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1 **The Zip4 protein directly couples meiotic crossover formation to synaptonemal**  
2 **complex assembly**

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14

## 15 **Summary**

16 Meiotic recombination is triggered by programmed double-strand breaks (DSBs), a  
17 subset of these being repaired as crossovers, promoted by eight evolutionarily  
18 conserved proteins, named ZMM. Crossover formation is functionally linked to  
19 synaptonemal complex (SC) assembly between homologous chromosomes, but the  
20 underlying mechanism is unknown. Here we show that Ecm11, a SC central element  
21 protein, localizes on both DSB sites and sites that attach chromatin loops to the  
22 chromosome axis, which are the starting points of SC formation, in a way that strictly  
23 requires the ZMM protein Zip4. Furthermore, Zip4 directly interacts with Ecm11 and  
24 point mutants that specifically abolish this interaction lose Ecm11 binding to  
25 chromosomes and exhibit defective SC assembly. This can be partially rescued by  
26 artificially tethering interaction-defective Ecm11 to Zip4. Mechanistically, this direct  
27 connection ensuring SC assembly from CO sites could be a way for the meiotic cell to  
28 shut down further DSB formation once enough recombination sites have been selected  
29 for crossovers, thereby preventing excess crossovers. Finally, the mammalian ortholog  
30 of Zip4, TEX11, also interacts with the SC central element TEX12, suggesting a  
31 general mechanism.

32

## 33 **Keywords**

34 aneuploidy; crossing over; homologous recombination; meiosis; chromosome  
35 segregation; DSB repair; protein-protein interactions; homologous synapsis.

36

## 37 **Introduction**

38 Meiosis is a highly conserved process among organisms with sexual development. It  
39 produces four haploid gametes from one diploid cell by executing two successive  
40 rounds of cell division preceding one round of DNA replication (Hunter, 2015). A unique  
41 defining feature of meiosis is the pairing/synapsis and homologous recombination  
42 between parental chromosomes (homologs). Recombination is initiated by  
43 programmed DNA double-strand break (DSB) formation by the topoisomerase-related  
44 Spo11 protein together with several meiotic protein partners (Yadav and Claeys  
45 Bouuaert, 2021). Following DSB formation, the combined action of endo- and  
46 exonucleases leads to resection of the DSBs 5' ends, creating 3' single-strand DNA  
47 tails. The strand exchange proteins Rad51 and Dmc1 bind to these tails, and form a  
48 nucleofilament that invades the homologous chromosome. This results in the formation  
49 of a D-loop intermediate that goes through various steps of maturation, leading to two  
50 possible outcomes: a crossover (CO) with a physical exchange between chromosomal  
51 arms, or a non-crossover (NCO). Meiotic COs can be subdivided in two classes, with  
52 class I COs representing ~85 % of total COs formed in budding yeast, mammals and  
53 plants. A characteristic of class I COs is that they are more evenly spaced from each  
54 other than would be expected from a random distribution, phenomenon referred to as  
55 "interference" (Berchowitz and Copenhagen, 2010). The ZMM group of proteins (for  
56 Zip1-4, Msh4-5, Mer3, Spo16) is the major actor promoting class I CO formation  
57 (Börner et al., 2004; Pyatnitskaya et al., 2019). Molecularly, these proteins are  
58 proposed to act on D-loop recombination intermediates by protecting them against  
59 their dismantling by helicases, which would lead to NCO (De Muyt et al., 2012;  
60 Zakharyevich et al., 2012). ZMM-protected intermediates are then matured into a  
61 particular DNA structure that will be further processed into CO by the endonuclease

62 activity of the MutLy (Mlh1-Mlh3)-Exo1 complex (De Muyt et al., 2012; Hunter and  
63 Kleckner, 2001; Zakharyevich et al., 2012). Among the ZMM proteins, the Zip2-Zip4-  
64 Spo16 complex plays a predominant role, through its XPF-ERCC1-like module, in  
65 specifically binding branched recombination intermediates (Arora and Corbett, 2019;  
66 De Muyt et al., 2018). In addition, this complex has a scaffolding activity through its  
67 Zip4 subunit. Indeed, Zip4 interacts with several other ZMM proteins as well as with  
68 Red1, a component of the meiotic chromosome axis (axial element), forming the lateral  
69 element of the synaptonemal complex (SC) during homolog synapsis (De Muyt et al.,  
70 2018). The SC appears concomitantly with the maturation of the ZMM-protected  
71 recombination intermediates. It is composed of two lateral elements physically  
72 maintained together at a precise distance of 100 nm by a central region (Zickler and  
73 Kleckner, 1999). SC assembly begins with the formation of the axial element along  
74 each pair of sister chromatids. Polymerization of axial elements leads to arrays of  
75 chromatin loops tethered at their bases to the axial proteins, among which the meiosis-  
76 specific Hop1 and Red1 proteins, and cohesin containing the Rec8 subunit (Klein et  
77 al., 1999; Panizza et al., 2011; Smith and Roeder, 1997). Homologous chromosomes  
78 co-align across their length, then, the central region polymerizes from punctuate sites  
79 to progressively connect axial elements of the two homologs until the chromosomes  
80 are synapsed along their entire length (Boer and Heyting, 2006; Moses, 1969). In  
81 budding yeast, the central region is composed of the transverse filament Zip1 and the  
82 central element, including Ecm11 and Gmc2, which facilitate Zip1 assembly (Gao and  
83 Colaiácovo, 2018; Humphryes et al., 2013; Sym et al., 1993).

84 In budding yeast, CO formation and SC polymerization are spatially and functionally  
85 related. Indeed, SC polymerization often initiates from sites called SICs (for “Synapsis  
86 Initiation Complex”), enriched in ZMM, and therefore likely representing recombination

87 intermediates, where ZMM were shown to bind by ChIP-seq approaches (Agarwal and  
88 Roeder, 2000; Chua and Roeder, 1998; De Muyt et al., 2018; Serrentino et al., 2013;  
89 Shinohara et al., 2008; Tsubouchi et al., 2006). In *Sordaria macrospora*, SC nucleates  
90 and emanates from one side of recombination nodules, structures that are particularly  
91 dense on electron microscopy images and are predicted to be aggregates of active  
92 recombination proteins including ZMMs (Dubois et al., 2019). In mammals, whether  
93 SC polymerization starts from ZMM-enriched sites is still not fully established.  
94 However, a large majority of RNF212, related to the ZMM Zip3 protein, colocalizes with  
95 initial stretches of SYCP1, the mouse homolog of Zip1, suggesting that such  
96 mechanism occurs in mammals (Reynolds et al., 2013). Moreover, the absence of  
97 ZMM proteins leads to synapsis defects in both budding yeast and *Sordaria*,  
98 suggesting that stabilization of CO precursors is important for correct SC  
99 polymerization (Agarwal and Roeder, 2000; Chua and Roeder, 1998; Dubois et al.,  
100 2019; Espagne et al., 2011; Shinohara et al., 2008; Storlazzi et al., 2010; Tsubouchi  
101 et al., 2006). Similarly, several mouse ZMM mutants (*Msh4<sup>-/-</sup>*, *Msh5<sup>-/-</sup>*, *Hfm1/Mer3<sup>-/-</sup>*,  
102 *Shoc1/Zip2<sup>-/-</sup>*) show strong synapsis defects (reviewed in (Pyatnitskaya et al., 2019)).  
103 On the other hand, the SC is involved in crossover formation. Whether the SC is  
104 involved in mediating crossover interference has been investigated in several model  
105 organisms. In budding yeast, this is clearly not the case. A deletion mutant of Zip1, the  
106 transverse filament of the SC but also a ZMM protein, is defective in interfering COs.  
107 However, in mutants where Zip1 still binds recombination intermediates but does not  
108 polymerize, such as the Nter deletion *zip1N1* mutant or the central element *ecm11Δ*  
109 and *gmc2Δ* mutants, CO still interfere, although the strength of interference is slightly,  
110 but significantly reduced (Lee et al., 2021; Voelkel-Meiman et al., 2015, 2016). These  
111 mutants likely preserve the Zip1 “ZMM function” intact, which is independent of its SC

112 assembly function (Börner et al., 2004; Chen et al., 2015; Voelkel-Meiman et al., 2015,  
113 2016). Although SC polymerization is not formally required for the formation of  
114 interfering COs, it does seem to play a regulatory role in their distribution. In budding  
115 yeast, despite wild-type spore viability, *zip1N1*, *ecm11Δ* and *gmc2Δ* mutants show  
116 increased CO frequency on certain chromosomes, suggesting that the SC could limit  
117 ZMM-dependent CO formation (Lee et al., 2021; Voelkel-Meiman et al., 2016, 2019).  
118 This may be explained at least in part by recent findings that Ecm11- and Gmc2-  
119 dependent SC assembly downregulates DSB formation by Spo11 (Lee et al., 2021;  
120 Mu et al., 2020). Similarly, in plants, mutants of the transverse filament *ZEP1* and  
121 *AtZYP1* in rice and *Arabidopsis*, respectively, show more COs, indicating that like in  
122 budding yeast, the SC is regulating crossover frequencies. However, contrary to  
123 budding yeast, these crossovers lost interference although they still seem to depend  
124 on ZMM (Capilla-Pérez et al., 2021; France et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2010). Similarly  
125 in *C.elegans*, partial depletion of the synaptonemal complex central region proteins  
126 reduces the effective distance over which interference operates, suggesting that  
127 synaptonemal complex proteins also limit crossovers in nematode (Libuda et al.,  
128 2013). These apparent differences with fungi deserve further investigation but may  
129 stem from the fact that progression through meiosis in plants is not affected by the  
130 absence of ZMM proteins.

131 Despite the temporal and spatial relationships between CO formation and SC  
132 assembly, the underlying physical connections between the two processes are elusive.  
133 Here, we uncover a direct interaction between the ZMM protein Zip4 and the central  
134 components of the SC Ecm11 and Gmc2, which is essential for the recruitment of the  
135 Ecm11 protein to chromosomes and consequently for SC polymerization. We propose  
136 a model in which Zip4 brings Ecm11 to recombination sites that are prone to form COs

137 and helps the transverse filament protein Zip1 to nucleate from this location, ensuring  
138 a control of recombination starting locally from sites engaged in the crossover repair  
139 pathway.

140

## 141 **Results**

### 142 **The central element protein Ecm11 interacts with Zip4 and is recruited to DSB** 143 **and axis-attachment sites**

144 To investigate possible physical connections between crossover formation and  
145 synaptonemal complex assembly pathways, we systematically tested by yeast two-  
146 hybrid the interactions between ZMM proteins and the known SC components (Fig.  
147 1A). The only interactions were between Zip4 and each of the two known SC central  
148 elements, Ecm11 and Gmc2 (Fig. 1A). We confirmed that the endogenous proteins  
149 interact in meiotic cells, by coimmunoprecipitating Zip4-Flag protein with Ecm11-TAP  
150 (Fig. 1B). Since Zip4 is known to be recruited to recombination sites, we next asked if  
151 Ecm11 shows a similar binding pattern by mapping Ecm11 binding sites at 5 h in  
152 meiosis, the expected time of recombination (Hunter and Kleckner, 2001), using spike-  
153 in calibrated ChIP-seq (Fig. 1C-D) (Hu et al., 2015). Strikingly, Ecm11 preferentially  
154 localized, like Zip4, at DSB hotspots, indicating that Ecm11 is present at the  
155 recombination intermediates. In addition, Ecm11 also preferentially associated to Red1  
156 binding sites, which define the basis of chromatin loops attached to the chromosome  
157 axis, where SC polymerizes, consistent with Ecm11 being a component of the SC (Fig.  
158 1C-D). Looking at the kinetics of Ecm11 association with chromatin by ChIP-qPCR  
159 revealed that Ecm11 binding to DSB and axis-attachment sites was maximum at 4 - 5  
160 h in meiosis, during recombination (Fig. 1E). Then, we sought to find the determinants  
161 for Ecm11 association to chromosomes, first by testing if Zip4 is involved. Indeed,



162 Ecm11 recruitment to chromatin was drastically reduced in a *zip4* $\Delta$  mutant on both  
163 DSB and axis sites (Fig. 1C-E). Previous studies have suggested that Zip1 may be  
164 important for Ecm11 loading (Voelkel-Meiman et al., 2015, 2016). Interestingly, the  
165 recruitment of Ecm11 to DSB hotspots was only partially reduced in absence of Zip1,  
166 while the association with the axis-binding sites was more strongly impaired (Fig. 1C-  
167 E, *zip1* $\Delta$ ). We asked if the reduced Ecm11 association to chromosomes in *zip1* $\Delta$  may  
168 be a consequence of reduced Zip4 binding to chromosomes. Indeed, Zip4 enrichment  
169 was strongly reduced in absence of Zip1, which is likely the reason for reduced Ecm11  
170 binding in *zip1* $\Delta$  (Supplemental Fig. S1). Zip1 therefore seems important for full Ecm11  
171 localization at the SC, likely because Ecm11-Gmc2 co-polymerize together with Zip1,  
172 but less so for its recruitment to recombination sites.

173 Finally, our quantitative Ecm11 ChIP-seq data also revealed relatively uniform Ecm11  
174 binding outside of recombination hotspots and axis sites, which was strongly  
175 diminished in the absence of Zip4 (Fig. 1C,D). This was confirmed by qPCR with the  
176 enrichment of Ecm11 at the *NFT1* site, a locus that shows neither DSB nor detectable  
177 axis protein signal (Fig. 1E) (Sun et al., 2015; Zhu and Keeney, 2015). Such random  
178 binding may reflect, in addition to preferential sites, a mobility of the loop-attachment  
179 sites to the chromosome axis, that may be mediated by constant loop extrusion by  
180 cohesin at the basis of these loops, as recently shown in mammalian cells (Fudenberg  
181 et al., 2016).

182 Altogether, we conclude that Ecm11 localizes at recombination sites and along the  
183 chromosome axis, in a Zip4-dependent manner.

#### 184 **Zip4-Ecm11 interaction is important for normal SC polymerization**

185 To further investigate the role of the Zip4-Ecm11 interaction in meiosis, we  
186 characterized the domains of Zip4 and Ecm11 mediating the interaction. Zip4

187 encompasses 21 TPR (Tetratricopeptide Repeat) motifs spanning the whole length of  
188 Zip4 and ends with a C-terminal alpha-helix (Perry et al., 2005) (Fig. 2A). We generated  
189 a reliable 3D model of Zip4, which revealed an extensive surface featuring four distinct  
190 conserved patches likely to be involved in protein interactions (Fig. 2B). We used this  
191 model to delineate fragments of Zip4, sufficiently long to enable proper folding and  
192 maintain interactions without disrupting the conserved patches (Fig. 2A). Yeast two-  
193 hybrid experiments showed that Ecm11 interacts with the last C-ter fragment that  
194 contains the most conserved patch of Zip4 (Fig. 2A and Supplemental Fig. S2A). A  
195 search for conserved and surface-exposed aminoacids potentially involved in protein-  
196 protein interactions in this region uncovered a highly conserved aromatic-asparagine  
197 motif (residues W918-N919 in *S. cerevisiae* Zip4) (Fig. 2C). This motif is often present  
198 in different binding scaffolds, such as in the Armadillo repeats of importin  $\alpha$  for  
199 interaction with NLS motifs (Fontes et al., 2000). Exposed and conserved asparagine  
200 residues in these domains are typically found to mediate specific interactions with the  
201 backbone amide groups of the binding partner. Therefore, we mutated this motif by  
202 substituting the asparagine 919 with a glutamine (Zip4N919Q), changing only the steric  
203 hindrance to have a minimal effect on the rest of the protein. Remarkably, Zip4N919Q  
204 completely lost its interaction with Ecm11, as assessed by yeast two-hybrid, while  
205 keeping its interaction with Zip4's other known partners Zip3 and Zip2 (Fig. 2A and  
206 Supplemental Fig. S2B). Co-IP experiments from meiotic cells also confirmed that the  
207 interaction between Zip4N919Q mutant and Ecm11 was strongly reduced *in vivo* (Fig.  
208 2D).

209 To delineate the Ecm11 regions interacting with either Zip4, we further analyzed the  
210 C-terminal conserved patch of Zip4 in the vicinity of asparagine 919 and identified a  
211 set of four exposed apolar residues distributed over the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> TPR repeats

212 (Supplemental Fig. S3A), suggesting that the Ecm11 binding region should contain a  
213 significant number of conserved hydrophobic residues to interact with this region. From  
214 the multiple sequence alignment of Ecm11 (Supplemental Fig. S3B), sequence  
215 analysis predicts the existence of a long disordered N-terminal tail extended by a 70-  
216 residue coiled-coil in the C-terminus. A short stretch spanning residues 68-76 in the  
217 disordered tail contains two conserved and hydrophobic positions and a propensity to  
218 adopt a helical conformation, making this region a good candidate for interacting with  
219 Zip4 in the vicinity of N919. For the interaction between Ecm11 and Gmc2, we  
220 exploited a coevolution-based analysis, which suggested that the C-terminal coiled-  
221 coil of Ecm11 could most likely form anti-parallel and parallel coiled-coils with Gmc2  
222 (Supplemental Fig. S7). We validated these predictions by Y2H experiments, where  
223 the domain 46-99 of Ecm11 was sufficient to interact with Zip4 while the coiled coil  
224 region 212-302 was critical for Gmc2 interaction but not for Zip4 binding (Fig. 2E and  
225 supplemental Fig. S3C). Within the 46-99 region of Ecm11, two well-conserved  
226 hydrophobic residues, leucines L69 and L73, are good candidates for Zip4 interaction  
227 (Supplemental Fig. S3B). Indeed, their mutation to aspartate (generating the  
228 Ecm11L69D-L73D mutant, hereafter called Ecm11LLDD) disrupted the Ecm11-Zip4  
229 interaction, while preserving the Ecm11-Gmc2 interaction in yeast two-hybrid (Fig. 2E).  
230 This effect was confirmed *in vivo* where the interaction of Ecm11LLDD with Zip4 was  
231 decreased (Fig. 2F). Altogether, these results indicate that Zip4 and Ecm11 interact  
232 directly, through a region on Ecm11 distinct from the Gmc2-binding region, which  
233 establishes a physical connection between CO formation and SC assembly processes.

234 **Disturbing Zip4-Ecm11 interaction strongly affects Ecm11 recruitment and SC**  
235 **assembly**

236 To address the function of the interaction between Zip4 and Ecm11 during meiotic  
237 prophase I, we first assessed spore viability and meiotic progression in the interaction  
238 mutants. The *zip4N919Q* and *ecm11LLD* mutants showed wild-type spore viability, like  
239 *ecm11Δ* but in sharp contrast with *zip4Δ* (Fig. 3A). In addition, they both showed a  
240 shorter delay in meiotic divisions (3 h and 1.5 h, respectively) than *zip4Δ* (more than 5  
241 h) (Supplemental Fig. S4A). Together, these data suggest that the Zip4-Ecm11  
242 interaction is not needed for Zip4 ZMM functions in CO formation. We noted that the  
243 *zip4N919Q* was slightly more delayed than *ecm11Δ* (1.5 h delay), which may be related  
244 to the lower levels of the Zip4<sup>N919Q</sup> protein detected during meiosis (Supplemental Fig.  
245 S4B). The Zip4 WN motif exhibits a degree of conservation from yeast to human much  
246 higher than that of Ecm11 whose homologs are only found in fungi (Fig. 2C and  
247 Supplemental Fig. S3B). Therefore, we cannot exclude that the WN motif has  
248 additional functions, besides interaction with Ecm11, such as interaction with a  
249 chaperone, that would ensure Zip4 stability. However, since it would involve the same  
250 residues as for Ecm11 interaction, this would occur at a different step, such as during  
251 Zip4 “ZMM” activities.

252 Since the Zip4-Ecm11 interaction itself is not important for Zip4 ZMM function, we next  
253 assessed if it is involved in Ecm11 recruitment to chromatin. Indeed, ChIP-qPCR  
254 analyses revealed that Ecm11 was no longer recruited to all tested loci in both  
255 *zip4N919Q* and *ecm11LLDD* mutants (Fig. 3B and Supplemental Fig. S4C). This loss  
256 was further confirmed by Ecm11 and Red1 co-immunostaining of chromosome  
257 spreads, where *zip4N919Q* and *ecm11LLDD* cells showed no staining or  
258 discontinuous Ecm11 pattern, by contrast to wild type where 75% of meiotic cells  
259 showed continuous Ecm11 pattern (Fig. 3C-3D and Supplemental Fig. S5).

260 We next assessed the consequences of these Ecm11 loading defects on SC assembly,  
261 by Zip1 immunostaining of meiotic chromosome spreads. In wild-type cells at 5 h  
262 (pachytene stage), Zip1 staining was linear throughout the length of the chromosomes  
263 (Fig. 3E, upper panel). In contrast to wild type, but similar to *zip4* $\Delta$  and *ecm11* $\Delta$ , both  
264 *zip4N919Q* and *ecm11LLDD* mutants exhibited a discontinuous Zip1 pattern and  
265 decrease of the Zip1 fluorescence signal intensity (Fig. 3E-3F). In the interaction  
266 mutants, Zip1 localization defects were accompanied by the formation of Zip1  
267 aggregates (polycomplexes), like in *ecm11* $\Delta$  (Fig. 3E, arrow -3G). Altogether, we  
268 showed that the Zip4-Ecm11 interaction is necessary for Ecm11 recruitment to  
269 chromosomes and normal SC assembly.

270 Previous studies have shown that Ecm11 is SUMOylated, depending on the Siz1 and  
271 Siz2 E3 ligases and that this is required for SC polymerization (Humphryes et al., 2013;  
272 Leung et al., 2015). However, we do not know if SUMOylation is linked to Ecm11  
273 recruitment to chromosomes. Using our interaction mutant *zip4N919Q*, we found that  
274 Ecm11 SUMOylation levels were unchanged (Fig. 3H), clearly indicating that Ecm11  
275 SUMOylation and its association to chromosomes concur independently to allow SC  
276 polymerization.

### 277 **Impaired Zip4-Ecm11 interaction increases homolog nondisjunction**

278 Since Ecm11 and Gmc2 proteins were reported to influence to some extent DSB  
279 frequencies and CO distribution (Humphryes et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2021; Mu et al.,  
280 2020; Voelkel-Meiman et al., 2016), we investigated the function of the Zip4-Ecm11  
281 interaction on recombination. We first measured CO frequency on two intervals on  
282 chromosome VIII (*CEN8-ARG4* and *ARG4-THR1*) by a fluorescent spore autonomous  
283 assay that also allows to measure homolog missegregation (MI nondisjunction) that  
284 can result from recombination defects (Thacker et al., 2011) (Fig. 4A). As expected for

285 a *zmm* mutant, CO frequency in *zip4Δ* was decreased to about 28-35% of the wild type  
286 in the two intervals (Fig. 4B, and Supplemental Table S1). By contrast, *ecm11Δ* strain  
287 showed wild type CO levels in the *ARG4-THR1* interval and a slight but significant CO  
288 reduction (95% of wild type) in the *CEN8-ARG4* interval, confirming the interval-  
289 dependent effect of *ecm11Δ*. Similarly, the *zip4N919Q* interaction mutant showed wild  
290 type CO levels in the *ARG4-THR1* interval while it was reduced in the *CEN8-ARG4*  
291 interval, at an intermediate level between wild type and *zip4Δ*.

292 We next assessed CO interference between the *CEN8-ARG4* and *ARG4-THR1*  
293 intervals (Fig. 4C). Interference was only slightly diminished in the *ecm11Δ* (0.51 vs  
294 0.34 in wild-type), confirming previous studies (Lee et al., 2021; Voelkel-Meiman et al.,  
295 2016). Similarly, interference in the *zip4N919Q* mutant was slightly reduced (0.62),  
296 whereas it was completely abolished in *zip4Δ* (1.6) as expected for a *zmm* mutant (Fig.  
297 4C). Therefore, the Zip4 mutant for interaction with Ecm11 behaves much more like a  
298 *ecm11Δ* mutant than a *zip4Δ* mutant, confirming the essential role of Ecm11  
299 recruitment by Zip4 for Ecm11's functions in SC assembly and recombination but not  
300 for the ZMM functions of Zip4.

301 Finally, using the spore fluorescent setup, we found that there was a low but significant  
302 increase of chromosome MI nondisjunction in both *ecm11Δ* (0.96 % ± 0.18 %) and  
303 *zip4N919Q* (1.95 % ± 0.33 %) compared to wildtype (0.32 % ± 0.09 %), which is much  
304 less than that seen in the *zip4Δ* mutant (16%) (Fig. 4D and Supplemental Table S1).  
305 This modest increase in nondisjunction may stem from the altered crossover  
306 frequency/distribution in the absence of Ecm11.

307 Overall, we conclude that impairing the interaction between Zip4 and Ecm11 mimics  
308 an *ecm11Δ* phenotype, confirming that Zip4 is responsible, in addition to its ZMM  
309 function, for all the functions of Ecm11 in SC assembly and recombination control.

310 **Artificially tethering interaction-deficient Ecm11 to Zip4 reinforces SC**  
311 **polymerization and accelerates meiotic progression.**

312 We next tested if artificially tethering the Ecm11LLDD mutant protein to Zip4 would be  
313 sufficient for SC polymerization and meiotic progression. For this, we fused  
314 Ecm11LLDD and Zip4 with FRB and FKPB12, respectively, to tether the two proteins  
315 upon rapamycin addition at 3.5 h in meiosis, just before the expected time of  
316 recombination (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, addition of rapamycin induced a faster meiotic  
317 progression, suggesting that facilitating Zip4-Ecm11 interaction may relax the  
318 checkpoint activated in the absence of the SC central element (Fig. 5B). We thus  
319 monitored SC polymerization by surface-spreading and Zip1 staining of meiotic cells  
320 and indeed, at all the time points tested, a strong increase of Zip1 fluorescence signal  
321 intensity was observed upon addition of rapamycin compared to the control condition  
322 (Fig. 5C-5D and Supplemental Fig. S6A-B). In addition, although many cells still  
323 contained Zip1 polycomplexes, their size was strongly decreased, consistent with  
324 better SC polymerization (Fig. 5C-5D and Supplemental Fig. S6C). We conclude that  
325 physically tethering Ecm11 to Zip4 is important for the incorporation of Zip1 within the  
326 SC and is able to partly compensate for the interaction defects of the Ecm11LLDD  
327 mutant. Therefore, our data suggest that rescuing Zip4-Ecm11 association facilitates  
328 polymerization of the transverse filament protein Zip1 and accelerates meiotic  
329 progression. Unexpectedly, tethering Zip4 to Ecm11 decreased spore viability and  
330 genetic distances, and increased homolog nondisjunction (Supplemental Fig. S6D-F).  
331 However, since meiotic progression was accelerated, tethering likely does not result in  
332 DSB repair defect, but most likely in decrease of DSB numbers, and therefore  
333 insufficient crossovers. We favor the hypothesis that unscheduled, early tethering of  
334 Zip4 to Ecm11 may trigger untimely, premature SC formation, and early inhibition of

335 DSB formation, given the recently discovered function of SC polymerization to shut  
336 down DSBs (Mu et al., 2020).

337 **The mouse Zip4 interacts with TEX12, a component of the SC central element,**  
338 **and Ecm11-Gmc2 show striking homology to TEX12-SYCE2.**

339 The whole ZZS complex (TEX11/Zip4-SHOC1/Zip2-SPO16) is present in mammals  
340 and is important for CO formation and fertility (Adelman and Petrini, 2008; Guiraldelli  
341 et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2001; Yang et al., 2008; Yatsenko et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2021;  
342 Zhang et al., 2018, 2019). Likewise, the SC overall structure is also conserved between  
343 budding yeast and mammals (Zickler and Kleckner, 2015). We therefore asked  
344 whether the interaction between Zip4 and the SC central element was conserved in  
345 mammals, by testing the interaction between mouse TEX11 and each of the five known  
346 proteins of the mouse SC central element: SYCE1, SYCE2, SYCE3, TEX12 and  
347 SIX6OS1 (Fraune et al., 2012; Gómez-H et al., 2016) (Fig. 6A). First, we recapitulated  
348 all the previously described interactions among the SC central element proteins by  
349 yeast two-hybrid, indicating that our constructs are functional for protein-protein  
350 interaction (Fig. 6A and Supplemental Table S2). The mouse TEX11 contains an  
351 aromatic-asparagine motif WN, as the yeast Zip4, in position 857-858 (Fig. 2C). In  
352 addition, a recent study in humans patients showed that the substitution of the Trp to  
353 Cys in this WN motif is associated with azoospermia (Sha et al., 2018). We thus  
354 generated a truncated TEX11 encompassing the C-terminal part of the protein  
355 (residues 637-947), named TEX11<sup>Cter</sup>, comprising the WN motif. Interestingly, we  
356 unveiled an interaction between TEX11<sup>Cter</sup> and TEX12 (Fig. 6B), reminiscent of the  
357 Zip4-Ecm11 interaction in yeast. This suggests that the interaction between the ZMM  
358 protein Zip4/TEX11 and the central element of the SC may be conserved, and that  
359 TEX12 may be a functional homolog of Ecm11. The three-dimensional structures of



360 human TEX12 and its close interacting partner, SYCE2, have been solved (PDB:  
361 6R17) (Figure 6C) (Davies et al., 2012; Dunce et al., 2021). TEX12 is predicted to be  
362 SUMOylated on lysine 8, located at the very N-terminal extremity of the protein (see  
363 Materials and Methods), similarly to Ecm11 SUMOylation at lysine 5 (Humphryes et  
364 al., 2013). The similarity between TEX12 and Ecm11 is further strengthened by the  
365 coevolution patterns that are observed between Gmc2 and Ecm11 on one side and  
366 those between SYCE2 and TEX12 on the other side (Supplemental Fig. S7). Strikingly,  
367 although no evolutionary relationships could clearly connect the yeast and mammalian  
368 systems, their members are both predicted to interact through an anti-parallel followed  
369 by a parallel coiled-coil (Supplemental Fig. S7). This coevolution pattern is fully  
370 consistent with the structure of the SYCE2-TEX12 hetero-tetramer (Dunce et al., 2021)  
371 (Fig. 6C). Based on this experimental validation that the coevolution patterns for  
372 SYCE2-TEX12 are highly meaningful, we used the contacts predicted for the Ecm11-  
373 Gmc2 complex to generate a model of how the two proteins could interact with each  
374 other forming a tetrameric bundle likely to further self-assemble through regions  
375 flanking the canonical coiled-coil region (Supplemental Fig. S7 and Fig. 6D).  
376 Interestingly, the C and N-terminal extremities of TEX12 and SYCE2 appeared as  
377 essential for the complex to make fibers, consistent with a function for SC propagation  
378 (Fig. 6E). Pushing forward the analogy with TEX12-SYCE2 bundle, similar fibers may  
379 be formed by the Ecm11-Gmc2 complex through the conserved hydrophobic stretches  
380 upstream of the coiled-coil regions (Supplemental Fig. S7) and such structure could  
381 emanate from the SIC to catalyze SC polymerization by Zip1 (Fig. 6E).

382

## 383 **Discussion**

384 Several studies point to a close relationship between crossover sites and sites of SC  
385 nucleation (Pyatnitskaya et al., 2019). However, the connection between these two  
386 important processes remained elusive. Here, we described a direct and functional  
387 interaction between the ZMM protein Zip4 and Ecm11, a component of the SC central  
388 element, providing the physical link between crossovers and SC polymerization.

389 **Zip4 is an interface protein that integrates signals from both crossover and**  
390 **synapsis promoting factors.**

391 Zip4 is a protein with repetitive TPR domains, motifs that are common in scaffold  
392 proteins and exhibit a wide range of molecular recognition modes (D'Andrea and  
393 Regan, 2003; Perez-Riba and Itzhaki, 2019). An interesting property of some TPR  
394 proteins is their ability to orchestrate different activities by integrating signals from  
395 multiple interacting partners. Several pieces of evidence point out to such a role for the  
396 Zip4 protein. Firstly, on the "ZMM side", Zip4 interacts directly with its ZMM partners  
397 Zip2 and Spo16 to form the ZZS complex. Within this complex, a domain of Zip2 forms  
398 with Spo16 an XPF-ERCC1-like module that recognizes DNA joint molecules (Arora  
399 and Corbett, 2019; De Muyt et al., 2018). The role of Zip4 in this complex is not well  
400 understood but Zip4 is important for Zip2 stability, and may act as a chaperone for Zip2  
401 and Spo16, reinforcing their DNA recognition activity (De Muyt et al., 2018). Secondly,  
402 the other ZMM proteins, SUMO/Ubiquitin ligase Zip3 and MutS $\gamma$  have also been  
403 reported to colocalize and interact with Zip4, suggesting that Zip4 integrates multiple  
404 ZMM activities to consolidate joint molecules intermediates and promote CO formation  
405 (De Muyt et al., 2018; Shinohara et al., 2008).

406 In addition to ZMMs, Zip4 interacts with components of the SC. In budding yeast, a  
407 connection between Zip4 and the synaptonemal complex was first identified via a direct  
408 interaction with Red1, the axial element of the SC (De Muyt et al., 2018). This seems

409 conserved in mammals since the Zip4 ortholog, TEX11, interacts with the SC axial  
410 element SYCP2 (Yang et al., 2008). We showed here that Zip4 also binds to the SC  
411 central element Ecm11 and Gmc2 proteins, suggesting that Zip4 is tightly connected  
412 to SC proteins through multiple interactions. Interestingly, the axial and central  
413 elements of the SC are separated from each other by 50 nm, suggesting that Zip4 is  
414 present in two different locations within the SC. Based on what is known about the  
415 temporal dynamics of recombination intermediates during the successive steps of  
416 recombination, we envision that Zip4, bound on recombination intermediates through  
417 the Zip2-Spo16 module, may first interact with the axial element (via Red1), at an early  
418 recombination step, and would then be translocated to the future central element  
419 location, between the axes, at a later step of recombination, to seed SC nucleation *via*  
420 its interaction with Ecm11. Such dynamics would result in bringing “miniature axes” (or  
421 bridges), containing Red1, from parental chromosomes into the inter-axis region, as  
422 proposed in *Sordaria* (Dubois et al., 2019).

423 Several lines of evidence suggest that the SC emerges from ZMM-bound sites. In  
424 budding yeast, *Sordaria* and mouse, SC initiation sites often colocalize with ZMM  
425 proteins (Agarwal and Roeder, 2000; Dubois et al., 2019; Reynolds et al., 2013;  
426 Tsubouchi et al., 2006) and decrease in number in mutants with reduced DSB  
427 numbers, while synapsis defects are increased (Henderson and Keeney, 2004; Kauppi  
428 et al., 2013; Tessé et al., 2003, 2017). This suggests that a minimum number of  
429 ZMM/SC nucleation sites are required for full homolog synapsis (Tsubouchi et al.,  
430 2006). Since the SC transverse filament protein Zip1 is also a ZMM protein, it was an  
431 obvious candidate for the initial recruitment of Ecm11. Moreover, an N-terminal  
432 deletion mutant *zip1N1* has a similar phenotype to *ecm11Δ* and Ecm11-Gmc2  
433 colocalize with Zip1 during synapsis initiation and completion (Humphryes et al., 2013;

434 Tung and Roeder, 1998; Voelkel-Meiman et al., 2016). However, we found no  
435 evidence of interaction between Zip1 and Ecm11 or Gmc2 in our Y2H experiments. In  
436 addition, Ecm11 foci are still visible in a *zip1Δ* mutant (Humphryes et al., 2013) and  
437 Ecm11 still associates to DSB hotspots in our ChIP experiments, implying that Zip1 is  
438 not required for the initial SC assembly from the ZMM nucleation sites. Instead, we  
439 provide a body of evidence that Zip4, through its direct interaction with Ecm11, plays  
440 a pivotal role promoting synapsis at these ZMM binding sites: (i) Ecm11 shows a  
441 pattern similar to that of ZMMs, binding both DSB and axis sites; (ii) Ecm11 localization  
442 at DSB sites strictly requires Zip4 protein, in agreement with the absence of Ecm11  
443 foci in *zip4Δ* mutant, but not in other tested *zmm* mutants (Humphryes et al., 2013); (iii)  
444 mutations altering the interaction between Zip4 and Ecm11, *zip4N919Q* and  
445 *ecm11LLDD*, result in defective SC assembly and in polycomplex formation, in a  
446 manner akin to *zip4Δ* and *ecm11Δ*; (iv) tethering Zip4 and a mutated interaction-  
447 defective Ecm11 is sufficient to restore SC assembly and faster meiotic progression.  
448 In budding yeast, Ecm11 acts in complex with Gmc2 during SC polymerization  
449 (Humphryes et al., 2013). Interestingly, the Ecm11LLDD mutated protein keeps its  
450 ability to form a heterodimer with Gmc2. Moreover, Gmc2 also interacts with Zip4 in  
451 yeast two-hybrid, suggesting that Zip4 may promote SC assembly by depositing a pre-  
452 formed Ecm11-Gmc2 complex. Finally, we can envision that Zip4 coordinates signals  
453 at the same time through simultaneous interactions between different TPR motifs  
454 present throughout its length and its proteins partners (including Zip2, Zip3, Msh5,  
455 Red1, Ecm11 and Gmc2). It will be of interest to identify the role of all the sites docking  
456 Zip4 to its described partners.

## 457 **Spatio-temporal coupling of crossovers and SC assembly**

458 Given the importance of Zip4 in the recognition of DNA joint molecules through the  
459 ZZS module and in SC assembly via Ecm11 (and Gmc2) interaction, and to integrate  
460 all present and past results, we propose the following model for Zip4 mechanism of  
461 action (Fig. 7): 1) After DSB formation, the ZZS complex associates with recombination  
462 intermediates via the XPF-ERCC1-like DNA recognition module (De Muyt et al., 2018),  
463 and with the axis component Red1. Other ZMMs, including Zip1, also bind  
464 recombination intermediates. 2) Then, still bound on recombination intermediates, the  
465 ZZS complex transits from the axis region towards the inter-axis region, leading to the  
466 formation of chromosomal bridges that progressively align the parental chromosomes  
467 (De Muyt et al., 2018; Dubois et al., 2019; Pyatnitskaya et al., 2019). In the meantime,  
468 Zip4 helps to bring Ecm11-Gmc2 at these sites by direct protein-protein interaction. 3)  
469 The Ecm11-Gmc2 complex helps initiate the polymerization of the surrounding Zip1. It  
470 is at this time that a “synapsis initiation complex” is created and the SC will start to  
471 emanate from this nucleation zone, through Zip1 polymerization. 4) Finally, as  
472 suggested recently, this SC polymerization exerts a negative feedback on *de novo*  
473 DSBs formation, and therefore locally affects crossover frequencies (Lee et al., 2021;  
474 Mu et al., 2020; Thacker et al., 2014; Voelkel-Meiman et al., 2016) (Fig. 7). This  
475 mechanism of regulation starting from crossover-designated sites would be an elegant  
476 way for the cell to fine-tune CO patterning by shutting down DSBs locally through the  
477 propagation of the SC along chromosomes.

## 478 **The relationship between crossovers and SC assembly in other species**

479 Like in budding yeast, in mice and plants, the absence of DSB or efficient interhomolog  
480 repair processes leads to synapsis defects suggesting that synapsis initiation depends  
481 on the total number of interhomolog interactions (Cahoon and Hawley, 2016; Mercier

482 et al., 2015; Pyatnitskaya et al., 2019). It is currently unknown whether a protein  
483 complex similar to the SIC is required for the initiation of SC polymerization at these  
484 sites of interhomolog engagement. However, since mouse *zmm* mutants show  
485 synapsis defects, ZMM proteins could participate in the initiation of SC formation,  
486 although the different extent of synapsis defects observed among *zmm* mutants  
487 suggests that the absence of some ZMM might be concealed by a second mechanism  
488 based on homology-independent SC extension, known as synapsis adjustment  
489 (Zickler and Kleckner, 1999). Finally, contrary to budding yeast, whereas ZMM proteins  
490 are still detected between homolog axes, the SC central element proteins SYCE1/2/3  
491 and TEX12 are no longer detected on chromosomes in *Sycp1*<sup>-/-</sup> (Hamer et al., 2006;  
492 Schramm et al., 2011). The central element proteins may have a different mode of  
493 recruitment and/or their abundance is too low to be detected by conventional  
494 microscopy, if they form only dots, as in budding yeast.

495 In plants, SC polymerization seems less dependent on the CO-mediated interhomolog  
496 engagement, since *zmm* mutants does not have apparent synapsis defects (Mercier  
497 et al., 2015), but this does not mean that SC polymerization does not initiate from ZMM-  
498 bound sites in wild type. In addition, kinetics of SC assembly and synergistic effects of  
499 ZMM mutations have not been thoroughly tested. Indeed, combination of both *zip4* and  
500 *mer3* mutations leads to severe synapsis defects in rice, suggesting that ZMM proteins  
501 might have redundant roles for SC loading in plants (Shen et al., 2012).

502 In contrast to budding yeast, plants and mammals, some species use a recombination-  
503 independent mode of initiating SC polymerization. In particular, in the worm *C. elegans*,  
504 it starts from telomeres and in the fly *Drosophila*, it starts from centromeres  
505 (Christophorou et al., 2013; Dernburg et al., 1998; MacQueen et al., 2005; McKim et  
506 al., 1998). Interestingly, these species lack many of the ZMM proteins including Zip4,

507 Zip2 and Spo16, maybe resulting from the absence of selective pressure for CO-  
508 designated interhomolog engagement for SC initiation.

### 509 **Concluding remarks**

510 Recent studies in yeast and plants showed the importance of close homolog  
511 juxtaposition by the SC to control recombination frequency and crossover distribution  
512 (Capilla-Pérez et al., 2021; France et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2021; Mu et al., 2020). We  
513 propose that this control is initiated by the direct interaction between Zip4 and Ecm11.  
514 It will be important to understand the interplay between this coupling mechanism and  
515 the mechanism of the initial deposition of Zip1, which requires Mek1 phosphorylation,  
516 to coordinate SC assembly (Chen et al., 2015). Finally, further investigations on the  
517 relationship between the ZMM-dependent CO formation and the SC dynamics in  
518 different model organisms will be needed to uncover both their conserved as well as  
519 distinct features and reveal how it could impact human fertility, given the involvement  
520 of TEX11 mutations in patients with azoospermia.

521

### 522 **STAR Methods**

#### 523 **Yeast manipulation.**

524 All yeast strains are derivatives of the *SK1* background except those used for two-  
525 hybrid experiments and for ChIP-seq spike-in control. Their complete genotype and  
526 their use in different figures are in Supplemental Table S3. All experiments were  
527 performed at 30 °C. For synchronous meiosis, cells were grown in SPS presporulation  
528 medium and transferred to 1% potassium acetate with vigorous shaking at 30 °C as  
529 described (Murakami et al., 2009). For all strains, spore viability was measured after  
530 sporulation on solid sporulation medium for two days at 30 °C.

531 **Yeast strains construction.**

532 Yeast strains were obtained by direct transformation or crossing to obtain the desired  
533 genotype. Site directed mutagenesis and C-terminal deletions were introduced by  
534 PCR. All transformants were confirmed using PCR discriminating between correct and  
535 incorrect integrations and sequencing for epitope tag insertion or mutagenesis. The  
536 functionality of the tagged proteins was measured by spore viability assays. All tagged  
537 proteins were functional.

538 **Sequence analyses and modelling of Zip4, Ecm11 and Gmc2 structures.**

539 Full-length homologous sequences of Zip4, Ecm11, Gmc2, TEX12 and SYCE2 were  
540 retrieved using PSI-BLAST iterations on the nr database, gathering 862, 916, 824, 165  
541 and 184 sequences, respectively. Multiple sequence alignments were generated for  
542 these sets of sequences using MAFFT (Katoh and Standley, 2013) and represented  
543 using Jalview (Waterhouse et al., 2009). Co-MSA for the Gmc2-Ecm11 and SYCE2-  
544 TEX12 were obtained by selecting a single sequence per species selecting the hit of  
545 lowest e-value and by concatenating the alignments resulting in a co-MSA of 451 and  
546 135 sequences, respectively. These alignments were used as input of the RaptorX  
547 contact prediction (Wang et al., 2017) to predict the contact maps within and between  
548 the pairs of proteins. A 3D model of Zip4 was generated using the latest version of the  
549 RoseTTAFold server combining coevolution and deep learning approaches for the  
550 prediction of 3D monomeric structures (Baek et al., 2021). Analyses of the  
551 SUMOylation sites were performed using the Jassa server (Beauclair et al., 2015) and  
552 those of the coiled-coils were performed using PCOILS as implemented in the MPI  
553 Bioinformatics Toolkit server (Lupas et al., 1991).



554 **Yeast two-hybrid analyses.**

555 Strains expressing *ZMMs* are described in (De Muyt et al., 2018). *ECM11* and *GMC2*  
556 were PCR-amplified from SK1 genomic DNA. Site-directed mutations were introduced  
557 by fusion of PCR products. Full-length mouse *Tex11*, *Tex12*, *Syce1*, *Syce2*, *Syce3*,  
558 *Six6os1* were PCR-amplified from mouse testis cDNA, a gift from D. Bourc'his. PCR  
559 products were cloned in plasmids derived from the 2 hybrid vectors pGADT7 or  
560 pGADCg (GAL4-activating domain) and pGBKT7 or pGBKCg (GAL4-binding domain),  
561 creating N- or C-terminal fusions and transformed in yeast haploid strains Y187 and  
562 AH109 (Clontech), respectively. Yeast two-hybrid assays were performed and  
563 interactions scored on selective media exactly as described in (Duroc et al., 2017).

564 **Analysis of crossover frequencies.**

565 Diploids were sporulated in liquid medium, and recombination between fluorescent  
566 markers on chromosome VIII was scored after 24 h sporulation, by microscopy  
567 analysis, as described previously (Thacker et al., 2011). Two independent sets of each  
568 strain were combined and at least 730 tetrads were scored for crossovers in two test  
569 intervals and for MI-nondisjunction events. Genetic distances in the *CEN8-ARG4* and  
570 *ARG4-THR1* intervals were calculated from the distribution of parental ditype (PD),  
571 nonparental ditype (NPD), and tetratype (T) tetrads and genetic distances (cM) were  
572 calculated using the Perkins equation:  $cM = (100 (6NPD + T)) / (2(PD + NPD + T))$ . SEs  
573 of genetic distances were calculated using Stahl Lab Online Tools  
574 <https://elizabethhousworth.com/StahlLabOnlineTools/>.

575 **Cytology.**

576 For cytology,  $1 \times 10^8$  cells were harvested at the indicated time-point and yeast  
577 chromosome spreads were prepared as described in (Grubb et al. 2015). Primary  
578 antibodies used were mouse monoclonal 9E11 anti-myc antibody (dilution 1:200),

579 rabbit polyclonal anti-Zip1 antibody (sc-33733, SantaCruz Biotech, dilution 1:100) and  
580 rabbit monoclonal anti-Red1 antibody (#16441, Gift from N. Hollingsworth, dilution  
581 1:200). The secondary antibodies were Alexa488-conjugated goat anti-rabbit (A-  
582 11008, Thermo Fischer Scientific; dilution 1:200), Alexa568-conjugated goat anti-  
583 mouse (A-11004, Thermo Fischer Scientific; dilution 1:200). Chromosomal DNA was  
584 stained by 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). Fluorescence images were visualized  
585 and acquired using the Deltavision IX70 system (Applied Precision), objective 100X  
586 and softWoRx imaging software. Images were processed by deconvolution using the  
587 constrained iterative deconvolution algorithm within softWoRx. Image analysis and  
588 signal quantification was performed using the Fiji software and R-scripts. Fluorescence  
589 intensity was measured as the sum of pixel density of Zip1 stretches.

#### 590 **TCA extraction and Western blot analysis.**

591 Protein extracts were prepared by trichloroacetic acid (TCA) precipitation method. 1.5  
592 mL of sporulating cell culture was harvested and pellet was immediately frozen in liquid  
593 nitrogen. Cells were resuspended in 100  $\mu$ L of ice-cold NaOH solution (1.85 N NaOH,  
594 7.5%  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol) and incubated for 10 min on ice. Samples were then mixed  
595 with 30  $\mu$ L of ice-cold TCA 50% and incubated for 10 min on ice. Cell suspension was  
596 then harvested for 5 min at 15000 g at 4°C and the pellet was resuspended in 100  $\mu$ L  
597 of loading buffer (55 mM Tris pH 6.8, 6.6 M Urea, 4.2% SDS, 0.083 mM EDTA, 0.001%  
598 bromophenol blue, 1.5%  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol). Protein samples were dipped in liquid  
599 nitrogen and then incubated at 65°C for 3 min. Samples were centrifuged 5 min at  
600 20000 g and the supernatant was kept at -80°C. Samples were loaded on precast  
601 acrylamide gel (4-12% Bis-Tris gel (Invitrogen)) and transferred on PVDF membrane  
602 in MOPS SDS Running Buffer (Life Technologies). Proteins were detected using  
603 mouse monoclonal M2 anti-Flag (F1804, Sigma, dilution 1:1000), mouse monoclonal

604 9E11 anti-myc (dilution 1:500) or rabbit monoclonal anti-TAP antibody (CAB1001,  
605 Invitrogen, dilution 1:2000). For normalization, mouse monoclonal anti-Pgk1 antibody  
606 was used (459250, Invitrogen, 1:3000). Image acquisition was performed with  
607 Chemidoc system (Biorad). To quantify protein levels, the band intensity in each lane  
608 was measured by the ImageLab software and divided by the corresponding Pgk1 band  
609 intensity in the same lane.

#### 610 **Co-immunoprecipitation.**

611  $1.2 \times 10^9$  cells were harvested and 1mM of PMSF was added. Cells were washed once  
612 with PBS, and lyzed in 3 ml lysis buffer (20 mM HEPES/KOH pH7.5; 150 mM NaCl;  
613 0.5% Triton X-100; 10% Glycerol; 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>; 2 mM EDTA; 1 mM PMSF; 1X  
614 Complete Mini EDTA-Free (Roche); 1X PhosSTOP (Roche) with 0.5 mm  
615 zirconium/silica beads (Biospec Products, Bartlesville, OK) three times for 30s in a  
616 Fastprep instrument (MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA). The lysate was incubated 1 h  
617 at 4°C with 125 U/mL of benzonase. 100 µL of PanMouse IgG magnetic beads  
618 (Thermo Scientific) were washed 1:1 with lysis buffer, preincubated in 100 µg/mL BSA  
619 in lysis buffer for 2 h at 4°C and then washed twice with 1:1 lysis buffer. The lysate was  
620 cleared by centrifugation at 13,000 g for 5 min and incubated overnight at 4°C with  
621 washed PanMouse IgG magnetic beads. The magnetic beads were washed four times  
622 with 1 mL of wash buffer (20 mM HEPES/KOH pH7.5; 150 mM NaCl; 0.5% Triton X-  
623 100; 5% Glycerol; 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>; 2 mM EDTA; 1 mM PMSF; 1X Complete Mini EDTA-  
624 Free (Roche); 1X Phos-STOP (Roche)). The beads were resuspended in 30 µL of  
625 TEV-C buffer (20 mM Tris/HCl pH 8; 0.5 mM EDTA; 150 mM NaCl; 0.1% NP-40; 5%  
626 glycerol; 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>; 1 mM DTT) with 4 µL TEV protease (1 mg/mL) and incubated  
627 for 2 h at 23°C under agitation. The eluate was transferred to a new tube. After  
628 washing, beads were resuspended in 25 µl of 2x SDS protein sample buffer. Beads

629 eluate was heated at 95°C for 3 min and loaded on acrylamide gel (4-12% Bis-Tris gel  
630 (Invitrogen)) and run in MOPS SDS Running Buffer (Life Technologies). Proteins were  
631 then transferred to PVDF membrane using Trans-Blot® Turbo™ Transfer System  
632 (Biorad) at 2.5 A constant, up to 25 V for 10 min. Proteins were detected using mouse  
633 monoclonal M2 anti-Flag (F1804, Sigma, dilution 1:1000) or rabbit monoclonal anti-  
634 TAP antibody (CAB1001, Invitrogen, dilution 1:2000). Signal was detected using the  
635 SuperSignal West Pico or Femto Chemiluminescent Substrate (ThermoFisher).  
636 Images were acquired using Chemidoc system (Biorad). Signal was analyzed with  
637 ImageLab software. Results were presented as % INPUT band after subtracting the  
638 untagged strain signal and normalizing by TAP-tagged protein level.

#### 639 **Chromatin immunoprecipitation.**

640 For each meiotic time point,  $2 \times 10^8$  cells were processed as described in (Duroc et al.,  
641 2017) except that before use, magnetic beads were blocked with 5  $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{L}$  BSA for 4 h  
642 at 4°C. Quantitative PCR was performed from the immunoprecipitated DNA or the  
643 whole-cell extract using a QuantStudio 5 (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Scientific) and  
644 analysed as described (Duroc et al., 2017). Results were expressed as % of DNA in  
645 the total input present in the immunoprecipitated sample. Primers for *GAT1*, *BUD23*,  
646 *HIS4LEU2*, *ERG1*, *AXIS* and *NFT1* loci have been described (Sanchez et al., 2020).  
647 For ChIP-seq experiments,  $1 \times 10^9$  cells were processed as described (De Muyt et al.,  
648 2018; Sanchez and Borde, 2021; Sanchez et al., 2020) except that, for spike-in  
649 normalization,  $1 \times 10^8$  (10%) *S. mikatae* cells of a single meiotic culture, harvested at 4  
650 h in meiosis and fixed using the same procedure as for *S. cerevisiae*, were added to  
651 each sample before processing.

## 652 **Illumina sequencing of ChIP DNA and read normalisation.**

653 Purified DNA was sequenced using an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 instrument following  
654 the Illumina TruSeq procedure, generating paired-end 100 base-pair (bp) reads for  
655 Ecm11 in wild-type, *zip1Δ*, *zip4Δ* and untagged anti-Flag ChIP. Each experiment was  
656 performed in two independent replicates. Reads were aligned to the SaccCer2 *S.*  
657 *cerevisiae* S288C genome exactly as described (Sanchez et al., 2020), and to the *S.*  
658 *mikatae* genome assembly (Scannell et al., 2011). Reads that aligned on the *S.*  
659 *cerevisiae* genome but not on *S. mikatae* were defined as the experimental reads. For  
660 defining the spike-in normalization factor, we then determined the number of reads that  
661 did not align on the *S.cerevisiae* genome but aligned to the *S. mikatae* genome  
662 assembly (Scannell et al., 2011), generating the spike-in reads. The aligned  
663 experimental reads from independent replicates were then combined using  
664 MergeSamFiles to generate a single Bam file. Next, each Bam file was converted to  
665 bigwig format using deepTools bamCoverage, with a binsize of 1, a smoothing window  
666 of 200 bp and a normalization factor “2”, obtained as follows: for each sample, the  
667 number of experimental reads was first divided by the number of spike-in reads, giving  
668 scaling factor “1”. Then, the factor 1 of each sample was divided by the mean untagged  
669 sample coverage (290), giving scaling factor 2. Finally, for each bigwig file obtained,  
670 the scaled untagged sample was subtracted from the scaled tagged sample. These  
671 values were used for Fig. 1C,D. Sequencing data were deposited at the NCBI Gene  
672 Expression Omnibus database with the accession numbers GSE177033. Peaks for  
673 Red1 ChIP-seq and Spo11 oligonucleotides were from (Sun et al., 2015; Zhu and  
674 Keeney, 2015), respectively.

675

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684

### 685 **Author contributions**

686 A.D.M. and V.B. supervised the study. A.P. and A.D.M. performed the experiments.  
687 J.A. and R.G. designed all the protein-protein interaction mutants and performed the  
688 structure predictions. A.P., A.D.M. and V.B. wrote the paper, with input from all the  
689 authors.

690

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964 **Figure legends**

965 **Figure 1: Ecm11 localization on DSBs and axis-attachment sites is dependent**  
966 **on Zip4.**

967 A. Yeast two-hybrid interaction analysis between SC components Ecm11 and Gmc2  
968 and the ZMM proteins. Prey and baits are fused with the GAL4 Activation Domain  
969 (GAL4-AD) and with the GAL4 DNA-Binding Domain (GAL4-BD), respectively.  
970 Interaction results in growth on the selective –His/Ade medium.

971 B. Co-immunoprecipitation between Zip4-Flag and Ecm11-TAP from meiotic cells at 5  
972 h in meiosis, analyzed by western blot. The asterisk indicates a non-specific cross-  
973 reacting band and possible products of Zip4-Flag degradation.

974 C. ChIP-seq DNA-binding of Ecm11-Flag in *WT*, *zip4* $\Delta$  and *zip1* $\Delta$  strains. Normalized  
975 data are smoothed with a 200-bp window. Zip4-binding profile is also shown (De Muyt  
976 et al., 2018). DSB sites are mapped by Spo11 oligos (Zhu and Keeney, 2015) and  
977 axis-attachment sites by Red1 binding profile (Sun et al., 2015).

978 D. Average Ecm11 ChIP-seq signal of data shown in A. at the indicated features.  
979 Alignments were performed on the Spo11 hotspots midpoints from (Zhu and Keeney,  
980 2015) and Red1 peaks summits from (Sun et al., 2015).

981 E. ChIP monitoring of Ecm11-Flag association with different chromosomal regions,  
982 measured by qPCR using primers that cover the indicated regions. Same strains as in  
983 C. are used. Values are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of the indicated number of independent  
984 experiments.

985 **Figure 2: Zip4 specifically interacts with Ecm11.**

986 **A.** Delineation of the Ecm11-interacting domain in Zip4 by two-hybrid assays. Indicated  
987 fragments of Zip4 were fused to GAL4-AD and tested in combination with a GAL4-BD-

988 Ecm11 or -Zip3 fusion. The blue frame indicates the absence of interaction between  
989 Zip4N919Q and Ecm11.

990 B. 3D model of Zip4 TPR revealing 4 conserved surface patches. The degree of  
991 conservation is shown.

992 C. Alignment of Zip4 C-terminal TPR domain.

993 D. Co-immunoprecipitation between Zip4-Flag, Zip4N919Q-Flag and Ecm11-TAP from  
994 meiotic cells at 5 h in meiosis, analysed by western blot. Levels of Zip4-Flag and  
995 Zip4N919Q-Flag were quantified relative to the input and normalized by Ecm11-TAP  
996 levels. Values are the mean  $\pm$  SD of two independent experiments.

997 E. Same assay as in A. Ecm11 domains were fused to GAL4-AD and tested in  
998 combination with GAL4-BD-Zip4 or GAL4-BD-Zip4-689-971. The pink frame indicates  
999 the loss of interaction between Ecm11LLDD and Zip4.

1000 F. Co-immunoprecipitation of Zip4-Flag with Ecm11-TAP or with Ecm11LLDD-TAP  
1001 from meiotic cells at 4 h in meiosis, analysed by western blot. Levels of Zip4-Flag  
1002 coimmunoprecipitated with Ecm11-TAP or with Ecm11LLDD-TAP were quantified  
1003 relative to the input and normalized by Ecm11-TAP or Ecm11LLDD-TAP levels. Values  
1004 are the mean  $\pm$  SD of two independent experiments.

1005 **Figure 3: Synaptonemal complex assembly depends on the interaction of Ecm11**  
1006 **with Zip4.**

1007 A. Spore viability assays of strains with the indicated genotype. Numbers of dissected  
1008 tetrads are indicated. \*\*\*\* $p < 0.0001$ , Fisher's exact test.

1009 B. Maximum levels of Ecm11-Flag or Ecm11LLDD-Flag in the indicated strains  
1010 measured by quantitative PCR (qPCR) using primers that cover the indicated regions  
1011 are shown. Values are the mean  $\pm$  SEM from at least three independent experiments.

1012 The full corresponding time courses are in Fig. 1D and Supplemental Fig. S4.

1013 C. Ecm11-Myc localization on surface-spread chromosomes in the indicated strains.  
1014 Red: anti-Myc (red); green: anti-Red1, blue: DAPI. Red1-positive spreads were divided  
1015 in four categories: 1) exhibiting stretches and lines of Ecm11 – synapsis almost  
1016 complete or complete, 2) exhibiting foci and stretches of Ecm11 – partial synapsis, 3)  
1017 exhibiting only Ecm11 foci – dotted pattern, 4) exhibiting no Ecm11. Representative  
1018 pictures are shown for the indicated strain. The pictures for the other strains are in  
1019 Supplemental Fig. S5.

1020 D. Quantification of the classes shown in C. The number of counted spreads is  
1021 indicated.

1022 E. Zip1 localization on surface-spread chromosomes in the indicated strains. Only  
1023 pachytene or pachytene-like stages were considered. Green: anti-Zip1; blue: DAPI  
1024 (DNA). White arrow: Zip1 polycomplex.

1025 F. Quantification of Zip1 intensity observed in E. Numbers of spreads are indicated for  
1026 each genotype. \*\*\*\*:  $p$ -value $<0.0001$ , Wilcoxon test.

1027 G. Quantification of DAPI-positive spreads showing a polycomplex. At least 200  
1028 spreads were considered for each condition. Values are % cells  $\pm$  SD of the proportion.

1029 H. Ecm11 SUMOylation in the indicated strains analyzed by western blot.  
1030 Quantification is from two independent experiments, with the mean ratio  $\pm$  SD of  
1031 SUMOylated- versus total Ecm11 protein indicated.

1032 **Figure 4: Effect of the different mutations on meiotic recombination and**  
1033 **chromosome segregation.**

1034 A. Illustration showing the location of the spore-autonomous reporters on chromosome  
1035 VIII and the types of tetrads analyzed (Thacker et al., 2011).



1036 B. Crossing-over frequency measured in two genetic intervals *CEN8-ARG4* and  
1037 *ARG4-THR1* on chromosome VIII. Genetic distances are plotted as cM  $\pm$  SE for the  
1038 indicated genotypes. \*\*\*\*: p-value<0.0001, G-test.

1039 C. Interference between the two adjacent *CEN8-ARG4* and *ARG4-THR1* intervals  
1040 calculated based on (Malkova et al., 2004) for the indicated genotypes. Solid line  
1041 indicates that significant interference was observed. Dotted line indicates absence of  
1042 significant interference.

1043 D. MI nondisjunction of chromosome VIII assessed by the spore-autonomous  
1044 fluorescent reporter assay (see A). % MI nondisjunction  $\pm$  95 % CI is plotted. \*\*: p-  
1045 value<0.01, \*\*\*\*: p-value<0.0001, Fisher's exact test.

1046 **Figure 5: Forcing the interaction between Ecm11 and Zip4 is sufficient to restore**  
1047 **both Ecm11 recruitment to chromosomes and synaptonemal complex assembly.**

1048 A. Strategy to tether Ecm11LLDD fused to FRB domain to Zip4 fused to Fkpb12  
1049 domain by addition of rapamycin.

1050 B: Meiotic progression as assessed by DAPI staining of nuclei to monitor meiotic  
1051 divisions.

1052 C. Zip1 localization on surface-spread chromosomes with (“+ rapamycin”) and without  
1053 (“- rapamycin”) 1  $\mu$ M rapamycin added at 3.5 h after meiotic induction. Pachytene stage  
1054 nuclei are shown. Green: anti-Zip1; blue: DAPI.

1055 D. Left: quantification of Zip1 intensity observed in C. Right: quantification of  
1056 polycomplexes area observed in C. Numbers of spreads are indicated for each  
1057 condition. \*\*\*\*: p-value<0.0001, Wilcoxon test.

1058 **Figure 6: Mouse Zip4 (TEX11) interaction with the SC central element and**  
1059 **analogies between yeast Ecm11-Gmc2 and mouse SYCE2-TEX12.**

1060 A. Illustration showing the SC central element components in mouse and the two-  
1061 hybrid interactions between them (see text).

1062 B. Yeast two-hybrid interaction analysis between mouse TEX11 and TEX12.

1063 C. Cartoon representation of the crystal structure of the SYCE2-TEX12 coiled-coils  
1064 (PDB:6R17)(Dunce et al., 2021). SYCE2 is in blue and green and TEX12 in dark and  
1065 light pink. The positions of the anti-parallel and parallel coiled-coil stretches are  
1066 indicated by dashed arrows on top.

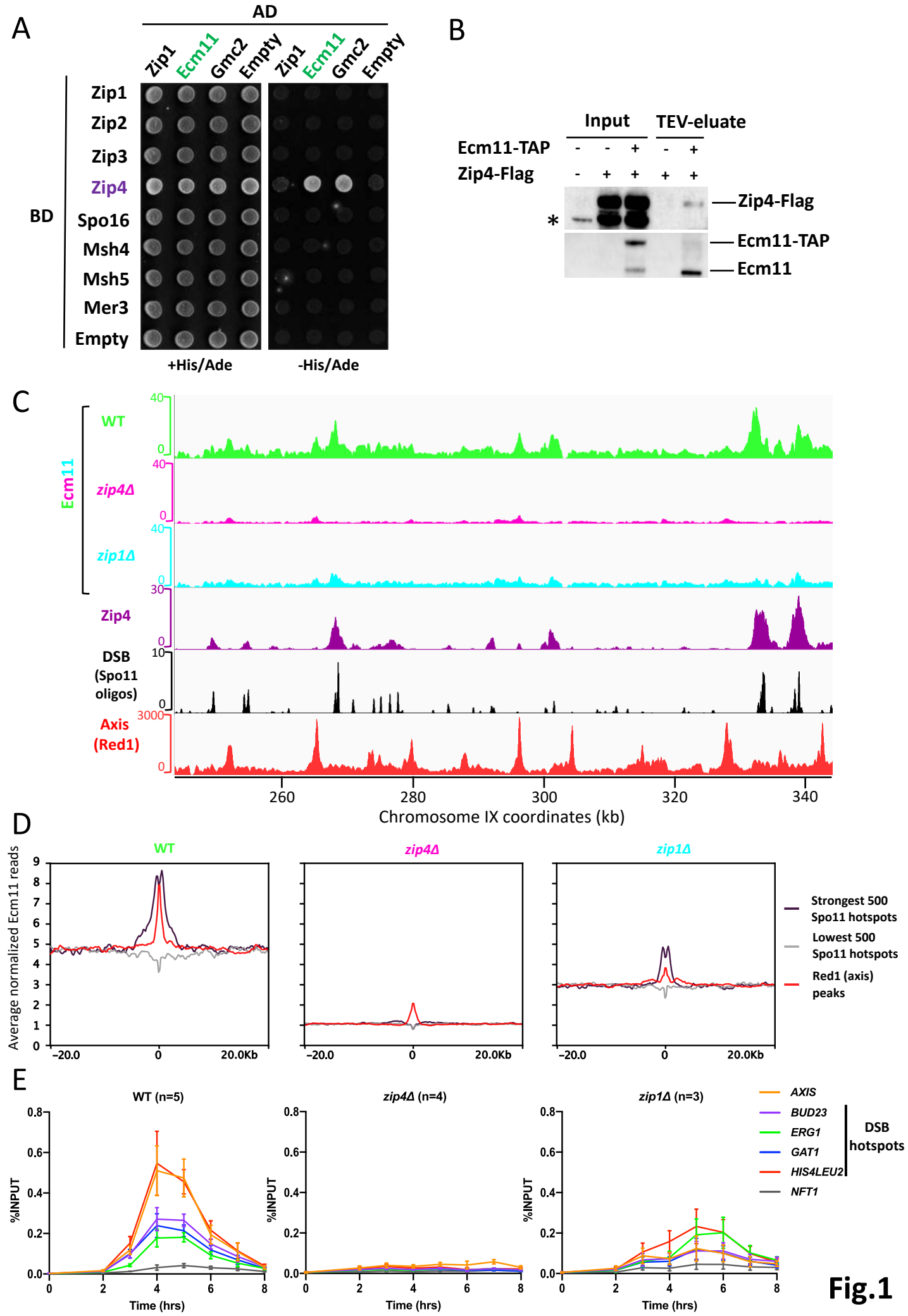
1067 D. 3D model of Ecm11-Gmc2. A model was built using Rosetta to fold the four subunits  
1068 together under the co-evolution constraints. Gmc2 subunits are shown as blue and  
1069 green cartoons while Ecm11 is shown as red and salmon cartoons. The locations of  
1070 the parallel and anti-parallel stretches are indicated by dashed arrows on top (see also  
1071 Supplemental Fig. S7).

1072 E. Similar model as in 6D integrating the Nter regions of Ecm11 and Gmc2, highlighting  
1073 the SUMOylation (pink circle) and Zip4 (dark purple circle) interaction sites of Ecm11.

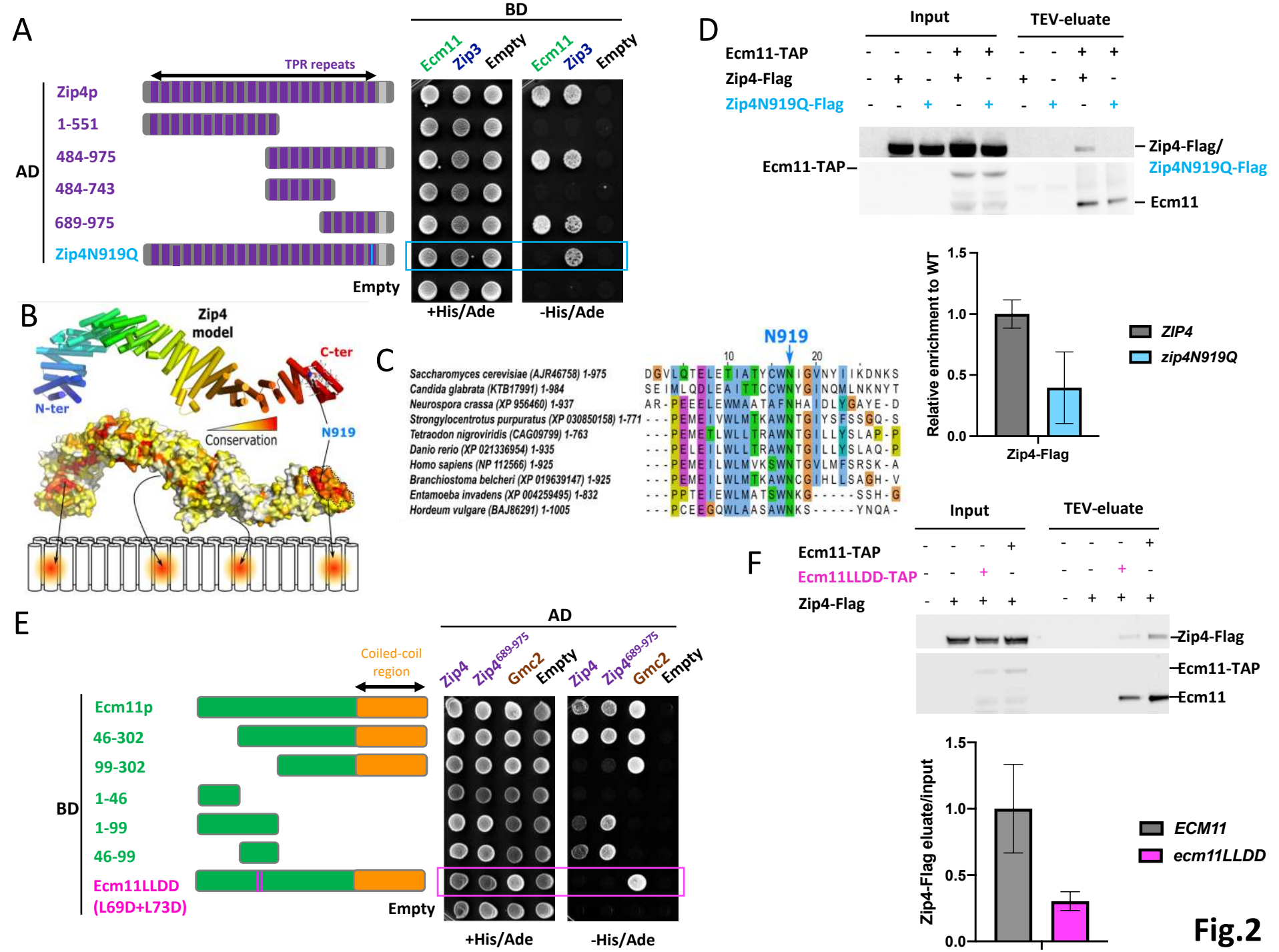
1074 **Figure 7: Model for the link between crossover sites and SC assembly.**

1075 The model is based on our study of Zip4-Ecm11 interaction and published studies (see  
1076 text). First, axial element polymerizes and SICs are formed after the transition of ZMMs  
1077 (including Zip4, in dark purple) to the inter-axis region. The Ecm11 (green)-Gmc2  
1078 (brown) heterodimer is brought to the SIC through its interaction with Zip4, which  
1079 initiates the polymerization of the TF Zip1 (purple). Polymerization of the central region  
1080 composed of the TF Zip1 and the central element Ecm11-Gmc2 progresses, closely  
1081 aligning the homologs at a 100 nm distance. PolySUMOylation of Ecm11 (indicated by  
1082 pink circle) triggered by the TF assembly exerts a positive feedback on the central  
1083 region polymerization (Leung et al., 2015). SC central region assembly inhibits the

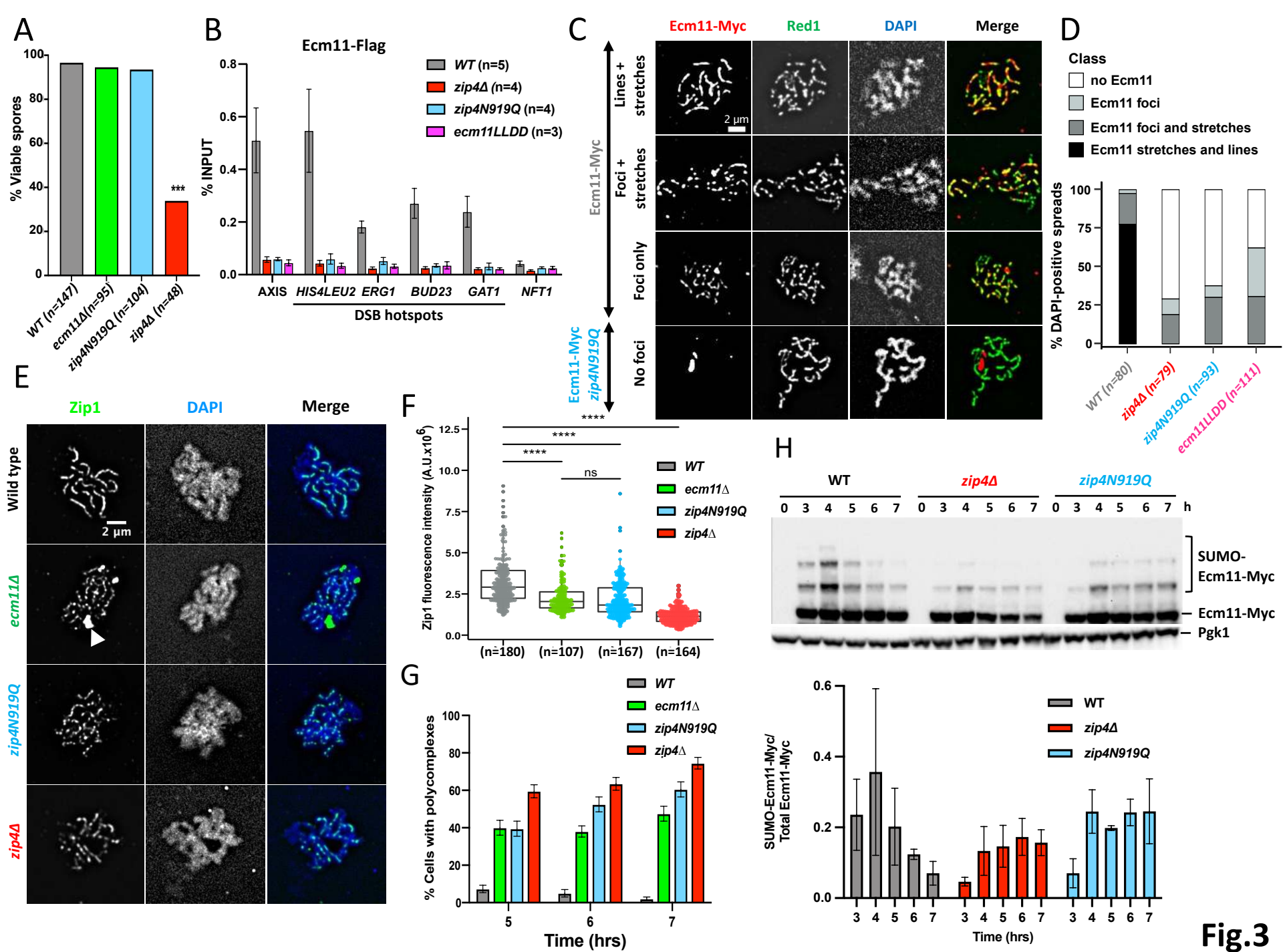
1084 formation of de-novo DSBs, thus avoiding additional break and repair in already  
1085 synapsed regions.



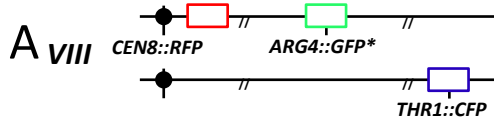
**Fig.1**



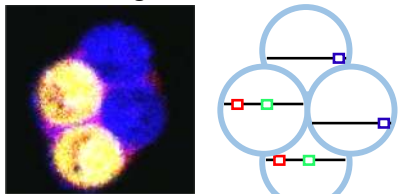
**Fig.2**



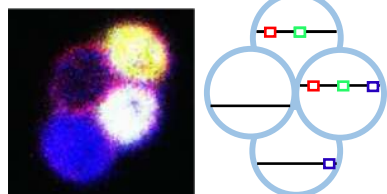
**Fig.3**



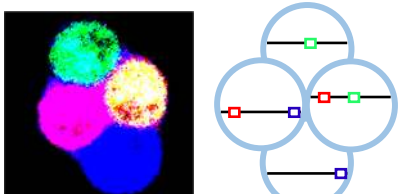
Parental configuration



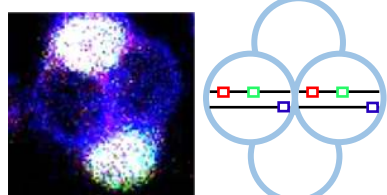
Crossover ARG4-THR1



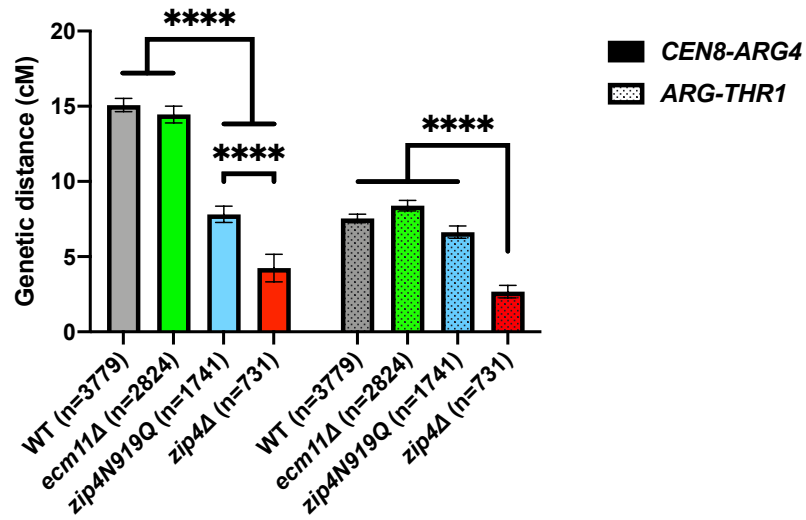
Crossover CEN8-ARG4



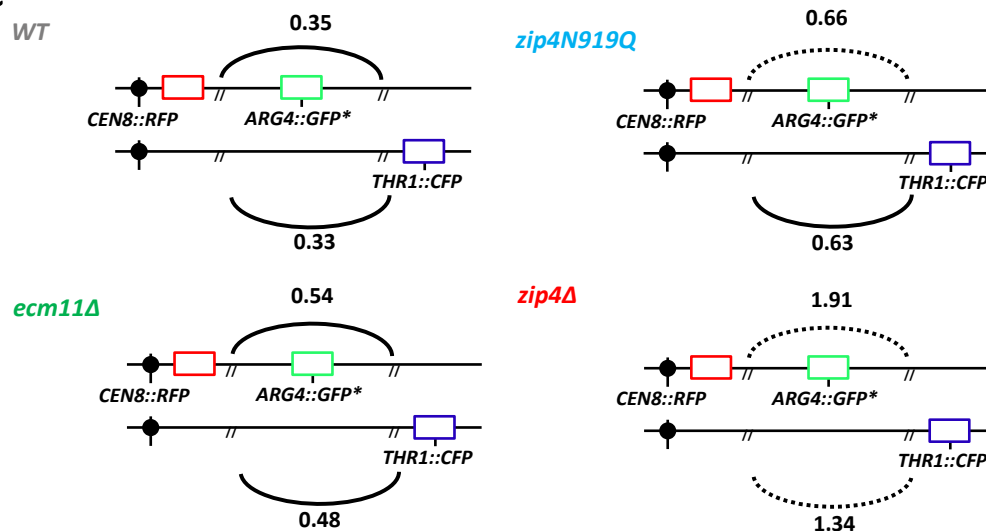
MI nondisjunction



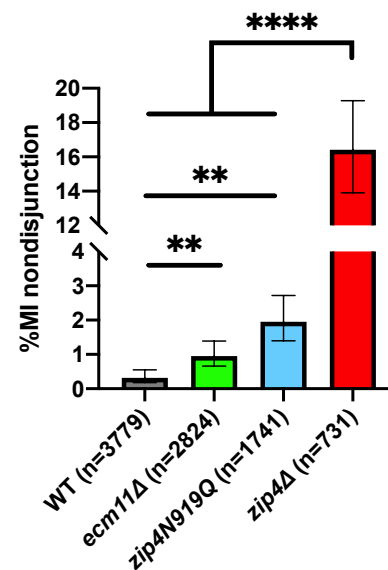
**B** Crossing-over frequency on chromosome VIII



**C**

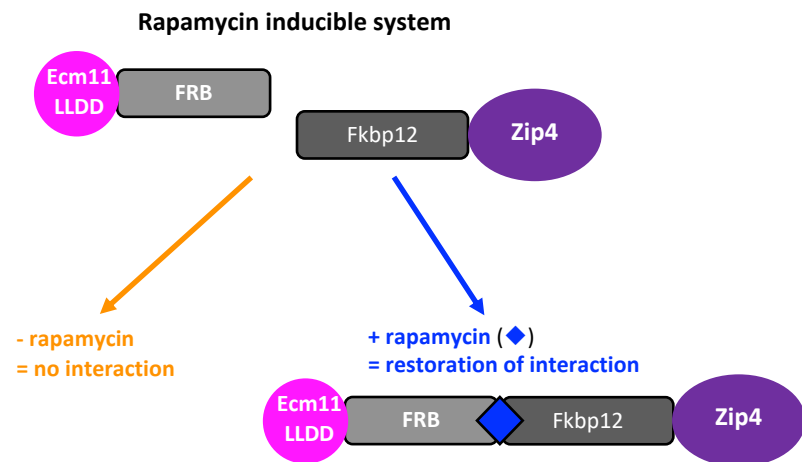


**D** % MI nondisjunction

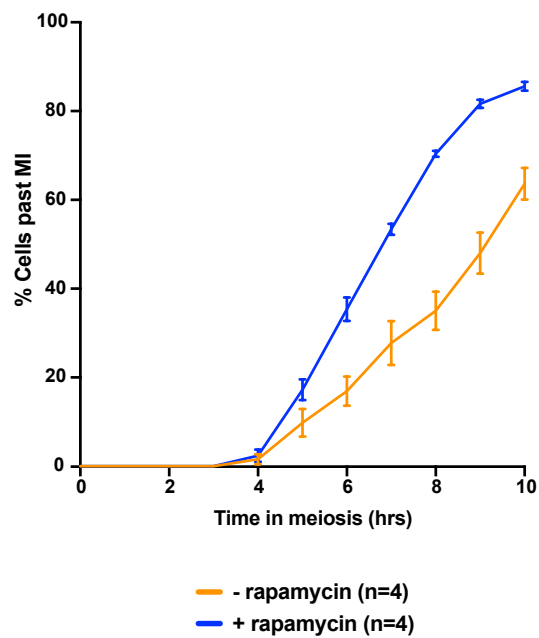


**Fig.4**

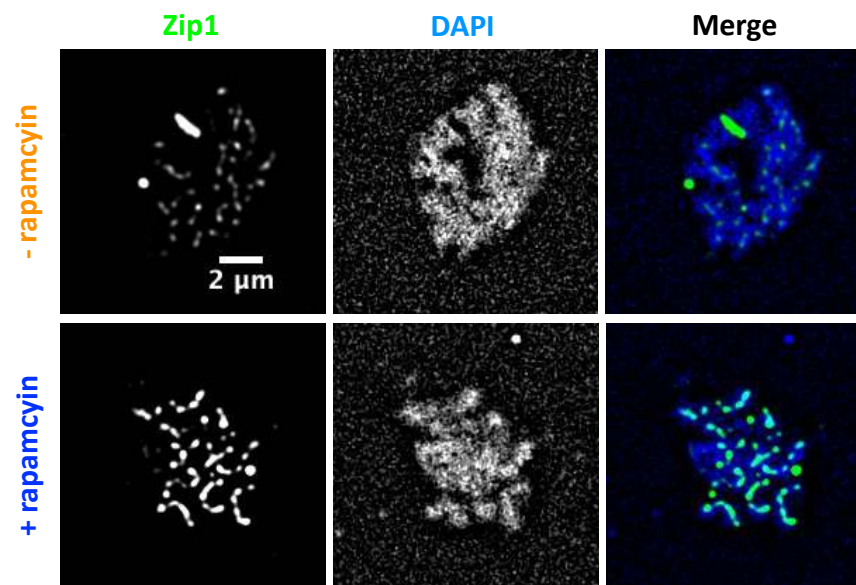
A



B



C



D

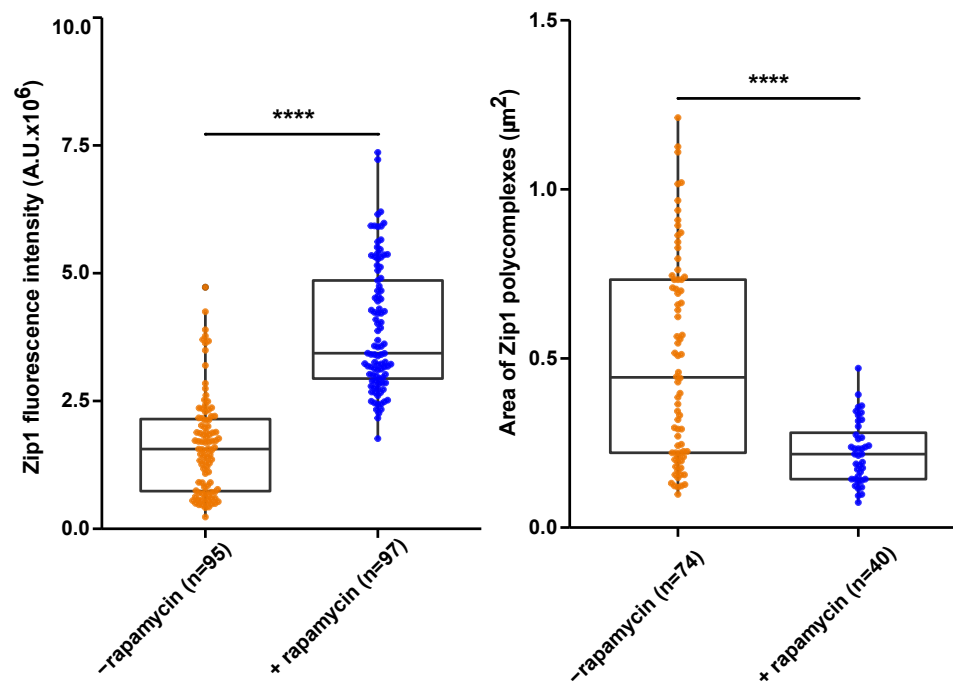
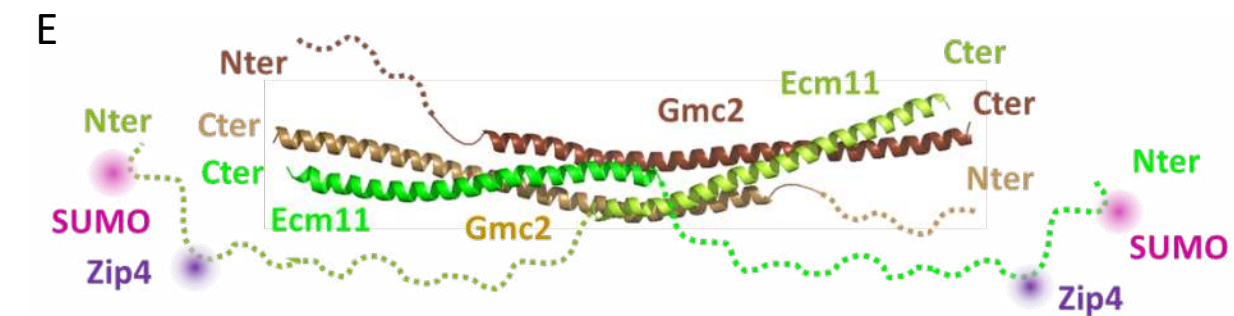
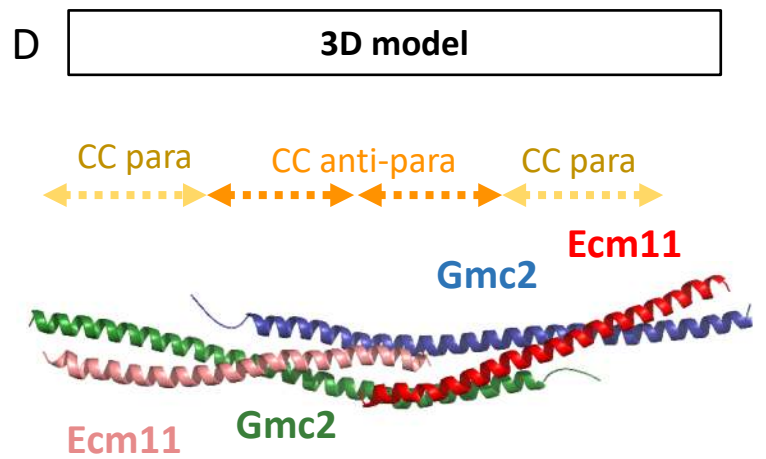
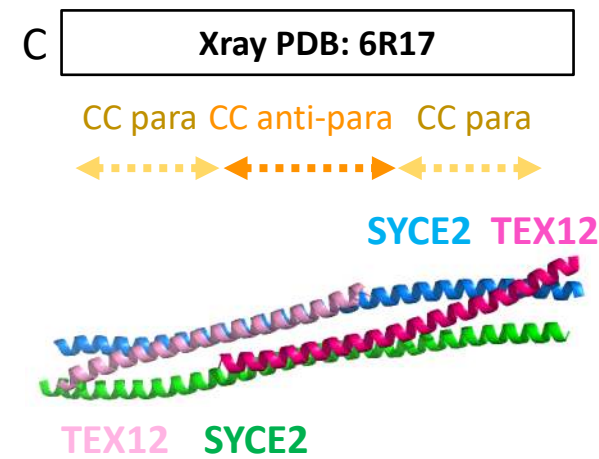
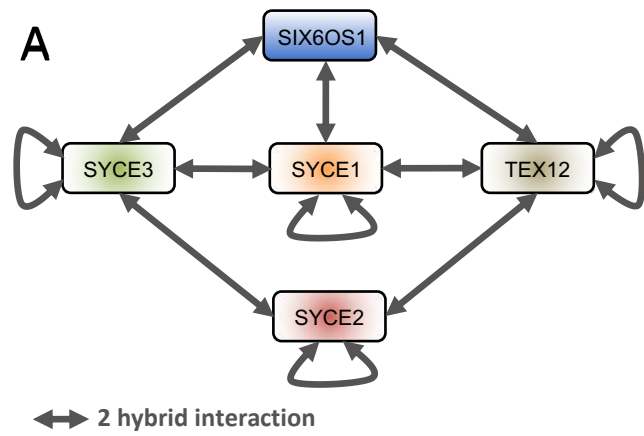
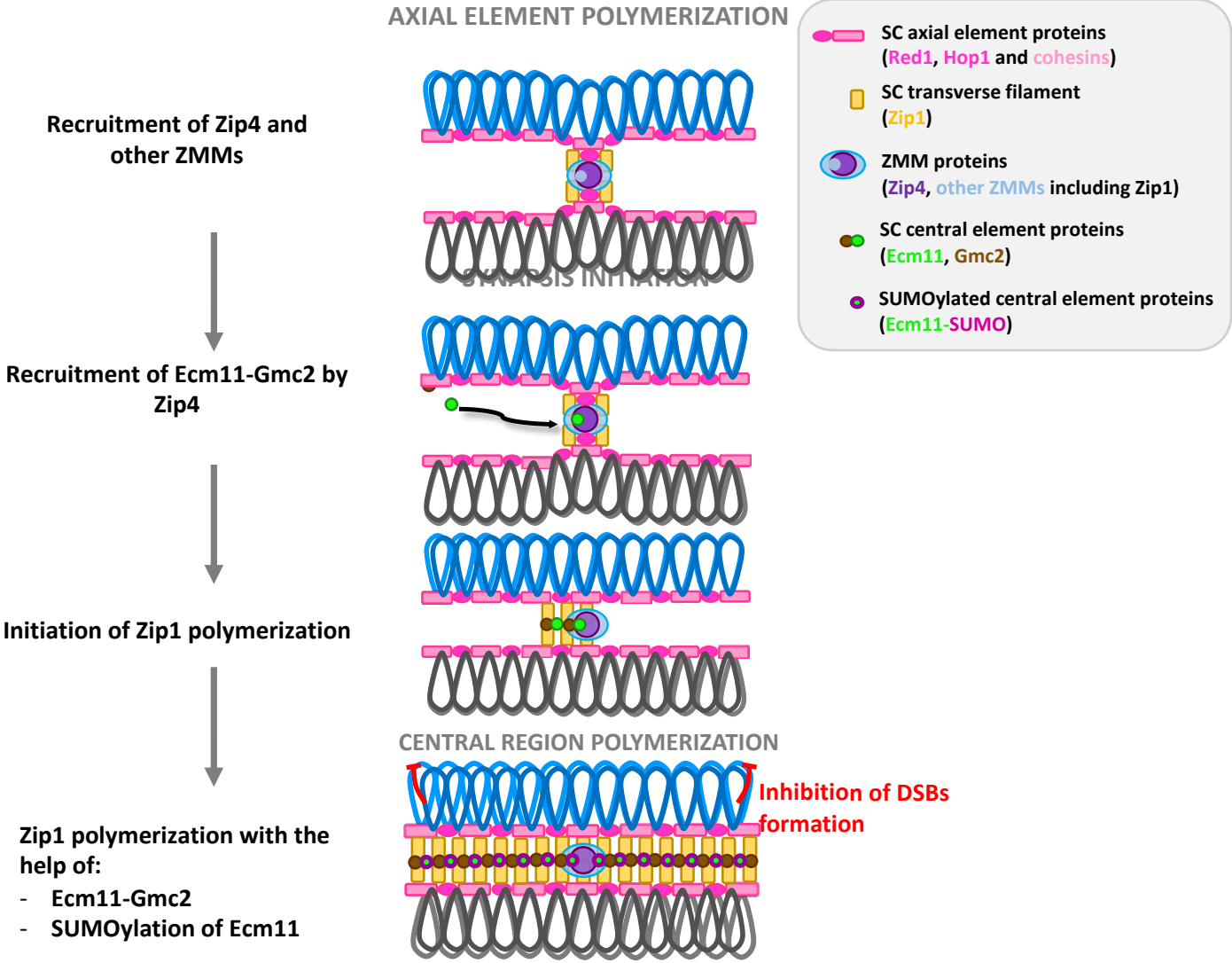


Fig.5





**Fig.6**



**Fig.7**

## Supplemental Tables

**Table S1: Fluorescent spore assay data (Xcel spreadsheet).**

**Table S2: Yeast two-hybrid interactions between mammalian SC central element proteins and TEX11 (Xcel spreadsheet).**

**Table S3: Yeast strains used.**

## Supplemental figures legends

### **Figure S1: Zip4 binding to chromosomes is reduced in absence of Zip1 protein**

ChIP monitoring of Zip4-Flag association with different chromosomal regions, measured by qPCR using primers that cover the indicated regions. Values are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of at least three independent experiments. The graph on the right represents a magnification of the central graph.

### **Figure S2: Zip4 interacts with Ecm11 through an aromatic-asparagine motif**

A. Yeast two-hybrid interaction analysis between truncated Zip4 and Ecm11. Preys and baits are fused with the GAL4 Activation Domain (GAL4-AD) and with the GAL4 DNA-Binding Domain (GAL4-BD), respectively. The green frame indicates the interaction between Zip4-875-975 and Ecm11.

B. Yeast two-hybrid interaction analysis between Zip4 and Ecm11/Zip2. The blue frame indicates the absence of interaction between Zip4N919Q and Ecm11.

A-B: The interaction is revealed by growth on the selective –His/Ade medium.

### **Figure S3: Delineation of the Ecm11 region interacting with Zip4**

A. Illustration of the predicted structure of Zip4 WN motif interacting with Ecm11.

B. Multiple sequence alignment gathering homologs of Ecm11 in budding yeasts of the *Saccharomycetaceae* family (22 sequences with their NCBI identifiers and delimitation index indicated). The conserved SUMOylation site containing the modified Lysine 5 is highlighted in the cyan box. The N-terminal region interacting with Zip4 and predicted to adopt a small helical conformation is boxed in magenta with the conserved positions of L69 and L73 highlighted. The C-terminal region predicted to form a coiled-coil over 63 residues is indicated by the orange box. Blue vertical lines indicate the positions of long insertions present in only a few homologs of *S. cerevisiae* Ecm11 which were masked for the sake of compact representation.

C. Yeast two-hybrid self-interaction analysis of Ecm11. Same legend as in Fig. S2

**Figure S4: *zip4N919Q* and *ecm11LLDD* phenotype in meiosis**

A. Meiotic progression assessed by DAPI-staining of the strains with the indicated genotype. Values are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of at least three independent experiments (except for *ecm11LLDD-Myc*:  $\pm$ SD from two independent experiments).

B. Western blot time course analysis of Zip4-Flag in wild-type cells or *ecm11 $\Delta$*  strain, and Zip4N919Q-Flag. Right: quantification of Zip4-Flag signal, relative to Pgk1.

C. ChIP monitoring of Ecm11-Flag in the indicated strains and Ecm11LLDD-Flag association with different chromosomal regions, measured by qPCR using primers that cover the indicated regions. Values are the mean  $\pm$  SEM of at least three independent experiments.

**Figure S5: Localization of Ecm11-Myc on meiotic spreads.**

A. Ecm11-Myc localization on surface-spread chromosomes in the indicated strains. Red: anti-Myc; green: anti-Red1; blue: DAPI. The description of the categories is in Fig. 3C

**Figure S6: Zip1 staining and meiotic recombination after tethering Ecm11LLDD to Zip4.**

A. Zip1 localization on surface-spread chromosomes in the indicated conditions (- and + rapamycin) at 4, 5 and 6 hours after meiosis induction. Only pachytene or pachytene-like stages are considered. Green: anti-Zip1; blue: DAPI.

B. Quantification of Zip1 signal intensity observed in A. \*\*\*\*: p-value<0.0001, Wilcoxon test.

C. Quantification of DAPI-positive spreads showing a polycomplex. At least 200 spreads were considered for each condition. Values are % cells  $\pm$  SD of the proportion.

D. Spore viability in the indicated conditions (- and + rapamycin) 72 h after meiosis induction

E-F. Crossing-over frequency and MI non disjunction. Same experimental setup as in Fig.

4. Genetic distances in the two genetic intervals *CEN8-ARG4* and *ARG4-THR1* on chromosome VIII are plotted as cM  $\pm$  SE for the indicated genotypes. \*\*\*\*: p-value<0.0001, G-test.

**Figure S7: Modelling the assembly of the Gmc2-Ecm11 complex using constraints of deep learning-enhanced covariation-based prediction methods reveals similarities with the assembly of the TEX12-SYCE2 hetero-tetrameric coiled-coils.**

A. A co-multiple sequence alignment (co-MSA) containing 451 non-redundant pairs of fungal sequences homologous to *S. cerevisiae* Gmc2 and Ecm11 was concatenated and used as input of RaptorX contact prediction method (see STAR Methods). B. The same protocol was performed with homologs of human SYCE2 and TEX12 using a 135-sequences co-MSA.

C. The contact maps predicted by RaptorX for Gmc2-Ecm11 are shown with a grey-scale representing contacts probabilities. Coloured boxes indicate the predicted intra-molecular contacts while the contacts outside the coloured boxes report the inter-molecular predicted contacts. Inter-molecular contacts are predicted significantly stronger with co-existence of anti-parallel (orange) and parallel (light orange) coiled-coils. RaptorX constraints with succession of anti-parallel and parallel coiled-coils could only be respected assuming a dimer of heterodimer for Gmc2-Ecm11 subunits, to build the 3D model (See Fig. 6D).

D. The same predictions were also run to predict the contact map for the SYCE2-TEX12 complex.

E. Analysis of the consistency between the contacts maps predicted using RaptorX and the 3D model of the Gmc2-Ecm11 complex shown in Fig. 6D (black curve) or the structure of the SYCE2-TEX12 complex shown in Fig. 6C (grey curve). The curves report the ratio of satisfied contacts between residues (distance Cb-Cb < 8Å) among the top N predicted contacts sorted by decreasing probabilities. The plots span the best 200 contacts. For both the crystal structure of SYCE2-TEX12 complex and the model of Gmc2-Ecm11, we observe that about 90% of the top50 predicted contacts are correct or can be satisfied, respectively. This comparison establishes the likelihood of the proposed assembly mode for the Gmc2-Ecm11 complex.

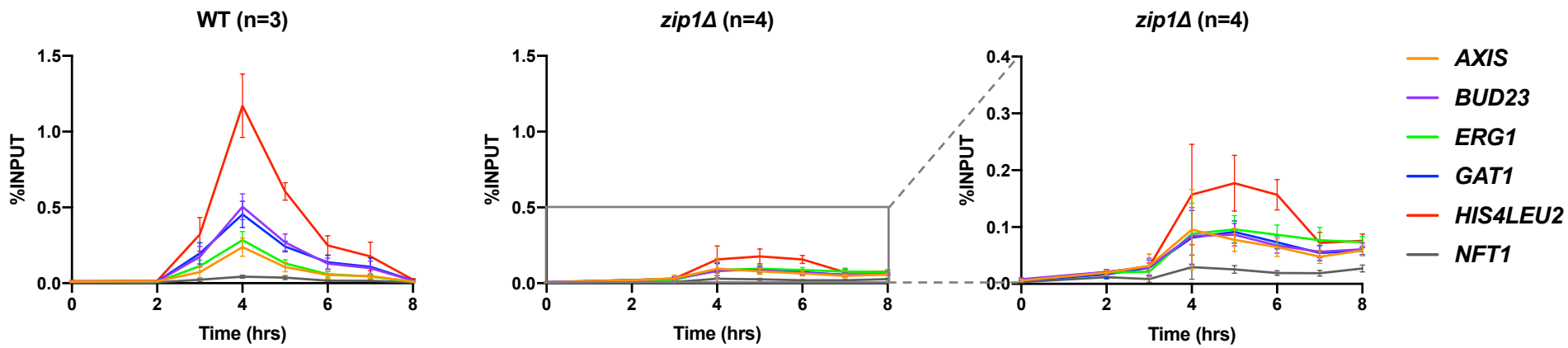
### Supplementary table 3

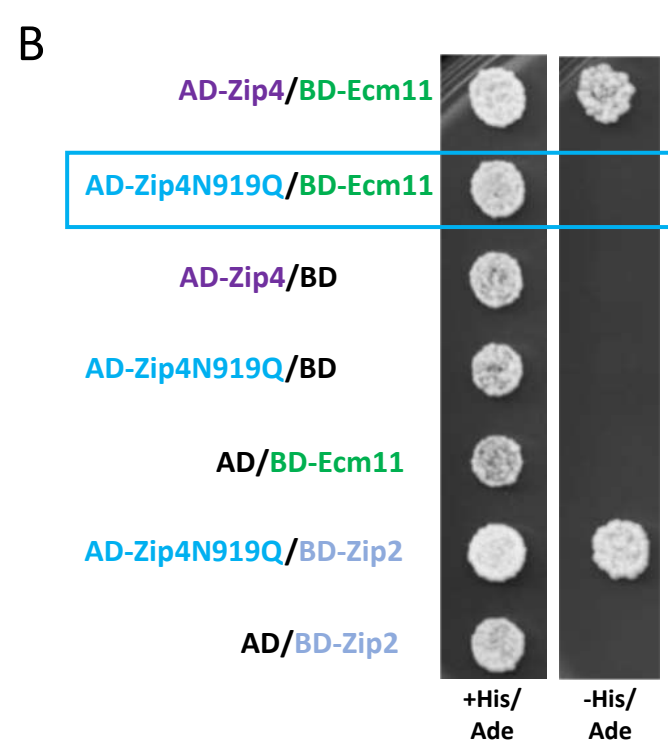
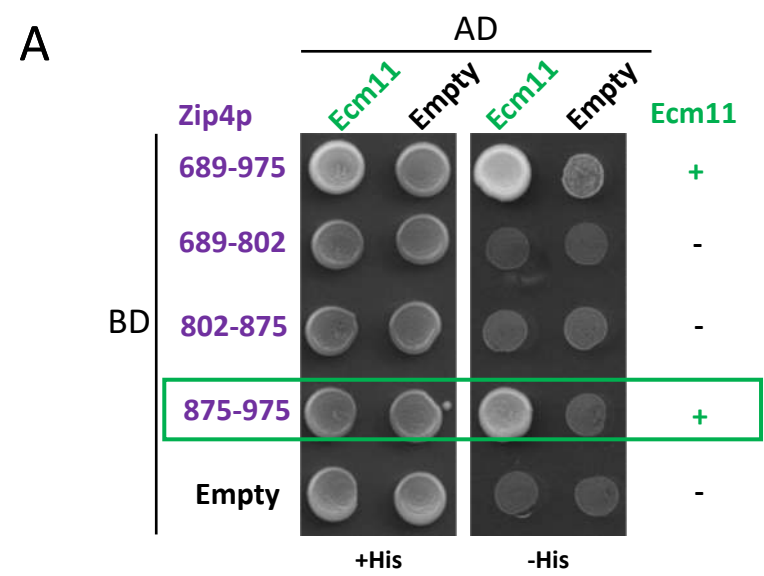
Strain name	Genotype	Used in Figures #
VBD1082	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 zip4Δ::HphMX/"</i>	3A; 3E; 3F; 3G; S4A
VBD1311	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3</i>	1B; 2D; 2F; 3A; 3E; 3F; 3G; S4A
VBD1531	<i>a/l ho::LYS2 leu2::hisG/" trp1::hisG/" ura3/" CEN8/CEN8::tdTomato-LEU2 ARG4/ARG4::GFP*-URA3 THR1::m-Cerulean- TRP1/THR1</i>	4B; 4C; 4D
VBD1590	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 ZIP4-6his3Flag::NatMX/"</i>	1B; 2D; 2F; S1; S4C
VBD1970	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 ECM11-6his3Flag::KanMX/"</i>	1C; 1D; 3B; S4C
VBD1971	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 ECM11-13Myc::HphMX/"</i>	3C; 3D; 3H
VBD2046	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" his4-X::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 ZIP4-6his3Flag::NatMX/" ECM11-TAP::URA/"</i>	1B; 2D; 2F
VBD2065	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 ecm11Δ::KanMX/"</i>	3A; 3E; 3F; 3G; S4A
VBD2101	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 zip4N919Q-6his3Flag::NatMX/"</i>	2D; S4C
VBD2105	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 zip4N919Q/"</i>	3A; 3E; 3F; 3G; S4A
VBD2108	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 zip4N919Q-6his3Flag::NatMX/" ECM11-TAP::URA/"</i>	2D;
VBD2118	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 ECM11-6his3Flag::KanMX/" zip4Δ::HphMX/"</i>	1C; 1D; 3B;
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VBD2153	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 ECM11-13Myc::HphMX/" zip4N919Q/"</i>	3C; 3D; 3H; S5A
VBD2165	<i>a/l ho::LYS2 leu2::hisG/" trp1::hisG/" ura3/" CEN8/CEN8::tdTomato-LEU2 ARG4/ARG4::GFP*-URA3 THR1::m-Cerulean- TRP1/THR1 zip4Δ::KanMX/"</i>	4B; 4C; 4D
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VBD2182	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 ECM11-13Myc::HphMX/" zip4Δ::KanMX/"</i>	3D; 3H; S5A
VBD2187	<i>a/l ho::LYS2 leu2::hisG/" trp1::hisG/" ura3/" CEN8/CEN8::tdTomato-LEU2 ARG4/ARG4::GFP*-URA3 THR1::m-Cerulean- TRP1/THR1 zip4N919Q/"</i>	4B; 4C; 4D
VBD2195	<i>a/l ho::hisG/" leu2::hisG/" ura3/" HIS4::LEU2-(BamH1; +ori)/his4-X::LEU2-(NgoMIV; +ori)-URA3 ECM11-6his3Flag::KanMX/" zip1Δ::HphMX/"</i>	1C; 1D;

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VBD2235	<i>a/l ura3/" lys2/" ho::LYS2/" leu2-K/" arg4-nsp,bgl/" ZIP4-His6Flag3::NatMX/" ecm11L69D-L73D-TAP::URA/"</i>	2F
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VBD2300	<i>a/l ho::LYS2 leu2::hisG/" trp1::hisG/" ura3/" CEN8/CEN8::tdTomato-LEU2 ARG4/ARG4::GFP*-URA3 THR1::m-Cerulean- TRP1/THR1 ZIP4-2xFKPB12-TRP1/" ecm11L69D-L73D-FRB::KanMx6/"</i>	S6E; S6F

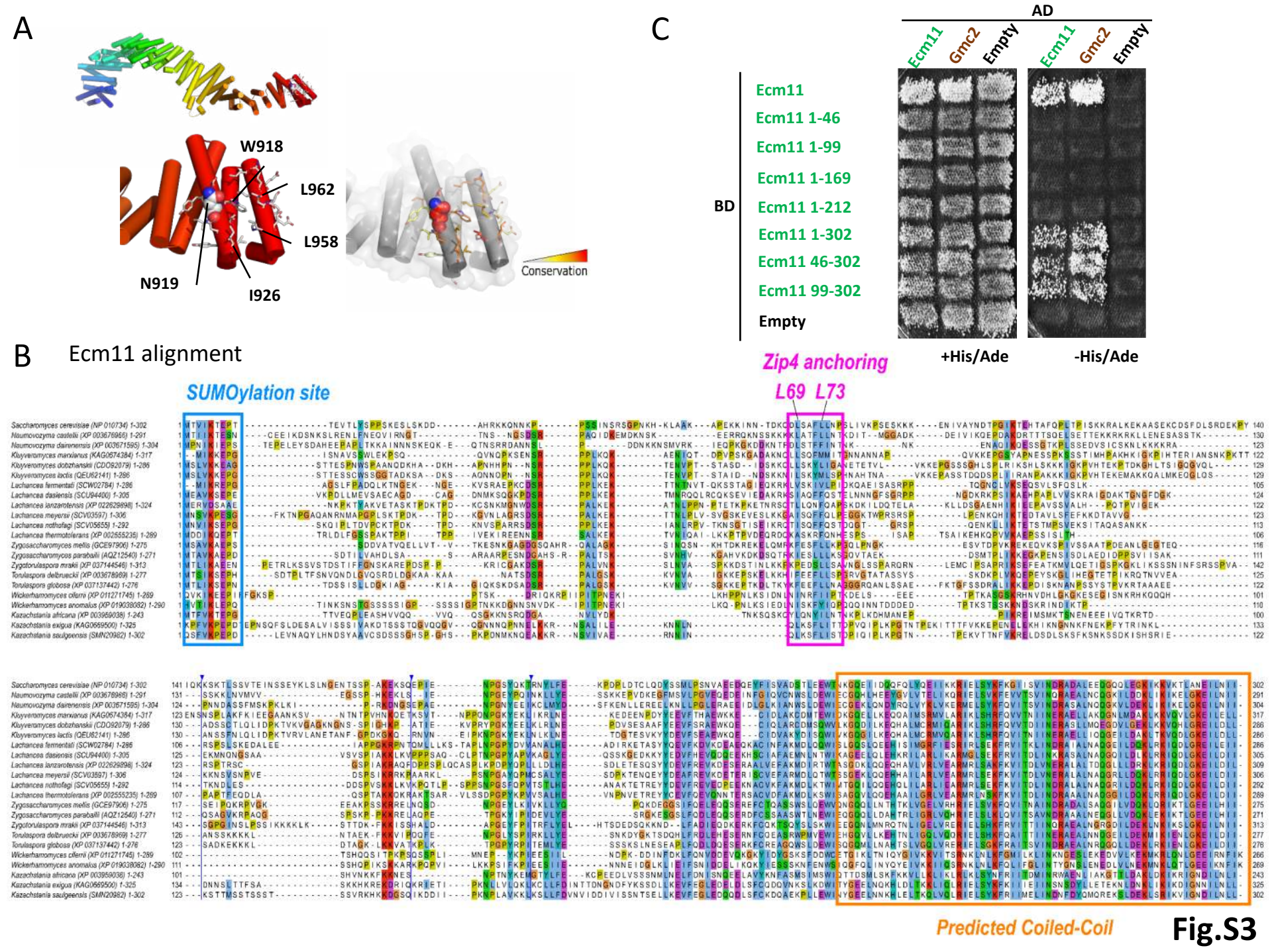


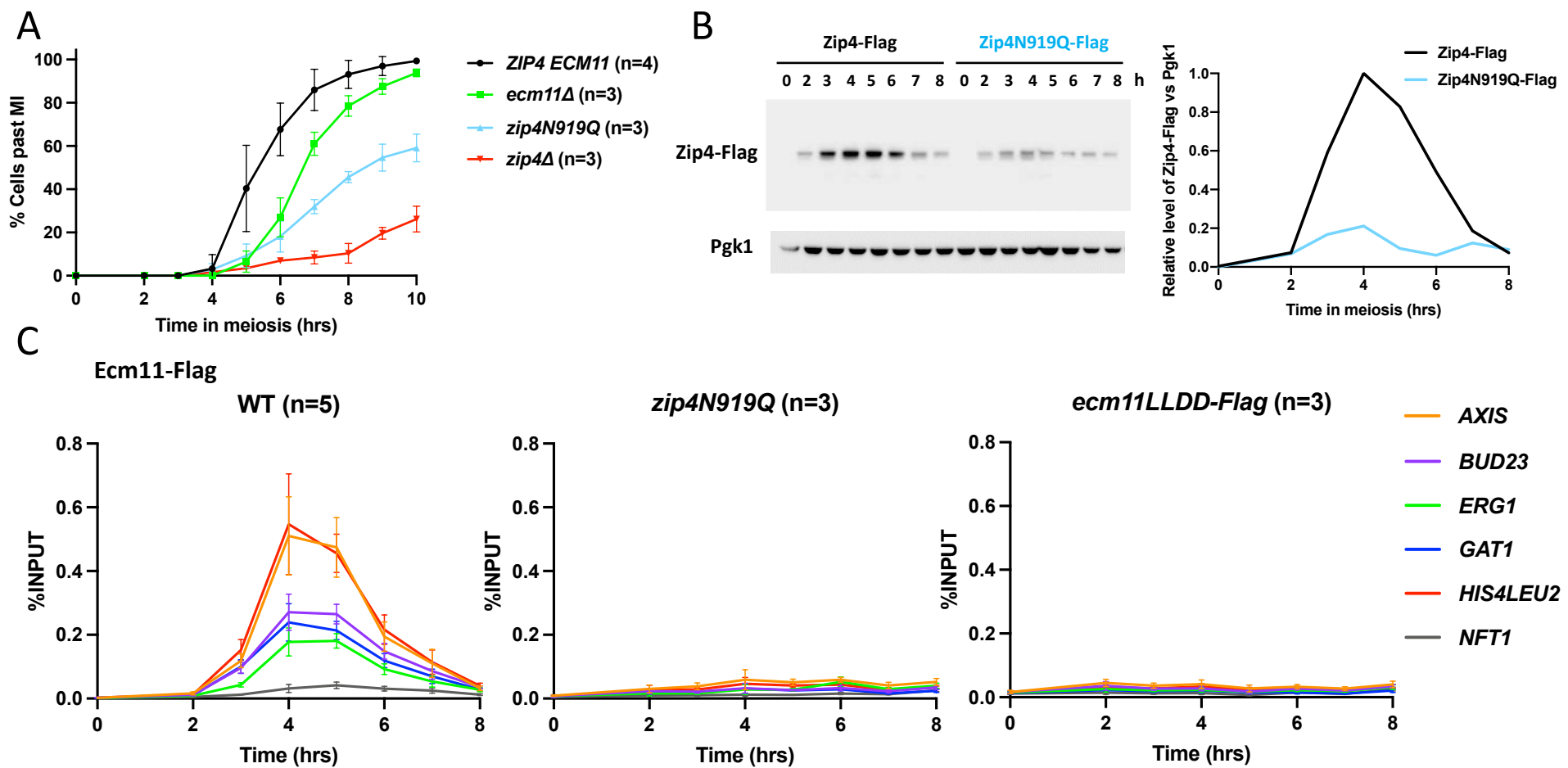
# Zip4-Flag



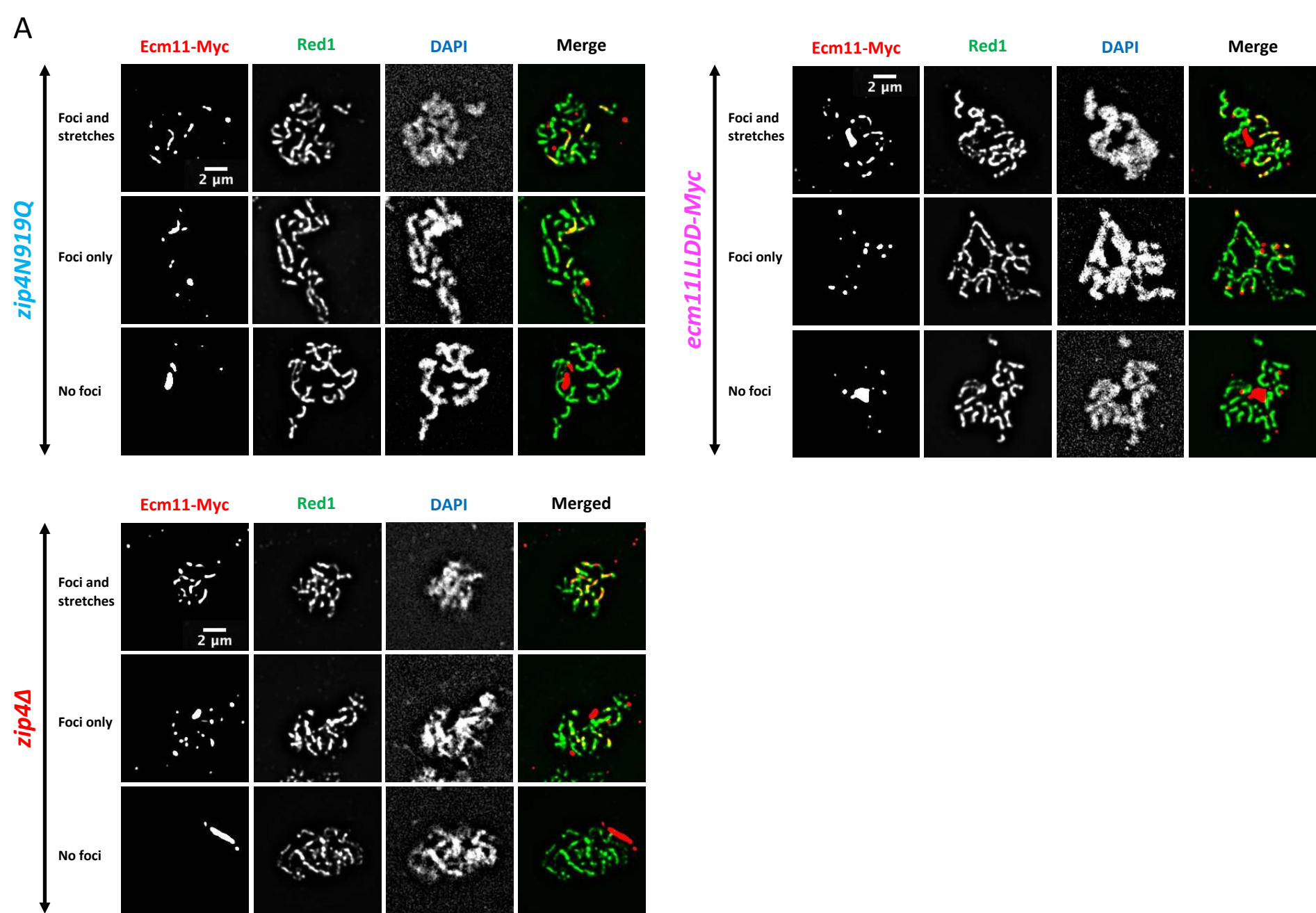


**Fig.S2**

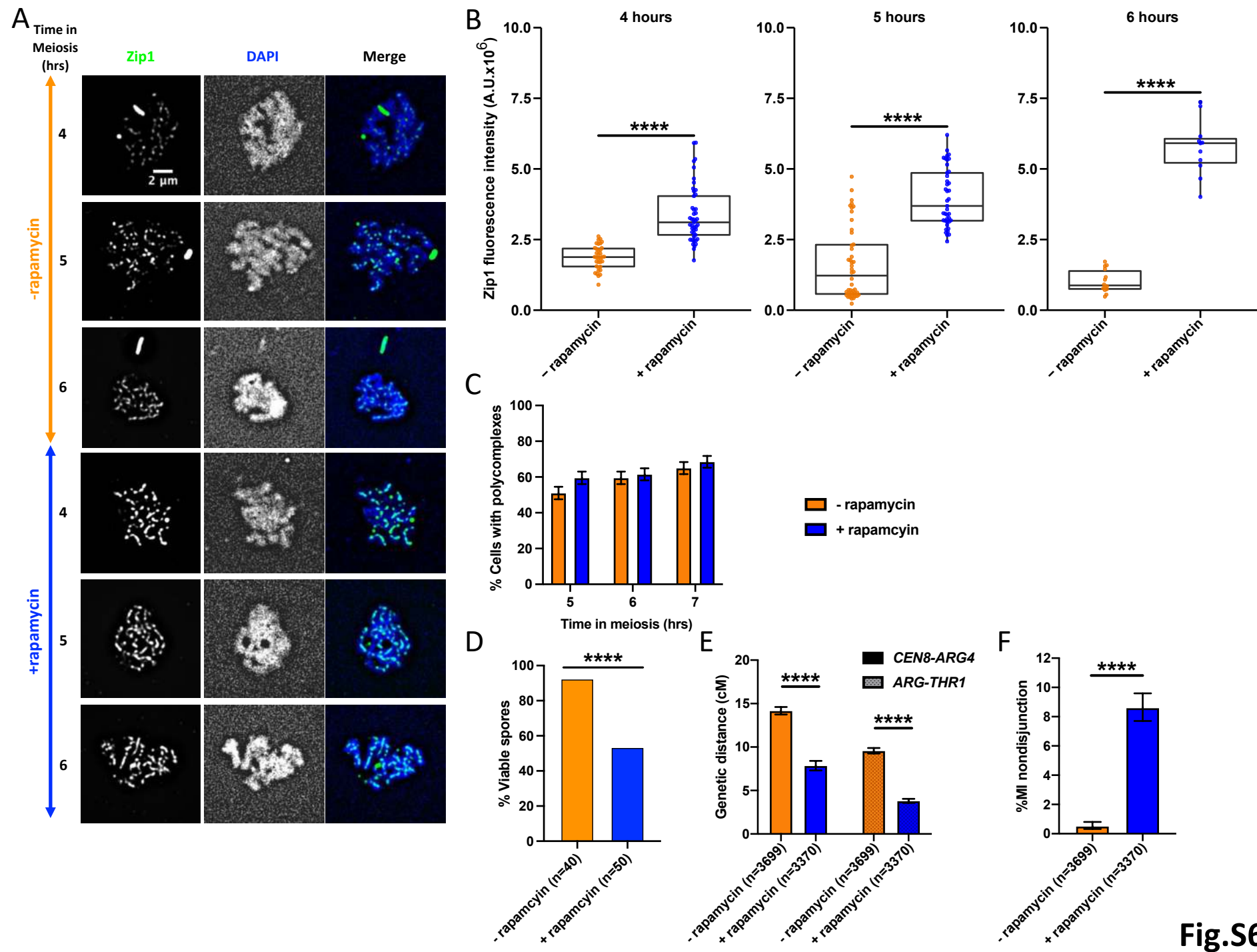




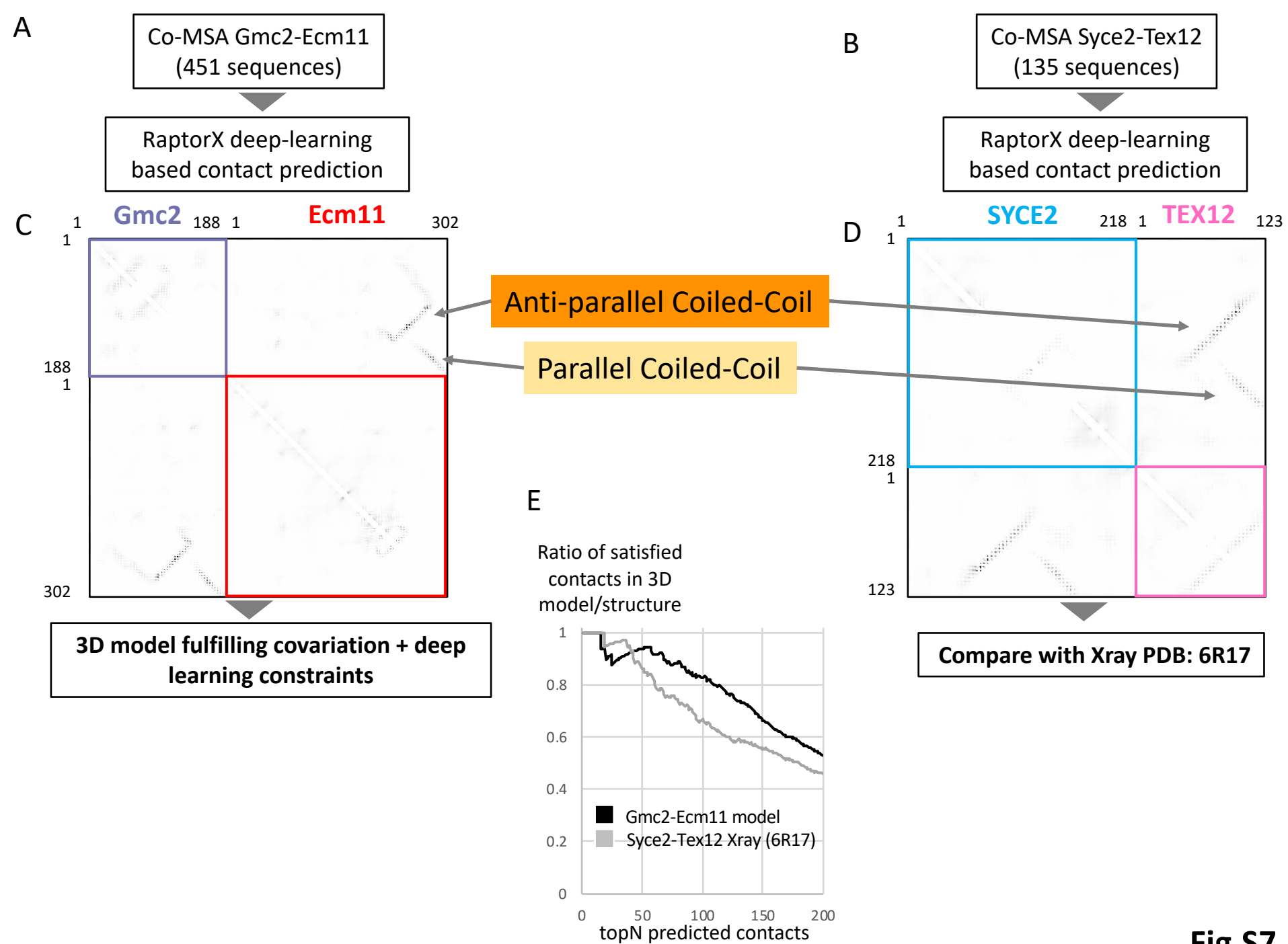
**Fig.S4**



**Fig.S5**



**Fig.S6**



**Fig.S7**