1	A new chromosomal rearrangement improves the adaptation of wine
2	yeasts to sulfite
3	
4	Estéfani García-Ríos <sup>1</sup> , Marcos Nuévalos <sup>1</sup> , Eladio Barrio <sup>1,2</sup> , Sergi Puig <sup>1*</sup> and José
5	M. Guillamón <sup>1</sup>
6	
7	<sup>1</sup> Departamento de Biotecnología de los Alimentos, Instituto de Agroquímica y
8	Tecnología de Alimentos (IATA-CSIC), Agustín Escardino 7, E-46980 Paterna,
9	Valencia, Spain.
10	<sup>2</sup> Departament de Genètica, Universitat de València, Doctor Moliner 50, E-46100
11	Burjassot, Valencia, Spain.
12	
13	
14	*Corresponding author: Sergi Puig
15	Email address: spuig@iata.csic.es
16	
17	Running title: New sulfite-resistant yeast genome reorganization
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	

### 24 ORIGINALITY-SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

Microorganisms utilize a great variety of genetic strategies to adapt to natural and human-made environments. Among them, genome-wide rearrangements constitute a mechanism to rapidly evolve by generating phenotypic diversity. Sulfite is widely used during winemaking because of its antimicrobial and antioxidant properties. Therefore, wine yeast strains have developed specific genetic changes to increase its resistance to sulfite. In this study, we have identified and characterized a novel chromosomal rearrangement that increases the sulfite resistance of Saccharomyces cerevisiae wine strains. Specifically, an inversion in chromosome XVI that involves the promoter of the cell surface sulfite efflux pump SSU1 increases its expression and the strain sulfite tolerance. These data uncover a new genomic event that confers an evolutive advantage to wine yeast strains. 

#### 45 ABSTRACT

Sulfite-generating compounds are widely used during winemaking as 46 preservatives because of its antimicrobial and antioxidant properties. Thus, wine yeast 47 strains have developed different genetic strategies to increase its sulfite resistance. The 48 most efficient sulfite detoxification mechanism in Saccharomyces cerevisiae uses a 49 plasma membrane protein called Ssu1 to efflux sulfite. In wine yeast strains, two 50 chromosomal translocations (VIIItXVI and XVtXVI) involving the SSU1 promoter 51 region have been shown to up-regulate SSU1 expression and, as a result, increase sulfite 52 tolerance. In this study, we have identified a novel chromosomal rearrangement that 53 triggers wine yeast sulfite adaptation. An inversion in chromosome XVI (inv-XVI) 54 55 probably due to sequence microhomology, which involves SSU1 and GCR1 regulatory regions, increases the expression of SSU1 and the sulfite resistance of a commercial 56 wine yeast strain. A detailed dissection of this chimeric SSU1 promoter indicates that 57 both the removed SSU1 promoter sequence and the relocated GCR1 sequence contribute 58 to SSU1 up-regulation and sulfite tolerance. However, no relevant function has been 59 attributed to the SSU1-promoter binding transcription factor Fzf1. These results unveil a 60 new genomic event that confers an evolutive advantage to wine yeast strains. 61

62

Keywords: Chromosomal rearrangement, inversion, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *SSU1*,
sulfite resistance, wine yeast.

#### 66 INTRODUCTION

Wine fermentation is a complex ecological and biochemical process that 67 involves the sequential growth of different microorganisms, mainly yeasts, but also 68 filamentous fungi, lactic and acetic acid bacteria (Bauer and Pretorius 2000; Beltrán et 69 al. 2002). However, the budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae replaces other species 70 71 found in grape musts because of its higher tolerance to ethanol and the production of heat via fermentation (Fleet, 2003; Goddard, 2008; Salvadó et al., 2011). The use of this 72 yeast in winemaking dates back to about 7400 years in the Cradle of Civilization, 73 extending nowadays to all the temperate regions of the world (Bauer and Pretorius, 74 2000). Therefore, the wine strains of S. cerevisiae are highly specialized 75 76 microorganisms that have evolved to use the different ecological niches provided by human activity. The specific genetic characteristics of the wine yeast strains are a 77 consequence of the process of domestication (Liti et al., 2009; Almeida et al., 2015; 78 79 Borneman et al., 2016; Gayevskiy et al., 2016; Gonçalves et al., 2016; Legras et al., 2018). 80

The study of patterns of genetic variation, population structure, and phenotypic 81 diversity among strains of S. cerevisiae from different fermentative environments shows 82 that the ecological specialization associated with human activity is accompanied by the 83 accumulation of a great variety of potentially adaptive genetic changes (Legras et al., 84 2018; Peter et al., 2018). This rapid evolution is due to the ability of yeast to reshape its 85 genome through expansion and contraction of gene families (Casadevall, 2008; Brown 86 et al., 2010; Lin and Li, 2011), duplication of entire genomes (Marcet-Houben et al., 87 2015), acquisition of new genes through introgression (Neafsey et al., 2010; Strope et 88 al., 2015; Barbosa et al., 2016) or horizontal gene transfer (Novo et al., 2009; 89 Cheeseman et al., 2014; Wisecaver and Rokas, 2015; Alexander et al., 2016), and 90

directional selection (Hu *et al.*, 2014). Chromosomal rearrangements also underlie
adaptation by affecting the expression of genes located in the proximity of the
translocation breakpoints (Pérez-Ortín *et al.*, 2002; Zimmer *et al.*, 2014). All these
genetic events promote a quicker adaptation to environmental changes than spontaneous
mutations, which occur at comparatively lower rates (Doniger *et al.*, 2008).

Sulfite  $(SO_3^{2-})$ , which is produced by dissolution of sulfur dioxide  $(SO_2)$  in 96 water, is used during winemaking as a microbial inhibitor and antioxidant (Bauer and 97 Pretorius, 2000). Therefore, sulfite resistance is a desired trait for wine yeast strains 98 (Divol et al., 2012). The most common mechanisms to cope with the stress produced by 99 sulfites include the increase in the production of acetaldehyde, which binds to  $SO_3^{2^2}$ , the 100 101 regulation of the sulfite uptake pathway, and sulfite efflux through a plasma membrane pump encoded by the SSUI gene (Casalone et al., 1992). The latter is one of the most 102 effective mechanisms of sulfite resistance in S. cerevisiae (Avram and Bakalinsky, 103 104 1997; Avram et al., 1999). Strains lacking SSU1 gene are more sensitive to sulfite than their wild-type counterparts, since SSU1 deletion increases the accumulation of 105 intracellular sulfite (Avram and Bakalinsky, 1997; Nadai et al., 2016). Another gene 106 involved in yeast sulfite resistance is the transcription factor FZF1 (Casalone et al., 107 1992, 1994; Avram et al., 1999; Engle and Fay, 2012). Fzf1 interacts with two regions 108 of DNA (CS1 and CS2) immediately upstream of SSU1 and activates its transcription 109 (Avram et al. 1999; Saver et al., 2005). 110

Among wine yeast strains, two chromosomal translocations (VIIItXVI and XVtXVI) have been shown to provide up-regulation of *SSU1* expression and increased sulfite tolerance (Pérez-Ortín *et al.*, 2002; Yuasa *et al.*, 2005; Zimmer *et al.*, 2014). In both cases, the translocation involves the *SSU1* promoter and leads to its transcriptional activation. A recent study showed that the *SSU1* translocations provide both ecological divergence between wine and non-wine yeasts, due to sulfite resistance differences, and reproductive isolation by reducing spore viability in hybrids (Hyma and Fay, 2012; Hou et al. 2014; Clowers et al. 2015). In this work, we have identified an inversion in chromosome XVI that increases the expression of *SSU1* and the sulfite resistance of an industrial wine yeast strain. The aim of this work consists in the molecular and phenotypical characterization of this novel chromosomal rearrangement involving the yeast *SSU1* locus.

125

# 126 Identification of a sulfite-resistant wine yeast strain lacking VIIItXVI and XVtXVI 127 chromosomal rearrangements

During the process of phenotypic characterization of the commercial wine yeast 128 strain P5 (García-Ríos et al., 2014, 2017), we decided to determine its sulfite resistance. 129 For this purpose, we tested growth and viability by performing yeast spot assays in solid 130 131 media containing increasing concentrations of K<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. For a better comparison, we included two sulfite resistant strains, T73 and VLI, which harbor genomic translocations 132 affecting the SSUI locus that have been previously characterized (VIIItXVI and 133 XVtXVI, respectively), and the control wine yeast strain P24 with no SSU1 134 rearrangements (Goto-Yamamoto et al., 1998; Pérez-Ortín et al., 2002; Zimmer et al., 135 136 2014; García-Ríos et al., 2017). No growth differences in a medium without sulfites were observed among the wine yeast strains (Figure 1A). Upon addition of  $K_2S_2O_5$ , the 137 P24 control strain displayed a slight sensitivity at 3 mM and no growth at 4 mM 138  $K_2S_2O_5$ , whereas the P5 strain was as resistant to sulfite as the T73 and VL1 reference 139 strains (Figure 1A). When assayed in liquid medium, we observed a very slight growth 140 defect for the T73 and VL1 strains as compared to the P5 strain under normal 141 conditions, which was enhanced in the presence of 4 mM K<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (Figure 1B). Again, 142 T73, VL1 and P5 strains were all more resistant to sulfite than the P24 control strain 143 144 (Figure 1B).

Previous studies have demonstrated that the resistance of yeast cells to sulfite is mainly determined by the expression of its *SSU1* gene (Avram and Bakalinsky, 1997). Therefore, to explore the potential mechanisms responsible for these phenotypic differences, we first determined the expression levels of SSUI mRNA by RT-qPCR in the absence of K<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. As Figure 1C shows, the P5 yeast strain displayed the highest SSUI mRNA levels, followed by VLI and T73 strains respectively. The control P24 strain showed the lowest SSUI expression, which is consistent with its high sensitivity to sulfite (Figure 1A). No induction of SSUI expression by sulfite addition was observed for any of the studied yeast strains (data not shown).

To characterize the molecular bases of the elevated SSU1 expression observed in 154 the P5 wine yeast strain, we designed PCR primers to distinguish between a wild-type 155 SSU1 locus (nt-XVI), and the VIIItXVI and XVtXVI translocations (Figure 2). We 156 observed specific bands that corresponded to the VIIItXVI and XVtXVI translocations 157 158 only in T73 and VLI strains, respectively (Figure 2). Moreover, a PCR product indicative of a wild-type SSU1 allele was also present in T73, VLI and P24 strains. 159 Remarkably, the P5 sulfite-resistant strain neither presented the chromosomal 160 161 rearrangements previously described nor the wild-type SSU1 allele. Taken together, these results suggest that a novel genetic mechanism triggers the elevated expression of 162 SSU1 in the P5 wine strain, which results in greater resistance to sulfite. 163

164

## 165 The P5 wine yeast strain displays an inversion on chromosome XVI that involves 166 the *SSU1* promoter region

167 The greater *SSU1* expression of the P5 strain prompted us to sequence its 168 promoter region by using a reverse oligonucleotide within *SSU1* coding sequence 169 (CDS). No abnormal sequences were observed up to 488 bp downstream of the *SSU1* 170 CDS. However, the sequence identified beyond that point was identical to the promoter 171 region 814 bp upstream of the *GCR1* gene CDS, which is normally located 38.5 Kb

away from the SSU1 gene in chromosome XVI. An additional sequencing with a 172 reverse oligonucleotide within GCR1 CDS supported that a chromosome XVI 173 reorganization, with breakpoints located at SSU1 and GCR1 promoters, had occurred in 174 the wine yeast strain P5 (see Figure 3A for a schematic representation of the 175 chromosome XVI inversion present in the P5 strain). To investigate the potential 176 molecular mechanism responsible for such an inversion, we aligned the nucleotide 177 sequence within both junctions of the inversion (Figure 3B; inv-XVI C and inv-XVI D 178 rev) and from the natural chromosome XVI (Figure 3B; nt-XVI A and nt-XVI B). 179 Approximately half of this sequence (18 out of 37 nucleotides) was identical among the 180 four fragments, which suggests that this illegitimate recombination has occurred 181 probably due to sequence microhomology. 182

To further characterize the chromosome XVI inversion (inv-XVI) as compared 183 to other chromosomal organizations, we designed specific primer pairs to amplify the 184 185 native SSU1 (F1 and R1) and GCR1 (F2 and R2) promoter regions (Figure 3A). In a PCR contain all four primers, the T73, VL1 and P24 strains showed two bands 186 corresponding to the amplification of wild-type SSU1 (F1-R1: 1256 bp) and GCR1 (F2-187 R2: 2088 bp) (Figure 3B). Importantly, the P5 strain did not exhibit any of these bands, 188 instead, P5 displayed two bands corresponding to the amplification with the F1-F2 and 189 R1-R2 primer pairs (1866 and 1634 bp, respectively) (Figure 3B). These results 190 demonstrate that the wine yeast strain P5 contains a large chromosome XVI inversion 191 with breakpoints located 488 bp upstream of the SSU1 CDS and 814 bp upstream of the 192 193 GCR1 CDS. Then, we decided to explore the presence of additional yeast strains with a similar inversion at the SSU1 locus of chromosome XVI. For this purpose, we extracted 194 the genomic DNA from 132 S. cerevisiae strains from different geographical origins 195 196 and isolation sources (Table S1), and used them as templates to perform specific PCRs

with the four primers described above (Figure 3C; F1, R1, F2 and R2). Most strains 197 (106 out of 132) displayed a PCR pattern (2088 bp + 1256 bp) consistent with a wild-198 type SSU1 locus (Table S1). A significant proportion of the strains (25 out of 132) 199 exhibited only a 2088 bp band, but lacked the 1256 bp band corresponding to the native 200 SSU1 promoter (Table S1). This result was consistent with these 25 yeast strains 201 containing a chromosomal rearrangement at the SSUI locus different from the 202 chromosome XVI inversion described in the P5 strain, and probably due to either a 203 VIIItXVI or a XVtXVI translocation. These results suggest that the inv-XVI present in 204 the P5 yeast strain could be the consequence of a recent genetic rearrangement that did 205 206 not spread yet among wine strains.

207

# The Fzf1 transcription factor is not responsible for the increased SSU1 expression and sulfite resistance of the P5 wine strain

210 The 488 bp fragment of SSU1 promoter conserved in the P5 inv-XVI contains the binding sites for the Fzf1 transcription factor, which contributes to the basal 211 212 expression of the SSUI gene (Figure 3A; Fzf1 binding sites located at -442 (CS1) and -387 bp (CS2) of SSU1 CDS; Sarver and DeRisi, 2005; Avram et al., 1999). First, we 213 determined the expression levels of *FZF1* in all wine strains included in this study. In 214 this case, the strain P5 exhibited the lowest levels of FZF1 mRNA (Figure S1). Then, 215 216 we analyzed the implication of the transcriptional factor Fzf1 in the expression of SSU1 217 observed in the P5 strain. For this purpose, the FZF1 gene was deleted from a haploid version of P5 strain, and its effect on sulfite resistance and SSU1 expression studied. 218 219 Neither the growth in sulfite-containing media nor the expression of the SSU1 gene of 220 the P5 strain was altered when its FZF1 gene was deleted (Figure 4). These data suggest

that the Fzf1 transcription factor does not account for the increased *SSU1* expressionand sulfite resistance displayed by the P5 wine strain.

223

# The ectopic expression of the P5 chimeric *SSU1* allele confers resistance to sulfitesensitive strains.

226 To further ascertain the contribution of the P5 SSU1 allele to sulfite resistance, we amplified by PCR the natural wild-type SSU1 allele (WT-SSU1) and the chimeric P5 227 228 SSU1 allele (P5-SSU1) (containing either 810 or 1148 bp from their respective promoter regions, SSU1 CDS and terminator), and cloned them into a centromeric yeast 229 230 expression vector (pRS416; Sikorski and Hieter, 1989) (see Figure 5A for a schematic representation). Both plasmids and empty vector were transformed into the wine yeast 231 strain P24 and the laboratory BY4743 strain, lacking either SSU1 or FZF1 genes (ssu1A 232 and  $fzfl\Delta$  strains), all of them sensitive to sulfite. The plasmid expressing the wild-type 233 SSU1 allele (WT-SSU1) increased SSU1 mRNA levels except in the case of the BY4743 234  $fzf1\Delta$  strain, whereas the construct containing the chimeric P5-SSU1 allele conferred the 235 highest expression independently of Fzf1 (Figure 5). To test the effect of the P5-SSU1 236 allele on sulfite resistance, we performed a yeast growth assay in media with increasing 237 concentrations of  $K_2S_2O_5$ . Notably, as compared to empty vector, the *P5-SSU1* allele 238 was able to confer resistance to all the sulfite-sensitive strains assayed, whereas the WT-239 SSU1 allele did not endow the sensitive strains with a higher sulfite tolerance (Figure 6). 240 These results indicate that the expression of SSUI gene under the control of the 241 242 chimeric SSU1 promoter present in the wine yeast strain P5 is able by itself to increase the sulfite resistance of different yeast strains. 243

# The partial deletion of *SSU1* promoter is sufficient to increase expression and to confer sulfite resistance.

To determine the contribution of the GCR1 promoter sequence acquired by the 247 P5-SSU1 recombinant allele to its expression and sulfite resistance, we cloned a 248 truncated SSU1 allele (trunc-SSU1), which only contained the 488 bp from the SSU1 249 250 natural promoter region, but no GCR1 sequence, into the pRS416 vector (as depicted in Figure 5A). The plasmid containing the trunc-SSU1 allele was transformed into the 251 252 sulfite-sensitive P24, BY4743 ssul $\Delta$  and BY4743 fzfl $\Delta$  yeast strains. Then the SSUl mRNA levels and the sulfite resistance were assayed in comparison to the same strains 253 254 expressing the WT-SSU1 and P5-SSU1 alleles. Interestingly, yeast strains with the 255 trunc-SSU1 plasmid displayed SSU1 mRNA levels higher than those expressing the WT-SSU1 allele, but slightly lower than the P5-SSU1 transformed cells (Figure 5). 256 257 Regarding growth in  $K_2S_2O_5$ -containing media, the *trunc-SSU1* allele increased the resistance to sulfite of all the strains in a similar manner to the P5-SSU1 chimeric allele 258 (Figure 6). 259

260 To discard a potential contribution of the pRS416 sequence to SSU1 expression and sulfite resistance conferred by the cloned trunc-SSUI allele, we integrated the 261 nourseothricin resistance gene (clonNAT) at -488 bp from the SSU1 CDS of the wild-262 type and  $fzf1\Delta$  laboratory BY4741 yeast strain. This genomic integration mimics the 263 trunc-SSU1 allele because it lacks the original sequence 488 bp downstream of the WT-264 SSU1 and P5-SSU1 alleles. Again, SSU1 expression and sulfite growth assays 265 demonstrated that the removal of the SSU1 promoter region beyond 488 increased SSU1 266 mRNA levels and conferred sulfite resistance in an Fzf1-independent way (Figure 7). 267 Taken together, these results strongly suggest that the inv-XVI present in the P5 wine 268 yeast strain eliminates a portion of the SSU1 promoter region that was limiting SSU1 269

expression and sulfite resistance, and introduces a new *GCR1* sequence that furtherincreases *SSU1* mRNA levels.

272

### 273 DISCUSSION

274 The stresses that yeast cells encounter during wine fermentations include the 275 elevated content of sugar in grape musts, the high ethanol concentrations achieved, the temperature of the different fermentation types, and the sulfite added as an antimicrobial 276 277 and antioxidant agent (Bauer and Pretorius, 2000; Divol et al., 2012). These environmental stresses exerted for hundreds of years and thousands of generations have 278 279 caused wine yeasts to evolve rapidly, shaping their genome through different genetic mechanisms (Marsit and Dequin, 2015; Guillamón and Barrio, 2017; Legras et al., 280 2018). 281

Previous studies have shown that different chromosomal rearrangements of the 282 283 wine yeast SSU1 gene have led to an increase in their resistance against the stress generated by the sulfites added during the must fermentation process. In an initial study, 284 285 we described that a translocation between chromosomes XVI and VIII (VIIItXVI) located the SSU1 gene under the promoter region of the EMC34 regulatory region, 286 287 leading to a new SSU1 promoter, which increased SSU1 expression and tolerance to 288 sulfites (Pérez-Ortín et al., 2002). A later study, showed that a translocation between chromosomes XVI and XV (XVtXVI) positioned the SSU1 gene under the control of 289 the promoter region of *ADH1*, a constitutively expressed gene encoding for the enzyme 290 291 alcohol dehydrogenase (Zimmer et al., 2014). Again, this rearrangement enhanced the basal expression of SSU1 and improved sulfite resistance. In the present work, we have 292 293 identified and characterized a novel reorganization on chromosome XVI that involves

the SSUI gene. Specifically, we have identified an inversion in chromosome XVI (inv-294 295 XVI) that increases the sulfite resistance capacity of the P5 wine yeast strain to a similar strength of that of the VIIItXVI and XVtXVI translocations (Figure 1). We observed 296 297 that the yeast strain with the highest SSU1 expression (P5) was the most resistant to sulfite, whereas the most sensitive strain (P24) exhibited the lowest SSU1 expression 298 (Figure 1). However, in the case of the T73 and VL1 yeast strains, SSU1 mRNA levels 299 300 did not fit with their relative sulfite resistance probably due to the contribution of other factors to yeast sulfite tolerance (Figure 1; Zimmer et al., 2014). No correlation was 301 observed between FZF1 mRNA levels and sulfite resistance (Figure 1 and S1). 302

The molecular basis responsible for the increased expression of the different 303 304 SSU1 alleles is not fully understood. The VIIItXVI reorganization present in the T73 and other wine strains conserved the two Fzf1-binding sites (CS1 and CS2) contained in 305 the original SSU1 promoter region (Pérez-Ortín et al., 2002). Moreover, cells acquired a 306 307 piece of ECM34 promoter containing 76-bp repeats, whose number influences SSU1 expression and sulfite resistance (Pérez-Ortín et al., 2002; Yuasa et al, 2005). The 308 XVtXVI event occurred at an AT-rich region within the ADH1 promoter on 309 chromosome XV (Zimmer et al., 2014). This translocation eliminated the Fzf1-binding 310 sites present in the native SSU1 promoter, but added an Fzf1 and an Adr1 consensus-311 binding site (Zimmer et al., 2014). The contribution of these regulatory elements to 312 SSU1 expression has not been elucidated yet. To gain insight into the reasons 313 responsible for the increased SSU1 expression conferred by the GCR1-SSU1 regulatory 314 315 region present in the P5 wine strain, we compared how a battery of promoter constructs (WT-SSU1, P5-SSU1 and trunc-SSU1) influenced the expression of SSU1 and the sulfite 316 317 adaptation of various yeast strains (P24, BY4743 ssul $\Delta$  and BY4743 fzfl $\Delta$ ). Our results indicate that both the GCR1 sequence positioned upstream of SSU1 and the removal of 318

the SSU1 sequence downstream of -488 bp contribute to the elevated SSU1 mRNA 319 levels and sulfite resistance provided by the chimeric GCR1-SSU1 promoter exhibited 320 by the P5 wine yeast strain. Despite the chimeric P5-SSU1 promoter conserves both 321 original Fzf1-binding sites, the deletion of FZF1 did not alter SSU1 expression and 322 sulfite resistance (Figures 5-7). In fact, although SSU1 is influenced by different stress 323 responses, including low oxygen and nitric oxide, its level of expression is not regulated 324 325 by sulfite present in the external milieu or into the cell (Sarver and DeRisi, 2005; Yuasa et al., 2005; Aranda et al., 2006). There is only a previously described example of an 326 industrial strain (71B) that harbors a sulfur-inducible SSU1 gene that may have gained a 327 328 new regulatory system (Nardi et al., 2010). However, we did not observe any sulfitedependent regulation for the P5-SSU1 allele. Further studies would be necessary to 329 330 decipher which transcription factors and *cis* elements enhance SSU1 expression in the 331 different sulfite-resistant wine yeast strains.

332 Although we performed a screening of 132 different S. cerevisiae yeast strains, we were unable to identify an inv-XVI event similar to the chromosomal reorganization 333 exhibited by the P5 wine strain (Table S1). We suggest that the inv-XVI could be a 334 recent genetic event in the evolution of wine yeasts that did not disseminate yet. We 335 consider that, from a genetic point of view, the inversion affecting the P5 strain could be 336 more beneficial than the VIIItXVI and XVtXVI translocations because the supergene 337 338 architecture generated by major chromosomal inversions, due to the localized reduction in recombination within, offers a mechanism to the maintenance of balanced 339 340 polymorphism at multiple coadapted and tightly linked elements, without compromising the viability of the heterozygous spores. In fact, the spore viability of a P5/BY4743 341 crossed strain resulted to be 100% as for the original P5 and BY4743 strains. 342 343 Contrastingly, SSUI translocations not only could generate an ecological differentiation

but also a reproductive barrier between wine and non-wine *S. cerevisiae* populations by reducing spore viability in hybrids (Hyma and Fay, 2012; Hou *et al.*, 2014; Clowers *et al.*, 2015). The inv-XVI identified here has a great potential to be used in breeding programs for sulfite resistance improvement in wine yeasts since it would not affect the viability of heterozygous spores, unlike previously described *SSU1* translocations.

#### 349 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

350

Yeast strains and plasmids. The yeast strains genotyped for the SSUI locus are listed 351 352 in Table S1, whereas the yeast strains and plasmids used in the main figures of this study are described in Table S2. We used the pAG25 plasmid as a template and specific 353 oligonucleotides to generate integrative cassettes to truncate the genomic copy of SSU1 354 promoter and to delete FZF1 gene in the haploid version of the P5 strain. To construct 355 the pRS416-based plasmids expressing chimeric SSU1, wild-type SSU1 and truncated 356 SSU1, 1148, 810 and 488 bp were respectively amplified from the promoter region of 357 the SSU1 gene of either P5 or BY4743 strains. The oligonucleotides used were 358 SSU1 P5XhoI-F, SSU1 XhoI-F, promSSU1native XhoI-F and SSU1 BamHI-R 359 360 (Table S3). The PCR products and the plasmid were digested with the restriction enzymes BamHI (FastDigest, Thermo) and XhoI (FastDigest, Thermo) and ligation was 361 performed. PCR amplifications were performed with the Phusion DNA polymerase 362 (Finnzymes), and the cloned insert was sequenced. One Shot TOP10 chemically 363 competent Escherichia coli cells (Invitrogen) were used to isolate and amplify plasmids. 364

365

Culture conditions. Yeast cultures were incubated at 28°C. Sulfite tolerance was determined on YPD medium [1% (w/v) yeast extract, 2% (w/v) bacteriological peptone, 2% (w/v) glucose] containing 75 mM L-tartaric acid (TA) at pH 3.5 as previously described (Park *et al.*, 1999). The addition of sulfite to the agar medium after autoclaving, but just before pouring, was not effective. Therefore, sulfite-containing plates were prepared by spreading an appropriate amount of freshly filter-sterilized 1M  $K_2O_5S_2$  stock solution on the top of YPD + TA plates. The strains transformed with the

plasmid pRS416 were selected on SC-Ura plates [0.17% (w/v) yeast nitrogen base 373 without amino acids and without ammonium sulfate (Difco), 0.5% (w/v) ammonium 374 sulfate (Panreac), 2% (w/v) glucose (Panreac), 2 g  $L^{-1}$  Kaiser drop-out (Formedium) 375 and 2% (w/v) agar (Pronadisa)]. Likewise, liquid SC-Ura medium was used to keep the 376 pRS416 plasmid during overnight growth. All other yeast precultures were carried out 377 in YPD + TA under the same conditions. To assay solid growth, yeast cells were 378 cultivated to exponential phase, and then spotted on 10-fold serial dilutions starting at 379 an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.1, and incubated at 28°C for 3 days. The assays were performed on YPD 380 + TA plates with concentrations of K<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>S<sub>2</sub> up to 4 mM. Growth rate in liquid medium 381 was monitored by determining optical density at 600 nm in a SPECTROstar Omega 382 instrument (BMG Labtech, Offenburg, Germany). Measurements were taken every 30 383 min for 4 days after 20 seconds pre-shaking. Microplate wells were filled with the 384 385 required volume of inoculum and 0.25 mL of medium to always ensure an initial OD of approximately 0.1 (inoculum level of about  $10^6$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup>). Growth parameters were 386 387 calculated from each treatment by directly fitting OD measurements versus time to the reparametrized Gompertz equation proposed by Zwietering et al., (1990): 388

389 
$$y = D \exp \{-\exp[((\mu_{\max} * e)/D) * (\lambda - t)) + 1]\}$$

where  $y = \ln(OD_t/OD_0)$ ,  $OD_0$  is the initial OD and  $OD_t$  is the OD at time t;  $D = \ln(OD_t/OD_0)$  is the asymptotic maximum,  $\mu_{max}$  is the maximum specific growth rate (h<sup>-1</sup>), and  $\lambda$  is the lag phase period (h) (Aguilera *et al.*, 2007). To test the spore viability, sporulation was induced by incubating cells on acetate medium (1% potassium acetate and 2% agar) for 5 days at 30°C. Following the preliminary digestion of the asci walls with 2 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> glucuronidase (Sigma), spores were dissected using micromanipulator (Singer instruments, United Kingdom). Viability was calculated as the percentage of spores (from a total of 40 analyzed spores per strain) able to form a colony on YPD agar
after 48-72 h at 28°C.

399

RNA analyses. Total RNA extraction and cellular mRNA levels were determined by
RT-qPCR as previously described (Sanvisens *et al.*, 2014). The SSU1q\_F/SSU1q\_R,
FZF1q\_F/FZF1q\_R and ACT1q\_F/ACT1q\_R primer pairs were used to determine the
levels of *SSU1*, *FZF1* and *ACT1* mRNAs, respectively (Table S3). The data and error
bars represent the average and the standard deviation of three independent biological
samples.

406

407 Detection of the inversion within yeast population. The DNA extraction of the
408 different strains was carried as previously described (Querol et al., 1992). To rapidly
409 screen the genetic rearrangements involving the *SSU1* gene (nt-XVI, VIIItXVI,
410 XVtXVI or inv-XVI), PCR tests were performed with appropriate primers (Table S3).

411

412 **Statistical analyses**. The results are expressed as mean and standard deviation of at 413 least 3 independent biological replicates. To evaluate statistical significance, tailed t-414 student tests were applied. The asterisk (\*) indicates statistically significant differences 415 with *p*-value  $\leq 0.05$ . Phenotypic data were fitted to the reparametrized Gompertz model 416 by non-linear least-squares fitting using the Gauss-Newton algorithm as implemented in 417 the nls function in the R statistical software, v.3.0.

### 419 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Spanish Government through "Ministerio de Ciencia, Innovación y Universidades" (MICINN) and "Fondo Europeo de Desarrollo Regional" (FEDER) funds grant number PCIN-2015-143 and AGL2016-77503-C3-1-R to JMG, AGL2015-67504-C3-3-R to EB, and BIO2017-87828-C2-1-P to SP. This study has been carried out in the context of the European Project ERA-IB "YeastTempTation". The authors thank Dr. Philippe Marullo for kindly providing VL1 strain.

427

### 428 Disclosure Declaration

429 The authors declare no conflict of interest associated with this manuscript.

### 431 **REFERENCES**

- Aguilera, J., Randez-Gil, F., and Prieto, J.A. (2007) Cold response in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: new functions for old mechanisms. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* 31: 327–41.
- Alexander, W.G., Wisecaver, J.H., Rokas, A., and Hittinger, C.T. (2016) Horizontally
  acquired genes in early-diverging pathogenic fungi enable the use of host
  nucleosides and nucleotides. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 113: 4116–4121.
- Almeida, P., Barbosa, R., Zalar, P., Imanishi, Y., Shimizu, K., Turchetti, B., et al.
  (2015) A population genomics insight into the Mediterranean origins of wine yeast
  domestication. *Mol. Ecol.* 24: 5412–5427.
- Aranda, A., Jiménez-Martí, E., Orozco, H., Matallana, E., and Del Olmo, M. (2006)
  Sulfur and adenine metabolisms are linked, and both modulate sulfite resistance in
  wine yeast. J. Agric. Food Chem. 54: 2839–5846.
- Avram, D. and Bakalinsky, A.T. (1997) *SSU1* encodes a plasma membrane protein with
  a central role in a network of proteins conferring sulfite tolerance in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J. Bacteriol.* **179**: 5971–5974.
- Avram, D., Leid, M., and Bakalinsky, A.T. (1999) Fzf1p of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*is a positive regulator of *SSU1* transcription and its first zinc finger region is
  required for DNA binding. *Yeast* 15: 473–480.
- Barbosa, R., Almeida, P., Safar, S.V.B., Santos, R.O., Morais, P.B., Nielly-Thibault, L.,
  et al. (2016) Evidence of natural hybridization in Brazilian wild lineages of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genome Biol. Evol.* 8: 317–329.
- Bauer, F.F. and Pretorius, I.S. (2000) Yeast Stress Response and Fermentation
  Efficiency : How to Survive the Making of Wine A Review. *South African J. Enol. Vitic.* 21: 27–51.
- Beltran, G., Torija, M.J., Novo, M., Ferrer, N.N., Poblet, M., Guillamón, J.M., et al.
  (2002) Analysis of yeast populations during alcoholic fermentation: a six year
  follow-up study. *Syst Appl Microbiol* 25: 287–93.
- Borneman, A.R., Forgan, A.H., Kolouchova, R., Fraser, J.A., and Schmidt, S.A. (2016)
  Whole Genome Comparison Reveals High Levels of Inbreeding and Strain
  Redundancy Across the Spectrum of Commercial Wine Strains of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae. G3 Genes*|*Genomes*|*Genetics* 6: 957–971.
- Brown, C.A., Murray, A.W., and Verstrepen, K.J. (2010) Rapid Expansion and
  Functional Divergence of Subtelomeric Gene Families in Yeasts. *Curr. Biol.* 20:
  895–903.
- 465 Casadevall, A. (2008) Evolution of Intracellular Pathogens. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol* 62:
  466 19–33.
- 467 Casalone, E., Colella, C.M., Daly, S., Fontana, S., Torricelli, I., and Polsinelli, M.
  468 (1994) Cloning and characterization of a sulphite-resistance gene of
  469 Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Yeast 10: 1101–1110.
- 470 Casalone, E., Colella, C.M., Daly, S., Gallori, E., Moriani, L., and Polsinelli, M. (1992)

- 471 Mechanism of resistance to sulphite in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Curr. Genet.* 22:
  472 435–440.
- 473 Cheeseman, K., Ropars, J., Renault, P., Dupont, J., Gouzy, J., Branca, A., et al. (2014)
  474 Multiple recent horizontal transfers of a large genomic region in cheese making
  475 fungi. *Nat. Commun.* 5: 2876.
- 476 Clowers, K.J., Heilberger, J., Piotrowski, J.S., Will, J.L., and Gasch, A.P. (2015)
  477 Ecological and genetic barriers differentiate natural populations of *Saccharomyces*478 *cerevisiae. Mol. Biol. Evol.* 32: 2317–2327.
- 479 Divol, B., Du Toit, M., and Duckitt, E. (2012) Surviving in the presence of sulphur
  480 dioxide: Strategies developed by wine yeasts. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 95:
  481 601–613.
- 482 Doniger, S.W., Kim, H.S., Swain, D., Corcuera, D., Williams, M., Yang, S.P., and Fay,
  483 J.C. (2008) A catalog of neutral and deleterious polymorphism in yeast. *PLoS*484 *Genet.* 4: e1000183.
- 485 Engle, E.K. and Fay, J.C. (2012) Divergence of the yeast transcription factor *FZF1*486 affects sulfite resistance. *PLoS Genet.* 8: e1002763.
- Fleet, G.H. (2003) Yeast interactions and wine flavour. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 86: 11–
  22.
- García-Ríos, E., López-Malo, M., and Guillamón, J.M. (2014) Global phenotypic and
  genomic comparison of two *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* wine strains reveals a novel
  role of the sulfur assimilation pathway in adaptation at low temperature
  fermentations. *BMC Genomics* 15: 1059.
- García-Ríos, E., Morard, M., Parts, L., Liti, G., and Guillamón, J.M. (2017) The genetic
   architecture of low-temperature adaptation in the wine yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *BMC Genomics* 18: 159.
- 496 Gayevskiy, V., Lee, S., and Goddard, M.R. (2016) European derived *Saccharomyces* 497 *cerevisiae* colonisation of New Zealand vineyards aided by humans. *FEMS Yeast* 498 *Res.* 16: 1–12.
- Goddard, M.R. (2008) Quantifying the complexities of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*'s
   ecosystem engineering via fermentation. *Ecology* 89: 2077–82.
- Goldstein, A. and McCusker, J. (1999) Three New Dominant Drug Resistance Cassettes
   for Gene Disruption in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Yeast* 15: 1541–1553.
- Gonçalves, M., Pontes, A., Almeida, P., Barbosa, R., Serra, M., Libkind, D., et al.
  (2016) Distinct Domestication Trajectories in Top-Fermenting Beer Yeasts and
  Wine Yeasts. *Curr. Biol.* 26: 2750–2761.
- Goto-Yamamoto, N., Kitano, K., Shiki, K., Yoshida, Y., Suzuki, T., Iwata, T., et al.
  (1998) *SSUI*-R, a sulfite resistance gene of wine yeast, is an allele of *SSUI* with a different upstream sequence. *J. Ferment. Bioeng.* 86: 427–433.
- Guillamón, J.M. and Barrio, E. (2017) Genetic polymorphism in wine yeasts:
  Mechanisms and methods for its detection. *Front. Microbiol.* 8: 1–20.

- Hou, J., Friedrich, A., De Montigny, J., and Schacherer, J. (2014) Chromosomal
  rearrangements as a major mechanism in the onset of reproductive isolation in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Curr. Biol.* 24: 1153–1159.
- Hu, X., Xiao, G., Zheng, P., Shang, Y., Su, Y., Zhang, X., et al. (2014) Trajectory and
  genomic determinants of fungal-pathogen speciation and host adaptation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 111: 16796–16801.
- Hyma, K. and Fay, J. (2012) Mixing of vineyard and oak-tree ecotypes of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* in North American vineyards. *Mol. Ecol.* 40: 1301–
  1315.
- Legras, J., Galeote, V., Bigey, F., Camarasa, C., Marsit, S., Nidelet, T., et al. (2018)
  Adaptation of *S* . *cerevisiae* to fermented food environments reveals remarkable
  genome plasticity and the footprints of domestication. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 35: 1712–1727.
- Lin, Z. and Li, W.H. (2011) Expansion of hexose transporter genes was associated with
  the evolution of aerobic fermentation in yeasts. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* 28: 131–142.
- Liti, G., Carter, D.M., Moses, A.M., Warringer, J., Parts, L., James, S.A., et al. (2009)
   Population genomics of domestic and wild yeasts. *Nature* 458: 337–341.
- Marcet-Houben, M., Gabaldón, T., Jaillon, O., Aury, J.-M., Wincker, P., Coghlan, A., et
  al. (2015) Beyond the Whole-Genome Duplication: Phylogenetic Evidence for an
  Ancient Interspecies Hybridization in the Baker's Yeast Lineage. *PLoS Biol.* 13:
  e1002220.
- Marsit, S. and Dequin, S. (2015) Diversity and adaptive evolution of *Saccharomyces*wine yeast: a review. *FEMS Yeast Res.* 15: fov067.
- Nadai, C., Treu, L., Campanaro, S., Giacomini, A., and Corich, V. (2016) Different
   mechanisms of resistance modulate sulfite tolerance in wine yeasts. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.* 100: 797–813.
- Nardi, T., Corich, V., Giacomini, A., and Blondin, B. (2010) A sulphite-inducible form
  of the sulphite efflux gene *SSU1* in a *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* wine yeast. *Microbiology* 156: 1686–1696.
- Neafsey, D.E., Barker, B.M., Sharpton, T.J., Stajich, J.E., Park, D.J., Whiston, E., et al.
  (2010) Population genomic sequencing of *Coccidioides* fungi reveals recent hybridization and transposon control. *Genome Res.* 20: 938–946.
- Novo, M., Dé, F., Bigey, R., Beyne, E., Galeote, V., Gavory, R., et al. (2009)
  Eukaryote-to-eukaryote gene transfer events revealed by the genome sequence of
  the wine yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* EC1118. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 106:
  16333–16338.
- Park, H., Lopez, I., and Bakalinsky, A.T. (1999) Use of sulfite resistance in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* as a dominant selectable marker. *Curr. Genet.* 36: 339–344.
- Pérez-Ortín, J.E., Querol, A., Puig, S., and Barrio, E. (2002) Molecular characterization
   of a chromosomal rearrangement involved in the adaptive evolution of yeast

- 552 strains. *Genome Res.* **12**: 1533–9.
- Peter, J., De Chiara, M., Friedrich, A., Yue, J.-X., Pflieger, D., Bergstrom, A., et al.
  (2018) Genome evolution across 1,011 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* isolates. *Nature*555 556: 339–344.
- Querol, A., Barrio, E., and Ramón, D. (1992) A Comparative Study of Different
  Methods of Yeast Strain Characterization. *Syst. Appl. Microbiol.* 15: 439–446.
- Salvadó, Z., Arroyo-López, F.N., Barrio, E., Querol, A., and Guillamón, J.M. (2011)
  Quantifying the individual effects of ethanol and temperature on the fitness
  advantage of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Food Microbiol.* 28: 1155–1161.
- Sanvisens, N., Romero, A.M., An, X., Zhang, C., de Llanos, R., Martinez-Pastor, M.T.,
  et al. (2014) Yeast Dun1 Kinase Regulates Ribonucleotide Reductase Inhibitor
  Sml1 in Response to Iron Deficiency. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 34: 3259–3271.
- Sarver, A. and DeRisi, J. (2005) Fzf1p Regulates an Inducible Response to Nitrosative
   Stress in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Mol. Biol. Cell* 16: 4781–4791.
- Sikorski, R.S. and Hieter, P. (1989) A system of shuttle vectors and yeast host strains
  designed for efficient manipulation of DNA in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Genetics*122: 19–27.
- Strope, P.K., Skelly, D.A., Kozmin, S.G., Mahadevan, G., Stone, E.A., Magwene, P.M.,
  et al. (2015) The 100-genomes strains, an *S. cerevisiae* resource that illuminates its
  natural phenotypic and genotypic variation and emergence as an opportunistic
  pathogen. *Genome Res.* 125: 762–774.
- 573 Wisecaver, J.H. and Rokas, A. (2015) Fungal metabolic gene clusters-caravans
  574 traveling across genomes and environments. *Front. Microbiol.* 6: 1–11.
- Yuasa, N., Nakagawa, Y., Hayakawa, M., and Iimura, Y. (2005) Two alleles of the
  sulfite resistance genes are differentially regulated in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.* 69: 1584–1588.
- Zimmer, A., Durand, C., Loira, N., Durrens, P., Sherman, D.J., and Marullo, P. (2014)
  QTL dissection of lag phase in wine fermentation reveals a new translocation
  responsible for *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* adaptation to sulfite. *PLoS One* 9:
  e86298.
- Zwietering, M.H., Jongenburger, I., Rombouts, F.M., and Van, K. (1990) Modeling of
   the bacterial growth curve. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 56: 1875–1881.

586

Figure 1. Comparison of yeast strains holding different chromosomal rearrangements in *SSU1* gene. T73, VLI, P5 and P24 wine yeast strains were assayed for growth on YPD + TA media with the different concentrations of  $K_2S_2O_5$  in solid (A) and liquid (B) media. C: Expression levels of *SSU1* mRNA after 6 h of growth in YPD + TA obtained from RT-qPCR normalized with the constitutive gene *ACT1*. The asterisk (\*) indicates significant differences (p-value≤0.05) compared to P5.

593

Figure 2. Detection of *SSU1*-mediated chromosomal translocations VIIItXVI and XVtXVI. Detection of the different chromosome XVI translocations by PCR. T73 showed a band corresponding to VIIItXVI (ECM34D and *SSU1\_R* oligonucleotides). VL1 showed an XVtXVI specific band (*ADH1\_F* and R1 oligonucleotides). T73, VL1 and P24 conserved a wild-type *SSU1* allele (F1 and R1 oligonucleotides). P5 only displayed a band for the amplification of *GCR1* used as DNA control (*NOG\_F* and *NOG\_R* oligonucleotides).

601

Figure 3. Genomic characterization of the chromosome XVI inversion present in the P5 wine yeast strain. A: Schematic representation of the region of chromosome XVI comprising the *SSU1* gene and the 38.5 Kb inversion present in P5 strain. One of the breakpoints is located 488 bp upstream of the *SSU1* CDS, whereas the other one maps to 814 bp upstream of the *GCR1* CDS. CS1 and CS2 represent the Fzf1-binding sites. B: Microhomology regions involved in the crossing-over that generated the inversion in chromosome XVI. Black and white boxes highlight *GCR1* and *SSU1*promoter sequences, respectively. Perfect sequence matches are shown in capitals, and
middle script corresponds to base pairs that are lost during the process. C: Detection of
the inv-XVI by PCR. T73, VL1 and P24 showed two bands corresponding to the
amplification of F1-R1 and F2-R2 (1256 and 2088 bp, respectively), while P5 exhibited
two bands corresponding to the amplification of F1-F2 and R1-R2 (1866 and 1634 bp,
respectively).

615

Figure 4. The transcriptional factor Fzf1 is not required for sulfite resistance and SSU1 expression in the P5 strain. A: Wild-type and  $fzf1\Delta$  haploid P5 strains were assayed for growth on YPD + TA media with the different concentrations of K<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. B: Expression levels of *SSU1* mRNA after 6 h of growth in YPD + TA obtained from RTqPCR normalized with the constitutive gene *ACT1*. The asterisk (\*) indicates significant differences (p-value≤0.05) compared to P5.

622

Figure 5. Effect of different promoters on SSU1 expression. A: Schematic 623 representation of the different SSU1 promoter regions contained in the pRS416-SSU1 624 625 plasmids. Wild-type SSU1 (810 bp promoter), chimeric P5 SSU1 (1148 bp promoter), truncated SSU1 (488 bp promoter). B-D: Haploid P24 (B), BY4743 ssu1A (C) and 626 BY4743 fzfla (D) yeast strains transformed with pRS416 (vector), pRS416-chimeric-627 P5-SSU1 (P5-SSU1) pRS416-truncated-SSU1 (trunc-SSU1), and pRS416-wild-type-628 SSU1 (WT-SSU1) were growth and SSU1 mRNA levels determined by RT-qPCR with 629 630 specific oligonucleotides. ACT1 mRNA levels were used to normalize. The asterisk (\*) 631 indicates significant differences (p-value≤0.05) compared to cells with empty vector.

632

**Figure 6. Effect of different** *SSU1* **promoters on sulfite resistance.** The yeast strains obtained in Figure 5 were growth on YPD + TA plates containing different concentrations of  $K_2S_2O_5$ .

636

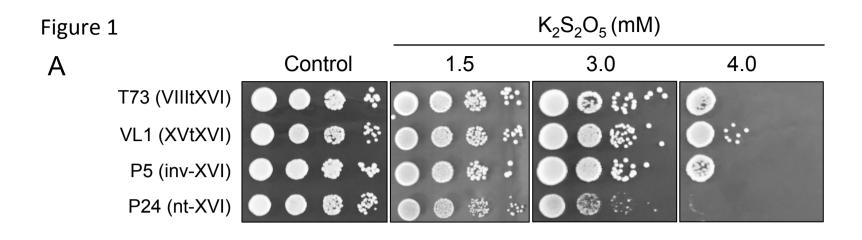
Figure 7. Deletion of a portion of *SSU1* promoter increases expression and sulfite resistance. A cassette conferring resistance to nourseothricin (clonNAT) was integrated at -488 bp from *SSU1* CDS of the laboratory BY4741 and BY4741  $fzf1\Delta$ haploid yeast strains. *SSU1* mRNA levels (A) and sulfite resistance (B) was determined as described in Figure 1. The asterisk (\*) indicates significant differences (pvalue≤0.05) compared to BY4741 and BY4741  $fzf1\Delta$ .

643

#### 644 Supplementary figure legend

645

```
Figure S1. Expression levels of FZF1 in various wine yeast strains. T73, VLI, P5
and P24 yeast strains were cultivated for 6 h in YPD + TA, total RNA was extracted,
and FZF1 mRNA levels determined by RT-qPCR with specific oligonucleotides. ACT1
mRNA levels were used to normalize. The asterisk (*) indicates significant differences
(p-value\leq 0.05) compared to P5.
```



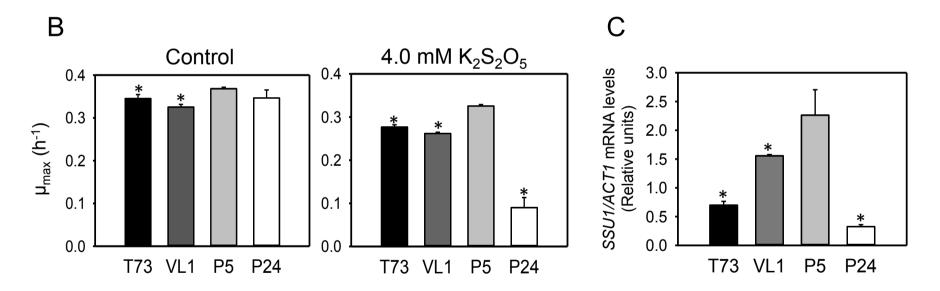
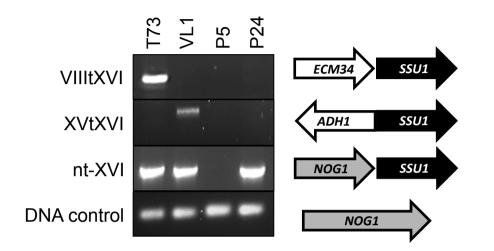


Figure 2



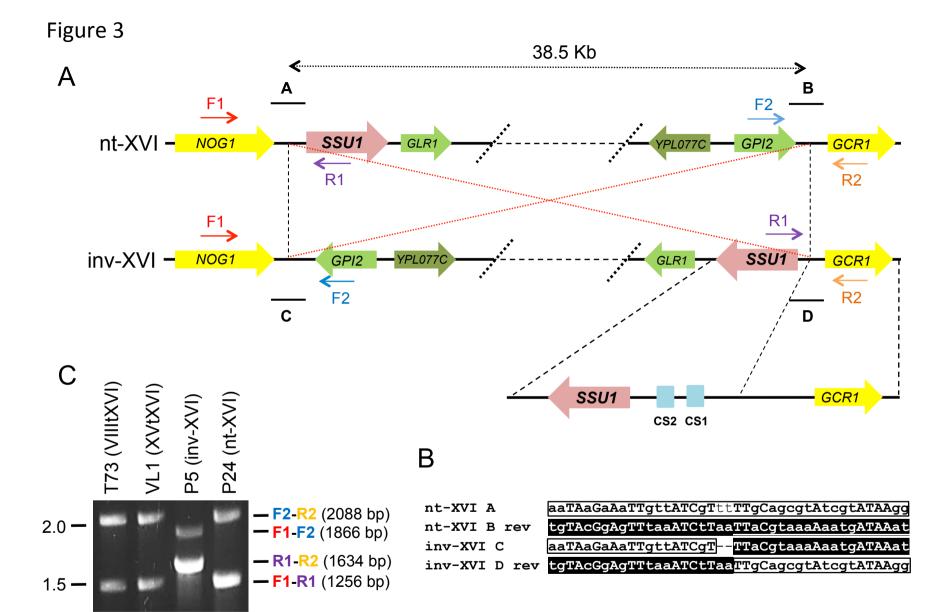
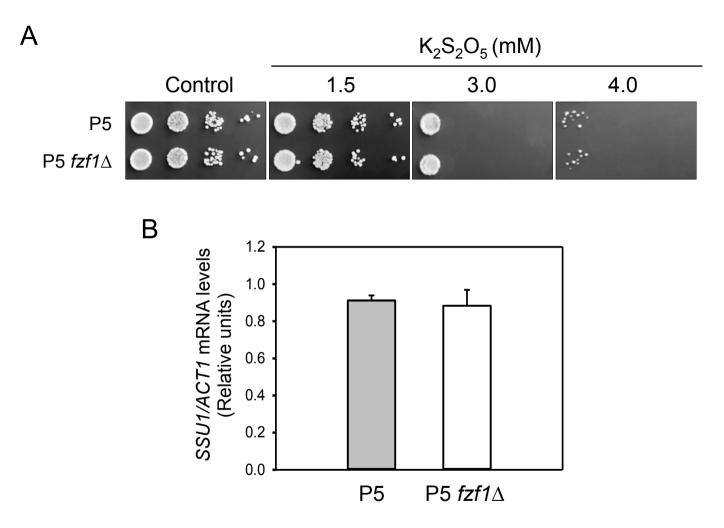


Figure 4



## Figure 5

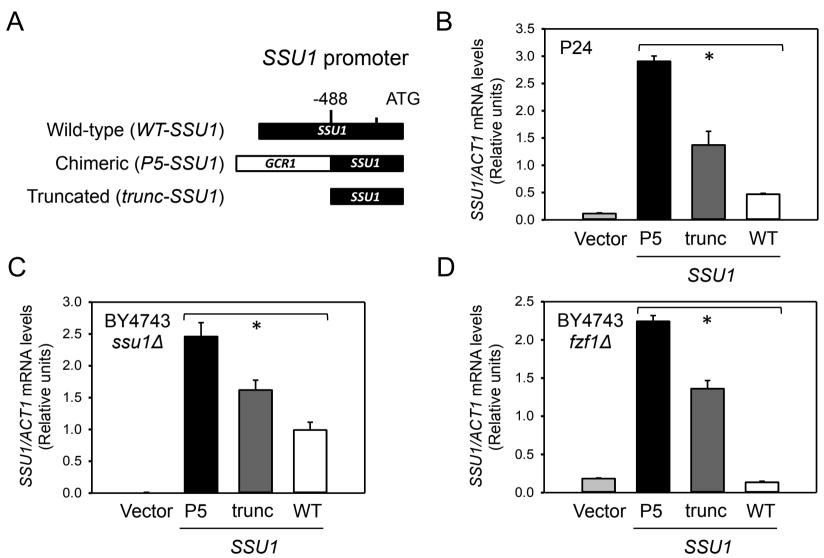


Figure 6

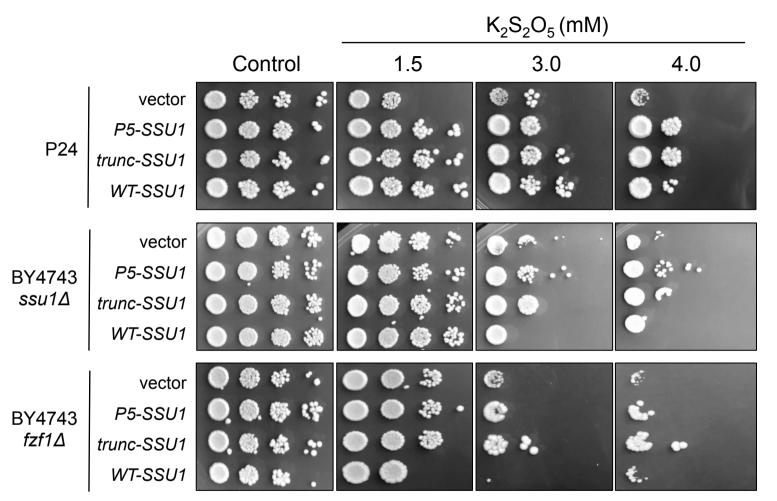
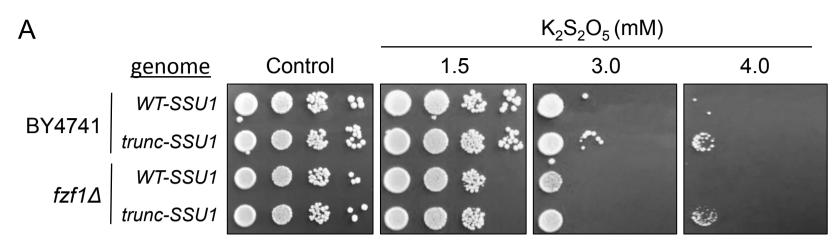


Figure 7



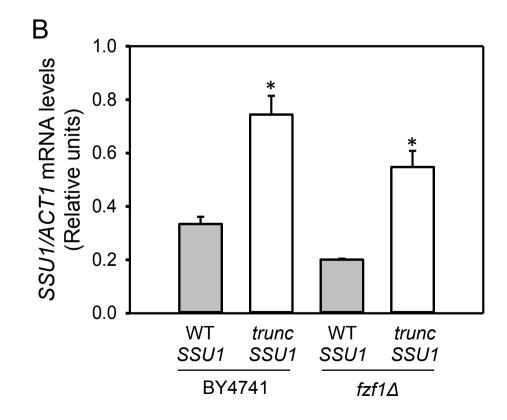


Figure S1

