1 Mismatch repair impedes meiotic crossover interference

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11 Summary

Sequence divergence, mediated by the anti-recombinogenic activity of mismatch repair (MMR), forms a potent

barrier to meiotic recombination and in turn the formation of viable gametes[1–5]. However, exactly how MMR

jeopardizes meiotic success is unclear. Here we utilize a combination of *S. cerevisiae* genetics, genome-wide

mapping of recombination and computational modelling to demonstrate that MMR unexpectedly influences the

global distribution of recombination through preferential suppression of interfering crossovers (COs) at regions of

greater sequence divergence. As a result, inactivation of MMR not only increases the rate of recombination, as

previously observed, but also, paradoxically, the strength of CO interference. Our observations reveal a new

mechanism by which MMR spatially sculpts the meiotic landscape—linking CO control to the mechanisms that

can reproductively isolate a population, and highlighting how genomes may become meiotically incompatible at

the molecular level, dependent upon interactions of the primary DNA sequence.

23 Introduction & Results

Meiosis, a specialized two step nuclear division, is responsible for the generation of genetically diverse, haploid

gametes. An integral feature of the meiotic program is the initiation of homologous recombination and the

subsequent formation of reciprocal, interhomologue exchanges known as crossovers (COs) that are essential for

faithful disjunction of meiotic chromosomes during anaphase I (reviewed in[6,7]). Failure to form at least one CO per

homologue pair risks the formation of aneuploid gametes and thus the process of CO formation is highly regulated.

Within many organisms, including *S. cerevisiae*, *M. musculus*, *H. sapiens* and *A. thaliana*, two subclasses of CO

co-exist. Interfering ZMM (Zip2-Zip3-Zip4-Spo16, Msh4-Msh5, Mer3)-dependent class I COs, which account for

the majority of COs formed (~70-85% within S. cerevisiae), are dispersed evenly along each chromosome by means of CO interference—a process that suppresses the formation of COs in proximity to one another. A subpopulation of recombination events alternatively resolve as non-interfering class II COs dependent upon Mus81-Mms4, Yen1 or Slx1-Slx4. Homologous recombination, the process responsible for CO formation, requires a repair template with near-perfect homology[8]. By contrast, recombination between polymorphic, homoeologous substrates is markedly inefficient, leading to reduced rates of meiotic CO formation, reduced spore viability and increased chromosomal non-disjunction during meiosis I within hybrid strains of *S. cerevisiae*—phenotypes linked to incipient speciation and which are largely reversed within MMR-deficient strains[1–4]. Despite characterization of this anti-recombinogenic activity, a detailed analysis of how MMR alters meiotic recombination on a genome-wide level has not yet been achieved.

In order to investigate the impact sequence divergence has upon CO formation, we mapped recombination (Fig. 1a, Methods) within six wild type and 13 MMR-defective *msh2Δ* meioses—obtained from a cross of two widely utilized laboratory isolates: S288c and SK1[3,9] (~65,000 SNPs, ~4,000 high confidence INDELs, ~0.57% divergence). Additionally, we re-analyzed datasets comprising 51 wild type[10,11] and four *msh2Δ* tetrads[12] from a S96 x YJM789 cross of *S. cerevisiae* (~0.6% divergence). On average, we identified 74.3 ±5.4 and 105.9 ±7.8 COs per meiosis within our SK1 x S288c wild type and *msh2Δ* samples respectively, corresponding to a significant 1.4-fold increase in CO frequency (p<0.01; Two-sample T-test) (Fig. 1b). A significant *msh2Δ*-dependent increase (~1.25-fold, p<0.01; Two-sample T-test) is also observed within S96 x YJM789 (Fig. 1b)—collectively reaffirming the known anti-recombinogenic activity of Msh2[1–5]. Notably, CO frequencies are considerably higher within S96 x YJM789 than S288c x SK1 (91.4 vs. 74.3 COs per wild type meiosis)—suggesting that cross-specific differences may exist.

To investigate any possible effect of Msh2 on CO patterning, we calculated the distribution of inter-crossover distances (ICDs)—the separation (in bp) between successive COs along every chromosome. To accommodate comparisons between different sample sizes, ICDs are transformed (Methods and Supplementary Fig. 1) and visualized in rank order as empirical cumulative distribution functions (eCDFs). CO interference—observed as a statistically significant (p<0.01; Two-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test) right-ward skew away from conditions of simulated independence—is present within all mapped strains (Fig. 1c—f) and is stronger within S96 x YJM789 than within S288c x SK1, further suggesting that the meiotic CO landscape is regulated in a cross-specific manner

(Supplementary Fig. 2 and Supplementary Discussion). Unexpectedly, inactivation of Msh2 within both hybrid

crosses (Fig. 1c—d) further skews ICD curves to the right (p < 0.01; Two-sample KS test)—indicating increased

CO interference. Mutation of a second MMR factor, *PMS1*, which acts downstream of Msh2 mismatch binding,

caused similar increases in both CO frequency and CO interference relative to wild type (Supplementary Fig. 3a—

b), but no additive effect in a double *msh2Δpms1Δ* strain was observed—suggesting that these phenotypes arise

as a general consequence of MMR inactivation.

To account for any impact increased CO frequency may have upon CO distribution, we utilized an *ndt80AR* strain

where meiotic prophase length is extended via temporary repression of the Ndt80 transcription factor[13,14]. On

average, we identified 94.5 ±16.3 COs per meiosis within *ndt80AR*—a significant increase relative to wild type

(p<0.01; Two-sample T-test) (Fig. 1b). However, no further increase occurs upon inactivation of Msh2

(*msh2Δndt80AR*, 97.5 ±15.4 COs, p=0.87; Two-sample T-test) (Fig. 1b). Importantly, despite the lack of change

in CO frequency, the *msh2Δ*-dependent skew in CO distribution was still observed (Fig. 1e) whereas increased

CO frequency alone (*ndt80AR*) does not alter CO distribution compared to wild type (Fig. 1f) (p=0.91; Two-sample

KS test). Inactivation of MMR within hybrid *S. cerevisiae* strains therefore gives rise to two distinct phenotypes

relative to wild type: (i) increased CO frequency, as previously observed[1–4] and (ii) a novel, paradoxical increase in

CO interference—that can arise independently of changes to CO frequency.

A global increase in CO interference, as observed within *msh2Δ*, may arise when the balance between class I and

class II CO formation is altered. CO distributions are typically modelled by the gamma (γ) distribution[15,16], where

γ(α) values >1.0 indicate increasing strength of interference. However, we note that models based on a single (γ)

distribution deviate substantially from experimental data, which contains significantly more ICDs <50kb than

expected—indicative of a randomly distributed subpopulation of COs (i.e. class II) (Fig. 2a). To solve and

investigate this problem, we developed computational methods based on (γ)-mixture modelling (Fig. 2b), to

statistically deconvolute ICD data—obtaining estimates of the class I:class II ratio (Methods and Supplementary

Fig. 4). A non-random (γ(α$_I$) >1.5), and a random (γ(α$_{II}$) ~1.0) component was successfully identified for all

genotypes. Importantly, simulations based on the obtained ratios improve model fit and eliminate the observed

ICD deviations below 50kb (Fig. 2c). Consistent with prior estimates[17], *MSH2* wild type class I:class II ratios are

estimated at ~2.0 and ~3.0 within S288c x SK1 and S96 x YJM789 respectively (Fig. 2d). By contrast, deletion

of *MSH2* increases ratio estimates to ~5-6 (Fig. 2d), suggesting a ~1.7-fold increase in class I CO formation in the

absence of Msh2 (Fig. 2e). Corresponding *msh2Δ*-dependent decreases in class II CO formation are also

predicted (~0.5-0.7-fold) (Fig. 2f). Our modelling results therefore suggest that the formation of ZMM-dependent

class I COs is preferentially favored within Msh2-deficient cells and that the vast majority of additional COs

observed within *msh2Δ* relative to wild type are class I.

Zip3 foci specifically mark the sites of interfering, class I COs[18]. In order to verify the results of our modeling, we

counted Zip3 foci within spread, pachytene-arrested hybrid cells (Fig. 3a—b). On average, we identified 34.1-34.7

and 51.7-58.7 foci per meiosis (7-8h timepoints) within *ndt80AR* and *msh2Δndt80AR* respectively, corresponding

to a significant 1.5-fold increase in class I CO formation upon inactivation of MMR (p<0.01; Two-sample T-test).

Such an increase in Zip3 foci count is in agreement with the predictions of our model—strongly implicating Msh2

as a regulator of the class I:class II decision within *S. cerevisiae*.

MMR machinery forms a potent barrier to homoeologous recombination[1–5]. To understand the interplay between

DNA mismatches and CO formation, we calculated polymorphism densities (SNPs, INDELs) ±500 bp around

every mapped CO (Fig. 4a) and compared between genotypes. To generate a comparative reference, the

expected environment for meiotic recombination, as defined by the polymorphism density surrounding ~3600

recombination hotspot midpoints[19], was also calculated. Polymorphism density surrounding COs within *MSH2*

wild type strains (S288c x SK1: wild type, *ndt80AR*) is significantly different to expected in both distribution

(p<0.01; Two-sample KS test) and in mean variant density (5.32 vs. 6.18, p<0.01; Two-sample T-test)—

characterized by a skew towards COs arising within regions of lower genetic divergence (Fig. 4b). By contrast,

msh2Δ COs display statistical similarity to expected (p>0.25; Two-sample KS-test) (6.26 vs. 6.18, p = 0.52; Two-

sample T-test) (Fig. 4b), and such a disparity between wild type and *msh2Δ* is recaptured within the independent

S96 x YJM789 cross (Fig. 4c). A similar pattern was observed when considering polymorphism density arising

±1000 bp around each CO but was diminished with increasing distance (±2000 bp)—revealing DNA mismatches

to exert a local effect on CO formation (Supplementary Fig. 5a—b and Supplementary Discussion).

Inactivation of *MSH2* increases CO interference by altering the class I:class II balance (Fig. 2, Fig. 3). To determine

whether the role that Msh2 plays in regulating CO outcome is related to its role in suppressing COs at sites where

mismatches will arise during strand invasion, we further calculated polymorphism densities within mutants that

disrupt class I (*zip3Δ*, *msh4Δ*) or class II (*mms4Δ*) CO formation[12]. Strikingly, mutants devoid of class I COs

phenocopy *msh2Δ*—that is, COs within these mutants are no longer skewed away from regions of higher

polymorphism density despite the presence of Msh2 and share mean densities that are not statistically dissimilar

to expected (p>0.5; Two-sample T-test) (Fig. 4b—c). Moreover, the impact of *zip3Δ* and *msh2Δ* appears to be

epistatic rather than additive (Fig. 4b), indicating a shared pathway. By contrast, removal of class II formation

(*mms4Δ*) has no impact on the interplay between CO formation and polymorphism density (Fig. 4c)—collectively

suggesting that mismatch-dependent repression of CO formation is class I specific.

Discussion

Sequence divergence suppresses recombination within a wide range of eukaryotes including *M. musculus* and

H. sapiens[20–22]. Findings presented here expand upon these observations and suggest that the anti-

recombinogenic activity of Msh2, exerted at homoeologous sites, does not mediate an indiscriminate suppression

of COs but rather acts preferentially at sites of ZMM-dependent, interfering COs—thereby altering the spatial

distribution of recombination across the genome by modulating the class I:class II balance (Fig. 4d) and

highlighting how even low rates of divergence, present within intra-specific hybrids of *S. cerevisiae*, can profoundly

impact upon meiosis. Nevertheless, COs frequently encounter heterologous regions (Fig. 4b—c) and yet, despite

this, class I COs still form at a high rate in wild type (67%-75%) (Fig. 2d). Mismatches are therefore unlikely to form

an absolute barrier to interfering COs, but rather influence the *probability* of formation. In our envisioned model

(Fig. 4d), rejected class I events are redirected toward the NCO pathway, via synthesis-dependent strand

annealing (SDSA)[9,23] and double Holliday-junction (dHJ) dissolution[9,24], or toward inter-sister recombination, which

remains invisible in our assay.

Inhibition of homoeologous recombination, by means of heteroduplex rejection, relies upon Msh2 and the RecQ-

family helicase, Sgs1[5,25,26]. An *sgs1Δ* mutant may therefore be expected to phenocopy *msh2Δ* if suppression of

class I COs occurs via this mechanism. However, the strength of CO interference is reduced in *sgs1Δ* relative to

wild type (Supplementary Fig. 3c) and the increase in CO interference, observed upon the inactivation of Msh2,

requires Sgs1 (Supplementary Fig. 3d)—suggesting that Msh2 and Sgs1 are not epistatic, but rather antagonistic

in the formation of class I COs. Thus, unexpectedly, Msh2 appears to mediate suppression of class I COs in a

pathway different to that of Sgs1-mediated heteroduplex rejection, instead relying upon the downstream

properties or factors of MMR, including Pms1 (Supplementary Fig. 3a), to achieve its effect.

Exactly how MMR-specificity for class I COs arises remains unclear. *In vitro* data suggests that Mlh1-Mlh3—

essential class I CO factors—facilitate binding of Msh2 to heteroduplex DNA arising at sites where mismatches

exist between parental strains and are in turn stimulated by Msh2[27]. The distinct genetics of each CO subclass

may therefore be responsible for their differential sensitivity to sequence mismatch, through preferential

recruitment or activation of Msh2 and other MMR components at class I sites. Interestingly, large-scale regions of

heterozygosity promote CO formation within *A. thaliana*[28]—proposed to arise from either increased recombination

due to mismatch-dependent delay in CO maturation, or increased sensitivity of mismatched events to crossover

designation[28]. Given the evolutionary conservation of MMR and class I CO formation[6,29], our results in *S. cerevisiae*

may distinguish between these mechanisms, suggesting the former is more likely.

Understanding the molecular mechanisms that contribute to speciation is fundamental to our understanding of

biological diversity and evolution. As class I CO formation is specifically required for correct meiosis I disjunction[6],

our observations provide a mechanistic insight into how hybrid sterility may arise. Specifically, the activity of Msh2

has the potential to jeopardize chromosome segregation, risking the formation of aneuploid gametes and

rendering hybrids derived from distantly related individuals sub- or infertile—contributing to the sexual isolation of

a population. MMR may therefore not only influence the rates of evolution, favoring more gradual changes to the

gene pool by limiting the amount of genetic exchange that may occur between divergent homologues, but also

serve to promote speciation over evolutionary time.

Contributions

T.J.C, M.C. and M.J.N. conceived of the project. T.J.C. analyzed and interpreted the data, performed in-silico simulations and designed the mixture modelling algorithm. M.C. performed all genome-wide mapping and event calling. L.J.H. performed all microscopy and foci analysis. M.M.K. and B.L. provided scripts, protocols and additional samples. T.J.C. and M.J.N. wrote the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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Methods

Yeast Strains

All Saccharomyces cerevisiae strains used in this study are derivatives of SK1[30] and S288c[31]. Hybrid strains, utilised in genome-wide mapping, were derived from a cross of haploid SK1 and S288c. Strain genotypes are detailed in (Supplementary Table 1). Knockouts were performed and tested by standard transformation and PCR techniques[32]. *msh2Δ*::*kanMX6* and *zip3Δ*::*HphMX* were generated by PCR mediated gene replacement using a pFA6a-*kanMX6* or pFA6-*hphMX* plasmid[33]. The P_{GAL}-*NDT80*::*TRP1* allele has the natural *NDT80* promoter replaced by the *GAL1-10* promoter, and strains include a *GAL4*::*ER* chimeric transactivator for β-estradiol-induced expression[13]. S288c x SK1 hybrids create viable spores (91.98% WT, 72.99% *msh2Δ* spore viability, data not shown), eliminating any observational bias that may arise from assaying a limited, surviving population *[Crawford et al. 2018, DOI pending]*.

Meiotic Timecourse (*ndt80AR* strains)

Diploid strains were incubated at 30°C on YPD plates for 48h. For SK1 diploids, a single colony is inoculated into 4 mL YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% glucose) and incubated at 30°C at 250 rpm for 24 h. For hybrid crosses, haploid parental isolates are mated in 1 mL YPD for 8 h. An additional 3 mL of YPD is subsequently added and the cells are grown for 16 h. Cells are inoculated to a density of (OD600) 0.2 into 30 mL YPA (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 1% K-acetate) and incubated at 250 rpm at 30°C for 14h. Cells are collected by centrifugation, washed in H_2O, and resuspended in 30mL pre-warmed sporulation media (2% potassium acetate, 5 µg/mL Adenine, 5 µg/mL Arginine, 5 µg/mL Histidine, 15 µg/mL Leucine, 5 µg/mL Tryptophan, 5 µg/mL Uracil). The culture is then incubated at 30°C at 250 rpm for the duration of the time course. After 8h, 2mL of the synchronised cultures were split and exposed to β-estradiol to a final concentration of 2mM, which induces the transcription of NDT80 and thus sporulation. Cultures were then incubated to a total of 48 h at 30°C prior to dissection.

Tetrad Dissection

In order to produce hybrid spores for sequencing, SK1 x S288c haploid parents were mated for 8-14 h on YPD plates, with the exception of *ndt80AR* strains, which are mated and grown in liquid YPD for 24 h (see above). Haploids are mated freshly on each occasion and not propagated as diploids, in order to reduce mitotic recombination. Sporulation is induced, and tetrads were dissected after 72 h in 2% potassium acetate. For octads,

spores are additionally grown for 4-8 h on YPD plates until a single mitotic division is completed, after which the

mother-daughter pair are separated. Colonies were grown for 16 h within liquid YPD for genomic DNA extraction.

Only tetrads and octads producing four or eight viable spores/colonies, respectively, are considered for

genotyping by NGS.

NGS Library Preparation

Genomic DNA is purified from overnight, saturated YPD cultures using standard phenol-chloroform extraction

techniques. Samples of genomic DNA are diluted to 0.2-0.3 ng/μL. DNA concentration is measured using the

Qubit High Sensitivity dsDNA Assay. Genomic DNA is fragmented, indexed and amplified via the Nextera XT DNA

library Prep Kit according to the best practices recommended by Illumina. In order to check fragment length

distribution and concentration of purified libraries, 1 μL of undiluted library is run on an Agilent Technology 2100

Bioanalyzer using a High Sensitivity DNA chip. To pool samples for sequencing, 5 μL of each sample is combined

into a 1.5 mL tube and mixed. 24 μL of the mix is transferred to a tube containing 570 μL hybridisation buffer. The

mix is boiled at 96°C for 2 minutes and placed in ice water for 5 minutes. 6 μL of denatured PhiX control (prepared

according to Illumina protocol, final concentration 1%) is added to the library, mixed well and then loaded into a

MiSeq reagent cartridge. Sequencing was performed in-house using Illumina MiSeq instruments.

Alignment, SNP and indel Detection

Individual spores were sequenced to an average read-depth of ~45x. Initially, paired-end read FASTQ files are

aligned, via Bowtie2[34], to the SacCer3 reference genome (v. R64-2-1)[35] using the parameters: -X 1000 —local —

mp 5,1 -D 20 -R 3 -N 1 -L 20 -i S,1,0.50. In order to create a custom SK1 genome to facilitate more accurate

genotype-calling, SNP and indel polymorphisms were detected using the GATK (GenomeAnalysisToolkit) function

HaplotypeCaller[36]. An in-house script (*VariantCaller.pl*) subsequently parses the resulting VCF files from 72 spores

to calculate: (i) the call frequency (% of spores any given allele is present within), (ii) the cumulative allelic read

depth (% of reads that contain a specific allele at a specific loci), and (iii) the cumulative total read depth. To identify

legitimate SNPs and indels, variants were filtered for a call-frequency between 44-55%, a total read depth of >250

and an allelic read depth of 95%. Variants within repeat regions, long terminal repeats, retrotransposons and

telomeres were also discarded—yielding a final, robust list of 64,591 SNPs and 3972 indels amounting to ~0.57%

divergence. A custom SK1 genome (SK1_Mod) is then generated by modifying SacCer3 (v. R64-2-1) to include

all filtered/called SNPs and indels.

Genotype-Calling

Spore data from individual samples was aligned to the both the custom SK1_Mod genome and the SacCer3 reference (see below). Alignment produces a SAM file, which is converted into a sorted BAM file using the Samtools function, *view*[37], for downstream processing. The PySamStats (v. 1.0.1, Miles & Mattioni) module, *variation*, is used to process the sorted BAM file for each sequenced spore, producing a list of the number of reads containing A/C/T/G, insertion or deletion for each genomic position specified in the S288c and SK1 references. Variant reads are isolated and genotyped using in-house, custom scripts as follows. Genotypes are assigned according to the rules: (i) A minimum read-depth of 5; (ii) A SNP is called as having the variant genotype if >=70% of the reads at that position match the called variant, or as reference if =>90% of the reads match the reference; (iii) If the variant and reference reads are above 90% of all reads and within 70% of each other, the position is called as heteroduplex; (iv) indels are called as having the variant genotype if >=30% of the reads at that position match the variant. Such a low threshold is utilised because alignment of indel sequences is biased towards the reference, which means that they are unlikely to be erroneously called as matching the variant genotype. For an indel to be called as the reference genotype, >=95% of the reads must match the reference sequence and there must be fewer than 2 reads matching the variant call. Any variants that fall below these thresholds are discarded. Genotype calls are converted into a binary signal, either 1 for S288c or 0 for SK1.

Event Calling

Using the binarised input, chromosomes are split into segments with the same segregation pattern using scripts available in[3,9]. Segment types (i.e. 1:7, 2:6, 2:6, 3:5, 4:4, 4:4*, 5:3, 6:2, 6:2* or 7:1 as described in[9] are also recorded. Recombination events are subsequently called as being a set of segments located between two 4:4 segments longer than 1.5 kb[9]. A 4:4 segment corresponds to a Mendelian segregation profile, 5:3 and 3:5 segments to half-conversion tracts and 6:2 and 2:6 segments to full conversion tracts. Each recombination event can contain between 0-2 COs or NCOs. Events are additionally classified by the number of chromatids involved (i.e. 1, 2, either sister or non-sister, 3, 4).

Event Position & Inter-Crossover Distances (ICDs)

Crossover position, or "midpoint", is defined as the distance between the mid-points of the first and last SNP/indel markers—an estimate of true event tract length. Inter-crossover distances (ICDs) are then calculated as the distance (in bp) between successive CO midpoints.

Simulating Meiosis

Randomised or mixed (class I + class II) ICD simulations were performed using a novel simulation platform (*RecombineSim*) built in MATLAB 2018a. A typical simulation run is depicted in (Supplementary Fig. 4a). In brief, virtual chromosomes are constructed as binned, numerical arrays at a 100 bp resolution adjusted to reflect the limit of experimental detection governed by the leftmost and rightmost genetic markers (SNPs/indels). Any given 100 bp bin possesses a numerical recombination potential (recom(P)), which governs the ability of an interfering CO to successfully form at that site. Class I COs impose a zone of "interference", by altering recom(P) values in adjacent bins in a distance-dependent manner—a similar principle to the beam-film model of CO interference[38]. The exact shape and width of interference imposed is determined by the best fit (γ) parameters (α,β) for the genotype currently being simulated—and applied as a hazard function (EQN 1.1):

$$h(x) = \frac{PDF(x)}{1-CDF(x)} \quad (1.1)$$

A hazard function describes the probability that, given a pre-existing CO at position x(0), another CO will form at any given distance (x) away[15]—and thus is a natural representation of interference. A fractional amount of class II COs that remain insensitive to recom(P) are introduced via the C_{PROB} parameter where necessary. All simulations (N = 10,000 cells) precisely match the experimentally observed event count for any given genotype or cell. Virtual event merging, at the 1.5 kb threshold, is included in order to closely match the in vivo data.

(γ)-Mixture Modelling

Distributional analysis of CO distributions is complicated by the existence of non-interfering, Mus81-Mms4 class II COs—indistinguishable from interfering ZMM-dependent class I COs in our assay. In essence, meiotic ICDs represent a heterogenous, mixed system (Fig. 2b) with unknown quantities of each subclass. Latent variables (e.g. class II CO %) may, however, be inferred through probabilistic and statistical methods. Expanding upon the use of the gamma (γ) distribution to model meiotic ICDs[15,16], experimental data was deconvoluted by fitting two (γ) distributions—one for each subclass of CO—via an expectation maximisation (EM) algorithm (MATLAB 2018a). EM is a commonly applied method for iterative clustering and parameter estimation in mixed models[39]. Briefly, any given ICD is assigned a probability reflective of how likely it is to belong to one of the two sub-distributions. Subsequently, sub-distributions are iteratively shifted and data point identity is reassigned until a maximum likelihood (ML) solution is converged upon. One (γ) distribution is expected to yield a final (γ)(α) value of ~1.0 (class II, random), while the other is expected to produce a (γ)(α) value of >1.5 (class I, non-random), with their relative contributions to the overall mixture (i.e. the class I:class II ratio) is dependent upon genotype. In order to validate

this approach, simulated ICD datasets of two component mixtures with known parameters, at variable sample

sizes (S), were generated using *RecombineSim* and deconvoluted (Supplementary Fig. 4b). As a measure of

accuracy, the average % difference (N(%Δ)) between estimated and actual parameters was calculated. Accuracy

is dependent upon sample size (S) and to a lesser extent on the relative proportions of each subpopulation—and

thus how likely a subpopulation is to be readily observed within the mixed population. For example, (γ) mixtures

containing 10 or 25% class II COs exhibit average errors of 10.0% and 9.1% at (S) = 500 and 4.53% and 3.73%

at (S) = 2000 respectively (Supplementary Fig. 4c). Experimental datasets range from (S) values of 354 to 3365,

therefore reasonable error rates of ~<10% were expected. The ability to mathematically separate CO subclasses

may be of great use to assess, in more detail, the mixed composition of meiotic CO formation present in both

published and future datasets of this type—enabling further identification of those components that directly

influence the CO interference mechanism.

ICD Transformation

The formation of a variable number of events (N) within a finite space (*lim*) (i.e. a chromosome or genome length)

skews CDFs i.e. a higher CO frequency causes a downward shift in ICD size. An ICD distribution produced under

identical spatial rules but with a different event count would therefore generate significantly different CDFs—failing

or biasing statistical testing and undermining the ability to assess distributional agreement. This skew can be

readily observed using simulated data (Supplementary Fig. 1a). Notably, higher values of (N) cause a leftward

skew. The relationship between (N) and ICD size for a given *lim* is, however, linear[40]. Consequently, in order to

isolate the distributional identity of any given sample (i.e. isolate γ(α) from γ(β)), ICD data can be transformed by

calculating the product of ICD size (ICD x event count). Data transformation results in perfectly aligned CDFs

despite varying (N), validating this approach (Supplementary Fig. 1b).

Statistical Analyses

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

A *Kolmogorov-Smirnov* goodness-of-fit (GoF) test is a non-parametric test used to compare continuous

probability distributions in order to assess the null hypothesis that both samples derive from identical populations,

based on their maximal difference (D_{KS})[41,42]. (P) values of the KS-test effectively describe the probability that, if the

null hypothesis is true, the observed CDFs would be as far apart as observed. (P) values may therefore constitute

an indirect measure of distributional agreement, as employed throughout this paper. KS-tests were performed

using the MATLAB 2018a packages: *kstest* and *kstest2*.

Two-sample T-tests

A two-sample T-test is utilised to determine whether a difference in mean value is significant or has arisen by

chance. Two-sample T-Tests were performed using the MATLAB 2018a package: *ttest2*.

Microscopy & Cytological Analysis

4.5 mL of meiotic culture is spun down on a bench centrifuge and resuspended to 500 µL with 1M pH 7.0 D-

Sorbitol. 12 µL of 1.0 M DTT and 7 µL of 10 mg/mL Zymolyase in 10% glucose solution is added and cells are

spheroplasted by incubation at 37°C for 35-50m with agitation. Spheroplasting success is determined by taking

2-3 µL of the aforementioned solution and adding an equivalent volume of 1.0% (w/v) Sodium N-Lauroylsarcosine

while under microscopic observation. Cells should immediately lyse as the exposed membrane is disrupted by

the detergent. 3.5 mL of Stop Solution (0.1M MES, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 1M D-Sorbitol, pH 6.4) is

subsequently added and the cells are spun down to be resuspended in 100 µL Spread Solution (0.1M MES, 1

mM EDTA, 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$, pH 6.4) and distributed between 4 slides, which are soaked in 70% EtOH overnight

and wiped clean. To each slide, fixative (4.0% (w/v) Formaldehyde, 3.8% (w/v) Sucrose, pH7.5) is added dropwise,

followed by detergent (1% Lipsol, 0.1% Bibby Sterilin) to a ratio of 1:3:6 (suspension : fixative : detergent) before

lightly mixing and incubating for 1m at room temperature (RT). Further fixative is added dropwise to a final ratio of

1:9:6 and the mixture spread across the slide. Each spread is subsequently incubated at RT for 30m in damp

conditions, then allowed to air-dry at RT overnight. Once dry, slides are sequentially washed in 0.2% (v/v) PhotoFlo

Wetting Agent (Kodak) and dH_2O, and stored at 4°C.

Slides are washed once in 0.025% Triton X-100 for 10m at RT and twice in PBS for 5m at RT. Slides are blocked

in 5% skimmed milk with PBS for 3h at 37°C. Excess liquid is removed and slides laid horizontally in damp

conditions. 40 µL of primary antibody (anti-Zip3[43] from rat at 1:200 and anti-Red1 (Genecust, affinity purified,

raised against aa(426-827)) from rabbit at 1:200) in 1% skimmed milk with PBS is added under coverslips. Slides

are incubated at 4°C overnight (15.5h) and washed three times in PBS for 5m at RT. Excess liquid is then removed

and slides are returned to damp conditions. 40 µL of secondary antibody (anti-rat AlexaFluor555 at 1:200 and

anti-rabbit AlexaFluor488 at 1:500) in 1% skimmed milk with PBS is added under coverslips. Slides are incubated

at RT for 2.5h and then washed three times with PBS for 5m at RT. Cover slips are affixed using Vectashield

mounting medium with DAPI, sealed with clear varnish and imaged on an Olympus IX71 (z = 0.2μM, Exposure

times: TRITC-mCherry = 0.2s, eGFP = 1.0s, DAPI = 0.1s). Images were randomised, deconvoluted via Huygens

(software) and foci were automatically counted using an in-house plugin for ImageJ (FindFoci) as previously

described[44], with an appropriate mask to discard signals outside of nuclei.

Data Availability

Raw sequence data is deposited in the NIH Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under accession numbers SRP152953

(*zip3Δ*), SRP151982 (wild type, *msh2Δ*, *ndt80AR*) and SRP111430 (*msh2Δ*). Scripts, tools, software and

additional data are available upon request or at [GitHub repository link].

Supplementary Discussion

The SK1-ML3 allele has a reduced capacity to generate CO interference

As previously noted, wild type CO frequencies are higher within S96 x YJM789 (74.3 vs 97.3 COs/meiosis) than

S288c x SK1 (Fig. 1b). Moreover, wild type CO interference is significantly stronger within S96 x YJM789 (p<0.01;

Two-sample KS test) (Supplementary Fig. 2a) and (γ)-mixture modelling results (Fig. 2d) suggest that class I CO

fraction is higher in S96 x YJM789 (75% vs. 67%). Molecular incompatibilities between certain alleles of the CO

formation or CO interference machinery may account for these cross-specific differences. To investigate this

hypothesis further, we analysed the frequency and distribution of COs within a *mlh3Δ* S288c x YJM789

background containing a functional copy of the SK1 *MLH3* allele (*SK1-MLH3*)[45]. Surprisingly, introduction of the

SK1 *MLH3* allele is sufficient to reduce the global strength of CO interference and produce a CO distribution

identical to that of S288c x SK1 wild type (p = 0.91; Two-sample KS Test) (Supplementary Fig. 2b). *SK1-MLH3*

also results in a modest but significant (p < 0.01; Two-sample T-test) reduction in CO frequency (97.2 vs. 90.9

COs per meiosis) (Supplementary Fig. 2c). Collectively, these results suggest that, in some manner, the SK1

MLH3 allele is deficient in the generation of CO interference and/or CO-formation—however, the reduction in CO

frequency observed within S288c x SK1 cannot be fully ascribed to SK1 *MLH3* alone. In the context of this study,

such a defect improves the visibility of the *msh2Δ* phenotype in S288c x SK1 (Fig. 1c—d).

Localised impact of polymorphism density upon CO formation

S288c x SK1 variants have an average density of 1 per 175 bp and a median inter-variant distance of 81 bp

(93.12% of inter-variant distances are <500bp) and are therefore evenly spaced and present at high density across

each chromosome. Maps of polymorphism density are shown in (Supplementary Fig. 5c—d) for two example

chromosomes. In general, S288c x SK1 chromosomes are organised into local peaks and troughs of variant

density while maintaining overall uniformity. Therefore, it seems unlikely that inactivation of Msh2 would result in a

gross-redistribution of CO formation toward any particular region of the chromosome as it may do within

organisms with less uniform SNP/indel density, such as *A. thaliana*[28]. To further investigate the way in which

polymorphisms sculpt the meiotic landscape, we repeated the analysis shown in (Fig. 4b—c) using expanded

±1000bp and ±2000bp windows (Supplementary Fig. 5a—b). A Msh2-dependent and statistically significant skew

toward regions of lower sequence divergence (p<0.01; Two-sample KS test) is retained at ±1000bp but is

significantly diminished at ±2000bp (p=0.51; Two-sample KS test), suggesting that mismatched sequences have

the greatest impact when present within the recombination intermediate structures.

Figure Legends

Fig. 1 | Inactivation of Msh2 increases CO frequency and the global strength of CO interference

a, Genome-wide mapping of recombination. Meiosis is induced within hybrid S288c x SK1 *S. cerevisiae* diploid

cells and genomic material is prepped from individual, isolated spores for paired-end Illumina sequencing in order

to genotype SNP/INDEL patterns and therefore determine the parental origin of any given loci (Methods). Only a

single chromosome is shown for clarity. Inter-crossover distances (ICDs), a measure of CO interference, are

calculated as the distance (in bp) between successive COs along a given chromosome. **b,** Average number of

COs per meiosis for each genotype. The number of individual meioses sequenced per genotype is indicated. Error

bars: 95% confidence intervals (CI). *P values: Two-sample T-test.* **c—f,** Empirical cumulative distribution functions

(eCDFs) showing the fraction of ICDs at or below a given size. The total number of experimental ICDs is indicated

in brackets. ICDs are transformed as per the protocol described to correct for skews generated by differing CO

frequencies (Methods). Untransformed ICD plots are available in (Supplementary Fig. 1c—h). Randomized

datasets were generated via simulation to represent a state of no interference (Methods). Pairwise goodness-of-

fit tests were performed between genotypes as indicated (triangular legend). *P values: Two-sample KS-test.*

Fig. 2 | Computational modelling predicts a Msh2-dependent shift in the class I:class II CO ratio

a, Ratio of experimentally observed ICD sizes (OBS) versus the theoretical expectation based on a single, best-fit

gamma (γ)-distribution (EXP). Ratio values were calculated at 5kb intervals. **b,** Example (γ) mixture model (α1.0-

β1.0 + α3.0β5.0). I = class I. II = class II. Meiotic datasets, owing to the existence of two CO subclasses, are a

heterogenous population of three ICD types (as shown). **c,** As in **(a)** but based on a mixed (γ)-model (no. of

distributions fitted = 2). **d,** Best-fit (γ) mixture modelling results. N = sample size (no. of ICDs). α = Single-fit γ(α)

value. P = Fit quality of a single (γ)-distribution (one-sample KS-test). αI/II = Mixed model γ(α) values. Class I/II =

estimated fraction of each CO subclass. Ratio = class I:class II. P = Fit quality of a mixed (γ)-mode (Two-sample

KS-test) **e—f,** Estimated class I and class II CO counts respectively. Estimates were obtained using the best-fit

class I:class II ratios. Total CO frequencies are overlaid (grey bar). Error bars: 95% confidence intervals (CI). The

number of individual meioses sequenced per genotype is indicated.

Fig. 3 | Zip3 foci counts are significantly elevated within Msh2-deficient cells

a, Box-and-whisker plot showing Zip3 foci counts from spread, pachytene arrested, Red1-positive S288c x SK1

cells. Midlines denote median values. *P values: Two-sample T-test*. **b,** Representative example for each genotype

(7h timepoint). Cells are fluorescently labelled for the meiosis-specific axis protein Red1 (green), the interfering CO

marker, Zip3 (red) and DNA (blue). Only cells with sufficient Red1 signal, as determined by the relative intensity of

Red1 foci above the background, were included in the analysis. The total number of nuclei counted is indicated

in brackets.

Fig. 4 | Suppression of class I COs occurs at regions of higher sequence divergence

a, SNP/INDEL count is assayed using a ±500bp window centered on CO or DSB hotspot midpoints. All contained

SNP/INDELs are then subsequently tallied, with equal weight. **b—c,** Empirical cumulative distribution functions

(eCDFs) showing the fraction of COs that reside within a region of a given SNP/INDEL count for S288c x SK1 and

S96 x YJM789 respectively. Expected is calculated using DSB hotspot midpoints[19]. Pairwise goodness-of-fit tests

were performed between pooled *msh2Δ* and *MSH2+* datasets as indicated (triangular legend). P values: Two-

sample KS-test. **d,** Model summarizing the impact Msh2-dependent regulation has upon CO formation. In the

presence of Msh2 or a functional MMR pathway, regions of higher sequence divergence redirect repair toward

the NCO or inter-sister pathways. Inactivation of MMR alleviates this repression, increasing the frequency of class

I CO formation and thus the global strength of CO interference.

Supplementary Fig. 1 | CO interference is present to varying degrees within all mapped strains

a, Empirical cumulative distribution function (eCDF) showing ICD data derived from interfering simulations (γ(α) =

3.0) at varying CO per cell frequencies (N). **b,** As in **(a)** but ICDs are transformed as per the protocol described to

correct for skews generated by differing CO frequencies (Methods). **c—h,** eCDFs showing the fraction of ICDs at

or below a given size. The total number of experimental ICDs is indicated in brackets. Randomized datasets were

generated via simulation to represent a state of no interference (Methods). Pairwise goodness-of-fit tests were

performed between genotypes as indicated (triangular legend). P values: Two-sample KS-test.

Supplementary Fig. 2 | Cross-specific differences—the SK1-MLH3 allele has reduced capacity to mediate

CO interference

a—b, Empirical cumulative distribution functions (eCDFs) showing the fraction of ICDs at or below a given size.

The total number of experimental ICDs is indicated in brackets. ICDs are transformed as per the protocol

described to correct for skews generated by differing CO frequencies (Methods). Randomized datasets were

generated via simulation to represent a state of no interference (Methods). Pairwise goodness-of-fit tests were

performed between genotypes as indicated (triangular legend). A schematic of the *SK1-MLH3* strain analyzed is

shown. P values: Two-sample KS-test. **c,** Average number of COs per meiosis for each genotype. P values: Two-

sample T-test.

Supplementary Fig. 3 | Mechanistic details of MMR-dependent suppression of interfering COs

a, Empirical cumulative distribution function (eCDF) showing the fraction of ICDs at or below a given size. The total

number of experimental ICDs is indicated in brackets. ICDs are transformed as per the protocol described to

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as indicated (triangular legend). P values: Two-sample KS-test. **b,** Average number of COs per meiosis for each

genotype. The number of individual meioses sequenced per genotype is indicated. Error bars: 95% confidence

intervals (CI*). P values: Two-sample T-test.* **c—d,** As in **(a)** but for differing genotypes.

Supplementary Fig. 4 | Modelling CO distributions.

a, *RecombineSim* overview. Virtual chromosomes are constructed at a 100bp resolution as binned, numerical

arrays upon which meiotic CO formation is simulated (Methods). Any given 100bp contains a value in the range

of [0.0-1.0], designating its recombination potential (Rec(P)). Prior to CO formation, bins are initially populated with

[1.0]—denoting an equal probability of class I CO formation. During the formation of an interfering CO,

RecombineSim imposes CO interference as a distance-dependent zone of repression by modifying Rec(P)

values—influencing the position of all subsequent interfering COs. Non-interfering, class II COs are distributed

randomly independently of Rec(P) and do not impose CO interference. Successive events falling within a set

threshold of one another (e.g. 1.5kb) are merged into a single event residing at the midpoint position. These

processes repeat until a pre-determined number of simulated ICDs are obtained. **b,** Gamma (γ) mixture modelling

was utilised to resolve and estimate individual components of simulated two component mixtures with known

parameters (α,β), at known weights (W)—generated via *RecombineSim*. A set of representative examples are

shown. Percentage differences between actual and estimated parameters are calculated and averaged to

estimate error rate (N(%Δ)) and algorithm accuracy. S = number of ICDs. **c,** Error rate (N(%Δ)) values for three (γ)

mixtures calculated at varying sample size (S).

Supplementary Fig. 5 | Localised impact of polymorphism density upon CO formation.

a—b, Empirical cumulative distribution functions (eCDFs) showing the fraction of COs that reside within a region

(±1000bp and ±2000bp respectively) of a given SNP/INDEL count (S288c x SK1 only). Expected is calculated

using DSB hotspot midpoints[19]. Pairwise goodness-of-fit tests were performed between pooled *msh2Δ* and

MSH2[+] datasets as indicated (triangular legend). P values: Two-sample KS-test. **c—d,** Smoothed SNP/INDEL

density maps for S288c x SK1 ChrVI and ChrVII respectively.

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a, Genome-wide mapping of recombination. Meiosis is induced within hybrid S288c x SK1 *S. cerevisiae* diploid cells and genomic material is prepped from individual, isolated spores for paired-end Illumina sequencing in order to genotype SNP/INDEL patterns and therefore determine the parental origin of any given loci (Methods). Only a single chromosome is shown for clarity. Inter-crossover distances (ICDs), a measure of CO interference, are calculated as the distance (in bp) between successive COs along a given chromosome. **b,** Average number of COs per meioses for each genotype. The number of individual meioses sequenced per genotype is indicated. Error bars: 95% confidence intervals (CI). *P values: Two-sample T-test.* **c—f,** Empirical cumulative distribution functions (eCDFs) showing the fraction of ICDs at or below a given size. The total number of experimental ICDs is indicated in brackets. ICDs are transformed as per the protocol described to correct for skews generated by differing CO frequencies (Methods). Untransformed ICD plots are available in (Supplementary Fig. 1c—h). Randomized datasets were generated via simulation to represent a state of no interference (Methods). Pairwise goodness-of-fit tests were performed between genotypes as indicated (triangular legend). *P values: Two-sample KS-test.*

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a, Ratio of experimentally observed ICD sizes (OBS) versus the theoretical expectation based on a single, best-fit gamma (γ)-distribution (EXP). Ratio values were calculated at 5kb intervals. **b,** Example (γ) mixture model (α1.0-β1.0 + α3.0β5.0). I = class I. II = class II. Meiotic datasets, owing to the existence of two CO subclasses, are a heterogenous population of three ICD types (as shown). **c,** As in **(a)** but based on a mixed (γ)-model (no. of distributions fitted = 2). **d,** Best-fit (γ) mixture modelling results. N = sample size (total number of ICDs). $α_s$ = Single-fit γ(α) value. $P_{(s)}$ = Fit quality of a single (γ)-distribution (one-sample KS-test). αI/II = Mixed model γ(α) values. Class I/II = estimated fraction of each CO subclass. Ratio = class I:class II. $P_{(M)}$ = Fit quality of a mixed (γ)-mode (Two-sample KS-test) **e—f,** Estimated class I and class II CO counts respectively. Estimates were obtained using the best-fit class I:class II ratios. Total CO frequencies are overlaid (grey bar). Error bars: 95% confidence intervals (CI). The number of individual meioses sequenced per genotype is indicated.

FIGURE 3

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for the meiosis-specific axis protein Red1 (green), the interfering CO marker, Zip3 (red) and DNA (blue). Only cells with sufficient Red1

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Supplementary Fig. 1 | CO interference is present to varying degrees within all mapped strains

a, Empirical cumulative distribution function (eCDF) showing ICD data derived from interfering simulations (γ(α) = 3.0) at varying CO per cell frequencies (N). **b,** As in **(a)** but ICDs are transformed as per the protocol described to correct for skews generated by differing CO frequencies (Methods). **c—h,** eCDFs showing the fraction of ICDs at or below a given size. The total number of experimental ICDs is indicated in brackets. Randomized datasets were generated via simulation to represent a state of no interference (Methods). Pairwise goodness-of-fit tests were performed between genotypes as indicated (triangular legend). P values: Two-sample KS-test.

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Supplementary Fig. 3 | Mechanistic details of MMR-dependent suppression of interfering COs

a, Empirical cumulative distribution function (eCDF) showing the fraction of ICDs at or below a given size. The total number of experimental ICDs is indicated in brackets. ICDs are transformed as per the protocol described to correct for skews generated by differing CO frequencies (Methods). Randomized datasets were generated via simulation to represent a state of no interference (Methods). Pairwise goodness-of-fit tests were performed between genotypes as indicated (triangular legend). P values: Two-sample KS-test. **b,** Average number of COs per meiosis for each genotype. The number of individual meioses sequenced per genotype is indicated. Error bars: 95% confidence intervals (CI). P values: Two-sample T-test. **c—d,** As in **(a)** but for differing genotypes.

	S	α1	β1	α2	β2	W₁	W₂	α1	β1	α2	β2	W₁	W₂	N(%Δ)
			Actual Mixture (Simulated)							**Estimated Mixture (γ Mixture Model)**				
Variable S	250	3.0	35000	1.0	75000	0.75	0.25	3.45	31139	0.89	84392	0.69	0.31	13.14
	500	3.0	35000	1.0	75000	0.75	0.25	3.29	32889	1.11	69448	0.72	0.28	8.16
	1000	3.0	35000	1.0	75000	0.75	0.25	2.91	35917	0.94	79650	0.78	0.22	5.79
Variable W	1000	3.0	35000	1.0	75000	0.90	0.10	2.83	37110	0.92	78595	0.91	0.09	6.28
	1000	3.0	35000	1.0	75000	0.50	0.50	3.08	36894	0.94	77998	0.48	0.52	4.24
Higher α	1000	4.0	25000	2.0	50000	0.75	0.25	4.09	23976	1.95	51704	0.77	0.23	4.21
	1000	5.0	25000	3.0	50000	0.75	0.25	5.10	25997	3.06	51874	0.78	0.22	4.55

Supplementary Fig. 4 | Modelling CO distributions.

a, *RecombineSim* overview. Virtual chromosomes are constructed at a 100bp resolution as binned, numerical arrays upon which meiotic CO formation is simulated (Methods). Any given 100bp contains a value in the range of [0.0-1.0], designating its recombination potential (Rec(P)). Prior to CO formation, bins are initially populated with [1.0]—denoting an equal probability of class I CO formation. During the formation of an interfering CO, *RecombineSim* imposes CO interference as a distance-dependent zone of repression by modifying Rec(P) values—influencing the position of all subsequent interfering COs. Non-interfering, class II COs are distributed randomly independently of Rec(P) and do not impose CO interference. Successive events falling within a set threshold of one another (e.g. 1.5kb) are merged into a single event residing at the midpoint position. These processes repeat until a pre-determined number of simulated ICDs are obtained. **b,** Gamma (γ) mixture modelling was utilised to resolve and estimate individual components of simulated two component mixtures with known parameters (α,β), at known weights (W)—generated via *RecombineSim*. A set of representative examples are shown. Percentage differences between actual and estimated parameters are calculated and averaged to estimate error rate (N(%Δ)) and algorithm accuracy. S = number of ICDs. **c,** Error rate (N(%Δ)) values for three (γ) mixtures calculated at varying sample size (S).

Supplementary Fig. 5 | Localised impact of polymorphism density upon CO formation.

a—b, Empirical cumulative distribution functions (eCDFs) showing the fraction of COs that reside within a region (±1000bp and ±2000bp respectively) of a given SNP/INDEL count (S288c x SK1 only). Expected is calculated using DSB hotspot midpoints[18]. Pairwise goodness-of-fit tests were performed between pooled *msh2Δ* and *MSH2+* datasets as indicated (triangular legend). P values: Two-sample KS-test. **c—d,** Smoothed SNP/INDEL density maps for S288c x SK1 ChrVI and ChrVII respectively.

TABLE S1

Genotype	Strain	Background	Mat	Genotype
WT	MJ513	SK1	a	*ho::LYS2 lys2Δ leu2Δ arg4Δ*
	MJ600	S288c	α	*ade8Δ*
msh2Δ	MC26	SK1	α	*ho::LYS2 lys2Δ ura3Δ arg4 leu2 msh2Δ::Kan*
	MC49	S288c	a	*ade8Δ msh2Δ::Kan*
ndt80AR	MJ43	SK1	α	*ho::LYS2 lys2Δ arg4Δ leu2Δ::hisG trp1Δ::hisG his4XΔ::LEU2 nuc1Δ::LEU2 PGAL1-NDT80::TRP1 ura3::pGPD1-GAL4(848)-ER::URA3*
	MC42	S288c	a	*ade8Δ ndt80Δ::Kan*
msh2Δndt80AR	MC298	SK1	a	*ho::LYS2 lys2Δ ura3Δ arg4 leu2 trp1Δ::hisG ura3Δ::PGPD1-GAL4(848)-ER::URA3 PGAL1-NDT80::TRP1 msh2Δ::Kan*
	MC300	S288c	α	*ade8Δ ndt80Δ::Kan msh2Δ::Kan*
zip3Δ	MC322	SK1	α	*ho::LYS2 lys2Δ ura3Δ arg4 leu2 zip3Δ::HphMX4*
	MC313	S288c	a	*ade8Δ zip3Δ::HphMX4*
msh2Δzip3Δ	MC326	SK1	α	*ho::LYS2 lys2Δ ura3Δ arg4 leu2 msh2Δ::Kan zip3Δ::HphMX4*
	MC317	S288c	a	*ade8Δ msh2Δ::Kan zip3Δ::HphMX4*

Supplementary Table 1 | Strain Table (S288c x SK1).