Supplemental Figures

Figure S1: Defining intrachromosomal breakpoints. **A:** For *S. cerevisiae* intergenic regions flanked by *K. waltii* homologs located on the same *K. waltii* chromosome, the number of genes between the *K. waltii* homologs in their native *K. waltii* gene order was counted. **B:** The distribution of the number of genes between the *K. waltii* homologs flanking an *S. cerevisiae* intergenic region. The inset shows the histogram for *S. cerevisiae* intergenic regions flanked by *K. waltii* homologs located 10 or more genes apart. Intergenic regions with *K. waltii* homologs 20 genes (red line) or more apart were called as intrachromosomal breakpoints. The data for Wolfe *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* intergenic regions are shown. Similar results were found for Kellis *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* as well as for Wolfe *S. cerevisiae* – Ancestor and Wolfe *K. waltii* – Ancestor.

Figure S2: Distances between adjacent breakpoints. For the enrichment and regression analyses, breakpoints within one bin are treated as a single breakpoint and therefore clustered breakpoints become a single event. To decide on the optimal bin size to ensure that clustered breakpoints end up in the same bin, we plotted the distribution of distances between adjacent breakpoints. The histogram for the Wolfe *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* genome comparison is shown here. Similar histograms were generated for the other genome comparisons. From these histograms, we noted a predominance of breakpoints within 5 kb of each other and decided to use a bin size of 5 kb (red line) for the enrichment and regression analyses. Over 80% of the breakpoints found by any genome comparison that lie within 5 kb of one another end up in the same bin when 5 kb bins are used.

Figure S3: Size distribution of all *S. cerevisiae* intergenic regions and those bearing a breakpoint for the Wolfe *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* genome comparison. The inset shows the histogram for intergenic sizes of 12 kb or greater. Similar histograms were generated for Kellis *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* and Wolfe *S. cerevisiae* – Ancestor comparisons. From both the Wolfe and Kellis *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* plots, we noticed that above 17 kb (the red line on the inset), all or all but one intergenic regions bear breakpoints. Thus, to exclude the largest intergenic regions and hence also the largest breakpoints, we used a cutoff of 17 kb for the minimal endpoint distance analysis. A similar histogram was created for the Wolfe *K. waltii* - Ancestor genome comparison and a 14 kb cutoff was deemed appropriate.

Supplemental Tables

Table S1: Numbers of genes for *S. cerevisiae*, *K. waltii*, and the Ancestor and the number of homologs between compared species for the Kellis dataset (Kellis et al. 2004) and the Wolfe dataset (Byrne et al. 2005) (http://wolfe.gen.tcd.ie/ygob/). For the list of genes used see Resources and Datasets.

Table S2: Genomic features used to search for correlations with breakpoints. The features were derived from: ¹SGD (http://www.yeastgenome.org/); ²Borde et al. (2004); ³Nieduszynski et al. (2007) ; ⁴this work; ⁵McCune et al. (2008) ; ⁶Kellis et al. (2004) . Telomeric repeats are those features annotated in SGD as "repeat_family" while LTRs are features denoted as "repeat region". Tys comprise features listed as either "transposable element" or "transposable_element_gene" in SGD. Therefore, full Tys may be annotated as a complete feature or as multiple separate genes. Ribosomal protein genes are named rpl*, rps*, mrlp*, or mrsp* in SGD and include both the cytoplasmic and mitochondrial small and large ribosomal subunit genes. The list of all genomic features used is provided in Resources and Datasets.

Table S3: Number and types of intergenic regions among *S. cerevisiae*, *K. waltii*, and the Ancestor. The type of intergenic region is determined according to if and how the flanking genes overlap irrespective of reading frame or coding strand. Type A: the flanking genes overlap such that the first gene ends before the second. Type B: the flanking genes overlap such that the first gene ends after the second. Type C: the flanking genes do not overlap. Only Type C intergenic regions were interrogated as potential breakpoints in this study. Counts for the three types of intergenic regions are given for intergenic regions found for *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii*, *S. cerevisiae* – Ancestor, and *K. waltii* – Ancestor for the Kellis and Wolfe datasets.

Table S4: Literature references from which 442 breakpoints were curated. Plain-text references (seven papers, 147 breakpoints) report evolutionary breakpoints among *sensu stricto* yeast. References in bold (22 papers, 295 breakpoints) represent those in which the authors generated the breakpoints experimentally. Note that in the HO break assay (VanHulle et al. 2007), though the site of the HO break is engineered and known, the site to which the HO break repairs represents a biologically determined break and repair event.

Table S5: Number of breakpoints identified for each set of compared genomes. The total numbers of intergenic regions for the compared genomes are given. The subset of intergenic regions bearing each type of breakpoint is subsequently shown followed by the total number of breaks for each genome comparison. Numbers in parentheses represent values used for the minimal endpoint distance analysis. Lists of breakpoints for each dataset are provided in Resources and Datasets.

Table S6: Enrichment analysis of *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* breakpoints and genomic features. Features and breakpoints were assigned a 5 kb bin by midpoint. *P*-values shown reflect the probability of seeing at least the observed co-localization of features and breakpoints under a hypergeometric distribution. Significant *P*-values (*P* < 0.05) are highlighted in yellow, and the entire box is highlighted in pink for those significant after a Bonferroni correction ($P < 0.0025$). Ty features used in this analysis are redundant: a single full length Ty could be represented as both one feature and as the individual genes comprising the Ty. As a result, a breakpoint falling inside a complete Ty may be placed in the same bin as the complete feature but will only be in the same bin as one of the Ty genes. This redundancy reduces the significance of the correlation between Tys and breakpoints. LTRs better represent the location of Ty elements than full Ty elements for this analysis.

Table S7: Simulation analysis using minimal endpoint and midpoint measures for *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* breakpoints and genomic features. Simulations were not attempted for features restricted to particular regions of the genome (centromeres, telomeres) or for rare features (snRNAs). ¹The number of breakpoints with a feature within 1 kb. $2\hat{T}$ he mean number of breakpoints with a feature within 1 kb from 10,000 sets of simulated breakpoints. ${}^{3}P$ -values were determined by summing the number of simulations in which the number of breakpoints within 1 kb of a feature was equal to or greater than in the real data and dividing by the total number of simulations (10,000). Significant *P*-values ($P < 0.05$) are highlighted in yellow, and the entire box is highlighted in pink for those significant after a Bonferroni correction $(P < 0.0029)$.

Table S8: Enrichment and simulation analysis using minimal endpoint and midpoint measures for Wolfe *S. cerevisiae* – Ancestor breakpoints and genomic features. The Ancestor is an inferred ancestor of *S. cerevisiae* and *K. waltii*. Its gene content was determined by parsimony using eleven yeast genomes (Gordon et al. 2009). The Ancestor genome used in this work is a previous version based off of eight yeast genomes. For details see the legends for **Tables S6** and **S7**.

Table S9: Enrichment and simulation analysis using midpoint and minimal endpoint measures for Wolfe *K. waltii* – Ancestor breakpoints and genomic features. Only centromeres (Kellis et al. 2004) and tRNAs (this work) have been mapped in *K. waltii*. No data for origin locations in *K. waltii* are yet available. Significant *P*-values ($P < 0.05$) are highlighted in yellow, and the entire box is highlighted in pink for those significant after a Bonferroni correction ($P < 0.0250$).

Table S10: Enrichment and simulation analysis using minimal endpoint measures of evolutionarily-derived breakpoints from the literature with genomic features. For details see the legends in **Tables S6** and **S7**.

Table S11: Enrichment and simulation analysis using minimal endpoint measures of experimentally derived breakpoints from the literature with genomic features. For details see the legends in **Tables S6** and **S7**.

Table S12: Enrichment and simulation tests for co-localization of experimentally generated breakpoints with a subset of *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* evolutionary breakpoints. The *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* breakpoints used here consist of those having a given feature within 1 kb by minimal endpoint distance measure. Significant *P*-values ($P < 0.05$) are highlighted in yellow, and the entire box is highlighted in pink for those significant after a Bonferroni correction $(P < 0.01)$. Bonferroni correction was applied to the Kellis and Wolfe data separately.

Table S13: Enrichment analysis among various genomic features. Significant *P*-values (*P* < 0.05) are highlighted in yellow, and the entire box is highlighted in pink for those significant after a Bonferroni correction (*P* < 0.0004).

Table S14: Regression analysis for the evolutionary breakpoints. Logistic regression analysis produced the following reduced model: logit(breakpoint) = $c_{tRNA}(tRNA) + c_{hcARS}(hcARS) + c_{hcARS}(hcARS)$ $c_{\text{telomeric repeat}}$ (telomeric repeat) + c_{telomere} (telomere) + $c_{\text{intercept}}$. The logit is ln(odds ratio of the probability of breakage), where the probability of breakage is taken from a logistic distribution. The terms tRNA, hcARS, telomeric repeat, and telomere are a value (0, 1, 2, etc.) referring to the number of occurrences of that feature in a given 5 kb bin in the genome. 1 Coefficients in the model reflecting the effect of the genomic feature on the likelihood of ^a bin having ^a breakpoint. ² The 95% confidence interval as determined by 1,000 bootstrap simulations. ³The *P*-value of that term in the model. The Wolfe regression model does not find the telomere term to be significant. In both datasets, the most telomeric element negatively impacts breakpoint prediction. This negative correlation is seen because the most telomeric-proximal regions are bound by genes on only one side and thus by definition are not intergenic and are unable to bear breakpoints. The Wolfe model lacks the telomere term perhaps as a result of the Wolfe *S. cerevisiae* – *K. waltii* homology set excluding more telomeric genes than the Kellis dataset.

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Number of K. waltii Genes

B.

Distance (kb) between Breakpoints in S. cerevisiae

Length (kb) in S. cerevisiae