupiec, M., Pilpel, Y., and Dahan, O.
(2012). Chromosomal duplication is a transient evolutionary solution to stress. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A
109, 21010-21015. 10.1073/pnas.1211150109.
64. Chen, G., Bradford, W.D., Seidel, C.W., and Li, R. (2012). Hsp90 stress potentiates rapid cellular
adaptation through induction of aneuploidy. Nature *482*, 246-250. 10.1038/nature10795.
65. Shen, L., Wang, Y.T., Tang, X.X., Zhang, K., Wang, P.M., Sui, Y., and Zheng, D.Q. (2020). Heat shock
drives genomic instability and phenotypic variations in yeast. AMB Express *10*, 146. 10.1186/s13568-
020-01091-7.
66. Gilchrist, C., and Stelkens, R. (2019). Aneuploidy in yeast: Segregation error or adaptation mechanism?
Yeast *36*, 525-539. 10.1002/yea.3427.
67. Malik, S.C., Lin, J.D., Ziegler-Waldkirch, S., Tholen, S., Deshpande, S.S., Schwabenland, M., Schilling,
O., Vlachos, A., Meyer-Luehmann, M., and Schachtrup, C. (2023). Tpr Misregulation in Hippocampal
Neural Stem Cells in Mouse Models of Alzheimer's Disease. Cells *12*. 10.3390/cells12232757.
68. Mariotti, M., Kerepesi, C., Oliveros, W., Mele, M., and Gladyshev, V.N. (2022). Deterioration of the
human transcriptome with age due to increasing intron retention and spurious splicing. bioRxiv,
2022.2003.2014.484341. 10.1101/2022.03.14.484341.
69. Adusumalli, S., Ngian, Z.K., Lin, W.Q., Benoukraf, T., and Ong, C.T. (2019). Increased intron retention is
a post-transcriptional signature associated with progressive aging and Alzheimer's disease. Aging Cell
18, e12928. 10.1111/acel.12928.
70. Huang, W., Kew, C., Fernandes, S.A., Lohrke, A., Han, L., Demetriades, C., and Antebi, A. (2022).
Decreased spliceosome fidelity and egl-8 intron retention inhibit mTORC1 signaling to promote
longevity. Nat Aging *2*, 796-808. 10.1038/s43587-022-00275-z.

71.   Funk, L., Su, K.C., Ly, J., Feldman, D., Singh, A., Moodie, B., Blainey, P.C., and Cheeseman, I.M.
874   (2022). The phenotypic landscape of essential human genes. Cell *185*, 4634-4653 e4622.
875   10.1016/j.cell.2022.10.017.
876   72.   Janke, C., Magiera, M.M., Rathfelder, N., Taxis, C., Reber, S., Maekawa, H., Moreno-Borchart, A.,
877   Doenges, G., Schwob, E., Schiebel, E., and Knop, M. (2004). A versatile toolbox for PCR-based tagging
878   of yeast genes: new fluorescent proteins, more markers and promoter substitution cassettes. Yeast *21*,
879   947-962. 10.1002/yea.1142.
880   73.   Parenteau, J., Durand, M., Veronneau, S., Lacombe, A.A., Morin, G., Guerin, V., Cecez, B., Gervais-
881   Bird, J., Koh, C.S., Brunelle, D., et al. (2008). Deletion of many yeast introns reveals a minority of genes
882   that require splicing for function. Mol Biol Cell *19*, 1932-1941. 10.1091/mbc.e07-12-1254.
883   74.   Vas, A.C., Andrews, C.A., Kirkland Matesky, K., and Clarke, D.J. (2007). In vivo analysis of chromosome
884   condensation in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol Biol Cell *18*, 557-568. 10.1091/mbc.e06-05-0454.
885   75.   Houser, J.R., Ford, E., Chatterjea, S.M., Maleri, S., Elston, T.C., and Errede, B. (2012). An improved
886   short-lived fluorescent protein transcriptional reporter for Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Yeast *29*, 519-530.
887   10.1002/yea.2932.
888   76.   Edelstein, A.D., Tsuchida, M.A., Amodaj, N., Pinkard, H., Vale, R.D., and Stuurman, N. (2014).
889   Advanced methods of microscope control using muManager software. J Biol Methods *1*.
890   10.14440/jbm.2014.36.
891   77.   Rahman, S., and Zenklusen, D. (2013). Single-molecule resolution fluorescent in situ hybridization
892   (smFISH) in the yeast S. cerevisiae. Methods Mol Biol *1042*, 33-46. 10.1007/978-1-62703-526-2_3.

Figure 1

A

	DIC	Spc42-mCherry	TetR-GFP	Merge
				Chr II-TetO

0h ... CBE: 2

24h ... 19

... 22

Inverted SPB inheritance ... 18

M = Mother, D = Daughter

B

Fraction of Anaphase missegregation

0h — *24h*

Chr. II (TetR), Chr. IV (TetR), Mini-Chr. (TetR) | Chr. II (TetR) ***, Chr. IV (TetR) *, Mini-Chr. (TetR)

C

Chr II Missegregation directionality

**

Mother | Daughter

D

SPB inheritance

	Normal	Inverted
Daughter	78%	2%
Mother	12%	8%

Chromosome inheritance

● TetR-GFP ● Old SPB ● New SPB

E

Chr II Missegregation with the SPB

*** *** **

SPB: Old / New

Old SPB in:	D	D	M
Chromosome:	Mini	II	II
		TetR	

F

Fraction of chromosome II loss

0h — *12h* — *24h*

ns

wt, Ipl1-321 | wt, Ipl1-321 *** | wt, Ipl1-321

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

A

Supplementary Fig 3

A

B

C

GLC7 intron FISH Foci count

Supplementary Fig 4