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Genetic and cytological characterization of the RecA-homologous proteins Rad51 and Dmc1 of Schizosaccharomyces pombe

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Abstract The Schizosaccharomyces pombe rad 51^+ and $dmc1⁺$ genes code for homologues of the *Escherichia coli* recombination protein RecA. Deletion of rad51⁺ causes slow growth, retardation of cell division and a decrease in viability. $rad51\Delta$ cells have a defect in mating-type switching. The DNA modification at the mating-type locus required for mating-type switching contributes to slow growth in the rad51 mutant. Cell mating is reduced in crosses homozygous for $rad51\Delta$. Ectopic expression of the $dmc1^+$ gene allowed us to demonstrate that the reduction in meiotic recombination in dmc1 mutants is not caused by a disturbance of rad24 expression from the dmc1-rad24 bicistronic RNA. We describe the functional defects of terminally epitopetagged Dmc1 and Rad51 and discuss it in terms of protein interaction. Presumptive Rad51 and Dmc1 foci were detected on spreads of meiotic chromatin.

Keywords $Rad51 \cdot Dmc1 \cdot Slow$ growth \cdot Meiotic recombination

Introduction

Homologous recombination maintains the integrity of the genome through accurate repair of DNA damage and confers genetic diversity. Homologous recombination in bacteria involves the RecA protein along with other factors (for reviews, see Kowalczykowski et al. 1994; Smith et al. 1995). Mutation of recA completely abolishes conjugational recombination and DNA

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damage-induced recombinational repair. Biochemical studies revealed that the RecA protein catalyzes the invasion of single-stranded DNA into homologous duplex DNA.

Homologues of RecA have been identified in a wide range of organisms, including plants, flies and vertebrates (Bezzubova et al. 1993; Shinohara et al. 1993; Akaboshi et al. 1994; Doutriaux et al. 1998). Usually, the genomes of eukaryotic organisms have several proteins related to bacterial RecA. Saccharomyces cerevisiae has four recA-like genes: RAD51, RAD55, RAD57 and DMC1 (Aboussekhra et al. 1992; Basile et al. 1992; Bishop et al. 1992; Shinohara et al. 1992; Story et al. 1993; Donovan et al. 1994; Hays et al. 1995). Budding yeast rad51 mutants are viable, but highly sensitive to DNA-damaging agents, such as ionizing radiation and methylmethane sulfonate (MMS). In contrast, mouse $RA\overline{D51}^{-/-}$ knockouts are embryonic lethal, indicating an essential role for Rad51 early in development (Lim and Hasty 1996; Tsuzuki et al. 1996). During meiosis, yeast rad51 mutants accumulate double-strand breaks (DSBs), thus manifesting defects in the formation of downstream recombination intermediates; and they show decreased viability during sporulation and other meiosis defects (Shinohara et al. 1992; Rockmill et al. 1995). Immunofluorescence staining of nuclear spreads from Sac. cerevisiae (Shinohara et al. 1992) and human and mouse spermatocytes (Barlow et al. 1997) revealed that Rad51 localizes to distinct nuclear foci during meiotic prophase. Several biochemical properties of Rad51 protein, especially the ability to promote homologous pairing and strand transfer, resemble those of RecA (Sung 1994; Baumann et al. 1996). Rad51 was defined as the primary RecA homologue in eukaryotes.

Dmc1 of Sac. cerevisiae is expressed only during meiosis and is required for normal recombination and meiosis progression (Bishop et al. 1992). Plant and mammal $dmcI^{-/-}$ mutants are viable, but infertile (Pittman et al. 1998; Couteau et al. 1999). Meiotic DSBs in the dmc1 mutant cannot be processed. Like

Rad51, Dmc1 is required for synapsis of homologous chromosomes (Bishop et al. 1992). It forms foci during meiotic prophase that co-localize with Rad51 foci (Bishop 1994). Besides these similarities, Rad51 and Dmc1 proteins also show differences, which led to the proposal that they have both overlapping and distinct roles in meiosis (Dresser et al. 1997; Shinohara et al. 1997). Interestingly, no Dmc1 homologue was found in Drosophila melanogaster or Caenorhabditis elegans (for a review, see Masson and West 2001).

In Schizosaccharomyces pombe, homologues of Rad51 (also called Rhp51) and Dmc1 have been identified (Muris et al. 1993; Jang et al. 1994; Fukushima et al. 2000), as well as three additional RecA-like proteins: Rhp55, Rhp57 and Rlp1 (Khasanov et al. 1999; Tsutsui et al. 2000; V.I. Bashkirov 2000, personal communication). Similar to budding yeast, Sch. pombe rad51 mutants are highly sensitive to DNA lesions resulting from exposure to MMS, γ - or UV-irradiation (Muris et al. 1993; Park et al. 1998). rad51 deletion strains show a reduction in mitotic homologous DNA integration, meiotic recombination and spore viability (Muris et al. 1997; Khasanov et al. 1999). Sch. pombe rad51 mutant strains grow slowly and show aberrant cell morphology which is not observed in Sac. cerevisiae (Muris et al. 1993; Jang et al. 1995).

Some properties of a *Sch. pombe dmc1* mutant were described by Fukushima et al. (2000). This mutant displays no defects during vegetative growth; and $dmc1^+$ is expressed exclusively during meiosis. In contrast to mammalian and some budding yeast mutants that arrest in meiosis, the Sch. pombe dmc1 mutant is proficient in meiosis and spore formation. Intergenic and intragenic recombination is reduced in $dmcI^{-/-}$ crosses.

Most published studies on rad51 and dmc1 were done with strains carrying incomplete gene disruptions. We constructed and analyzed strains with full deletions of the open reading frames (ORFs) of rad51 and dmc1. We studied the transcription of rad51⁺ and dmc1⁺ during meiosis and a possible interaction of $dmc1$ ⁺ and $rad24^+$ expression. The rad51 phenotypes in slow growth and cell mating were characterized in detail. N- and C-terminal epitope-tagging of Dmc1 and, very probably, C-terminal tagging of Rad51 resulted in loss-of-function phenotypes. The observations made with several constructions are discussed in terms of protein interactions. The cytological localization of Rad51 and tagged Dmc1 proteins during meiosis is described.

Materials and methods

Strains, media and growth conditions

The genotypes of Sch. pombe strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Escherichia coli strain DH5 α was used for plasmid isolation. The standard Sch. pombe media yeast extract agar (YEA) and liquid (YEL), malt extract agar (MEA), minimal medium (MMA) and the general genetic methods were as described by Gutz et al. (1974). When necessary, 0.01% supplements was added to the media. For meiotic time-course experiments, the synthetic minimal medium PM (Beach et al. 1985) and PM without NH₄Cl (Watanabe et al. 1988) were used. Growth of Sch. pombe strains and meiotic time-courses were performed at 30 °C. Crosses and growth of cells for mating-type analysis were performed at 25 °C . Growth of cells for pedigree analysis was at 30 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ in YEL cultures and at 25 -C on YEA plates. Iodine staining of colonies was as described by Leupold (1955).

Construction of the *rad51* and *dmc1* deletion strains

Complete deletion of the rad51 gene was obtained by replacement of the coding region of *rad51* with the $his3^+$ marker gene. The prad51 plasmid (a kind gift from A. Shinohara) derives from pUC118, which contains the 4.4-kb BamHI genomic fragment from the rad51 locus. This plasmid was used for PCR to amplify 473 bp of the upstream flanking sequence of rad51 and 432 bp of the downstream flanking sequence of *rad51*. In the upstream flanking sequence, *NotI* and *SpeI* restriction sites were introduced by PCR at the 5¢ and 3¢ ends, respectively. In the downstream flanking

Table 1 Schizosaccharomyces pombe strains used in this study

h^{90} 968	
h^+ 975	
h^+ $1 - 25$	ade6-M216
h^- $3 - 106$	$lvs7-1$
h^+ $4 - 150$	$lvs7-2$
h^+ 77-3045	rad51::his3 his3-D1 mat1 Δ P17::LEU2 $leul-32 arg6-1$
88-3484 h^-	rad51::his3 his3-D1 ade7-152 smt0
89-3536 h^-	$ade6-M216 \; smt0$
h^+ 89-3537	ade6-M210 mat1 Δ P17::LEU2 leu1-32
h^+ AG44	
	dmc1-C3HA lys7-2
AG47 h^-	dmc1-C3HA lys7-1
AG53 h^- h^+	dmc1::ura4 lys7-1 ura4-D18
AG56	dmc1::ura4 lys7-2 ura4-D18
h^+ AG58	$dmcl::ura4$ ura4-D18 ade6-M216
h^- AG66 h^+	rad51::his3 his3-D1 ade6-M216 smt0-0
AG69 h^+	rad51::his3 his3-D1
AG70	rad51::his3 his3-D1 mat1 Δ P17::LEU2 $leu1-32$
h^+ AG72	rad51::his3 his3-D1 ade6-M210 mat1 Δ P17::LEU2 leu1-32
AG84 h^-	dmc1::ura4 leu1-32 ura4-D18
h^- AG100	dmc1-CGFP lys7-1
h^+ AG101	dmc1-CGFP lys7-2
h^- AG104	
h^+ AG105	$dmc1^+$ dmc1::ura4 lys7-1 ura4-D18 dmc1 ⁺ dmc1::ura4 lys7-2 ura4-D18
h^- AG302, AG304	dmc1-N3HA lys7-1
h^+ AG303, AG305	dmc1-N3HA lys7-2
h^- AG306, AG308	dmc1-NMyc lys7-1
h^+ AG307, AG309	dmc1-NMyc lys7-2
AG310, AG312 h^-	dmc1-NGFP lys7-1
h^+ AG311, AG313	dmc1-NGFP lys7-2
h^+ AG484	rad51-CGFP ade6-M216
h^+ AG485	rad51-CMyc ade6-M216
h^{90} AG491	rad51::his3 his3-D1
RK1 h^-	$his3-D1 smt0$
RK ₂ h^-	$ura4-D18 \; smt0$
RK3 h^-	smt0 ade7-152
h^+ RK4	mat1AP17::LEU2 leu1-32 arg6-1
D1	h^{-}/h^{+} ade6-M210/ade6-M216
D ₂	h^-/h^+ ade6-M210/ade6-M216
	dmc1-CGFP/dmc1-CGFP
D3	h^-/h^+ ade6-M210/ade6-M216
	dmc1-C3HA/dmc1-C3HA

sequence, SalI and Asp718 restriction sites were introduced at the 5^{\prime} and 3¢ ends, respectively. The PCR fragments were then integrated into the pKLG-497 plasmid, a derivative of pBluescript $SK(-)$ containing a 2-kb fragment carrying the $his3^+$ marker gene (Burke and Gould 1994). The resulting gene disruption plasmid was named pRK2. A 2.9-kb NotI/Asp718 fragment from pRK2, carrying the his3⁺ marker gene with rad51-specific flanking sequences, was used to transform strain RK1 (h^- smt0 his3-D1) by the lithium acetate method (Ito et al. 1983). Proper integration of the fragment into the genome was verified by Southern blot analysis. Full deletion of the dmc1 gene was obtained by replacement of the coding region of $dmc1$ with the $ura4^+$ marker gene. The pdmc1 plasmid (a kind gift from A. Shinohara) derives from pBluescript $\hat{K}S(+)$, which contains the 3.6-kb XbaI/HindIII genomic fragment from the dmc1 locus. This plasmid was used for PCR to amplify 585 bp of the upstream flanking sequence and 484 bp of the downstream flanking sequence of *dmc1*. In the upstream flanking sequence, $Asp718$ and SalI restriction sites were introduced by PCR at the 5' and 3' ends, respectively. In the downstream flanking sequence, PstI and NotI restriction sites were introduced at the 5^r and 3' ends, respectively. The PCR fragments were then integrated into pB4-2 plasmid, a pBluescript $SK(-)$ plasmid containing the 1.8-kb HindIII fragment carrying the $ura4^+$ marker gene (Grimm et al. 1988), to yield the gene disruption plasmid pRK1. A 2.8-kb Asp718/NotI fragment carrying the $ura\dot{4}^+$ marker gene with $dmc1$ -specific flanking sequences from pRK1 was used to transform strain RK2 (h ⁻ smt0) ura4-D18). Proper integration of the fragment into the genome was verified by Southern blot analysis.

Pedigree analysis, determination of mating efficiency and UV-sensitivity tests

For pedigree analysis, cells in the logarithmic phase of growth were spatially separated on YEA plates and incubated for 8–10 h. Subsequently, the number of progeny cells was scored for each inoculated cell. Cells that did not divide at least once during 16 h of incubation were considered dead. For determination of mating efficiency, cells of opposite mating type were crossed on MEA at 25 °C. After 3 days, the number of vegetative cells (C) , zygotes (Z) , asci (A) and spores (S) was scored microscopically. A minimum of a total of 300 units were counted in each cross and 7–13 crosses were performed for each mutant. The mating efficiency was calculated as $(A+Z+0.25S)/(A+Z+0.25S+0.5C)\times100\%$. UV sensitivity was tested by drop assay. Cells were grown in YEL to stationary phase, spotted in different dilutions onto YEA plates and irradiated in a UV Stratalinker (Stratagene). Plates were incubated for 3 days at 30 $^{\circ}$ C. The test was repeated at least once.

Meiotic time-course experiments including cytology

Induction of meiosis and 4¢,6-diamino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) staining of DNA and immuno-staining of spreads were as described by Parisi et al. (1999) with the following alterations: instead of Novozym, lysing enzyme (1.5 mg/ml; Sigma L-2265) was used, no overnight blocking was performed, blocking buffer for 15 min blocking was not diluted and washes of slides were extended to 15 min in PBS with 0.1% Photo-Flo (Kodak) and twice for 15 min in PBS with 0.05% Triton X-100. The following primary antibodies were used: purified rabbit anti-GFP IgG diluted 1:500 to 1:1,000 (Seedorf et al. 1999), purified rabbit anti-human Rad51 IgG diluted 1:100 to 1:200 (sc-8349; Santa Cruz Biotechnology) and guinea pig anti-Sac. cerevisiae Rad51 serum (described by Shinohara et al. 2000). The secondary antibodies used were: purified goat antirabbit IgG conjugated with Alexa Fluor 488 diluted 1:500 (A-11008; Molecular Probes) and purified goat anti-guinea pig IgG conjugated with Alexa Fluor 555 diluted 1:500 (A-21435; Molecular Probes). Nuclear spreads were observed with a Nikon eclipse E600 fluorescence microscope. Images were taken with a Nikon DXM1200 polychrome digital camera.

Total RNA was prepared from 50-ml aliquots of time-course culture as described by Grimm et al. (1991). mRNA was separated from 500 µg of total RNA using an Oligotex poly $(A)^+$ mRNA isolation kit (Quiagen). To facilitate the precipitation of mRNA, about 50 µg of tRNA was added to each sample. Hybridization with a ³²P-labeled *rad51*, dmc1 or byr1 (Nadin-Davis and Nasim 1990) probe was performed by the formamide hybridization protocol, as specified by the manufacturer (Bio-Rad). The rad51 probe was a 0.2-kb PCR fragment from positions -1 to 216 in the ORF corresponding to the N-terminal part of the protein, where the homology with other RecA-like proteins is lowest. The *dmc1* probe was a 0.5-kb PCR fragment from positions 380 to 871 in the ORF. The byr1 probe (a kind gift from A.M. Schweingruber) was a 0.4-kb PCR fragment from positions 976 to 1,387 in the ORF.

Spore viability and meiotic recombination

Spore viability was determined by tetrad and random spore analysis. Random spores from 5–15 independent crosses were counted under the microscope and appropriate amounts plated onto YEA. For intergenic recombination analysis, spore colonies were randomly picked (135–224 in each cross), grown on YEA master plates and then replicated onto MMA with appropriate supplements. For intragenic recombination analysis, the number of prototrophic spore colonies was counted on selective MMA and normalized to the amount of viable spores.

Construction of diploids

Parental strains carrying ade6-M210 or ade6-M216 and smt0 or $matIP\Delta17::LEU2$ mutations were crossed on supplemented MEA plates: strains 89-3536 and 89-3537 to obtain a wild type diploid and strains AG66 and AG72 to obtain a rad51 Δ diploid. The next day, some material from the plates was diluted and plated onto selective MMA plates. Under these conditions, zygotes not yet committed to meiosis returned to vegetative growth. Due to interallelic complementation between the mutations M210 and M216, only these diploid cells were able to form adenine-independent colonies on MMA, which were large and white. Microcolonies growing on MMA were avoided. Spontaneous chromosome III loss in $M210/M216$ diploids led to adenine dependence and the formation of red sectors in white colonies. The diploids used in the cytological experiments were not carrying $smt0$ or mat1P Δ 17::LEU2 mutations.

Ectopic expression of the $dmc1^+$ gene

To introduce a wild-type $dmc1^+$ gene into a $dmc1::ura4^+$ strain at the ectopic leu1 locus, we constructed plasmid pJKdmc1, carrying the leu1⁺ and dmc1⁺ genes. A 2.9-kb $XbaI/HpaI$ fragment from the pdmc1 plasmid was introduced into pJK148 (Keeney and Boeke 1994) and digested with *XbaI* and *HincII*. The resulting plasmid was linearized with $Bsu36I$, which cuts in $leut^+$, and transformed into strain AG84 (h⁻ dmc1::ura4⁺ ura4-D18 leu1-32). Genomic DNA of $leu⁺$ transformants was analyzed by Southern blot hybridization to identify a strain with a single integration at the *leu1* locus. The *leu1* probe used for hybridization was a ³²P-labeled 0.9-kb PCR fragment derived from positions 68 to 939 of the ORF.

Fusion of epitope tags to $dmc1^+$ and $rad51^+$ and C-terminal tagging

To fuse 3HA, 13Myc or GFP epitope tags to $dmc1^+$ and rad51⁺ genes, we used the PCR-based gene-targeting method described by Bahler et al. (1998). The hybrid primers contain 100 nt identical to the target loci at their 5' ends and 20 nt identical to pFA6akanMX6-based plasmids at their 3' ends. In case of $dmc1⁺$ tagging, the 100-nt stretches were from position 971 to 1,070 and from 1,173 to 1,074, relative to the translation start codon. In case of the $rad51⁺$ tagging, the 100-nt stretches were from position 996 to 1,095 and from 1,326 to 1,226, relative to the translation start codon. The PCR reactions with these primers yielded fragments containing the epitope tag, the $kanMX6$ marker and 100 bp of sequence homologous to the target locus on each side. These fragments were used to transform strains 89-3537 or 1-25. Transformants with integration of kanMX6 were selected on YEA plates containing 100 mg G418/l. PCR analysis using a primer specific for the kanMX6 sequence and another specific for dmc1 or rad51 allowed the identification of transformants with integrations at the dmc1 and rad51 target loci. The integrations at the dmc1 locus resulted in the deletion of the *dmc1* stop codon only. In this way, the region downstream of *dmc1* remained unchanged. This may prevent interference with expression of the $rad24$ gene located 0.8 kb downstream of *dmc1*. At the rad51 locus, 130 nt including the stop codon and downstream sequence were deleted.

N-terminal tagging

For an overview of N-terminal tagging, see Fig. 1.

To fuse 3HA, 13Myc or GFP epitope tags to the $dmc1⁺$ gene, we constructed a set of plasmids, pdmc1-N(tag), by fusion PCR. The untranslated region upstream of the $dmc1^+$ ORF was amplified from pdmc1 using primers S0025 (5'-AAATTGAACGAGTCTTTTGC-3') and S0026 (5'-GTTAATTAACCCGGGGATCCGCATTGCAC-TTTATTTTTATATTGAACG-3¢), where the sequence from pFA6a-kanMX6-based plasmids (Bahler et al. 1998) is in italics. The N-terminal region of the $dmc1^+$ ORF was amplified from pdmc1 using one of the primers S0037, S0039 or S0038 and S0034 (5¢-CATATCTCGAGGAAGCTGGG-3¢). Primers S0037, S0039 and S0038 contained at their 5' ends the following tag-specific sequences: CAGATTACGCTGCTCAGTGC for the 3HA tag (S0037), CAATCACGAGGGAATTCGCGCC for the 13Myc tag (S0039) and CACATGGCATGGATGAACTATAC for the GFP tag (S0038). The tag-specific sequences were followed by 5'-GGAG-GAGGAGGATGGAAGAATTCGCAGAGGGG-3'. A sequence coding for four glycine residues is in italics; and the rest is specific to the 3' end of the *dmc1* ORF. The four glycines were inserted to increase the probability of protein-folding into two independent domains. The epitope tag sequences were amplified from plasmids pFA6a-3HA-kanMX, pFA6a-13Myc-kanMX or pFA6a-GFP-

Fig. 1A, B Schematic diagram of N-terminal tagging of the $dmcl^+$ gene. A XbaI/Eco47III fragments from pdmc1-N (tag) plasmids were used to transform the AG58 strain. B Schematic map of the genomic DNA at the dmc1 locus after transformation. The boxes indicate the *dmc1*⁺ ORF (gray), the epitope tag (black), the ura4⁺ ORF (hatched) and the rad24⁺ ORF (white). G_4 indicates a stretch of four glycine residues. Primers used to control for correct integration, and the presence of the tags, are indicated with arrows. Restriction sites: A AflII, B BsaBI, E Eco47III, X XbaI

kanMX, using primer S0027 (5'-CGGATCCCCGGGTTAAT-TAAC-3') together with one of the following: S0028 (5'-GCA-CTGAGCAGCGTAATCTG-3') for the 3HA tag, S0035 (5¢-GGCGCGAATTCCCTCGTGATTG-3¢) for the 13Myc tag or S0030 (5'-GTATAGTTCATCCATGCCATGTG-3') for the GFP tag. The PCR products of the untranslated region upstream of the $dmc1⁺$ ORF and the tag-specific sequences were then fused, using primer S0025 together with one of the following: S0028 (for the 3HA tag), S0035 (for the 13Myc tag) or S0030 (for the GFP tag). The PCR products obtained from the fusion reactions and the 5' region of the $dmc1⁺$ ORF were then fused using primers S0025 and S0034. The PCR products obtained from the second fusion were digested with A/\sqrt{H} II and Bsa BI and integrated into the pdmc1 plasmid digested with A flII and BsaBI, to yield the plasmids pdmc1-N(3HA), pdmc1-N(13Myc) and pdmc1-N(GFP). Each plasmid was then digested with *XbaI* and *Eco47III*, yielding fragments containing the coding sequence of the tagged dmc1 gene flanked by 1.6 kb of the 5' flanking region and 0.8 kb of the 3' flanking region (Fig. 1). These fragments were used to transform strain AG58. Ura⁻ transformants were selected on YEA plates containing fluoroorotic acid (1 g/l) and checked for correct integration by PCR, using primers S0040 (5'-TCTCCAGATATGCCTGAAGC-3') and S0041 (5'-CGATGTTTTACAGGAAGCCC-3'). The presence of the epitope tags in the transformed strains was confirmed by PCR, using primers S0042 (5'-CAGACAGTATTGGTTCAACC-3'; located upstream of S0025) and S0034 (see above).

Results

The phenotypes of the *rad51* and *dmc1* full-gene deletion strains during vegetative growth

The deletions of the Sch. pombe genes rad51 and dmc1 were constructed as described in the Materials and methods. Mating-type switching in Sch. pombe is initiated by a specific DNA modification, probably a singlestrand break, at the *mat1* locus (Arcangioli 1998; Dalgaard and Klar 1999). It was proposed that this break is converted to a DSB by DNA replication and that the DSB is repaired by homologous recombination (Arcangioli 1998; Arcangioli and de Lahondes 2000). $smt0$ and $matIP\Delta17::LEU2$ mutations abolish formation of a DSB at *mat1* (Arcangioli and Klar 1991; Styrkarsdottir et al. 1993). To be able to separate a possible involvement of Rad51 in specific DSB repair at the *mat1* locus from its other roles, we studied rad51::his3⁺ in combination with the smt0 and mat1P- Δ 17::LEU2 mutations. We confirmed the sensitivity of rad51::his3⁺ carrying the smt0 mutation to UV irradiation and to the alkylating agent MMS in qualitative drop assays (data not shown). This result is consistent with previous observations on incomplete *rad51* gene disruption (Muris et al. 1993; Jang et al. 1995) and with results obtained by Hartsuiker et al. (2001) in a quantitative assay. $rad51$ ⁻ cells were previously shown to grow more slowly than the wild type in liquid cultures (Jang et al. 1995). The mutant cells were also larger than the wild type. Slow growth may derive from an extended cell cycle length. To determine whether slow growth of the rad51 mutant is caused only by extension of the cell cycle or also by decreased viability, we performed a pedigree analysis of $rad51$::his3⁺ cells using a micromanipulator (see Materials and methods). Compared

Table 2 Pedigree analysis. The standard errors of the means are based on 3–9 experiments, analyzing 10–12 starter cells in each experiment. Cell viability Calculated as the number of living cells (cells which divided at least once during the incubation time) divided by the total number of cells scored. Progeny cells Average number of cells that arose from a single viable cell after 8–10 h of incubation. Doubling time Calculated for viable cells with the assumption that cells were incubated for 9 h

Strain	Cell viability	Progeny	Doubling
	$($ %)	cells	time (min)
Wild type (975) rad51 (AG69) rad51 mat1P Δ 17 (AG70)	100 ± 0 67 ± 3.3 85 ± 1.9	8.1 ± 0.1 3.1 ± 0.05 3.6 ± 0.2	179 ± 1 331 ± 5 298 ± 16

with the wild type, the average doubling time of rad51::his3⁺ cells was increased and the viability of rad51:: $his3^+$ cells was decreased (Table 2). Thus, slow growth of the rad51 mutant is a combined phenotype, caused both by cell cycle elongation and by decreased viability. $rad51$::his3⁺ cells with no DSB at the matingtype locus ($matIP\Delta17::LEU2$) had better survival than rad51::his3⁺ cells with a wild-type *mat1* locus (Table 2). Therefore, we propose the involvement of $rad51⁺$ in recombinational repair of the DSB at the mating-type locus.

To study the involvement of $rad51⁺$ in mating-type switching, we isolated a h^{90} rad51 Δ segregant (AG491) from a h^+ strain (AG69). In the $h^{+,N}$ strains, rare recombination events led to reversion to the h^{90} configuration at the mating-type locus (Beach and Klar 1984). When restreaked and stained with iodine vapor, this segregant gave rise to mainly iodine-negative colonies and a few mottled colonies, which is in sharp contrast to a h^{90} rad51⁺ strain (968), which produces mostly iodinepositive colonies (data not shown). Approximately twothirds of the iodine-negative colonies were h^- and one third was h^+ (273 iodine-negative colonies of 11 independent restreakings were tested). The vast majority of the h^- colonies were stable, not giving rise to mottled or h^+ colonies (24 h^- colonies of four independent origins were tested). These data indicate that $rad51⁺$ is required for mating-type switching. We also analyzed the mating efficiency of $rad51$ ⁻ cells and found that it was reduced approximately 2-fold compared with wild-type cells (Table 3).

In contrast to the *rad51* mutant, *dmc1* deletion strains were not expected to show defects during vegetative growth, based on the results obtained with an insertion of the $ura4^+$ gene into the ORF of *dmcl* (Fukushima et al. 2000). Our $dmcl::ura4^+$ strains grew normally and showed no sensitivity to UV and MMS (data not shown).

rad51⁺ and dmc1⁺ expression is induced during meiosis

We performed a synchronized meiotic time-course study of wild-type diploid cells (D1) and analyzed the mRNA from these cells for the presence of rad51- and dmc1 specific transcripts. The results of this experiment (Fig. 2A) revealed that $rad51^+$ was expressed both in vegetatively growing cells before entering meiosis (at time point 0 h) and throughout meiosis $(2-10 h)$ with a peak around 6 h. Several mRNA species were detected in a size range of \sim 1.0–1.7 kb, which is consistent with the observations of Muris et al. (1993). Some of the bands may also represent cross-hybridization with transcripts of other recA like genes: rhp55⁺, rhp57⁺ and $rlp1^+$ (see Discussion). $dmc1^+$ was expressed specifically during meiosis $(4-10 \text{ h})$. The size of a *dmc1*-specific transcript $(\sim 2.8 \text{ kb})$ is consistent with the observation of Fukushima et al. (2000).

To bring the transcription of rad51⁺ and dmc1⁺ into the context of the classic landmarks of fission yeast meiosis, we determined different cytological stages during the time-course by staining the cells with DAPI (Fig. 2B). The large number of cells with more than one nucleus 1 h after induction represented the final mitotic division before cells entered the meiotic prophase. The increase of cells with more than one nucleus after \sim 9 h indicated the onset of meiotic division. Cells with elongated nuclei (horse-tails) are characteristic of prophase I

Table 3 Mating efficiency, meiotic intergenic recombination and spore viability of the rad51 mutant and other strains with deletions of rad51 paralogues. Genetic distance (d) was calculated as $d = -50\ln{1-2[R/(R+P)]}$, where R is the number of recombinant colonies and P is the number of parental colonies. ND Not determined

Strain	Mating efficiency $(\text{mean} \pm \text{SE})$	X -fold reduction (compared with wild type)	Spore viability $(\text{mean} \pm \text{SE})$	X -fold reduction (compared with) wild type)	Genetic distance ade7-arg6 $(\text{mean} \pm \text{SE})$	X -fold reduction (compared with wild type)
Wild type $(smt0)$	ND	ND	77.9 ± 7.1		13.4 ± 1.4	
Wild type ^{a}	25.5 ± 2		84 ± 9.1		ND.	ND
rad51 $(smt0)$	ND	ND	8.6 ± 1.5	9	5.9 ± 2.1	2.3
rad51 ^a	11.8 ± 1.3	2.2	2.9 ± 0.3	29	ND	ND
$dmc1^a$	36.1 ± 3.7	0.7	75.9 ± 3.8	1.1	ND	ND
	13.5 ± 2.2	2.3	28.5 ± 3	2.8	ND	ND
$rhp55^a$ $rhp57^a$	11.1 ± 2.4	1.9	29.8 ± 4.1	2.9	ND	ND
rlp1 ^a	22 ± 3.2	1.2	72.4 ± 4.3	1.2	ND	ND

^a Spore viability data for these strains are cited from Grishchuk and Kohli (2003), who also describe the strain genotypes

and were observed between 5 h and 10 h. The highest levels of $dmc1^+$ and $rad51^+$ mRNA at 6–8 h coincided with prophase I, when meiotic recombination occurs.

Deletion of *rad51* affects diploid stability and meiotic phenotypes

To measure meiotic recombination frequency in the rad51 deletion, we performed crosses homozygous for rad51::his3⁺ and *smt* mutations (88-3484×77-3045). The intergenic recombination frequency between the markers ade7-152 and arg6-1 located on the left arm of chromosome II was reduced 2.3-fold compared with the wild type (RK3×RK4) (Table 3). The viability of $rad51$:: $his3^+$ spores determined by random spore analysis in the same crosses was $8.6\% \pm 3.4\%$ (Table 3).

Several attempts to construct a stable diploid homozygous for the rad51:: $his3^+$ deletion were unsuccessful. We mated $rad51$::his3⁺ haploid parentals AG66 and AG72. They carry either the $smt0$, or the mat1P- Δ 17::LEU2 mutations. Heterozygosity for *ade6-M210* and ade6-M216 allowed for selection of diploids on

Fig. 2 *dmc1* and *rad51* RNA levels in relation to cytological events during wild-type meiosis. Above Northern blots of mRNA isolated at the indicated time-points were hybridized with a dmc1-specific probe (top row) and a rad51-specific probe (middle row). byr1 was used as a loading control (bottom row), as its expression does not change during meiosis (Nadin-Davis and Nasim 1990). Below Timing of cytological events during wild-type meiosis. Nuclei were visualized with the DNA-specific dye 4¢,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). Cells with more than one nucleus have undergone the first meiotic division. The peak of cells containing more than one nucleus 1 h after induction is due to the last mitotic division before entry into meiosis from the G_1 phase (Bahler et al. 1998)

minimal medium due to intragenic complementation. Colonies grew slowly, compared with $rad51⁺$ diploids. In most cases they contained red sectors, indicating haploidization for chromosome III. The white (diploid) colonies were checked for sporulation following a shift to minimal medium lacking nitrogen. While $rad51⁺$ diploids efficiently sporulated and formed asci, rad51:: $his3^+$ diploids formed only a few, abnormally shaped asci. In addition, many cells with abnormal morphology (large branched cells) and dead cells were observed (data not shown). We conclude that diploids homozygous for the deletion of the *rad51* gene are unstable and do not sporulate efficiently.

Deletion of *dmc1* does not affect *rad24* function

It was shown by Fukushima et al. (2000) that the dmc1 gene is located immediately upstream of the rad24 gene and that $dmc1^+$ and $rad24^+$ are co-transcribed during meiosis as a bicistronic RNA of 2.8 kb (Fig. 3). In addition, $rad24^+$ is transcribed as a 1-kb mRNA species during meiosis and mitosis. Rad24 is a 14-3-3 protein, required for DNA damage-checkpoint regulation (Ford et al. 1994) and entry into meiosis (Sato et al. 2002). Fukushima et al. (2000) constructed a *dmcl* disruption by inserting the $\arctan 4^+$ gene into the middle of $\arctan 1^+$ (Fig. 3) and observed a reduction in meiotic recombination in the resulting strain. It is possible that the defect in meiotic recombination is due to interference with meiosis-specific co-expression of $rad24^+$ (abolition of bicistronic RNA).

To address this issue, we measured intragenic recombination between $lys7-1$ and $lys7-2$ in crosses homozygous for the *dmc1* deletion, but with ectopic expression of $dmc1^+$ at the *leul* locus. The prototroph frequency in the $dmcl::ura4^+$ crosses was reduced four times (AG53×AG56; Fig. 4), while in cells expressing

Fig. 3 Schematic diagram of the *dmc1-rad24* region, the disruptions of the $dmc1^+$ gene and the mRNA species. The $dmc1^+$ and rad24⁺ ORFs are indicated as black boxes (Fukushima et al. 2000). Arrows indicate the direction of translation. The shaded boxes represent the $ura4^+$ marker gene. Below are two of the RNA species transcribed from the \overline{d} mc1-rad24 region, as determined by Fukushima et al. (2000)

Fig. 4 Meiotic intragenic recombination frequency at lys7 in $dmc1^{+}$ -, $dmc1\Delta$ - and $dmc1$ -tagged strains. Standard errors were determined (error bars) for crosses repeated at least three times

ectopic $dmc1^+$ (AG104×AG105) it was not different from the wild type $(3-106\times4-150)$. Thus, the reduction in recombination frequency in the $dmcl::ura4$ ⁺ strain is due to a loss of $dmc1⁺$ function and not due to disturbance of $rad24$ ⁺ function.

Fusion of epitope tags to $dmc1^+$ and rad51⁺ results in loss of Dmc1 and Rad51 function

To study the subcellular localization of Dmc1 and Rad51 during meiosis, we tagged the genes at their endogenous loci. At the C-termini, the tags 3HA, 13Myc and GFP were introduced by the method described by Bahler et al. (1998). Stable transformants were checked by PCR for identification of those with homologous integration at the target locus. In the case of *rad51*, only normal-sized colonies were checked, since slow growth indicates loss of *rad51* function. The frequency of homologous integration was generally low (Table 4). In two cases, we did not identify any homologous integrants.

Disruption of *rad51* leads to slow growth and increased UV-sensitivity of the cells. Therefore normally

Table 4 Efficiency of homologous integration of gene-targeting fragments for C-terminal tagging of the $dmc1^+$ and $rad51^+$ genes. For $rad51^+$, homologous integration is likely to be underestimated (see Results)

Gene	tag	C-terminal Total number of transformants checked by PCR	Homologous Efficiency integration	$($ %)
$dmc1^+$	3HA 13Myc GFP	14 60 28	Ω	21 0 (< 1.7) 3.6
$rad51+$	3HA 13Myc GFP	152 31	3	0 (< 0.7) 10 14

Fig. 5 UV-sensitivity of strains with C-terminally tagged $rad51^+$. The scale above indicates the dilution of the initial cultures. The following strains were used: 1-25 ($rad51⁺$), AG69 ($rad51\Delta$), AG484 (rad51-CGFP) and AG485 strains 16, 39 and 42 (rad51-CMyc; shown as $#16$, $#39$, $#42$, respectively)

growing G418-resistant transformants were selected and assayed for UV-sensitivity. The single rad51-CGFP isolate (AG484) was as resistant to UV as the wild type, while the three rad51-C13Myc strains (AG485) were UV-sensitive to different extents (Fig. 5). To show that the UV-sensitivity of these strains was due to the tagging and not caused by additional mutations elsewhere in the genome, we crossed the rad51-C13Myc strains against the wild type. All tested progeny strains with tags remained sensitive to UV (data not shown).

The rad51-CGFP strain and the least UV-sensitive of the three rad51-C13Myc strains (39) were further analyzed by sequencing. The epitope sequences of both tagged strains were defective. The GFP epitope tag in the rad51-CGFP strain contained a point mutation leading to the formation of a termination codon after the first nine amino acids of the epitope. The sequence of the 13Myc epitope tag in the rad51-C13Myc strain contained a deletion of 117 amino acids in the total of 177 residues. Thus, it is likely that strains with intact epitopes at the C-terminus of *rad51* acquire slow growth and UV-sensitivity. Transformants having no or only moderate defects had truncated tags.

An analogous analysis showed that integration of tagging fragments at the C-terminus of $dmc1⁺$ was precise. No mutations were detected at the junctions between the chromosomal and inserted DNA or in the $dmc1^+$ sequence between the junction and the tag. Single-site insertion into the genome was checked by tetrad analysis. Viability of spores from *dmc1*-C3HA homozygous crosses was not affected, but the frequency of meiotic recombination was reduced in dmc1-C3HA and dmc1-CGFP strains (Fig. 4; data not shown). This indicates that fusion of 3HA or GFP epitopes to the Cterminus of the $dmc1^+$ gene results in loss of $dmc1^+$ function.

N-terminal epitope tagging of $dmc1⁺$ was then performed. To retain $dmc1^+$ expression from its endogenous locus under regulation of its own promoter, we constructed a set of plasmids with a fragment of Sch. pombe genomic DNA containing any one of the three different tags 3HA, 13Myc or GFP, introduced right

Fig. 6A–F Immunolocalization of Dmc1 and Rad51 on meiotic nuclear spreads. The spreads were prepared at the indicated timepoints after the induction of meiosis. They were stained with DAPI $(A' – F')$ and immunostained with antibodies against GFP (A, B, C) , human Rad51 (D, E) or Sac. cerevisiae Rad51 (F)

after the translation initiation codon of the $dmc1^+$ ORF (see Materials and methods). Single-site integration into the genome was checked by tetrad analysis. Meiotic recombination in the tagged strains was reduced to the level of $dmcI\Delta$ (Fig. 4). This indicates that fusion of 3HA, 13Myc or GFP epitopes to the N-terminus of the $dmc1^+$ gene results in loss of $dmc1^+$ function.

Immunolocalization of Dmc1 and Rad51 on spreads of meiotic chromatin

The Dmc1-CGFP or Dmc1-C3HA proteins localized as distinct foci on spreads from diploids homozygous for dmc1-CGFP (Fig. 6B) or dmc1-C3HA (data not shown) treated with anti-GFP or anti-HA antibody, respectively. Spread nuclei were prepared from diploid cells (D2 or D3) undergoing synchronous meiosis. The abundance of nuclei with foci (15–20%) was observed after initiation of meiosis and before the meiotic divisions (at 6–8 h after shifting to sporulation media). No staining was observed on spreads prepared from dmc1- CGFP and dmc1-C3HA cells at 0 h (induction of meiosis) or on spreads prepared from the wild-type diploid (D1) at any time (Fig. 6A, C; data not shown).

To study the localization of Rad51 during meiosis, we stained the nuclear spreads from wild-type diploids (D1) with a cross-reacting anti-human Rad51 antibody. We detected distinct foci (Fig. 6E) that mostly localized over the spread chromatin. The foci were observed in four independent time-courses (data not shown). No foci were observed on spreads prepared at the shift of cells to sporulation medium (Fig. 6D). We also stained meiotic nuclear spreads from the wild-type diploid with a crossreacting anti-Sac. cerevisiae Rad51 antibody (a kind gift from A. Shinohara) and observed foci similar to those observed with anti-human Rad51 antibody (Fig. 6F).

Discussion

In this study, we further investigated the functions of rad51⁺ and dmc1⁺ of Sch. pombe. For this purpose we constructed full-gene deletions and epitope-tagged alleles.

The many roles of Rad51 in genome maintenance, recombination, vegetative growth and sporulation

Deletion of the $rad51⁺$ gene conferred pronounced sensitivity to the DNA damaging agents UV and MMS, consistent with previously published observations on an insertion mutant (Muris et al. 1993). Jang et al. (1995) reported slow growth, aberrant morphology and elongation of cells of a rad51 disruption mutant. We further investigated the slow-growth phenotype in rad51::his3 deletion cells by pedigree analysis (Table 2). We showed that viable rad51 Δ cells divided more slowly and that they were dying more frequently than wild-type cells. This indicates that the slow-growth phenotype of the $rad51\Delta$ mutant is caused by a viability decrease combined with an elongation of the cell cycle. The ratio between the doubling times of rad51 Δ and the wild type was \sim 2, which is consistent with the observation of Jang et al. (1995). We also analyzed cells that, along with the rad51 deletion, harbored the $matIP\Delta17::LEU2$ mutation that abolishes DSB formation at the *mat1* locus: and we showed that rad51⁺ is likely to play a role in repair of this DSB, as rad51 Δ cells without the DSB die less frequently than those with the DSB (Table 2).

Mutations of the recombinational repair genes rad22A⁺, rhp54⁺ and rhp55⁺ also lead to formation of elongated cells, aberrant morphology and impaired DNA content (Muris et al. 1996; Khasanov et al. 1999; Segurado et al. 2002). For the *rhp55* mutant, these phenotypes are also observed in the absence of a DSB at the *mat1* locus. Deletion of the *rad50* gene results in slower cell-doubling and an increase in death rate (Hartsuiker et al. 2001). Both phenotypes are reduced in the smt0 cells. rad50, rad51 and rhp54 lose minichromosomes at elevated frequencies (Muris et al. 1996; Hartsuiker et al. 2001) and rad22A accumulates aberrant replication intermediates (Segurado et al. 2002). The

observed phenotypes are consistent with these genes playing a role in genome stability in Sch. pombe through their involvement in DNA replication and, possibly, chromosome segregation. The defects are likely to lead to checkpoint-activated mitotic cell cycle delay (for discussion, see Jang et al. 1995; Muris et al. 1996). Similar effects of *rad50*, *rad51* and *rhp54* mutation on growth rate in budding yeast have not been reported. Only inactivation of the RAD52 gene (homologue of rad22A) leads to slow growth in Sac. cerevisiae (Mortimer et al. 1981). In higher organisms, deletion of RAD51 is lethal (Lim and Hasty 1996; Tsuzuki et al. 1996). Thus, the slow-growth phenotype of recombinational repair mutants in Sch. pombe makes them attractive models for understanding the causes of cell death in mammalian cells defective in the corresponding genes.

We showed that $rad51⁺$ is required for mating-type switching. *rad51* can be assigned to class II *swi* mutants (Egel et al. 1984), because the h^{90} rad51 Δ strain yielded both mottled and heterothallic colonies upon restreaking. About two-thirds of the heterothallic colonies were h^- . This is different from other class II mutants, where nearly all heterothallic segregants are h^+ . However, there is another class II mutant known, rad22A, which segregates h^- heterothallic colonies (Ostermann et al. 1993). The observations made by us and other groups using the *smt0* and *mat1P* Δ *17::LEU2* mutations confirm the role of these genes in general genome stability, aside from repair of the DSB at the *mat1* locus leading to mating-type switching.

We showed that the efficiency of mating in crosses of heterothallic cells was reduced in *rad51*, *rhp55* and *rhp57* mutants (Table 3). This phenotype may be the consequence of the same DNA lesions occurring in vegetatively growing cells and leading to slow growth.

The observed instability of rad51 Δ diploids is probably due to chromosome loss during propagation. Most aneuploid cells of Sch. pombe are not able to form colonies (Molnar et al. 1995). This probably contributed to the slower growth of the rad51 Δ diploids in comparison with wild-type diploids and rad51 Δ haploids. Almost no asci were observed after induction of meiosis. Difficulties with obtaining and propagating homozygous diploids were observed also in the *rad50*, *rhp54* and *rhp55* mutants of Sch. pombe (E. Hartsuiker, M. Catlett, S. L. Forsburg, F. Khasanov, personal communication). This suggests that proteins involved in homologous recombination are also important for the maintenance of the diploid state in Sch. pombe through their requirement for chromosome stability (Muris et al. 1996; Hartsuiker et al. 2001).

The intergenic meiotic recombination frequency in $rad51\Delta$ was reduced 2.3-fold compared with the wild type, consistent with the observation of Muris et al. (1997) for another interval and our results reported elsewhere (Grishchuk and Kohli 2003). Reduction in crossovers usually leads to a reduction in gamete viability (Baker et al. 1976). The low spore viability in $rad51\Delta$ crosses cannot be explained by a reduction in chiasmata only. The calculated average number of crossovers in meiosis of fission yeast is approximately 45 (Munz 1994). Taking into account that Sch. pombe has only three chromosomes, a 2-fold reduction in crossovers would still allow several chiasmata per chromosome pair and therefore cannot lead to the dramatic decrease in spore viability observed in the rad51 Δ mutant (Table 3; Grishchuk and Kohli 2003). We suggest that the high spore lethality is caused by unrepaired DNA lesions, such as breaks and stalled replication forks arising before or after the induction of meiosis (see also Grishchuk and Kohli 2003). The spore viability reported in Table 2 is similar to the result $(\sim 8\%)$ of Khasanov et al. (1999), who also used strains carrying small deletions at *mat1* preventing the DSB required for switching. Muris et al. (1997) reported \sim 2% spore viability in crosses in which only one of the parental strains contained the DSB preventing $smt0$ mutation. This value is in the range of spore viability in crosses carrying wildtype *mat1* loci on both chromosomes (\sim 3%; Grishchuk and Kohli 2003). Thus, the major contribution of Rad51-mediated repair concerns general genome stability. Repair of the DSB at *mat1* by Rad51 yields a minor contribution to spore viability.

The role of Dmc1 in meiosis

In contrast to rad51 Δ , dmc1 Δ did not show any defects during vegetative growth. Direct evidence for the involvement of Dmc1 in meiotic recombination is the reduction in recombination frequencies detected in $dmc1\Delta$ cells (Fig. 4). Our results are comparable with those reported by Fukushima et al. (2000) for an incomplete $dmc1^+$ disruption. Elsewhere, we reported that Dmc1 is (besides Rad51) the major recombination protein in meiosis of fission yeast, while the three other RecA paralogues (Rhp55, Rhp57, Rlp1) play accessory roles. But with respect to spore viability, $dmc1\Delta$ hardly differs from the wild type (Grishchuk and Kohli 2003).

The expression of Rad51 and Dmc1 during meiosis

We observed multiple bands with the rad51-specific probe. There are three other genes with homology to recA in Sch. pombe that also have ORF sizes similar to rad51⁺: rhp55⁺, rhp57⁺ and rlp1⁺. The probe used to detect *rad51* mRNA was derived from the 5['] end of the gene, where the homology among recA-like genes is lowest. The homology search with this probe against the Sch. pombe genome did not reveal any significant matches besides rad51. With this probe, we did not detect dmc1 mRNA, which is larger than the rad51 mRNA and presumably also larger than other recA-like genes (data not shown). Taking these observations together, we think that cross-hybridization of the rad51-derived probe with transcripts of other recA genes is quite unlikely. We could not test the cross-reactivity of our probe during meiosis, since rad 51Δ diploids were unstable.

Our observation that *rad51* and *dmc1* mRNAs are present during meiosis (Fig. 2) is consistent with the proposed involvement of Rad51 and Dmc1 in meiotic events. We determined that the highest transcription of $dmc1^+$ and rad51⁺ occurred when most of the cells were undergoing meiotic prophase. This is in agreement with Fukushima et al. (2000), who used Northern analysis to detect increased levels of $dmc1⁺$ transcription several hours after the induction of meiosis, and with the results of Mata et al. (2002), who showed in a microarray experiment that the transcription of rad 51^+ and dmc 1^+ is significantly induced during meiotic prophase. The amounts of rad51⁺ and dmc1⁺ mRNAs are higher compared with other recA-like genes (J. Mata, personal communication), consistent with our proposal that Rad51 and Dmc1 play major roles in meiotic recombination, while Rhp55, Rhp57 and Rlp1 play accessory roles. The expression of $dmc1^+$ is much lower than that of rad51⁺ during vegetative growth. It dramatically increases during prophase and later decreases. This is consistent with $dmc1⁺$ being involved in meiotic recombination, but lacking a role in general DNA damage repair and, as a consequence, promoting high spore viability. The co-transcription of $dmc1^+$ with the downstream $rad24^+$ gene is unusual for eukaryotic cells (Fukushima et al. 2000). But we showed that the reduction in recombination frequency in the *dmc1* deletion strains is not due to the disturbance of $rad24^+$ expression (Fig. 4).

The localization of Rad51 and Dmc1 proteins in meiotic nuclei

With cross-reacting anti-human Rad51 antibody and anti-Sac. cerevisiae Rad51 antibody, we observed foci on spread chromatin of cells undergoing meiosis (Fig. 6). It was not possible to test whether the anti-Rad51 antibodies cross-reacted with other proteins on meiotic chromatin, since the rad 51Δ diploids were unstable. Although definitive proof is missing, the cross-reactivity of anti-human Rad51 antibody with Sch. pombe Dmc1 is highly improbable, since the sequence similarity between the N-terminus of hRad51 used as an antigene to raise the antibody and the Sch. pombe Dmc1 protein is very low (46%). In addition, evidence for the specific recognition of Sch. pombe Rad51 by anti-human Rad51 antibody in mitotic cells was published by Caspari et al. (2002). In a preliminary quantitation experiment, up to 30 foci were observed per meiotic nucleus, with an average of 13 ± 7 at 5–6 h after induction of meiosis (data not shown).

Dmc1-CGFP and Dmc1-C3HA were found to form foci on spread chromatin of cells undergoing meiosis (Fig. 6). Since the tagged proteins cannot fulfill the wildtype function (Fig. 4), it is difficult to decide whether the observed foci represent the natural location of Dmc1. However, an abundance of foci was observed only after the initiation of meiosis and before the meiotic divisions.

Thus, their appearance coincided with the time of action of Dmc1 in meiotic recombination. In a preliminary quantitation experiment, up to 75 foci were observed per meiotic nucleus, with an average of 35 ± 18 at 4–6 h after induction of meiosis (data not shown). As for Rad51 foci, the conditions were not optimized and the experiments not repeated. Thus, we refrain from speculating on the relation between foci and crossover numbers [on average 45 per meiosis, as reported by Munz (1994)].

We made several attempts to obtain strains expressing functional Dmc1 and Rad51 proteins carrying epitope tags suitable for cytology. Strains with *dmc1* carrying N- and C-terminal tags all showed the $dmc1\Delta$ phenotype (Fig. 4). In the case of C-terminal tagging of rad51, we obtained transformants that were moderately sensitive to UV and carried truncated tags. One UVresistant transformant carried only the codons for the first nine amino acids of the GFP tag. Some transformants displayed the slow-growth phenotype of $rad51\Delta$ strains (data not shown). These transformants may have carried full-length epitopes, but were not further analyzed. We conclude that tagging the Dmc1 and Rad51 proteins of Sch. pombe in the ways attempted leads to loss of function. In contrast, Dresser et al. (1997) reported functional HA-tagging at the C-terminus of Sac. cerevisiae Dmc1, but did not present data on meiotic recombination frequencies in this strain background. RecA is able to form a nucleoprotein filament, within which the DNA interaction takes place during strand transfer. Purified Sac. cerevisiae and human Rad51 proteins bind DNA to form helical nucleoprotein filaments (Ogawa et al. 1993; Benson et al. 1994). Human Dmc1 protein in vitro forms octameric rings on the DNA (Passy et al. 1999). Homotypic interactions involving the ends of Rad51 and Dmc1 proteins may be indispensable for proper function. In addition, Rad51 of Sch. pombe and other organisms was shown to interact with a number of other proteins (Donovan et al. 1994; Hays et al. 1995; Johnson and Symington 1995; Clever et al. 1997; Tsutsui et al. 2001). Fusion of epitope tags to the N- or C-terminus of Rad51 and Dmc1 proteins may prevent the binding of these other proteins. Nevertheless, the obtained epitope constructions will be useful for future experiments.

In conclusion, the analysis of full-gene deletions and epitope-tagging of rad51 and dmc1 of Sch. pombe lead to novel insights into their roles in normal cell cycle progression and meiosis.

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