University of Massachusetts Medical School [eScholarship@UMMS](https://escholarship.umassmed.edu/)

[GSBS Dissertations and Theses](https://escholarship.umassmed.edu/gsbs_diss) [Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences](https://escholarship.umassmed.edu/gsbs)

2009-08-03

Regulation of DNA Replication Origins in Fission Yeast: A **Dissertation**

Naveen Kommajosyula University of Massachusetts Medical School

[Let us know how access to this document benefits you.](https://arcsapps.umassmed.edu/redcap/surveys/?s=XWRHNF9EJE)

Follow this and additional works at: [https://escholarship.umassmed.edu/gsbs_diss](https://escholarship.umassmed.edu/gsbs_diss?utm_source=escholarship.umassmed.edu%2Fgsbs_diss%2F436&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

Part of the [Amino Acids, Peptides, and Proteins Commons](http://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/954?utm_source=escholarship.umassmed.edu%2Fgsbs_diss%2F436&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages), [Enzymes and Coenzymes Commons,](http://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/1009?utm_source=escholarship.umassmed.edu%2Fgsbs_diss%2F436&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages) [Fungi Commons](http://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/962?utm_source=escholarship.umassmed.edu%2Fgsbs_diss%2F436&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages), and the [Genetic Phenomena Commons](http://network.bepress.com/hgg/discipline/934?utm_source=escholarship.umassmed.edu%2Fgsbs_diss%2F436&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

Repository Citation

Kommajosyula N. (2009). Regulation of DNA Replication Origins in Fission Yeast: A Dissertation. GSBS Dissertations and Theses. <https://doi.org/10.13028/pkad-8f31>. Retrieved from [https://escholarship.umassmed.edu/gsbs_diss/436](https://escholarship.umassmed.edu/gsbs_diss/436?utm_source=escholarship.umassmed.edu%2Fgsbs_diss%2F436&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

This material is brought to you by eScholarship@UMMS. It has been accepted for inclusion in GSBS Dissertations and Theses by an authorized administrator of eScholarship@UMMS. For more information, please contact Lisa.Palmer@umassmed.edu.

REGULATION OF DNA REPLICATION ORIGINS IN

FISSION YEAST

A Dissertation Presented

By

NAVEEN KOMMAJOSYULA

Submitted to the Faculty of the

University of Massachusetts Graduate School of Biomedical

Sciences, Worcester

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

BIOMEDICAL SCIENCES

AUGUST 03, 2009

REGULATION OF DNA REPLICATION ORIGINS IN FISSION YEAST

A Dissertation Presented By

Naveen Kommajosyula

The signatures of the Dissertation Defense Committee signifies completion and approval as to style and content of the Dissertation

Nicholas Rhind, Ph.D., Thesis Advisor

Michael Brodsky, Ph.D., Member of Committee

Craig Peterson, Ph.D., Member of Committee

Oliver Rando, Ph.D., Member of Committee

Lee Zou, Ph.D., Member of Committee

The signature of the Chair of the Committee signifies that the written dissertation meets the requirements of the Dissertation Committee

Dannel McCollum, Ph.D., Chair of Committee

The signature of the Dean of the Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences signifies that the student has met all graduation requirements of the School

> Anthony Carruthers, Ph.D. Dean of the Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences

> > Interdisciplinary Graduate Program August 3, 2009

COPYRIGHT NOTICE

Portions of this dissertation are represented in the following publications.

Kommajosyula N, and Rhind N. "Cdc2 tyrosine phosphorylation is not required for the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint in fission yeast," Cell Cycle. 2006 Nov 1;5(21):2495-500.

Patel PK, **Kommajosyula N**, Rosebrock A, Bensimon A, Leatherwood J, Bechhoefer J, Rhind N. "The Hsk1(Cdc7) replication kinase regulates origin efficiency," Mol Biol Cell. 2008 Dec;19(12):5550-8.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Nick Rhind has been a great mentor to me. I came to Umass to join his lab and I have not regretted my decision a single day in the last 6 years. It is great to see his single minded enthusiasm for science. I have learnt a lot from him. Nick has always been supportive and enthusiastic towards each experiment. The greatest thing about Nick is the time he devotes to lab and how available he is for any help I need. I have truly enjoyed working under a very cool, kind and understanding mentor. Thank you for everything Nick.

Rhind lab has been the place for insane fun, inane chatter, random conversations and loud singing. To say that I have enjoyed my time in the lab is to put it very mildly. I have shared with Nick the DUDE, Chaitali and Mary numerous stresses, joys and laughter's. We have been there for each other and I could not ask for better labmates. I will miss being around them. Thanks for the great memories. Prasanta and Shankar, the post-docs in our lab have been great supporters of me. Dan and Jill have been loads of fun to work with. BMP is the best department to have been a part of. I have been extremely close to Munson lab especially Mary Munson, Melonnie, Dan and Jen. I am glad to have known Jen and I will always miss her. Rando lab has been responsible for adding more craziness to our side of the department and I am thankful for that. Many thanks are due to the labs whose help I took at various times during my Ph.D.

Mary and Mel have especially been great friends and they have taken care of me over the years. Luca, Moses, Sagar and Madhavi have been other members in the department who have been great to me. Thanks to all the secretaries in the GSBS and BMP for being so wonderful and taking care of our needs. Thanks to Red Sox, Bad news bears and Worcester Speedsters for many memories while I was here.

Life in Worcester would not be the same without Samriddha, Srivatsan, Pranav, Nitya and Amit. They have been my friends and family here. I have counted on Sam to be there for me everyday and no one has been more important to me all these years then her. She has supported, encouraged, listened to me whenever I needed her. I am very thankful for having her as my friend. Srivatsan has been my other support system, one whom I can count upon to be on my side come what may. You guys will always be very special to me.

Sankar, Sridevi, Rahul, Rujuta and Deb have been my other friends who have always supported me and been part of many crazy parties. My friends outside Umass have always loved me and supported me no matter what. Polly, Amrita, Suman, Amar, Payal, Bhumi Shruti and other ACBR nuts. Thank you.

My parents and sister have been through a lot over the years that I have been here. It has been very hard to be here and not being able to provide them with the emotional support by being there. They have made sure that I am not worried about anything that happens and have given me their complete support, love and encouragement. I love you guys and this is for your dream of me becoming a doctor.

To Dad, Mom and Vandana

ABSTRACT

Cells need to complete DNA replication in a timely and error-free manner. To ensure that replication is completed efficiently and in a finite amount of time, cells regulate origin firing. To prevent any errors from being transmitted to the next generation, cells have the checkpoint mechanism.

The S-phase DNA damage slows replication to allow the cell to repair the damage. The mechanism of replication slowing by the checkpoint was not clear in fission yeast, *Schizosaccharomyces pombe,* at the start of my thesis. The downstream targets of the DNA damage checkpoint in fission yeast were also unclear. I worked on identifying the downstream targets for the checkpoint by studying if Cdc25, a phosphatase, is a target of the checkpoint.

Work from our lab has shown that origin firing is stochastic in fission yeast. Origins are also known to be inefficient. Inefficient origins firing stochastically would lead to large stretches of chromosome where no origins may fire randomly leading to long replication times, an issue called the random gap problem. However, cells do not take a long time to complete replication and the process of replication itself is efficient. I focused on understanding the mechanism by which cells complete replication and avoid the random gap problem by attempting to measure the firing efficiency of late origins.

Genome-wide origin studies in fission yeast have identified several hundred origins. However, the resolution of these studies can be improved upon. I began a genome-wide origin mapping study using deep sequencing to identify origins at a greater resolution compared to the previous studies. We have extended our origin search to two other *Schizosaccharomyces* species- *S. octosporus* and *S. japonicus*. There have been no origin mapping studies on these fission yeasts and identifying origins in these species will advance the field of replication.

My thesis research shows that Cdc25 is not a target of the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint. I showed that DNA damage checkpoint does not target Cdc2-Y15 to slow replication. Based on my preliminary observation, origin firing might be inhibited by the DNA damage checkpoint as a way to slow replication. My efforts to measure the firing efficiency of a late replicating sequence were hindered by potentially unidentified inefficient origins firing at a low rate and replicating the region being studied. Studying the origin efficiency was maybe further complicated by neighboring origins being able to passively replicate the region. To identify origins in recently sequenced *Schizosaccharomyces* species, we initiated the genome-wide origin mapping. The mapping was also done on *S. pombe* to identify inefficient origins not mapped by other mapping studies. My work shows that deep sequencing can be used to map origins in other species and provides a powerful tool for origin studies.

Table of Tables

Table of Figures

List of files to be included later

1. List of 448 oligonucleotides for microarray studies at *AT2062* as described

in Chapter III will be included in the final E-copy of the thesis.

2. List of 768 oligos for microarray studies at the *ura4* locus as described in

Appendix III.2 will be included in the final E-copy of the thesis.

Chapter I

Introduction- DNA replication and origin efficiency

The process of DNA Replication

DNA replication is a crucial step in the cell cycle of all organisms (Bell and Dutta 2002). High fidelity must be maintained during this process in order to maintain genomic integrity. In prokaryotes, replication initiates at a single locus or origin, while in eukaryotes, replication is initiated from multiple points along the genome (Dutta and Bell 1997; Gilbert 2001; Bell and Dutta 2002). Therefore, eukaryotic replication is highly complex process. Activation of origins and initiation of replication must be tightly regulated.

The process of initiation requires the sequential and cell cycle dependent binding of proteins (Fangman and Brewer 1992; Kelly and Brown 2000). Several protein complexes are assembled at sites of replication initiation allowing these origins to fire.

In the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, the first complex formed is the pre-replicative complex (pre-RC) at the origin. This multiprotein complex consists of the origin recognition complex (ORC), Cdt1, Cdc6 and a hexameric complex of the minichromosomal maintenance proteins (Mcm 2-7) (Aparicio *et al.* 1997; Donovan *et al.* 1997; Tanaka *et al.* 1997; Nishitani *et al.* 2000). The fission yeast homolog of Cdc6 is Cdc18. Formation of the pre-RC on the origin is referred to as origin licensing. Two protein kinases, the cyclindependent kinase (CDK) Cdc2 and the Cdc7 homologue, Hsk1, phosphorylate pre-RC components, which lead to the activation of the pre-RC and loading of replication protein Cdc45, a replication initiation protein essential for replication. Loading of Cdc45 is followed by the attachment of Replication protein A (RPA), polymerases, establishment of replication forks and the initiation of replication {Figure I.1}(Zou and Stillman 1998; Zou and Stillman 2000; Masai and Arai 2002).

Formation of Pre-RC complex

The pre-RC is assembled during the G1 phase of the cell cycle. The origin recognition complex (ORC) is composed of six proteins Orc1-6. The ORC proteins are conserved from yeast to metazoans. ORC components display DNA binding activity and were originally identified in budding yeast (Bell and Stillman 1992). The timing of ORC recruitment does not appear to be conserved between organisms (Gilbert 2001). In fission yeast, ORC associates with replication origins both *in vivo* and *in vitro* and is formed during the late M and G1 phase *(*Chuang *et al.* 2002; Kong and DePamphilis 2002; Takahashi *et al.* 2003*)*. Human ORC is capable of binding to any primary DNA sequence. ORC binds to the DNA in an ATP dependent manner. Fission yeast Orc4p has multiple AT hook motifs present at N terminus, which are absent in other organisms (Chuang and Kelly 1999). This hook is essential for viability in fission yeast and is shown to prefer AT rich tracts of DNA. ORC remains bound to the DNA throughout the cell cycle in the case of budding and fission yeast (Santocanale and Diffley 1996; Aparicio *et al.* 1997; Tanaka *et al.* 1997; Ogawa *et al.* 1999). However, in

Figure I.1 Formation of protein complexes leading to origin firing

Origin recognition complex marks the origin sites. At the beginning of G1, MCM complex is recruited by Cdc18 and Cdt1 loading onto the chromatin and this complex is known as pre-replicative complex (pre-RC). The origin is now licensed to fire. G1-S transition marks the recruitment of more factors, shown in the figure, to the pre-RC forming the pre-initiation complex (pre-IC) and leading to the initiation of replication. Once the origins are fired, further licensing is prevented and the complexes are converted to post-replicative complex (post-RC).

Figure I.1 Formation of protein complexes leading to origin firing

mammals, only the Orc2 subunit is continuously associated with the chromatin whereas Orc1 disassociates with the chromatin at the end of S phase and attaches again only at the beginning of G1 (Natale *et al.* 2000; Tatsumi *et al.* 2000). This data is consistent with the observation that Orc1 chromatin association is diminished in mitosis. Similarly, in *Xenopus* ORC is cleared from chromatin during metaphase (Carpenter *et al.* 1996; Romanowski *et al.* 1996).

ORC binding to the origin recruits the initiation proteins Cdc6 and Cdt1. ORC binding to the chromatin is essential for Cdc6 and Cdc6 in turn is required for Mcm2-7 association (Coleman *et al.* 1996; Aparicio *et al.* 1997). A direct association of the budding yeast protein with the origins has also been shown by ChIP (Tanaka *et al.* 1997). Cdc6 is an AAA+ ATPase and has been shown to increase the stability of ORC on chromatin while simultaneously inhibiting nonspecific ORC binding (Mizushima *et al.* 2000; Harvey and Newport 2003). Cdc6 is a cycling protein. In budding and fission yeast, after cells have entered S phase, Cdc6 is targeted for degradation by SCF*CDC4* dependent ubiquitination and undergoes proteosome mediated degradation (Jallepalli *et al.* 1998; Wolf *et al.* 1999; Perkins *et al.* 2001). Degradation occurs after CDK dependent phosphorylation of the N terminus as shown by mutation studies (Jallepalli *et al.* 1998; Perkins *et al.* 2001). In mammals, CDK dependent phosphorylation promotes the export of Cdc6 from the nucleus. Cdc6 is subsequently degraded by the anaphase promoting complex (APC) during metaphase (Petersen *et al.* 2000).

In fission yeast, Cdt1 associates with the C terminus of Cdc6 and leads to the recruitment of MCM proteins to growing origin complex (Nishitani *et al.* 2000). Much like Cdc6, Cdt1 levels peak in G1 and as the cell progresses through S phase it declines. Crystal structure of the Cdc6 homolog *Pyrobaculum aerophilium* has shown that it is an AAA+ ATPase and is suspected to be a prime candidate to act as the clamp loader as a part of ORC (Perkins and Diffley 1998; Liu *et al.* 2000). Some of the proteins of the ORC- Orc1, 4 and 5- also belong to AAA+ ATPase family (Lee *et al.* 2000). It is highly likely that these proteins along with Cdc6 act as a clamp loader to load the replicative helicase MCM complex on the origins.

After Cdt1 and Cdc6 loading, origin DNA must be unwound. This process requires the Mcm2-7 complex (Walter and Newport 2000). The MCM complex is a heterohexamer formed by six different Mcm proteins. Mcm2-7 are essential in both budding and fission yeast (Kelly and Brown 2000). ORC, Cdc6 and Cdt1 are all required for MCM origin recruitment. The recruitment of MCM requires ATP hydrolysis by both Cdc18 and ORC subunits (Randell *et al.* 2006). After the MCM complex has been loaded, ORC and Cdc6 are no longer required for origin firing indicating that these two proteins act primarily to load the MCM helicase (Rowles *et al.* 1999; Walter and Newport 2000). MCM proteins are the only components of the pre-RC known to associate with replication forks (Labib *et al.* 2000). Previous works using various techniques have suggested the Mcm complex to act as the replicative helicase during S phase (Labib and Diffley 2001; Forsburg 2004). MCM complex has only recently been shown to actually have the *in vitro* helicase activity (Bochman and Schwacha 2008). The subcomplex of Mcm2-7- Mcm4, 6 and 7- display limited *in vitro* helicase activity (Lee *et al.* 2001; You *et al.* 2002) suggesting that Mcm4/6/7 acts as the core helicase with Mcm2/3/5 working as the regulatory subunits. All six proteins are required for ATPase activity (Schwacha and Bell 2001). The structure of the MCM complex as seen by EM studies shows the fission yeast MCM proteins forming a doughnut-like structure with a central cavity (Adachi *et al.* 1997). A similar toroidal structure with six lobes surrounding a central cavity has been observed by EM for human Mcm4/6/7 complex (Sato *et al.* 2000). Presumably DNA strand(s) occupy this central cavity.

MCM proteins are present in the nucleus only during G1 and S phase in budding yeast and are actively exported to the cytoplasm during G2. Only an intact six-subunit complex is able to re-enter nucleus in both budding and fission yeast (Labib *et al.* 1999; Nguyen *et al.* 2000). Export of the unbound MCM proteins has been shown to be mediated by the Crm1 nuclear export factor in fission yeast (Pasion and Forsburg 1999). In fission yeast, the bulk of the MCM proteins are constitutively nuclear (Bell and Dutta 2002). Likewise, in metazoans, MCM proteins are present in the nucleus constitutively and their chromatin association weakens through the S phase (Lei and Tye 2001).

MCM recruitment completes the formation of the pre-RC. Origins bound by the pre-RC are licensed to fire or are capable of firing. However, only a fraction of licensed origins actually fire (Santocanale and Diffley 1996; Walter and Newport 1997; Okuno *et al.* 2001). If, for some reason, the origins that are licensed, fail to fire, then neighboring licensed dormant origins fire (Santocanale *et al.* 1999).

In order for the origins to fire, the pre-RC must be converted to preinitiation complex (pre-IC) during the G1 to S transition. Not all pre-RC's are converted to pre-IC. Cdc2 and Hsk1-dependent phosphorylation is required for initiating replication at the pre-RCs and ultimately, activation of the MCM helicase.

Initiation of Replication

Mcm10 is the earliest initiation factor that binds to the pre-RC. It is essential for the subsequent steps of the complex formation to take place. A role has been suggested for Mcm10 in the fork elongation and presumably travels along with the replication fork (Gregan *et al.* 2003). Mcm10 seems to have several critical functions while the replication fork is traveling and is needed for pre-RC formation only in budding yeast and not in fission yeast or *Xenopus* (Homesley *et al.* 2000). Mcm10 binds to the chromatin independently of Mcm2-7 except in *Xenopus* where the MCM complex needs to be loaded first

(Wohlschlegel *et al.* 2002; Gregan *et al.* 2003). In mammals, MCM10 displays a cyclic chromatin association, which is highest during S phase, unlike budding yeast, which displays constitutive chromatin binding (Izumi *et al.* 2000; Izumi *et al.* 2001).

Replication is triggered at the origins when the S phase cell cycle regulated kinases, Hsk1 (Cdc7 in budding yeast) and cyclin dependent kinase (CDK) Cdc2, are activated (Kelly and Brown 2000; Bell and Dutta 2002; Masai and Arai 2002; Kim *et al.* 2003). CDK and Dbf4-dependent kinase (DDK) modify the pre-RC and facilitate the loading of additional factors, which are required for the initiation of DNA synthesis (Jares and Blow 2000).

Cyclin dependent kinases ensure the progression through various phases of the cell cycle including initiation of replication. In fission yeast, the CDK activity is low at the beginning of the S phase but the levels gradually increase through the S phase. It is presumed that CDK's intermediate levels are sufficient to initiate replication but are below the threshold for its mitotic functions. However, CDK does play a major role during replication, phosphorylating many replication factors (Kelly and Brown 2000). Mammals have different CDKs for different stages of the cell cycle. Fission yeast however expresses a single CDK, Cdc2. The major cyclin Cdc2 associates with in fission yeast is Cdc13. There are three other cyclins Cig1, Cig2 and Puc1 which are also present and have overlapping functions (Fisher and Nurse 1996).

In addition to CDK Cdc2, the Cdc7 kinase is required. Cdc7 has a catalytic partner, Dbf4 and the heterodimer is known as Dbf4-dependent kinase (DDK). The fission yeast analog of budding yeast Dbf4 is Dfp1. Dfp1 expression is periodic with levels peaking at the beginning of S phase. DDK kinase activity is required for Cdc45 recruitment to the pre-RC (Walter and Newport 2000; Zou and Stillman 2000). DDK activates origins throughout S phase (Bousset and Diffley 1998; Patel *et al.* 2008). DDK phosphorylates MCM and Mcm10 is required for the interaction between DDK and MCM complex (Lee *et al.* 2003). The phosphorylation has been shown both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (Lei *et al.* 1997; Jares and Blow 2000; Jares *et al.* 2000). DDK preferentially phosphorylates chromatin bound MCM (Sheu and Stillman 2006).

Recently the essential targets for phosphorylation by CDK have been identified as Sld2 and Sld3 (Tanaka *et al.* 2007; Zegerman and Diffley 2007). Phosphorylation allows them to bind to Dpb11. The fission yeast homolog of Dpb11 is Rad4. This in turn recruits Cdc45, Go, Ichi, Nii and San (GINS) and DNA polymerases to the origin DNA (Labib and Gambus 2007).

Cdc45 is the initiation protein, which is required not only for initiating replication but also for maintaining replication. It has been suggested that Cdc45 along with GINS are responsible for stimulating the helicase activity of MCM by forming the Cdc45/Mcm2-7/GINS (CMG) complex (Moyer *et al.* 2006).

It has also been suggested that CDK and DDK function in parallel and lead to the loading of Cdc45 onto the chromatin {Figure I.2} (Dolan *et al.* 2004). Cdc45 recruitment initiates replication, presumably by activating the MCM helicase unwinding origin DNA. DNA unwinding leads to the recruitment of the DNA polymerases- DNA pol α , δ and ε. The processivity factor, Proliferating Cell Nuclear Antigen (PCNA) then encircles the DNA and topologically links the polymerase to DNA (Jonsson and Hubscher 1997). This loading of PCNA is done by the clamp loader, replication factor C (RFC) (Ellison and Stillman 2001). Replication forks then travel in a bi-directional manner with MCM and Cdc4 traveling with the forks {Figure I.3}.

How is re-replication prevented?

Replication must be a highly coordinated and controlled process. Cells must ensure replication occurs only once during each round of the cell cycle. Rereplication would lead to chromosomal breakage and genomic instability. To prevent re-replication, cells must ensure any origin will fire only once during S phase. Several studies have identified different mechanisms utilized to ensure fired origins cannot fire again. In budding yeast, origin firing leads to disassembly of the pre-RC, hence ensuring that origins fire only once during each cell cycle {Table I.1} (Diffley 1996).

Figure I.2 Hsk1 and Cdc2 regulate initiation of replication

Hsk1-dfp1 kinase regulates the assembly of the replication complex on the origins. It does so by phosphorylating MCM proteins to allow for the binding of Sld3. Rad4 and Drc1 on the other hand mediate the signal from CDK Cdc2 to initiate replication. Cdc2 phosphorylates Drc1. The regulation by both DDK and CDK is required to activate the preRC and initiate replication and disrupting either signals leads to the disruption of the origin firing. Adapted from Dolan and forsburg 2004

Figure I.2 Hsk1 and Cdc2 regulate initiation of replication

Figure I.3 Steps leading to the formation of Initiation complex

The model is based on studies of the various replication factors. At the beginning of S phase, after the formation of pre-RC, Sld3 binds to the origins where the pre-RC is bound in a DDK dependent manner. CDK is then needed for the binding of GINS and Cut5. Cut5 and GINS are mutually dependent for binding. Cdc45 then binds to the origins only if these three factors have bound to the origin. Binding of cdc45 leads to the initiation of replication. Adapted from Yabuuchi and Yamada 2006

Figure I.3 Steps leading to the formation of Initiation complex

Table I.1 Mechanisms for preventing pre-RC formation

Cdc6, ORC and Cdt1 are the licensing factors that need to be regulated or prevented from reattaching to origin sites and licensing them. CDK is the primary regulator for preventing licensing once the S phase has begun, which it does by phosphorylating its targets. Intermediate levels of CDK are required for initiating S phase but also lead to prevention of pre-RC formation. Therefore pre-RC may only be formed when CDK levels are low at the M/G1 transition. Beginning with S phase initiation, CDK levels rise and thereby prevent pre-RC formation.

CDK interacts and phosphorylates subunits of ORC, which is necessary to prevent further pre-RC formation (Nguyen *et al.* 2001; Vas *et al.* 2001). Studies have shown that replication may be initiated in G2 phase if CDK activity is inhibited (Itzhaki *et al.* 1997). In mammals, ORC affinity for chromatin decreases after origins fire. In fission yeast, CDK is recruited by ORC and disruption of this interaction allows re-replication (Wuarin *et al.* 2002). In eukaryotes, CDK activity results in reduction of Cdc6 activity. In budding yeast, beginning in S phase, CDK protein levels increase, phosphorylate Cdc6 and target it for SCF mediated ubiquitination and proteolytic degradation (Drury *et al.* 1997; Jallepalli *et al.* 1997). In vertebrates, Cdc6 activity is prevented by its export from the nucleus upon CDK phosphorylation (Saha *et al.* 1998; Delmolino *et al.* 2001). Cdt1 on the other hand becomes ubiquitinated only after PCNA loading at fired origins in fission yeast (Arias and Walter 2006). In mammals, Cdt1 is phosphorylated by CDK and targeted for degradation (Liu *et al.* 2004). In budding yeast Cdt1 is exported away from the nucleus (Tanaka and Diffley 2002).

MCMs on the other hand, travel with the forks and hence are no longer present at the origins (Aparicio *et al.* 1997). The MCMs that are nuclear but not bound to the chromatin have a decreased affinity for chromatin due to phosphorylation by CDK (Coue *et al.* 1996; Fujita *et al.* 1998). In budding yeast, MCMs released from the forks are exported from the nucleus (Labib *et al.* 1999; Nguyen *et al.* 2000).

Another mechanism for preventing re replication is seen in metazoans. Geminin forms a dimer with and prevents Cdt1 dependent origin licensing (McGarry and Kirschner 1998; Maiorano *et al.* 2004). Geminin prevents Cdt1 dependent Mcm recruitment through steric hindrance of the Mcm-Cdt1 interaction (Cook *et al.* 2004).

Early studies on origin sites

Replication is initiated at defined regions of the genome called origins. Origins are best characterized in budding yeast. Origins are defined sequences capable of initiating replication or autonomously replicating sequences (ARS). Origins were originally identified using plasmid stability studies in proliferating yeast. Two-dimensional gel electrophoresis has also been used to study origins in both plasmid and native chromosomal context (Brewer and Fangman 1987; Brewer and Fangman 1991). Budding yeast contains a 10-12bp ARS conserved signature sequence called the ARS consensus sequence (ACS). Budding yeast origins are about 100-150 bp containing one ACS element and 2-3 additional origin B elements (Newlon and Theis 1993; Bell *et al.* 1995). Only 1 of these ACS elements is actually conserved between origins (Rao et al, 1994). Budding yeast origins fire with high efficiency at defined periods of the S phase (Kelly and Brown 2000; Gilbert 2001). Origins are defined as either early or late firing (Raghuraman *et al.* 2001; Yabuki *et al.* 2002). However, there is no clear demarcation between early and late firing origins. Rather, origins fire throughout S phase (Raghuraman *et al.* 2001).

Due to a lack of well-defined difference between early and late firing origins it is very difficult to identify which origins fire early or which fire late. This problem can be circumvented by using the drug hydroxyurea. Origins firing in the presence of hydroxyurea are defined as early origins (Santocanale and Diffley 1998; Kim and Huberman 2001; Lopes *et al.* 2001). Hydroxyurea is a ribonucleotide reductase inhibitor, which prevents deoxyribonucleotide synthesis. The inhibition leads to nucleotide depletion and because of this, replicating forks cannot incorporate nucleotides at the regions where replication is occurring and hence the forks stall. Hydroxyurea triggers the replication checkpoint that prevents origins from firing. Early origins are able to fire before the pools of nucleotides are depleted and before the checkpoint activity prevents firing, hence they fire during early S phase (Yabuki *et al.* 2002). Late origins do not fire in HU and are prevented from doing so by the replication checkpoint (Shirahige *et al.* 1998). Genome-wide studies in yeast have identified and mapped many origins

(Raghuraman *et al.* 2001; Yabuki *et al.* 2002; Segurado *et al.* 2003; Feng *et al.* 2006; Heichinger *et al.* 2006; Eshaghi *et al.* 2007; Hayashi *et al.* 2007).

Unlike budding yeast origins, metazoan origins are not well defined and average origin firing efficiency is low. Several studies indicate that in *Xenopus* and *Drosophila* embryos any region is capable of acting as an origin and replication therefore may be initiated from anywhere in the genome (Hyrien and Mechali 1993; Shinomiya and Ina 1994). In mammals origins have been difficult to identify. Regions where ORC binds have not been identified and the origins that are known are highly inefficient with the best studied example, hamster DHFR locus firing only 20% of the time (Burhans and Huberman 1994; Gilbert 2001; Dijkwel *et al.* 2002).

Origins in fission yeast

Fission yeast serves as an excellent model organism for origin studies related to higher eukaryotes. Unlike budding yeast origins, but like metazoans, fission yeast origins contain no consensus sequence. However, replication does initiate at defined regions in the genome in fission yeast (Dubey *et al.* 1994; Gomez and Antequera 1999). Fission yeast origins are large AT rich regions (Clyne and Kelly 1995; Dubey *et al.* 1996; Segurado *et al.* 2003; Dai *et al.* 2005). Similar to metazoans, fission yeast origins are inefficient with the average efficiency ranging between 25-40% (Dubey *et al.* 1994; Gomez and Antequera 1999; Kim and Huberman 2001; Segurado *et al.* 2002; Segurado *et al.* 2003; Patel *et al.* 2006). Lastly, fission yeast origins are not always interchangeable with the budding yeast origins (Clyne and Kelly 1995). Hence the mechanisms of origin regulation in fission yeast maybe more similar to metazoans {Figure I.4}.

Genome-wide studies have been conducted recently in an effort to identify origins across the genome. One of the earliest efforts was done by bioinformatic analysis where AT rich sequences were the criteria used to select origins (Segurado *et al.* 2003). They looked for regions greater than 72% AT rich, and these AT rich segments should be present in 0.5-1 Kb windows. This method identified 384 AT rich islands, which could serve as origins and 20 of them tested for origin activity by 2-D gel electrophoresis. It was shown recently that fission yeast origins had properties similar to the inter-genic regions (Dai *et al.* 2005).

Another genome-wide analysis is based upon mapping single stranded DNA on ORF microarrays in the presence of HU. The analysis in an S-phase checkpoint deficient strain identified 321 origins in fission yeast (Feng *et al.* 2006). 61% of these origins function during a regular S-phase which suggests that S-phase checkpoint functions in suppressing many origins which will be discussed later.
Figure I.4 Origins in fission yeast and stochasticity of origin selection

(A) Fission yeast origins are characterized by AT rich islands. These are regions of asymmetric stretches of adenine or thiamine. The origins are located in the inter-genic regions as identified by various studies. (B) Origins in fission yeast display stochasticity in firing. Different origins fire in each cell during cell cycle. Each origin fires only in a fraction of cells. Origins are marked by a red line and the corresponding efficiency is given above the origin location. (C) Temporal stochasticity is marked by origins firing throughout S phase. There are no clear demarcations as to when an origin fires early and when it fires late. Adapted from Legouras and Lygerou, 2006

Figure I.4 Origins in fission yeast and stochasticity of origin selection

Recently, Heichinger *et al* have identified more origins in fission yeast based on an increase in copy number with a resolution of about 6.5 Kb (Heichinger *et al.* 2006). DNA content was measured in the G2 phase and S phase of the cell cycle and the regions that had doubled their amount of DNA were the regions that had replicated. They identified 401 strong and 503 putative weak origins which seemed to be spaced on average every 14 kb throughout the genome (Heichinger *et al.* 2006).

As part of this thesis, I have participated in a genome-wide study to find origins using a similar copy change number described in Heichinger *et al*, 2006. However, this study was done using deep sequencing the details of which will be described in Chapter IV. We have also done similar studies on two other *Schizosaccharomyces* species; *S. octosporus* and *S. japonicus*.

Origin location influences timing of firing

Origin location is important for its efficiency (Friedman *et al.* 1995). Inefficient origins can be made to fire if their passive replication is prevented by neighboring origins (Santocanale *et al.* 1999). Late firing origins located in a heterochromatic region may fire early if transferred to euchromatin (Stevenson and Gottschling 1999; Vogelauer *et al.* 2002). Also, early firing origins may be forced to fire late by placing them in heterochromatin (Friedman *et al.* 1996;

Zappulla *et al.* 2002). This data shows that origin location dictates whether that origin will fire early or late.

What is Random gap problem?

In contrast to budding yeast where efficient origins are spaced relatively evenly across the genome, only a few licensed origins actually fire in humans and fission yeast. Origin firing in fission yeast is random in nature compounding potential problems completing replication. Random firing was determined by measuring the distance between origins that had fired. Patel *et al* found an exponential distribution of inter-origin distances which was interpreted as stochasticity of origin firing {Figure I.4} (Patel *et al.* 2006). Random and inefficient origin firing may lead to disastrous consequences. Large regions of the genome may have no origin firing due to the stochastic firing of origins, thereby leading to cells taking a long time to complete replication, a problem known as 'random gap problem' (Lucas *et al.* 2000; Herrick *et al.* 2002; Jun *et al.* 2004). In a recent paper on budding yeast, it was shown that although budding yeast seems to have a highly regulated temporal program, when looked at globally, at the individual cell level replication seems to be stochastic. This data argues that even in budding yeast there is a randomness at a local level instead of a regulated temporal program as shown previously (Czajkowsky *et al.* 2008). However, cells are able to finish replication in an efficient manner (Hyrien *et al.* 2003). Hence there is no random gap problem and cells must employ a mechanism to regulate origin firing. Several models have been proposed to explain this discrepancy.

How fission yeast reconciles random origin firing and inefficient origins with efficient replication is the focus of my studies. My hypothesis is that the origin efficiency increases as the cells progress through S phase. In order to test this, my thesis has focused on measuring the efficiency of an origin during the later part of S phase. Chapter III discusses the model that I believe explains this conundrum and my efforts to show this.

In order to understand why origins are inefficient biochemically, we hypothesized that there is a rate-determining factor that is responsible for activating all the origins. This factor would have to be present in limited quantities and be physically present at each origin. Any of the factors that are responsible for activating the pre-RC would be good candidates. Studies in our lab have shown that this factor is Dfp1 which is the activating co-factor of Hsk1 Kinase (Patel *et al.* 2008). This work is presented in Appendix III.1.

DNA damage checkpoints and origins

Replication is far from perfect and its progress is hampered by damage both endogenous and spontaneous, to DNA. In order to ensure an error free transmission of genetic material, cells have devised elaborate mechanisms such as various repair systems and cell cycle checkpoints to detect unreplicated DNA, DNA damage and repair aberrant DNA structures (Zhou and Elledge 2000).

Checkpoints are molecular signaling cascades that delay or arrest the cellcycle in response to DNA damage, thereby providing sufficient time for repair. Checkpoint signaling consists of damage sensors, which sense the damage, transducers which relay these signals, and effectors which regulate the various targets of the checkpoint (Elledge 1996). The phase of the cell cycle where the damage occurs determines the specific response. Checkpoints ensure the accurate segregation of genetic material and repair of damage and ensure that cells meet the specific cell size, mass and nutrition requirements. The absence of checkpoints can be lethal to cells. DNA damage results in mutations, chromosomal rearrangements and aneuploidy which can lead to cancer (Hartwell *et al.* 1994). There are four different DNA damage checkpoints. The G1-S, S-M and G2-M checkpoints are responsible for arresting the cell cycle until the damage is repaired. The S-phase damage checkpoint slows replication till the damage is repaired.

The G1-S checkpoint ensures that cells have reached a sufficient size before entering the S phase of the cell cycle and repair any damage during G1. G2-M checkpoint prevents mitosis in the presence of damage to ensure that damaged chromosomes do not undergo chromosomal segregation. The S-M checkpoint prevents mitosis till the entire DNA is replicated to ensure that cell division does not take place with incomplete copies of the genome. The S-phase DNA damage checkpoint slows replication in the presence of damage to allow cells to repair the damage before completing replication. My work focuses on the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint.

How does S-phase DNA damage checkpoint work?

S-phase DNA damage checkpoint is activated and responds to DNA damage occurring in S phase. This checkpoint slows replication in contrast to the other checkpoints, which induce a complete cell cycle arrest (Painter and Young 1980; Rowley *et al.* 1999). This checkpoint is conserved in eukaryotic organisms and requires the Ataxia-Telangectasia Mutated (ATM) family of protein kinases (Kastan and Lim 2000). There are two members of this family, Ataxia-Telangectasia Related (ATR) and ATM in metazoans (Savitsky *et al.* 1995; Bentley *et al.* 1996), Mec1 & Tel1 in budding yeast, and Rad3 & Tel1 in fission yeast (Rhind and Russell 1998). In fission yeast Rad3 responds to all forms of DNA damage (Bentley *et al.* 1996). Effector proteins are also conserved and consist of Chk1 & Chk2 in vertebrates, Chk1 and Rad53 in budding yeast, and Chk1 & Cds1 in fission yeast {Table I.2} (Rhind and Russell 2000). DNA damage induced by methyl methane sulfonate (MMS) also slows fork progression (Tercero and Diffley 2001). Delay in S phase progression can be induced by the checkpoint either by inhibition of origin firing or by slowing fork progression. The presence of well defined origins in budding yeast has shown that late origins are

inhibited from firing and are Mec1 and Rad53 dependent (Shirahige *et al.* 1998; Tercero and Diffley 2001). However, the downstream targets of Rad3 have not been identified for slowing of replication.

A well characterized target of the checkpoint effectors in metazoans is cyclin dependent Kinase, Cdk2 {Figure I.5} (Falck *et al.* 2001). The inhibition of origin firing is mediated mainly by the effector Chk2 targeting Cdk2 via Cdc25. Cdk2 is inactivated when phosphorylation at Tyrosine-15 (Tyr-15) occurs and this inhibitory phosphate must be removed to activate Cdk2. The Cdk2-cyclin E complex, which facilitates loading of Cdc45 onto chromatin, is activated by Cdc25 phosphatase that removes the inhibitory phosphate from Cdk2. Chk2 phosphorylates Cdc25 thereby targeting it for degradation (Mailand *et al.* 2000; Falck *et al.* 2001; Sorensen *et al.* 2003; Xiao *et al.* 2003). However, in yeasts Cdc25 inactivation by the checkpoint has not been shown and the regulation of Cdc2 via this pathway has not been demonstrated.

A parallel pathway in the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint has been shown to exist in vertebrates and fission yeast which appears to act through a heterotrimeric complex consisting of Mre11, Rad50 and Nbs1 (MRN) (Costanzo *et al.* 2001; Falck *et al.* 2002). Mutations in one of the pathways show only a partial loss of the checkpoint and a loss of both the pathways is required for a complete loss of slowing {Figure I.5} (Falck *et al.* 2002).

Table I.2 Checkpoint components across the species

Figure I.5 Model for the S phase DNA damage checkpoint in Mammals

Ionizing radiation induces double stranded breaks (DSB). IR activates the checkpoint where ATM triggers the two parallel pathways, which work together to inhibit DNA replication. ATM phosphorylates Chk2, which in turn induces the destruction of Cdc25A phosphatase. The destruction of Cdc25A prevents the activation of the S phase cyclin E/Cdk2 complex by dephosphorylation, and does not allow the binding Cdc45 onto the origins. This inhibits the firing of origins and slows replication. ATM also initiates the second pathway by phosphorylating Nbs1, required for activating Nbs10-Mre11-Rad50 complex. The mechanism of replication slowing by this pathway is unknown. Adapted from Falck and Petrini, 2002

Figure I.5 Model for the S phase DNA damage checkpoint in Mammals

Similar to vertebrates, MRN mutants in fission yeast display a partial defect in S phase slowing implying the existence of a parallel pathway similar to mammals (Willis and Rhind 2009). The MRN independent pathway of the checkpoint has been shown to be dependent upon Rad3 and Cds1 (Marchetti *et al.* 2002). Although the downstream targets of this pathway are not known, recent studies have identified Cdc25 a possible candidate (Kumar and Huberman 2004). However, this seems unlikely in the case of fission yeast as the dephosphorylation of Cdc2 (fission yeast Cdk2) would lead to cells undergoing premature mitosis (Moser *et al.* 2000). It has always been assumed that Cdc2 remains phosphorylated during S phase in fission yeast. Therefore the role of

Cdc25 in the checkpoint needs to be studied to remove the ambiguity in the field. I have shown that Cdc25 is not the target of the intra S-DNA damage checkpoint in chapter II of my thesis (Kommajosyula and Rhind 2006). This shows that although the inhibition of origin firing is conserved between vertebrates and yeast; the mechanism is different (Shirahige *et al.* 1998; Kommajosyula and Rhind 2006; Kumar and Huberman 2009).

A key regulator required for origins to fire in S phase is the Hsk1/Dfp1 kinase. Hsk1 is a serine/threonine kinase that becomes activated after binding to its regulatory subunit Dfp1 (Jackson *et al.* 1993; Johnston *et al.* 1999). The activated Hsk1 then phosphorylates Mcm proteins at the origins (Lei *et al.* 1997). Budding yeast homologue Cdc7 has been shown to be necessary for initiation of early and late firing origins (Bousset and Diffley 1998; Donaldson *et al.* 1998). Cdc7 has been implicated in the checkpoint as a potential downstream target (Jares and Blow 2000). Hsk1 has been shown to be phosphorylated by Cds1 (Chk2 homolog) upon treatment with Hydroxyurea (HU) making Hsk1 a potential target for the checkpoint (Snaith *et al.* 2000). Thus, the DNA damage checkpoint can target Hsk1 through Cds1 and inhibit origin firing and slowing replication.

Origin regulation by checkpoints

A recent genome-wide study in fission yeast to identify origins was conducted in a checkpoint deficient strain. In this study the origins that were identified had a 61% overlap with origins firing in a regular S-phase. This showed that checkpoints also play a role in regular S phase (Feng *et al.* 2006). Various studies have shown that damage during S phase activates the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint, which inhibits origin firing (Shirahige *et al.* 1998; Kelly and Brown 2000). In mammals the lack of well defined origins has hampered the study of the checkpoint mechanisms. A few studies have shown that upon damage origin firing is inhibited by the checkpoint (Larner *et al.* 1999). Inhibition of origin firing has been supported by 2D gel analysis on replication of rDNA locus. rDNA is one of the few loci in mammals showing well defined early or late origins (Larner *et al.* 1999). The presence of well defined origins in mammals being an exception rather than a rule makes it harder to extrapolate the results from these studies to the whole genome. These studies have all been carried out on a population level and not on individual origins. A recent study using DNA fiber labeling technique has shown that different DNA damaging agents slow replication by different mechanisms including inhibition of origin firing and slowing of fork progression (Merrick *et al.* 2004). It is however not clear as to how fork progression is slowed and what molecules are playing a role in it. Since fission yeast have a similar origin setup, identification of the targets and mechanism of the checkpoint in them will help in understanding the human checkpoint due to the conserved nature of the checkpoints.

Work in my thesis has shown that Cdc25 is not a target of the intra-S DNA damage checkpoint. I have attempted to measure the efficiency of a late replicating sequence to fire. We have also shown that deep sequencing is a powerful tool for the identification of new origins in the *Schizosaccharomyces* species and further analysis will continue on this project.

Chapter II

Cdc2 tyrosine phosphorylation is not required for the S-phase

DNA damage checkpoint in fission yeast

ABSTRACT

The S-phase DNA damage checkpoint slows replication when damage occurs during S phase. Cdc25, which activates Cdc2 by dephosphorylating tyrosine-15, has been shown to be a downstream target of the checkpoint in metazoans, but its role is not clear in fission yeast. The dephosphorylation of Cdc2 has been assumed not to play a role in S-phase regulation because cells replicate in the absence of Cdc25, demonstrating that tyrosine-15 phosphorylated Cdc2 is sufficient for S phase. However, it has been reported recently that Cdc25 is required for the slowing of S phase in response to damage in fission yeast, suggesting a modulatory role for Cdc2 dephosphorylation in S phase. We have investigated the role of Cdc25 and the tyrosine phosphorylation of Cdc2 in the S-phase damage checkpoint, and our results show that Cdc2 phosphorylation is not a target of the checkpoint. The checkpoint was not compromised in a Cdc25 overexpressing strain, a strain carrying nonphosphorylatable form of Cdc2, or in a strain lacking Cdc25. Our results are consistent with a strictly Cdc2-Y15 phosphorylation-independent mechanism of the fission yeast S-phase DNA damage checkpoint.

INTRODUCTION

Cells slow replication in response to DNA damage during S phase (Bartek *et al.* 2004). This S-phase DNA damage checkpoint, also know as the intra-S checkpoint, does not completely block replication. Instead, it reduces the rate of bulk replication, about 50% in human cells, presumably allowing cells to coordinate replication with repair or bypass of the damage (Painter and Young 1980; Bartek *et al.* 2004). Although this checkpoint has been proposed to allow for the repair of damage during S phase, there is not a strong correlation between checkpoint proficiency and damage tolerance. Furthermore, DNA damage induced before or during S phase can persist through the checkpoint and be repaired in G2 (Orren *et al.* 1997; Rhind and Russell 1998). Nonetheless, loss of the checkpoint leads to increased chromosomal rearrangements and profound cancer predisposition in humans (Petrini 2000; Myung *et al.* 2001).

 The checkpoint pathway regulating replication in response to DNA damage is conserved amongst eukaryotes (Bartek *et al.* 2004). Members of the ATM-family of protein kinases form the center of the checkpoint pathway, serving to recognize DNA damage and initiate checkpoint signaling. ATM itself appears to be the major kinase in the vertebrate S-phase DNA damage checkpoint; the related kinases, Mec1 and Rad3, are required for the checkpoint in budding and fission yeast, respectively. When activated, these kinases phosphorylate a number of downstream effectors including the FHA-containing effector kinases – Rad53 in budding yeast, Cds1 in fission yeast and Chk2/Cds1 in vertebrates. In addition to these checkpoint kinases, an array of accessory damage recognition and checkpoint mediator proteins are also conserved. Although this signaling pathway is well conserved, it is less clear if its targets are also conserved.

A priori, there are two ways that the checkpoint could slow replication. It could reduce the number of replication forks by inhibiting origin firing or arresting a subset of active forks, or it could slow the rate of progression of a majority of forks. Origin firing is inhibited by the checkpoint in vertebrates and in budding yeast (Santocanale and Diffley 1998; Shirahige *et al.* 1998; Larner *et al.* 1999; Costanzo *et al.* 2000). In vertebrates, Chk2 regulates origin firing by targeting Cdc25A for proteolysis, thus preventing the dephosphorylation and activation of S-phase cyclin-dependent kinases such as Cdk2/Cyclin E, which are required for origin firing throughout S phase (Costanzo *et al.* 2000; Falck *et al.* 2001).

In addition to the Cdc25-dependent regulation of origin firing, there is a parallel, Cdc25-independent checkpoint mechanism in mammals (Falck *et al.* 2002; Henry-Mowatt *et al.* 2003). Although the mechanism of this branch of the checkpoint is not well understood, it is known to require ATM phosphorylation of MRN, a heterotrimeric recombinational repair complex consisting of Mre11, Rad50 and Nbs1. MRN is involved in homologous and non-homologous recombinational repair, as well as meiotic recombination, DNA damage signaling and telomere maintenance. The fact that MRN is required only for the Cdc25independent branch of the checkpoint suggests that it acts downstream in the checkpoint pathway, rather than as an upstream signaling factor (Falck *et al.* 2002). The regulation of fork progression has also been shown to require the XRCC3 recombination protein (Henry-Mowatt *et al.* 2003). The role of MRN in the regulation of recombination, and the role of XRCC3 in regulating fork progression, has lead to the speculation that the checkpoint may slow replication fork progression through induction of replication-coupled recombinational repair (Rhind and Russell 2000; Henry-Mowatt *et al.* 2003).

The targets of the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint in fission yeast are less well defined. The role of the tyrosine-15 phosphorylation of Cdc2 (the only cyclin-dependent kinase in fission yeast) as a checkpoint target has been well established. In response to DNA damage in G2 or replication blocks during S phase, Cdc25 is inhibited, preventing the dephosphorylation of Cdc2 tyrosine-15 and arresting cells before mitosis (Rhind *et al.* 1997; Rhind and Russell 1998). It has also been reported that inhibition of Cdc25 and phosphorylation of Cdc2 tyrosine-15 are required to slow replication in response to DNA damage (Kumar and Huberman 2004).

The published work notwithstanding, there is reason to suspect that Cdc2 tyrosine phosphorylation is not the target of the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint. Since Cdc2 is the only cyclin-dependent kinase in fission yeast, and since it is required for both replication and mitosis, it has been assumed that there must be different mechanisms of Cdc2 regulation that independently regulate these two events. The model with the most experimental support proposes that different levels of Cdc2 activity trigger the different events: replication is triggered by moderate level of Cdc2 activity, comprised of tyrosine phosphorylated Cdc2/cyclin complexes, and mitosis is triggered by the high level Cdc2 activity achieved when Cdc2/cyclin complexes are dephosphorylated (Stern and Nurse 1996). Consistent with this model, tyrosine-15 kinase activity of the Mik1 tyrosine kinase is high in S-phase, while Cdc25 levels are low, favoring Cdc2 tyrosine phosphorylation during S-phase (Moreno *et al.* 1990; Christensen *et al.* 2000). Consequently, Cdc2 remains largely phosphorylated during S-phase (Gould and Nurse 1989). Furthermore, it is clear that the bulk of Cdc2 cannot be dephosphorylated during S-phase, because such premature dephosphorylation leads to immediate and catastrophic mitosis (Lundgren *et al.* 1991). These observations are inconsistent with general activation of Cdc25 during S-phase. Yet, for inhibition of Cdc25 to be an important target of the S-phase DNA damage target, Cdc25 would have to be active during S-phase, and required for timely replication. Therefore, its activity would have to be limited, either in extent or location, to prevent premature mitosis. Such a subtle regulatory role for Cdc25 seems unlikely, because Cdc25 can be replaced by unrelated tyrosine phosphatases, either human T-cell protein tyrosine phosphatase or overexpression of fission yeast Pyp3 (Gould *et al.* 1990; Millar *et al.* 1992). In both cases, replication appears normal (our unpublished result). This line of reasoning argues against a role for Cdc25 in the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint. Therefore we have revisited the question of whether Cdc25 or the tyrosine phosphorylation of Cdc2 is required for the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint in fission yeast.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Yeast methods

Yeast were grown in YES at 30°C and manipulated by standard methods (Forsburg and Rhind 2006). Temperature-sensitive (ts) cells were grown at 25°C unless otherwise stated. Strains used for this study are listed in Table 1.

Flow cytometry methods

Isolated nuclei were prepared for flow cytometry by an adaptation of the protocol of Carlson el al (Carlson et al. 1997; Forsburg and Rhind 2006). 1.0 OD of cells was fixed in 70% EtOH, washed in 1 ml 0.6M KCl, resuspended in 1 ml 0.6 M KCl, 1 mg/ml Novozym 234 (Sigma L1412), 0.3 mg/ml Zymolyase 20T and incubated for 30 min at 37°C. The cells were pelleted, resuspended in 1 ml 0.1 M KCl 0.1% triton-X100 and incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature. The cells were washed and resuspended in 1 ml 20 mM Tris-HCl, 5 mM EDTA pH 8.0. 10 µl 20 mg/ml RNase A was added and the cells were incubated overnight at 37°C. The spheroplasted cells were disrupted, and isolated nuclei released, by sonication with a Branson Sonifier using a microtip at 0.7 power for 5 seconds. 300 µl of disrupted cells were added to 300 µl of 2 mM Sytox Green (Molecular Probes) in PBS and analyzed on a Becton-Dickinson FACScan flow cytometer. G1 synchronized experiments were quantitated in CellQuest (Becton-

Table II.1 - Strain list

Strain	Genotype	Source
yFS104	h+ leu1-32 ura4-D18	Lab Stock
yFS189	h- leu1-32 ura4-D18 ade6-704 rad3::ura4	Lab Stock
yFS260	h- leu1-32 ura4-D18 cdc10-M17 rad3::ura4	Lab Stock
yFS280	h+ leu1-32 ura4-D18 ade6-210 cdc10- M17	Lab Stock
yFS357	h+ leu1-32 ura4-D18 his3-237 ura4 adh1:cdc25	Russell Lab (Russell and Nurse 1986)
KGY14	h- leu1-32 ura4-D18 cdc2::ura4 cdc2- Y15F LEU2	Gould Lab (Gould and Nurse 1989)
yFS430	h- leu1-32 ura4-D18 ade6-210 his3-237 cdc10-M17 ura4 adh1:cdc25	This study
yFS445	h- leu1-32 ura4-D18 cdc2::ura4 cdc2- Y15F LEU2 cdc25::ura4	This study
yFS437	h+ leu1-32 ura4-D18 cdc2::ura4 cdc2- Y15F LEU2 cdc10-M17	This study

Dickinson) by measuring the mean of the S-phase peak as a percentage of the position of between the means of the 1C and 2C controls.

Asynchronous Experiments

Asynchronous experiments were carried out as described (Kumar and Huberman 2004), except that flow cytometry was carried out using the isolated nuclei protocol described above. Briefly, cells were grown to an O.D. of 1.0, diluted to an O.D. 0.1 and allowed to recover for 1 hour. At this time, the culture was divided and treated as described. Samples were collected after every hour, fixed by 70% ethanol and processed for flow cytometry.

Synchronous Experiments

We used centrifugal elutriation to synchronize cells either in G1 or G2. Since fission yeast spends a short time in G1, experiments were conducted in *cdc10-M17* background to synchronize cells in G1. Cultures were grown to O.D. 0.5 arrested at 35°C for 1.5 hours and then synchronized by elutriation. The culture was divided and treated with 0.03% MMS, 10 mM hydroxyurea (HU) or mock treated. The cells were kept at 25°C and samples collected after every 20 minutes for 3 hours.

For G2 synchronization, cultures were grown to O.D. 1.0 and elutriated. The synchronized samples were divided and treated with 0.015% MMS, 10 mM hydroxyurea (HU) or mock treated. Cells were collected after every 20 minutes and processed for flow cytometry.

RESULTS

We employed flow cytometry to assay the S-phase checkpoint response of fission yeast to DNA damage. To reduce cytoplasmic background and thus increase sensitivity, we performed our analyses on isolated nuclei (Carlson *et al.* 1997). Initially, we examined the response of asynchronous cultures (Kumar and Huberman 2004). Fission yeast spend most of their cell cycle in G2, therefore the cytometry profile of an asynchronous culture is largely 2C, with a small 1C and Sphase population (Figure II.1A). The alkylating agent methyl methane sulfonate (MMS), which produces DNA damage in the form of base adducts, was used to induce DNA damage and activate the checkpoint. MMS damage is most efficiently recognized during replication, and therefore preferentially activates the S-phase checkpoint, rather than the G2 checkpoint. However, at 0.03% MMS, the standard concentration used in previous synchronous checkpoint experiments (Lindsay *et al.* 1998), a significant fraction of cells in an asynchronous culture arrest in G2 (our unpublished observation). Therefore, for these experiments we used 0.015% MMS, a concentration used in previous asynchronous experiments (Kumar and Huberman 2004). Hydroxyurea (HU), a ribonucleotide reductase inhibitor which arrests cells in the early S-phase by depleting deoxynucleotides, was used as a control for cells containing close to 1C DNA content. As previously reported, wild type cells respond to MMS treatment by accumulating as sub-2C cells, presumably due to slowing of bulk replication (Figure II.1A) (Lindsay *et al.* 1998; Kumar and Huberman 2004). In

Figure II.1 S-phase DNA damage checkpoint analysis in asynchronous cells

(A). A mid-log, asynchronous cultures wild type culture (yFS104) was split three ways and incubated in the presence or absence of 0.015% MMS or 10 mM HU; samples were taken for flow cytometry every hour.

(B) Asynchronous cultures of wild type (yFS104), *rad3∆* (yFS189), *adh1:cdc25* (yFS357) and *cdc2-Y15F* (KGY14) were treated and collected for flow cytometry as in panel A; for clarity, only the MMS treated samples are shown.

contrast, the *rad3∆* strain, which is DNA damage checkpoint defective, showed no significant accumulation of sub-2C cells (Figure II.1B).

Although the asynchronous experiments show a robust checkpointdependent accumulation of sub-2C cells, it is difficult to infer cell-cycle kinetics from asynchronous experiments. To more carefully examine the effect of DNA damage on replication, we used synchronous cultures to analyze the progression of cells through S phase in the presence and absence of MMS. We synchronized cells by centrifugal elutriation, which isolates the smallest cells in a culture. Since in fission yeast cytokinesis is coincident with S phase, the smallest, newborn cells are in early G2. Thus, after elutriation we can follow a synchronous G2 population through mitosis into G1 and through S phase back to G2. As in the asynchronous experiment, we used 0.015% MMS because 0.03% MMS causes a significant fraction of the culture to arrest in G2 (our unpublished observation). Most untreated cells replicated between 80 and 120 minutes post elutriation (Figure II.2A). The MMS-treated cells begin replicating about the same time as untreated cells but do not complete replication by 180 minutes. This MMSinduced slowing is abrogated in *rad3∆*, confirming that it is a checkpoint response (Figure II.2B).

As a third approach, we synchronized cells in G1. G1 synchronization has two advantages: the cells are past the G2/M transition, allowing us to use 0.03% MMS without evoking the G2 checkpoint, and the cultures are more

Figure II.2 S-phase DNA damage checkpoint analysis in G2 synchronized cells.

(A) Wild-type cells (yFS104) were synchronized in G2 by centrifugal elutriation, 0.015% MMS or 10 mM HU were added immediately and samples were collected every 20 minutes for flow cytometry. (B) G2 synchronized cultures of wild type (yFS104), *rad3∆* (yFS189), *adh1:cdc25* (yFS357) and *cdc2-Y15F* (KGY14) were treated and collected for flow cytometry as in panel A; for clarity, only the MMS treated samples are shown. (C) *cdc25∆ cdc2-Y15F* (yFS445) cells synchronized in G2, 0.015% or 0.03% MMS or 10 mM HU was added immediately and samples were collected every 20 minutes for flow cytometry.

Figure II.2B S-phase DNA damage checkpoint analysis in G2 synchronized mutant cells.

 $2\mathrm{C}$

cdc254 cdc2-Y15F - G2 synchronized

55

synchronous, allowing for meaningful quantitation (Figure II.3C). We employed a *cdc10-M17ts* temperature sensitive allele, which at 35˚C inactivates the fission yeast S-phase transcription factor, to block cells in G1. To avoid prolonged G1 arrest, we incubated asynchronous *cdc10-M17ts* cells at 35˚C for 90 minutes, and selected the smallest cells by elutriation. These cells will have just divided, and thus only recently entered G1. We estimate that the cells we isolate spend about 30 minutes arrested in G1 before they are released at the beginning of the time course. After elutriation, we observed a 1C peak showing that cells were arrested in G1. Cells were then released into the cell cycle and S-phase progression was assayed by flow cytometry (Figure II.3A). Untreated cells replicated between 40 and 80 minutes after release. MMS-treated cells did not complete replication by 180 minutes, and this slowing was dependent on Rad3 (Figure II.3B, C).

Over-expressing Cdc25 fails to override the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint

As an initial test of the role of Cdc25 in the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint, we examined if we could override the checkpoint by over-expressing Cdc25. Such over-expression efficiently overrides the Cdc25-dependent replication checkpoint arrest in G2 (Enoch and Nurse 1990). We used a strain in which Cdc25 was over-expressed from the strong, constitutive *adh1* promoter (Russell and Nurse 1986). If no difference in the cytometry profiles of cells with or without damage was seen, it would indicate that over-expressing Cdc25 had overcome the S phase DNA damage checkpoint. However, in asynchronous culture, we observed sub-2C DNA content in the presence of damage, indicating that the checkpoint was still active (Figure II.1B). In fact, *adh1:cdc25* cells accumulate in a sub-2C population to a greater extent than wild-type cells, presumably because some of the wild-type cells arrest in G2, while the *adh1:cdc25* cells, lacking the G2 checkpoint, do not.

We also observed an MMS-induced delay of S-phase progression in synchronized *adh1:cdc25* cells. In both G2 and G1 synchronous experiments, the wild-type and *adh1:cdc25* strains demonstrated a similar degree of MMSinduced slowing of replication (Figures II.2B, 3B and 3C). Results from these experiments indicate that Cdc25 over-expression is not sufficient to override the S-phase damage checkpoint.

Inhibitory phosphorylation of Cdc2 is not required for the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint

Although the Cdc25 over-expression results suggest Cdc25 inhibition is not the mechanism for slowing of S phase, it is possible that the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint is able to inhibit even the over-expressed Cdc25. To directly test the role of Cdc2 tyrosine-15 phosphorylation in the checkpoint, we used an allele of *cdc2*, *cdc2-Y15F*, in which tyrosine-15 is mutated to phenylalanine, preventing its phosphorylation. Because Cdc2-Y15F cannot be inhibited by tyrosine phosphorylation, it should bypass any Cdc25-dependent S-phase checkpoint, in the same manner that it overrides the G2 checkpoints (Rhind *et al.* 1997; Rhind and Russell 1998). Contrary to that prediction, asynchronous *cdc2- Y15F* cells treated with 0.015% MMS accumulated in a sub-2C peak, showing no defect in the checkpoint. As with the *adh1:cdc25* cells, *cdc2-Y15F* cells actually accumulate as sub-2C cells to a greater extent than wild-type cells, presumably due to the lack of a G2 checkpoint (Figure II.1B).

Synchronous experiments using the *cdc2-Y15F* strain also showed no defect in S-phase slowing in response to DNA damage. Because the Cdc2-Y15F cannot be inhibited by tyrosine phosphorylation, *cdc2-Y15F* cells go very quickly through G2. They compensate for this short G2 by expanding G1; this effect can be seen in the large G1 peak in asynchronous *cdc2-Y15F* cells. Thus *cdc2-Y15F* cells begin replication later than wild-type cells. Untreated G2 synchronized *cdc2- Y15F* cells began replicated around 100 minutes and completed replication by 160 minutes (data not shown). In the presence of MMS, cells started replicating at the same time as untreated samples but did not complete replication by 180 minutes (Figure II.2B).

G1 synchronized *cdc2-Y15F* cells begin replication at the same time as wild-type cells, because the arrest is at the end of G1. The MMS induced Sphase slowing is comparable between *cdc2-Y15F* and wild-type cells, beginning at around 60 minutes and not finishing by 180 minutes (Figures II.3B and 3C).
Figure II.3 S-phase DNA damage checkpoint analysis in G1 synchronized cells

(A) Flow cytometric analysis of S-phase DNA damage checkpoint in G1 synchronized *cdc10-M17ts* cells (yFS280). 0.03% MMS or 10 mM HU were added immediately after elutriation and samples collected after every 20 minutes. (B) G1 synchronized cultures of *cdc10-M17ts* (yFS280), *cdc10-M17ts rad3*∆ (yFS260), *cdc10-M17ts adh1:cdc25* (yFS430) and *cdc10-M17ts cdc2-Y15F* (yFS437) were treated and collected as in panel A; for clarity, only the MMS treated samples are shown

(C) Quantification of the data of A and B. The previously reported minor, checkpoint independent slowing is evident in the *rad3*∆ culture (Rhind and Russell 1998). Each point is the average of two experiments; the error bars represent the range of the data.

 $3B$

0.03% MMS - G1 synchronized

Figure II.3C Quantification of slowing in G1 synchronized cells

 $3C$

Minutes after release from G1

These results show that Cdc2 tyrosine-15 phosphorylation is not required for cells to slow replication in response to MMS-induced DNA damage.

Cdc25 is not required for the checkpoint

The previous results show that Cdc2 tyrosine-15 phosphorylation is not required for the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint, but they leave open the possibility that Cdc25 is required to regulate another target besides Cdc2. To test this possibility directly, we wanted to study the S-phase progression in the absence of Cdc25. Since Cdc25 is an essential gene, we created a strain in which the essential function of Cdc25 - the dephosphorylation of Cdc2 - is bypassed by Cdc2-Y15F. *cdc25∆ cdc2-Y15F* cells were synchronized in the G2 phase by elutriation and their progress through S-phase in the presence or absence of MMS was monitored. Since these cells lack a G2 checkpoint, we were able to use 0.03% MMS without arresting the cells in G2; we also used 0.015% for comparison with the other G2 synchronization experiments.

As for *cdc2-Y15F* cells, untreated *cdc25∆ cdc2-Y15F* cells replicate later than wild-type, in this case between about 80 and 140 minutes (Figure 2C). *cdc25∆ cdc2-Y15F* cells treated with 0.015% MMS did not complete replication by 180 minutes; cells treated with 0.03% MMS replicated even more slowly. *cdc25∆ cdc2-Y15F cdc10-M17* cells are inviable, precluding G1 synchronization. These results show that S-phase damage checkpoint operates normally in the absence of Cdc25.

Cdc25∆ nmt1:Pyp3 **cells have a partial slowing in the presence of damage**

To study the effect of *cdc25*∆ we also used a phosphatase overexpression, which has been shown to rescue *cdc25*∆ lethality. Cdc2 is dephosphorylated by Pyp3 as well as Cdc25 (Millar *et al.* 1992). Pyp3 is a tyrosine phosphatase and plays a minor role in mitotic control. Pyp3 is not regulated by the G2 DNA damage checkpoint (Rhind and Russell 2001). Pyp3 overexpression rescues *cdc25∆* lethality. In our studies *pyp3* was overexpressed by using the strong *nmt1* promoter for continuous expression of Pyp3.

Asynchronous experiments were performed for Pyp3 overexpression strain with or without Cdc25. Pyp3 overexpression cells, where *cdc25* has not been deleted, slowed S phase in the presence of damage similar to wild type fission yeast. However, DNA damage had only a slight slowing of S phase in a *cdc25∆* background (Figure II.4). G2 synchronized cells slowed replication in the presence of damage even when *cdc25* was deleted. The slowing seems to be partial compared to wild type and similar to the asynchronous data (Figure II.5).

Our results are consistent with a strictly Cdc2-Y15 phosphorylation independent mechanism for the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint. However, results from the pyp3 studies are not consistent with our conclusions about Cdc25 is not the target of the S phase DNA damage checkpoint. We talk about the possible explanations for this result is the discussion.

Figure II.4 S-phase DNA damage checkpoint analysis in asynchronous Pyp3 cells.

Flow cytometric analysis of S-phase DNA damage checkpoint in asynchronous *nmt1:pyp3* cells (yNR248), *nmt1:pyp3 cdc25∆* (yNR253). A midlog, asynchronous culture was split three ways and incubated in the presence or absence of 0.015% MMS; samples were taken for flow cytometry every hour. For clarity, only the MMS treated samples are shown. The data shows that *nmt1:pyp3* slow in the presence of 0.015% MMS whereas *nmt1:pyp3 cdc25∆* slows only partially.

Figure II.5 S-phase DNA damage checkpoint analysis in G2 synchronized Pyp3 cells

Flow cytometric analysis of S-phase DNA damage checkpoint in G2 synchronized *nmt1:pyp3* cells (yNR248), *nmt1:pyp3 cdc25∆* (yNR253). Data is shown for cells in the absence and presence of 0.015% MMS panel. MMS was added immediately after elutriation and samples collected after every 20 minutes. The data shows that *cdc25* deletion leads to a partial slowing in the presence of 0.015% MMS.

Figure II.5 S-phase DNA damage checkpoint analysis in G2 synchronized Pyp3 cells

G2 synchronized

DISCUSSION

We have investigated the role of inhibitory tyrosine-15 phosphorylation of Cdc2 and of the Cdc2 tyrosine-15 phosphatase, Cdc25, in the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint. Inhibition of Cdc25, and thus inhibition of Cdc2 tyrosine-15 dephosphorylation, is the mechanism by which fission yeast arrest in G2 in response to DNA damage or replication blocks (Rhind *et al.* 1997; Rhind and Russell 1998). Recent work has suggested that a similar mechanism may also slow replication in response to DNA damage (Kumar and Huberman 2004). We have tested this idea and the bulk of our results indicate no involvement of Cdc25 or Cdc2 tyrosine phosphorylation in the fission yeast S-phase DNA damage checkpoint.

Neither the overexpression of Cdc25, nor the mutation of tyrosine-15 to an unphosphorylatable phenylalanine, impairs the S-phase checkpoint; yet both override the G2 checkpoint (Enoch and Nurse 1990; Rhind *et al.* 1997; Rhind and Russell 1998). Furthermore, cells lacking both Cdc25 and tyrosine-15 of Cdc2 slow replication normally in response to MMS-induced DNA damage. This result rules out checkpoint mechanisms that involve Cdc2-independent targets of Cdc25, and Cdc25-independent regulation of Cdc2 tyrosine-15 phosphorylation.

Although the above cited results support our conclusion, cells lacking Cdc25 in a Pyp3 background seem to have only a partial slowing of replication in the presence of DNA damage. This result is not consistent with our observation that deleting cdc25 does not have an effect on the slowing of replication. There are a couple of possibilities that can explain the contradictory results seen for *cdc25* deletion in a *cdc2-Y15F* and the Pyp3 overexpression background.

First, there can be something wrong with the genotype in *nmt1: pyp3 cdc25∆* strain which is having an effect on the results. There can be a mutation in one of the upstream checkpoints leading to a lack of slowing in the presence of damage. Second, data from the *nmt1: pyp3 cdc25∆* suggests that there is a Cdc25 dependent target which is independent of Pyp3. It is possible that Cdc25 has a role in S-phase slowing in a Cdc2-Y15 independent manner. However, replication slowing in the *cdc25∆* Cdc2-Y15F strain rules out such a possibility. Slowing of replication in the presence of damage when Cdc25 is overexpressed is also contradictory to this theory. Third, slowing of replication in the *Cdc2-Y15F* background can be due to some background mutations. Mutating Cdc2 maybe having an effect on the S phase progression of the cells. However normal progression through S phase in unperturbed cells is inconsistent with such a possibility. To completely rule out this possibility, other Cdc2 mutants can be used for looking at the effect of inducing DNA damage.

Finally, Cdc2 may also be slowing replication at the site of DNA damage in a checkpoint independent manner. To show that the slowing of replication in the mutant strains is checkpoint dependent, these experiments can be done in rad3 Δ and cds1Δ cells. Majority of our data shows that Cdc25 is not the target of the checkpoint and it is hard to reconcile the Pyp3 data with the other experiments.

We have drawn our conclusions based on the known literature and the majority of the data showing that Cdc25 is not the target of the checkpoint. It is possible that a more complicated model may exist.

These results contradict those of Kumar and Huberman, who, using similar approaches, concluded that *adh1:cdc25* and *cdc2-Y15F* cells lack the Sphase DNA damage checkpoint. There is technical difference between the two studies that may explain the discrepancy. Kumar and Huberman used a wholecell flow cytometry protocol, in which cytoplasmic background contributes significantly to the total signal, reducing the sensitivity of the assay. We used an isolated-nuclei protocol, which removes the cytoplasm before analysis. This approach greatly increases the resolution of the assay and allows for quantitation of the data. In addition, for their G1 synchrony experiments, cells were arrested in G1 for up to 4 hours, which allows the cells to elongate, further reducing the sensitivity of the whole-cell assay. We find that the combination of the four hour arrest and the whole cell flow-cytometry analysis compromises detection of the checkpoint delay (Nick willis, unpublished results). We used centrifugal elutriation to isolate cells that had been arrested for only 30 minutes, allowing for a more sensitive analysis of the checkpoint. We believe that these technical differences are responsible for the different conclusion drawn.

Recently, another paper from the same lab gave a number of reasons for the discrepancy between the two datasets (Kumar and Huberman 2009). Use of a higher concentration of MMS (0.03%) in some of our experiments was cited as a reason for slowing of S phase in the mutant strains. Figure II.6 shows that even at 0.0075% MMS concentration the level of slowing is similar in the mutant strains compared to the wild type. The data from the G2 elutriation experiments at the lower concentration also show a similar effect of slowing in the mutant strains (Kommajosyula and Rhind 2006). Hence, using 0.03% for a subset of the experiments does not effect our conclusions. The data for 0.015% was not presented in our paper, since the cells have a shorter time for entering S phase from G1 synchrony, making the response to damage subtle as opposed to a more pronounced effect at a higher concentration. Indeed, previous work from our lab has checked the effect of different concentrations of MMS for inducing checkpoint effects and we find that 0.03%MMS works best for studying checkpoints in our hands. Nonetheless, as shown in figure II.1.1 all doses of MMS have the same pattern of slowing.

Batch to batch variation in effective concentrations of MMS was also cited as a reason for the results. However, we have used the same absolute concentration of 0.03% MMS in our lab over the last several years and have observed no such variations. The fact that Kumar et al. have to use varying concentrations to observe a slowing of S-phase seems to suggest an issue with their FACS preparation, an observation that we elaborated upon in the discussion of our paper.

Figure II.6 S-phase DNA damage checkpoint analysis in asynchronous cells using low MMS

Flow cytometric analysis of S-phase DNA damage checkpoint in asynchronous wild type (yFS104), *rad3∆* (yFS189), *adh1:cdc25* (yFS357) and *cdc2-Y15F* (KGY14). The 0.0075% MMS panel is from the same experiments shown in Figure II.1. A mid-log, asynchronous culture was split three ways and incubated in the presence or absence of 0.0075% MMS; samples were taken for flow cytometry every hour. For clarity, only the MMS treated samples are shown. The data shows that *adh1:cdc25* and *cdc2-Y15F* slow in the presence of 0.0075% MMS.

Another objection made in the paper was our observation that MRN is a target of S-phase damage checkpoint. Work from the Huberman lab suggests that MRN does not play a role in the damage checkpoint (Marchetti *et al.* 2002). The explanation given was that a higher concentration of MMS would lead to such an effect. However, in our opinion such a opposite result for the same strains between our labs can be explained by the technical difference in flow cytometry described in the discussion section of chapter II.

The Huberman lab claimed that the magnitude of inhibition of progression in our work was consistently higher for the same concentration of MMS used by both labs. These differences can be explained by a higher resolution of our FACS protocols. We were also able to observe significant slowing in our asynchronous and G2 synchronized populations showing that the results we observed were not due to high MMS concentration (Kommajosyula and Rhind 2006).

The paper also argues that *cds1* deletion should have been tested for an effect on MMS induced checkpoints instead of *rad3* deletion, which we used. Studies from our lab show that *cds1∆* has the same effect as a *rad3∆* and there is a complete absence of S phase slowing in the presence of MMS (Nick Willis, unpublished data).

Our results implicate a Cdc2 tyrosine phosphorylation independent target of the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint in fission yeast. Precedent for such a target exists. In mammals, the S-phase checkpoint appears to have two branches: one which acts through inhibition of Cdc25A to inhibit origin firing, and one which is Cdc25-independent and requires the MRN complex and XRCC3 (Falck *et al.* 2002; Henry-Mowatt *et al.* 2003). Since the fission yeast checkpoint requires MRN, it may be mechanistically similar to the MRN-dependent branch of the mammalian checkpoint (Chahwan *et al.* 2003). Little is known about the mechanism or purpose of the MRN-dependent branch of the pathway, except that its loss leads to severe cancer-predisposition in humans (Petrini 2000). The possible role of MRN and XRCC3 in slowing replication fork progression through induction of replication-coupled recombinational repair provides a model that can be tested in fission yeast (Rhind and Russell 2000). Whatever the case, fission yeast provides an tractable system for the study of this checkpoint mechanism.

Chapter III

Measure if origin efficiency increases during S phase

INTRODUCTION

Replication needs to be completed with high fidelity and in a finite amount of time to ensure a faithful transmission of genetic material to the next generation and to avoid genomic instability. Eukaryotes initiate replication from multiple sites known as origins (Dutta and Bell 1997; Gilbert 2001; Bell and Dutta 2002). Many origins are licensed but only a few fire. It is unclear how only a fraction of licensed origins are allowed to fire. Specific origins that fire during any one cell cycle do not necessarily fire during the subsequent round. Any origin that fires during a specific cell cycle does so in only a fraction of the total population. Fission yeast origins don't fire at the beginning of the S phase concurrently but rather fire throughout the S phase (Patel *et al.* 2006). *Xenopus* and *Drosophila* embryos are able to initiate replication on any DNA sequence (Hyrien and Méchali 1993; Shinomiya and Ina 1994). Similarly, in humans large regions appear to sustain replication initiation at random sites inside the sequence (Krysan and Calos 1991). Budding yeast have well defined origins that fire at particular times during the cell cycle and hence are defined as early or late firing origins (Kelly and Brown 2000; Gilbert 2001).

Genome-wide analysis of fission yeast origins was initially done bioinformatically (Segurado *et al.* 2003). Origins were found to contain AT rich tracts. However, unlike budding yeast, which has a well defined ARS consensus sequence (ACS), no consensus sequence was identified for fission yeast. Fission yeast origins are inefficient as shown in work from various labs including ours. Studies from our lab have shown that origins fire in a stochastic manner in fission yeast (Patel *et al.* 2006). The efficiency of fission yeast origins averages about 30%. The origins are present in the intergenic region in general and they are about 1kb in length.

Random gap problem

Inefficient origins and random firing of origins will increase the time taken by cells to complete replication in metazoans and fission yeast. Theoretically, random firing may lead to long inter-origin gaps. These gaps may be too long to be passively replicated by replication forks traveling from neighboring origins in a timely manner. Such gaps would prevent cells from completing replication within the defined and short time of S phase. This phenomenon has been described as the random gap problem (Lucas *et al.* 2000; Herrick *et al.* 2002; Jun *et al.* 2004). Cells must overcome this potentially serious problem since replication is completed in a finite amount of time (Hyrien *et al.* 2003). However the mechanism by which cells overcome this potential problem is unclear.

Several models have been proposed to explain how cells complete replication (Legouras *et al.* 2006). The origin redundancy model suggests that there is an excess of origins distributed throughout the genome (Chapter I Figure I.4) (Legouras *et al.* 2006). These origins are closely spaced. Random origin firing would lead to some origins firing early and most being passively replicated and not firing. The origins that are not passively replicated would have the potential to fire and thus solve the random gap problem. Using this model it is hard to explain efficient replication in fission yeast and mammals due to several restrictions including intergenic location of origins in fission yeast to chromatin structure and ongoing transcription in mammals.

The coordinated model describes a defined distance between origins that fire and prevent large unreplicated sequences from causing random gap problem during S phase (Hyrien and Méchali 1993; Blow *et al.* 2001). This model is based on plasmid studies in various organisms. An exponential distribution of interorigin distances, where a majority of the fired origins are spaced close together but some are very large distances apart, shown by our lab disproves this model in fission yeast (Patel *et al.* 2006). Data from *Xenopus* embryos also prove that this model is incorrect (Herrick *et al.* 2000).

The increasing origin efficiency/Redistribution model describes an increase in the firing efficiency of origins as cells progress through S phase (Lucas *et al.* 2000). Thus, the efficiency of origins that have not fired or been passively replicated increases. Thus, origins present in regions in which no origins have fired are more likely to fire allowing the cell to overcome the random gap problem. We propose a mechanism to explain this model involves a ratelimiting factor, which allows only a subset of origins to fire at any given time. Since this rate-limiting factor is limited in quantity, it will only be able to activate a few origins at any given moment. Once these origins have fired, this factor freely diffuses to provide firing elsewhere. We have shown recently that Dfp1, the catalytic subunit of Hsk1, is the rate-limiting factor which determines as to which origin fires during the S phase (Patel *et al.* 2008). The study to identify the ratelimiting step is shown in Appendix III.1.

The increasing origin efficiency model seems the most plausible mechanism by which fission yeast overcomes the random gap problem. An increase in origin firing through S phase is seen in budding yeast and *Xenopus* embryo extracts (Herrick *et al.* 2000; Lucas *et al.* 2000; Raghuraman *et al.* 2001; Yabuki *et al.* 2002; Goldar *et al.* 2009). Identifying Dfp1 as the rate-limiting factor responsible for determining which origins fire strongly supports this model. A similar model has been proposed to explain the efficiency of origins in *Xenopus* embryos (Lucas *et al.* 2000).

Although studies from our lab support the redistribution model, we need to measure if there is an increase in efficiency of a late firing origin in S phase to test our hypothesis. However, no late firing origins have been identified in fission yeast making it hard to look at a specific origin throughout our studies. Late replicating sequences have been identified (Kim and Huberman 2001). These late replicating sequences are passively replicated by replication forks traveling from distant early firing origins or by unidentified late firing origins. Due to these reasons, the chances of any one particular origin firing during late S phase are very low since it will be replicated before it gets a chance to fire.

To measure if the efficiency of an origin increases during the S phase we blocked passive replication of a late replicating sequence from neighboring origins, and forced that region to be replicated by a late/inefficient internal origin, which allowed us to test the efficiency of that origin. To block passive replication we used the replication termination sequence 1 (RTS1), a unidirectional forkblocking sequence originally identified in the mating-type locus (Dalgaard and Klar 2001). RTS1 arrests forks coming from the proximal side. The fork arrest is replication termination factor 1(Rtf1) dependent and studies show that RTS1 arrests at the Mat locus and at other regions of the genome (Eydmann *et al.* 2008). RTS1 is 859bp in length with a 60bp partially conserved sequence motif (Codlin and Dalgaard 2003).

AT2062 is a late replicating sequence present on chromosome II and has a firing efficiency of about 10%. In this study we used RTS1 on either side of *AT2062* to prevent passive replication from neighboring origins and allow us to measure the firing efficiency of the origin. We are also integrating RTS1 to prevent passive replication of an early firing origin, *AT3003*. Various methods have been used to look at the firing efficiency of the origin.

Our studies show that there are a number of small very inefficient origins that seem to fire to ensure the replication of the region flanked by RTS1. We were unable to see origin firing at *AT2062*. The possible reasons for this are discussed later.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

All strains were grown in yeast extract with supplements (YES) at 25°C or

30°C and manipulated using standard methods (Forsburg and Rhind 2006).

Table III.1 - Strain list

Strain construction

RTS1 was integrated on the left side of *AT2062* using PP192

(GTTTTAACTGTCAGCAATACTACACTACGCTATGATACTCCACGTTGCATAT CACTATATGTCACATGTTCACAATGTCGATGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTA) and

PP193

(CTTATAACTGAACTGAGGGACGAGGTTCAGTTGTTCTCAATTTATAATATTT

GAAGTAGTAAGAATTATATCTGATAGAACGCGGCCGCCAGCTGAAGC).

RTS1 was integrated on the right side of *AT2062* using PP196

(ATAACAGCGTTTAAGAATTAGTTACTTATAAAGACCGAAGCGATCTTCCAGA

TAATGAATAGCAATACATTAGATGTGAACGCGGCCGCCAGCTGAAGC) and PP197

(TATACCGTTGTAACAGCAAGAGCTTAATTGTTTCAACAATCCAACTTACGCG TTAGGCGGAGTCAGTAAGTCACCTAACGATGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTA). The two resulting constructs were mated to get yPP113. RTS1 has been integrated on the left side of *AT3003* using NK53

(ATTTACAGCCGCCAAACGTGGCTTATTCAAAGCCCCACTTGAGAACCAATG CGAGCGCATCTGGAAAAAGGGCTATCGGTGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC) and NK54

(GCCATGGCAGCTAGGTAACAACCACGAGGCCGATCGCTGCTTCGGCGGAT

TTAGGCTGACGTAAGATGAGACTGTTTGTTTTAGGTGACACTATAGAACG). RTS1 has been integrated on the right side of *AT3003* using NK55 (TTTGCGAATCCAAAGTCTGCCAATGGATATACGCTCTACTTTCGACCACTGA TTGTTTCCTGCATTTCTCAAATAATAGGTTAGGTGACACTATAGAACG) and NK56

(AAACCAACACCACTGCACATACGACCGATAAGAATTAAATACAGCCATTGT GCACGGTACGCTAGTGAATACAGTAAATGGAATTCGAGCTCGTTTAAAC)

Synchronization experiments

For two-dimensional gels, cells were grown to an OD_{600} 0.5. 10 mM HU was added to the culture and a quarter of cells harvested and frozen at 1.5 hours and 3 hours. The remaining culture was pelleted, HU washed, and the pellet resuspended in a HU free media. Half the culture was collected after 30 minutes post release from HU arrest and the rest collected 90 minutes post release.

For the microarray HU experiment, cells were grown to an OD_{600} 0.5 and collected for G2 phase sample. 10 mM HU was added to the culture and the cells were collected after 3 hours for the S phase sample.

For the microarray time course experiments, cells were synchronized by centrifugal elutriation and then kept at the restrictive temperature of 35°C to synchronize cells in G2 using cdc25-22 mutation for 3.5 hours. The cells are then shifted to the permissive temperature of 25°C. Samples were collected at the indicated times.

Two-dimensional gel electrophoresis

Genomic DNA was isolated using cesium chloride gradients and twodimensional gel electrophoresis performed as described (Noguchi *et al.* 2003). To study replication at *AT2062*, genomic DNA was digested with BamHI and XhoI. For analysis at the RTS1 integration site, DNA was digested with KpnI and SacI. Southern blotting was performed as described (Noguchi *et al.* 2003).

Micro-array design

Probes were designed to cover 128 kb region with *AT2062* in the middle using the Arraydesigner 4.2. The average distance between the probes was 250 bp and 448 probes were designed with an average length of 60 bp. The slides for microarrays were printed in the Rando lab and the slides were post-processed using the protocols followed in their lab.

DNA preparation and microarray experiment

Genomic DNA was isolated using cesium chloride gradients as described (Noguchi *et al.* 2003). DNA was indirectly labeled with Cy3 and Cy5 dyes using the Amino-allyl labeling protocol from the DeRisi lab with a few modifications used in our lab (http://derisilab.ucsf.edu/data/microarray/protocols.html) (Dutta *et al.* 2008). Experimental DNA was mixed with the reference DNA, which was the G2 samples for all our experiments, for differential hybridization. The sample was hybridized onto the microarray slides for 16 hours at 65°C. Slides were scanned using Genepix5000b scanner and the data was acquired using Genepix pro 6.0 software. The data was normalized and replication profiles created using excel.

Deep sequencing experiments

Cells were synchronized using centrifugal elutriation. One half of the culture was collected immediately after elutriation as the G2 sample for sequencing. To the other half 10 mM HU was added and cells kept at 25 °C for four hours and the cells collected as the S phase sample for sequencing. 1 OD was also collected every 20 minutes, pelleted and resuspended in 70% ethanol, and processed for flow cytometry. Genomic DNA was isolated using cesium chloride gradients as described (Noguchi *et al.* 2003). DNA samples were sent to Helicos Biosciences and the data collected analyzed by the Weng lab using Igor software.

Flow cytometry:

Cells were collected for flow cytometry and processed as described previously (Forsburg and Rhind 2006).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Origin efficiency at *AT2062*

To measure the efficiency of a late firing origin we chose *AT2062*, a late replicating sequence present on chromosome II in fission yeast. *AT2062* was chosen because known adjacent neighboring origins are present very far away. Recent study from Nurse lab shows that *AT2062* fires with about 10% efficiency (Wu and Nurse 2009). We integrated RTS1 sites on either side 40Kb apart. The schematic representation is shown in Figure III.1.

To measure origin efficiency of *AT2062*, two-dimensional gel electrophoresis was employed. 2-D gels are a common method of distinguishing if a stretch of DNA being studied is getting passively replicated or is actively firing (Brewer and Fangman 1987) (Figure III.2). Signal from the 2-D gels may be quantified to determine the firing efficiency of an origin. Using 2-D gels we wanted to compare the origin firing efficiency of *AT2062* in a wild type strain and a strain containing *AT2062* flanked by RTS1 on either side. DNA was isolated and from culture arrested and released from HU.

There are three different possibilities that can come as a consequence of using RTS1 to block passive replication. First, we may see an increase in the origin firing efficiency at *AT2062*. Second, the firing efficiency of the origin does not increase. This would indicate that either the increase in origin efficiency model is incorrect or there is passive replication occurring at that region.

Figure III.1 Schematic representation of RTS1 integration

The regions where RTS1 was integrated are shown: *AT2062*, the late replicating sequence present on chromosome II and *AT3003*, an origin present in the ura locus. The RTS1 sites are 40 kb on either side of *AT2062* and 7 kb on either side of *AT3003*.

Figure III.2 A general description of two-Dimensional gel electrophoresis

DNA is digested with specific restriction enzymes and run in two dimensions with different conditions. In the first dimension, DNA is separated by size and in the second by shape. The common replication intermediates seen are described in the right-handed panel. If the region of interest has an active origin then we see a bubble arc whereas Y-arc is seen when replication forks from neighboring origins passively replicate the region. X-shaped intermediates are the recombination intermediates. Linear DNA is the majority of DNA containing no shape.

Figure III.1 Schematic representation of RTS1 integration

The final possibility is that cells will be unable to replicate the region between RTS1 due to the failure of *AT2062* to fire and hence it may lead to genomic instability and lethality. The result will show that our model is incorrect and the region can replicate only by passive replication. The increase in firing efficiency can be measured on the 2-D gels by measuring the percentage of bubble arcs, the shape that appears on the blots when the origin fires and comparing it between the wild type and the RTS1 strain.

HU arrest experiments were performed for 2-D gels. We observed no difference in the replication pattern between the wild type and the RTS1 strain. Passive replication seems to be occurring in both the strains at *AT2062* as indicated by the Y-arc (Figure III.3). We were unable to observe any bubble arcs in either strain. This passive replication indicates that *AT2062* is not firing during the S phase or it is firing at a low rate, which cannot be detected due to limitations of 2-D gels. To ensure that RTS1 sequences were blocking the forks, HU arrest and release was performed and 2-D gels were run to check for fork blockage at the termination site upstream of *AT2062* in Figure III.4. The spot on the 2-D gel shown on the Y-arc indicates fork arrest. These results demonstrate that forks appear to be blocked at the RTS1 sites.

The spots seen on 2-D gels at the RTS1 sites seem to be very weak which means that the block might not be very strong and would allow for forks to bypass it. Studies have shown that replication forks can bypass RTS1 blockage in a recombination dependent manner. Passive replication observed at AT2062 could be due to forks bypassing the RTS1 sites and replicating AT2062 before it fires. *rad51∆* prevents recombination-mediated fork bypass of RTS1 allowing us to observe if passive replication occurs at *AT2062*. Origin efficiency studies at any origin using RTS1 sites need to be done in a *rad51∆* background to ensure that the neighboring forks are getting blocked.

Passive replication observed at *AT2062* may also be due to inefficient origins firing which have not been identified in the various genomic studies. Inserting RTS1 sites on either side of *AT2062* may force a number of these inefficient origins to fire, replicating the 80 kb region efficiently. We used two approaches to identify new origins in this region. First, we used microarray analysis and secondly deep sequencing.

Oligonucleotide arrays at *AT2062*

Micro-array analysis has been used in previous studies to look at origin firing (Raghuraman *et al.* 2001; Yabuki *et al.* 2002; MacAlpine *et al.* 2004; Woodfine *et al.* 2004). We used micro-arrays to measure changes in the copy number of the *AT2062* region during S phase. We designed oligos ~250bp apart spanning that 128 kb region on chromosome II. This 128 kb region contains the 80 kb region flanked by RTS1. Replication profiles were generated for the array experiments by fluorescently labeling S phase DNA and hybridizing it to the oligonucleotide arrays. The DNA copy number was measured by normalizing the

Figure III.3 *AT2062* **replicates passively with or without RTS1**

- A) Passive replication is observed in wild type cells (yFS105) when cells are arrested in the beginning of S phase using 10 mM HU. The arrest was for either 1.5 hours or 3 hours and the cells released into a HU free media. The release was for 30 or 90 minutes. To study replication at *AT2062*, genomic DNA was digested with BamHI and XhoI. Southern blotting was performed as described (Noguchi *et al.* 2003).
- B) Passive replication was also observed in RTS1 flanking *AT2062* (yPP113). There seems to be no difference in the Y-arc, which represents passive replication, between wild type and the RTS1 flanked strain indicating a failure of *AT2062* to fire.

Figure III.3 *AT2062* **replicates passively with or without RTS1**

RTS1 flanking strain

Figure III.4 Forks are getting blocked at RTS1 sites

Passive replication is observed in RTS1 cells (yPP113) when cells are arrested in the beginning of S phase using 10 mM HU. The arrest was for either 1.5 hours or 3 hours and the cells released into a HU free media. The release was for 30 or 90 minutes. DNA was prepared using cscl gradient method. For analysis at the RTS1 integration site, DNA was digested with KpnI and SacI. Southern blotting was performed as described (Noguchi *et al.* 2003). Fork blockage appears as a blob or big spot in the place where Y-arc is expected. The block does not seem to be very strong but appears in all the four conditions tested.

Figure III.4 Forks are getting blocked at RTS1 sites

RTS1 flanking strain

data to G2 DNA. The array was designed to give us a resolution of 1 kb. Figure III.5 shows the replication profile generated during the arrest, effectively the beginning of S phase. Replication does not occur at *AT2062* consistent with previous studies showing that *AT2062* gets replicated later in S phase (Heichinger *et al.* 2006; Wu and Nurse 2009).

To study the increase in origin efficiency at *AT2062*, we looked at replication profiles as cells progressed through S phase in wild type cells by performing a microarray time course experiment. Samples collected every five minutes from 80-95 minutes show that the region has been mostly replicated by two or three potentially inefficient origins (Figure III.6). The timing of when cells enter S phase varies between elutriation and we were unable to capture the transition from a non-replicated locus to completely replicated locus in a strain lacking RTS1 sites. This limited our S phase progression experiments. We looked at origin efficiency in the RTS1 strain by collecting cells at two points- 95 and 105 minutes after release and saw similar replication profiles (Figure III.7) indicating that we are unable to study replication kinetics using microarrays. A higher resolution or more sensitive technique is required to understand the origin pattern in the 80 kb region.

Using deep sequencing to look at AT2062 region

Data from micro-array analysis suggests that inefficient origins maybe present in the 80 kb region including *AT2062*. To confirm the presence of

97

Figure III.5 *AT2062* **does not fire in early S phase**

Cells were arrested in early S phase using HU in the strain flanking AT2062, yPP113. DNA was prepared and hybridized against G2 DNA. Replication profile was made as described in materials and methods. Known origins are represented with \overrightarrow{A} and there are only two known origins in the region on our microarray. *AT2062* is the origin in between the RTS1 represented by **4**. As expected in HU, only early/efficient origins fire and we do not detect any signal from within the RTS1 region.

inefficient origins, we used deep sequencing to identify origins in this region. We used Helicos single molecule sequencing technology. In this approach, genomic DNA is randomly fragmented to 100-200 bp and poly-A tail attached to the fragments with a fluorescently labeled A at the end of the tail. The poly-A tail attached fragments are hybridized to flowcell, a platform coated with immobilized poly-T oligomers. Sequencing consists of numerous cycles of replication. During each cycle, polymerase and a single labeled nucleotide which has a reversible fluorescence terminator attached to it is flowed in. The flow cell is imaged to locate the position and therefore identify fragments to which this nucleotide has attached. The fluorescent label is then cleaved and released and the cycle of polymerase and nucleotide is repeated for the remaining three nucleotides. This sequential cycle using reversible fluorescent labeling followed by imaging is repeated 200-250 times.

Similar to the micro-array analysis, we measured the copy number of S phase DNA and normalized it to G2 phase of the DNA. Sequencing was done on a strain without the RTS1 inserts. Cells were synchronized by centrifugal elutriation in G2 phase and released in a HU media for four hours. Figure III.8 shows the replication profile of the same 128 kb region. The replication profile at *AT2062* indicates that there is a presence of small inefficient origins in the 80 kb region flanked by RTS1. The inefficient origins can potentially fire and passively replicate the *AT2062* locus. We conclude that *AT2062* is not a particularly useful region for studying late origin efficiency.

100

Figure III.6 Replication profile during S phase at *AT2062* **in wild type cells**

cdc25-22 (yFS128) cells were synchronized in G2 by centrifugal elutriation and then synchronized a second time due to the *cdc25-22* arresting cells in G2 when kept at the restrictive temperature (35°C) for 3.5 hours. Cells were allowed to go through the cell cycle by switching back to the permissive temperature (25°C). Samples were collected for 80, 85, 90 and 95 minutes to look at the replication progression though late S phase as followed by flow cytometry. Known origins are represented with \overline{A} and there are only two known origins in the region on our microarray. *AT2062* is the origin in between the RTS1 represented by \blacktriangle . The replication profile shows no progression through time. However, the array suggests that there may be atleast two more inefficient origins present between RTS1.

Figure III.7 Replication profile during S phase at *AT2062* **in RTS1 strain**

RTS1 flanking strain with a cdc25-22 background (yKN18) cells were synchronized in G2 by centrifugal elutriation and then synchronized a second time due to the *cdc25-22* arresting cells in G2 when kept at the restrictive temperature (35°C) for 3.5 hours. Cells were allowed to go through the cell cycle by switching back to the permissive temperature (25°C). Samples were collected for 95 and 105 minutes to look at the replication progression though late S phase as followed by flow cytometry. Known origins are represented with \P and there are only two known origins in the region on our microarray. *AT2062* is the origin in between the RTS1 represented by \blacktriangle . The replication profile shows no progression through time. However, the array suggests that there may be atleast two more inefficient origins present between RTS1.

Origin efficiency at *AT3003*

AT3003 is one of the well-defined origins in the *ura4* locus on chromosome III in fission yeast (Kim and Huberman 1999). *AT3003* fires early during the S phase and the efficiency of the origin is about 30% (Patel *et al.* 2006). RTS1 sites were integrated on either side of *AT3003* in opposite directions thereby preventing the passive replication of the region. RTS1 sites are about 7.5 kb on either side of *AT3003*. Since there are no inefficient origins present in the region flanked by RTS1, *AT3003* must fire during every cell cycle for the region to replicate. Fork directional studies next to the origin within the RTS1 region will allow us to identify the direction in which the forks are traveling and determine if the efficiency of *AT3003* increases during S phase (Dalgaard and Klar 2001).

Fork bypass in a recombination dependent manner

Rad51 is the central mitotic recombination protein essential for homologous recombination in budding yeast. *rad51∆* prevents recombinationmediated fork bypass of RTS1 allowing us to observe if passive replication occurs at *AT2062*. Studies show that a strain having *rad51∆* background with a non origin stretch of DNA flanked by RTS1 on either side is lethal (Lambert *et al.* 2005). *AT3003* flanked by RTS1 in *rad51∆* background will be lethal unless *AT3003* fires everytime. If forks bypass replication blocks in a recombination dependent manner, then deleting *rad51* will prevent the bypass. In the future, we will compare the efficiency of the origin in the presence or absence of *rad51*.

Figure III.8 Replication profile at *AT2062* **in HU arrest using deep sequencing**

S.pombe (yNW239) was synchronized in G2 by centrifugal elutriation. 10 mM HU was added and cells kept at 25°C for four hours. HU arrested sample was collected after four hours. G2 sample was collected after elutriation. Raw data from sequencing was taken for the G2 and S phase samples and normalized. The G2 peaks were subtracted from the S phase and the resulting data was smoothed to give the replication profile for the region on our microarray. X-axis is the window index of 200 bp. Y-axis is the height of the peak and gives the number of reads at each chromosomal position. Known origins are represented with $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$ and there are only two known origins in the region on our microarray. AT2062 is the origin in between the RTS1 represented by **4**. There seem to be about four more inefficient origins present within the RTS1 and these inefficient origins may be responsible for passively replicating *AT2062*

CONCLUSION

Origin efficiency at *AT2062* was studied using 2-D gels, microarrays and deep sequencing. We were unable to force *AT2062* to fire using RTS1 sites. However, as shown above the passive replication observed at the origin was due to the presence of a few inefficient origins within the 80 kb region flanked by RTS1. This rendered *AT2062* unsuitable for testing our hypothesis of an increase in origin firing efficiency through S phase progression.

We have started to study the origin firing efficiency of *AT3003*. *AT3003* has the RTS1 sites close enough to make sure that there is no origins present in the region which can passively replicate *AT3003* region. We plan to study this origin in detail using the various methods used in the study at *AT2062*. All the studies at *AT3003* will be done in *rad51∆* background to prevent the forks from bypassing the RTS1 block sites. Viability of this strain will show that the *AT3003* region flanked by RTS1 is only replicated by *AT3003*. We are also planning to study the origin efficiency using a *rad51* shutoff strain, which allows us to shut off *rad51* during the course of our experiment.

Chapter IV

Genome-wide analysis of origins in *Schizosaccharomyces*

group

INTRODUCTION

Origin studies using a variety of model organisms have been ongoing for the last three decades. However these studies have been primarily limited to the study of a few well defined origins or a low resolution search for new origins. Only recently have genome-wide analysis experiments been feasible for global origin identification and characterization. These studies have been helpful not only in defining origin location but also in defining replication timing of origins. These origin studies also allow for the identification of common origin features. These features may then be used to identify putative origins in additional organisms in which these origin studies have not been performed.

Different origin identification methods

A number of methods have been employed to identify origins in fission yeast and other organisms. Hydroxyurea arrest has been used to identify origins that fire early in S phase for some of the genome-wide studies.These methods include:

1) Plasmid stability assays: Plasmid stability assays identified genomic regions capable of maintaining plasmid copy numbers termed as autonomous replication sequences (ARS) (Clyne and Kelly 1995). These regions capable of maintaining this activity, ranged in size from 100-150 bp for budding yeast, to 1 kb fission yeast, and to more than 10 kb for human cells.

- 2) Two-dimensional gel electrophoresis: Two-dimensional gel electrophoresis was also used early for identification of origins. Origins located on the smallest budding yeast chromosome III, were originally identified using 2-D gels (Reynolds *et al.* 1989).
- 3) Density transfer experiments: Density transfer approach using heavy isotope labeling of newly replicated DNA was the first genome-wide method used to identify origins in budding yeast. Heavy isotope labeling was followed by hybridization to microarrays to identify origins firing throughout S phase (Raghuraman *et al.* 2001).
- 4) Copy number change: Measuring copy number (replicated versus unreplicated DNA) using microarrays has been used in the recent past to identify the regions where origins are present (Yabuki *et al.* 2002; Heichinger *et al.* 2006).
- 5) ChIP-microarrays: Chromatin immunoprecipation followed by hybridization to microarrays can be used to map the binding sites of various prereplicative complex (pre-RC) components. The binding sites are the origins where the pre-RC is formed (Wyrick *et al.* 2001).
- 6) BrdU pulse-microarray: Asynchronous or synchronized cells are pulsed with BrdU and flow cytometry is used to isolate BrdU labeled cells. BrdU labeling represents cells present in the S phase. DNA is then isolated from the samples, enriched by immunoprecipitation using BrdU specific

antibodies and hybridized to microarrays (Schubeler *et al.* 2002; Woodfine *et al.* 2004).

- 7) Single stranded DNA microarrays: Single stranded DNA produced upon HU arrest is hybridized on open reading frame (ORF) microarrays in the presence of HU have been used to map origins in fission yeast (Feng *et al.* 2006). The resolution for this study was about 12 kb.
- 8) Bioinformatic analysis: Bioinformatic analysis has also been used to propose putative origins based on AT rich islands in fission yeast (Segurado *et al.* 2003). The putative origins were validated using 2-D gels.

Studies in fission yeast and other organisms have identified origins at the genome-wide level (Raghuraman *et al.* 2001; Yabuki *et al.* 2002; MacAlpine *et al.* 2004; Jeon *et al.* 2005; Feng *et al.* 2006; Heichinger *et al.* 2006). However, the resolution of these studies is not very high. Budding yeast ARS consensus sequences (ACS) is very generic and cannot be used to actually map origins. On the other hand, no such motifs have been identified in any other organism and known origins have not given enough information to identify additional origins based on sequence homology. Therefore, precise identification of origin sequences on a genome-wide scale still needs to be done (MacAlpine and Bell 2005).

Origin sites are not conserved across species. Sequences important for origin activity are conserved across the *Saccharomyces* genus (Nieduszynski *et al.* 2006). Identifying origins across the *Schizosaccharomyces* genus will help identify essential sequence or regions, which will in turn allow the identification of additional putative origins across the genome. Due to similar nature of origins in metazoans and fission yeast, identification of essential or signature sequences of origins may also allow identification of origins in metazoans with greater accuracy. In this chapter, we discuss our efforts at using a new technique of single molecule sequencing for identifying origins.

Sequencing to identify origins

Recent advances in sequencing technology have lead to improvements in the time taken to sequence DNA and also the cost of sequencing. There are various methods by which high throughput sequencing is done (Shendure and Ji 2008). One of the sequencing methods developed recently is the single molecule sequencing technique developed by Helicos Biosciences.

Single molecule sequencing does not use an amplification step like other sequencing methods, such as Solexa. DNA from the samples to be sequenced is randomly fragmented into 200 bp fragments. Fragmented DNA is then labeled at the 3' end with a poly-A tail. This library of the fragmented poly-adenylated DNA is tethered to a surface coated with poly-T oligomers known as flow cell producing a disordered array of primed sequencing templates. The flow cell is imaged to identify the position of each tethered DNA strand. Sequencing consists of numerous cycles of strand replication, which allows for the sequence identification of the DNA strand. At each cycle, polymerase and a single labeled nucleotide is added which has a reversible fluorescence terminator attached to it. Flow cell is again imaged to locate the position and therefore identify fragments to which the nucleotide has attached. The fluorescent label is then cleaved and released and the cycle of polymerase and a nucleotide is repeated for all four nucleotides. This sequential cycle using reversible fluorescent labeling followed by imaging is repeated 200-250 times. The average read length is about 25 bp since four cycles are needed for each and every base pair sequenced.

We show that deep sequencing may be used to identify origins in various organisms. Cells can be synchronized and samples collected during S phase. Samples are also collected from G2 phase and the DNA is sequenced. Regions that have replicated will have twice the amount of reads compared to regions that have not. Replication profiles can be created based on the number of reads.

We use deep sequencing to identify origins in three fission yeast- *S. pombe*, *S. octosporus* and *S. japonicus*. Although origins have been identified in *S. pombe*, no origins are yet to be identified in the other fission yeasts like *S. octosporus* and *S. japonicus*. The aim of this project is to identify the inefficient origins that have not shown up in the previous studies and to map the already known origins more precisely. This study shows that single molecule sequencing can be used to identify origins. In collaboration with the Weng lab, bioinformatic analysis is currently underway to identify signature sequences defining origins across the *Schizosaccharomyces* genus.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strain maintenance

All strains were grown in yeast extract with supplements (YES) at 25°C or 30°C and manipulated using standard methods (Forsburg and Rhind 2006).

G2 synchronization

For the first dataset, the cells were grown at 25°C. *S.octosporus* and *S.japonicus* were grown at 30°C. Cells were grown to OD₆₀₀ 1.4 for *S. pombe* and 0.8 for *S. octosporus* and *S. japonicus*. Cells were synchronized in G2 using centrifugal elutriation. A fraction of the cells were collected for the G2 sample and the rest incubated at 25°C for four hours in the presence of 10 mM hydroxyurea (HU). 1 OD was also collected every 20 minutes, pelleted and resuspended in 70% ethanol, and processed for flow cytometry. Cells were also collected and DNA prepared for sequencing by cesium chloride gradient centrifugation. DNA samples were sent to Helicos Biosciences and the data collected analyzed by the Weng lab using Igor software.

Time-course experiment

Cells were synchronized in G2 using a *cdc25-22* temperature sensitive mutant. The culture was grown to an OD_{600} 0.5 and the culture shifted to the restrictive temperature of 35°C for 3.5 hours. A fraction of the cells were collected as G2 sample control for sequencing. Cells were then shifted to 25°C and samples collected every five minutes for flow cytometry. For sequencing samples were collected at time points 65, 75, 85, 95, 105, 115 and 125 minutes. DNA was prepared for sequencing using Qiagen G/20 columns as previously described (Wu and Gilbert 1995).

Flow cytometry:

Cells were collected for flow cytometry and processed as described previously (Forsburg and Rhind 2006).

Deep sequencing experiments

Cells were synchronized using centrifugal elutriation or using *cdc25-22* ts strain. One half of the culture was collected immediately after elutriation as the G2 sample for sequencing. To the other half 10 mM HU was added and kept at permissive temperature for different times and the cells collected as the S phase sample for sequencing. 1 OD was also collected every 20 minutes, pelleted and resuspended in 70% ethanol, and processed for flow cytometry. Genomic DNA was isolated using cesium chloride gradients as described (Noguchi *et al.* 2003). DNA samples were sent to Helicos Biosciences and the data collected analyzed by the Weng lab using Igor software.

Alignments

To align the reads that we get, an alignment strategy is employed where the read (from sequencing) is aligned using the genomic sequence as a reference. Only uniquely mapped reads are used for the mapping study to eliminate repeat sequences in the genome. For each alignment all putative alignments to the reference genome are considered and alignments are considered unique if the best alignment has a normalized score greater than 4.2 (out of 5) and the next best alignment is at least .5 worse. Normalized Alignment scores are calculated as follows: sum (5*matches - 4*mismatches) / ReadLength. The reads are assembled into contigs or chromosomes at Helicos. The number of hits at each nucleotide in the genome is counted, histograms made and normalized for S and G2 samples. Normalized G2 hits for each nucleotide are subtracted from S phase hits and the frequency at each nucleotide is plotted giving us the replication profile for each chromosome.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

 Various labs have done genome-wide analysis of origins in fission yeast (Segurado *et al.* 2003; Feng *et al.* 2006; Heichinger *et al.* 2006; Mickle *et al.* 2007). However, there have been no reports of genome-wide search for origins in either *S. japonicus* or *S. octosporus.* We have used deep sequencing to not only identify number of origins in the three *Schizosaccharomyces* species but also identify efficient and inefficient origins. The difference in efficiency can be measured by building replication profiles made by plotting the number of hits at each nucleotide across the genome against the nucleotide position. The height of the peaks at each origin gives us the efficiency of each origin.

Identifying *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* **origins**

To identify origins in *S. pombe* we used HU to arrest cells at the beginning of S phase. For the first experiment, we synchronized an *S. pombe* strain in G2 phase of the cell cycle by centrifugal elutriation. The synchronized cells were then arrested in HU for four hours. HU arrest in early S phase was monitored by flow cytometry and S phase progression plotted {figure IV.1}. Flow cytometry shows that the forks have traveled about 15% in S phase. In the presence of HU the forks have not traveled far from the origins. Deep sequencing generated about 12 million reads for both G2 and S phase samples and the aligned reads were about 6 million. The number of reads for each point in the genome were measured and normalized to aligned G2 counts allowing us to generate high resolution replication profiles for early S phase. These profiles were smoothed

Figure IV.1 Replication arrest in the presence of HU for *S.pombe*

S.pombe (yNW239) was synchronized in G2 by centrifugal elutriation. 10 mM HU was added and cells kept at 25°C for four hours. HU arrested sample was collected after four hours. G2 sample was collected after elutriation. Cells were fixed every 20 minutes and nuclear DNA content measured by flow cytometry. A) S-phase flow cytometry histogram stacks shows that at the end of the time course cells are arrested in the beginning of S phase. B) S-phase progression is plotted over time by measuring the shifting of the mean of S-phase peaks from unreplicated 1C towards fully replicated 2C values. S-phase progression curve shows that cells have replicated about 15% showing that HU has arrested cells in the beginning of S phase.

Figure IV.1 Replication arrest in the presence of HU for *S.pombe*

and a peak finding algorithm used to identify the origins in the dataset. Figure IV.2 shows the process of identifying origins from the raw sequence reads. Figure IV.3 shows the data for all the three chromosomes of *S. pombe*. Using a peak finding model we identified origins. To verify the peaks we identified were origins, we compared this sequencing data with our microarray data for *ura4* gene cluster located on chromosome III. As seen in figure IV.4, the sequencing data correlates very well with our microarray data. Resolution of the origins using sequencing is greater than our array data and work from other labs (Heichinger *et al.* 2006). Origins identified in the previous studies were also identified in this study indicating that our technique is capable of identifying previously characterized origins as seen in figure IV.5. Rigorous analysis has been carried out by Weng lab to ensure that peaks identified in our studies are not random noise. There are peaks that have not been identified as origins in the previous studies due to the low resolution of those studies and these peaks are the ones that we are interested in exploring further to understand the complex nature of origin efficiency and location.

We were able to see peaks on chromosome III but on chromosome I and II the peaks seemed to be in regions near the centromere. Recent work shows that the region near the centromeric region seem to replicate early in a swi6 and dfp1 dependent manner (Hayashi *et al.* 2009). To see if the peak effect that we observed is due to the pericentromeric effect, we have done a similar experiment on a dfp1-3A mutant, which does not allow dfp1 to localize in the pericentromeric

Figure IV.2 Process of identifying origins on Chromosome I

yNW239 cells were synchronized using elutriation and cells collected for G2 phase and after 4hours in HU. Samples were sent for sequencing and the reads aligned to the three chromosomes using the known genomic sequence of *S.pombe* as the reference. A) The Raw data from sequencing the G2 and S samples of yNW239 are represented here for chromosome I. X-axis is the chromosomal location. Y-axis is the height of the peak and gives the number of reads at each chromosomal position. B) The reads for the G2 and S phase samples are then normalized. C) The G2 reads are subtracted from the S phase reads. D) The resulting data is smoothed to give us the potential origins. E) Peak finding algorithm is used in the Igor software and identifies the peaks.

Figure IV.2 Process of identifying origins on Chromosome I

Figure IV.3 Replication profiles of *S. pombe* **chromosomes**

Raw data from sequencing of yNW239 was taken for the G2 and S phase samples and normalized. The G2 peaks were subtracted from the S phase and the resulting data was smoothed to give the replication profile for *S. pombe* chromosomes. X-axis is the window index of 200 bp. Y-axis is the height of the peak and gives the number of reads at each chromosomal position. Chromosome III shows lots of peaks representing origins. Chromosome I and II have only few peaks in regions centered around the centromere. Centromere is represented with \P .

Figure IV.3 Replication profiles of *S. pombe* **chromosomes**

Figure IV.4 comparison of *ura4* **locus between array and sequencing data**

To analyze the difference in resolution between the microarray method and the deep sequencing method we compared the *ura4* region. A) Microarray data for the *ura4* region from HU arrest experiment in yFS240 B) Deep sequencing data for the same region from yNW239 cells arrested in HU.

The greater resolution of the sequencing data can be seen by the separation of *AT3004* and *AT3005* which in the microarray data appear as one origin. *AT3004* and *AT3005* are identified as separate peaks by the peak finding program establishing deep sequencing as a higher resolution method. There also seems to be the presence of some inefficient origins not yet identified in other studies.

Figure IV.4 comparison of *ura4* **locus between array and sequencing data**

Figure IV.5 Comparison of origins identified with previous studies

To analyze the difference in resolution between previous studies that used different methods from the deep sequencing method we compared all the three chromosomes with origins identified from Nurse lab. Origins identified at a lower stringency on chromsome III are shown as a representation of the origins identified. X-axis is the window index of 200 bp. Y-axis is the height of the peak and gives the number of reads at each chromosomal position. The figure shows that we are able to not only identify majority of the origins identified in the Nurse paper but also a few more. Detailed bioinformatics analysis is still ongoing on these origins

Figure IV.5 Comparison of origins identified with previous studies

region. The DNA is presently being sequenced.

To overcome the centromeric effect observed in the first experiment we did another experiment where the forks had traveled 30% in another *S.pombe* strain, measured by flow cytometry, at the time of collection for sequencing (figure IV.6). Figure IV.7 shows the replication profiles for the three *S. pombe* chromosomes. Compared to the previous dataset, peaks were broader and interpreted as forks progressing further. Direct comparison between the two datasets for chromosome III is shown in figure IV.8. This is a result of the cells starting to leak through from the HU arrest. To look at the noise between two independent experiments we subtracted the G1 reads, obtained from the two experiments, from each other and observed a noise level of about 10%.

The microarray data from Nurse lab did not show a pericentromeric effect and to compare and measure the differences in resolution between deep sequencing and the microarray data, we synchronized the cells using the temperature sensitive *cdc25-22* for 3.5 hours and released to arrest cells in HU. Cells were collected after 90 minutes in HU, and this served as the S phase sample. The G2 sample was collected at the end of the synchronization with *cdc25-22*. These samples are presently being sequenced and the replication profile expected from this dataset should show us the sensitivity of our origin identification strategy since the experiment is similar to previous studies allowing us to directly compare the origins identified (Heichinger *et al.* 2006).
Figure IV.6 Replication arrest in the presence of HU in wild type *S. pombe*

yFS101 was synchronized in G2 by centrifugal elutriation. 10 mM HU was added and cells kept at 30°C for four hours. HU arrested sample was collected after four hours. G2 sample was collected after elutriation. Cells were fixed every 20 minutes and nuclear DNA content measured by flow cytometry. A) S-phase flow cytometry histogram stacks shows that at the end of the time course cells are arrested in the beginning of S phase. B) S-phase progression is plotted over time by measuring the shifting of the mean of S-phase peaks from unreplicated 1C towards fully replicated 2C values. S-phase progression curve shows that cells have replicated about 30% showing that HU has arrested cells in the beginning of S phase. The % replicated was twice when compared to the previously sequenced strain. The difference in % replicated could be due to the difference in the strain genotype where yFS101 is completely wild type but yNW239 has *sfr1* and *swi5* deletion, which might effect the ability of the forks to travel and replicate DNA.

Figure IV.7 Forks progress slowly during HU arrest in *S. pombe*

Raw data from sequencing of yFS101 was taken for the G2 and S phase samples and normalized. The G2 peaks were subtracted from the S phase and the resulting data was smoothed to give the replication profile for *S. pombe* chromosomes. X-axis is the window index of 200 bp. Y-axis is the height of the peak and gives the number of reads at each chromosomal position. The peaks are broader in all the three chromosomes owing to a 30% replication seen by Sphase progression. Chromosome III shows lots of broad peaks, which can be one origin having traveled far or two origins firing close by and merging. Chromosome I and II have only few peaks in regions centered around the centromere. Centromere is represented with $\sqrt[m]{\mathbf{r}^2}$.

Figure IV.7 Forks progress slowly during HU arrest in *S. pombe*

Figure IV.8 Comparison between two independent *S. pombe* **datasets**

A) Raw data from sequencing was taken for the G2 and S phase samples and normalized. The G2 peaks were subtracted from the S phase and the resulting data was smoothed to give the replication profile for *S. pombe* chromosomes. X-axis is the window index of 200 bp. Y-axis is the height of the peak and gives the number of reads at each chromosomal position. Replication profile from Chromosome III for both the S. pombe experiments was overlayed. The peaks from the second dataset are broader and flatter due to several forks merging together.

B) The G2 sequence reads for the two wild type replicates were subtracted from each other, normalized and then smoothed. The G2-G2 control was done for chromosome III. The data shows that there is very little noise.

Figure IV.8 Comparison between two independent *S. pombe* **datasets**

The experiments performed till now were done by synchronizing cells in early S phase using HU. This prevents us from identifying origins that will fire during late S-phase. Also, HU activates the replication checkpoint. The activation of checkpoints can itself have an effect on the genomic replication profile. It is imperative to perform experiments in the absence of HU to compare the results and identify if HU is having an effect on the replication profile. We have performed an S-phase time course experiment to understand the kinetics of replication timing in *S. pombe*. The cells progressed through S phase without HU which allows us to look at the replication profiles without the activation of any checkpoint. We can compare the origins identified in the time-course with those identified in our previous experiments. *cdc25-22* mutant strain was synchronized by incubating cells at restrictive temperature (35°C) for 3.5 hours. Cells were then released at the permissive temperature (25°C) and samples collected every 10 minutes to measure the progression of replication throughout the S phase. These timepoints will be assembled into a kinetic profile which will allow us to observe the replication kinetics of all the origins in the genome over time. This dataset will allow us to compare the origin efficiency between sequencing and microarray analysis.

Identifying *Schizosaccharomyces octosporus* **origins**

S. octosporus is a fission yeast similar to *S. pombe* except for having eight-spored ascii. *S.octosporus* genome has recently been sequenced in collaboration with the Broad Institute. No information is available regarding origins in this fission yeast species. Origin identification will contribute greatly to understanding how replication occurs in *S. octosporus* and whether there are any similarities between the species. Origin identification in these different species will also be helpful in identifying the signature motifs, which could be employed to identify origins *de novo.* To collect samples for sequencing, cells were synchronized in G2 by centrifugal elutriation and a fraction was collected as the G2 sample. The culture was arrested in HU for four hours to synchronize cells in early S phase {figure IV.9A}. Replication profiles were made for *S. octosporus* chromosomes in the same way as for *S. pombe*. Using sequencing we were able to identify origins. Figure IV.9B shows the profiles for the three chromosomes.

Identifying *Schizosaccharomyces japonicus* **origins**

Rounding out the three fission yeast investigated, *S. japonicus* is different from both *S. octosporus* and *S. pombe* displaying invasive hyphal growth form. Hyphal growth is a virulence trait of pathogenic fungi. Those interested in understanding fungal diseases can take advantage of *S. japonicus* as a model organism. Similar to *S. octosporus*, no origin information is available for *S. japonicus* and we wished to address this point by identifying origins using deep sequencing. The HU experiment used for *S. japonicus* was similar to the ones used for *S. pombe* and *S. octosporus*. However, we observed that HU treated cells did not arrest in early S phase. Samples were still sequenced and we observed some peaks, which could be potential origins {figure IV.10}. This approach needs to be repeated using enough HU to efficiently arrest these cells

Figure IV.9 Replication profiles of *S. octosporus* **chromosomes**

A) S-phase flow cytometry histogram stacks shows that at the end of the time course cells are arrested in the beginning of S phase. B) Raw data from sequencing of yFS286 was taken for the G2 and S phase samples and normalized. The G2 peaks were subtracted from the S phase and the resulting data was smoothed to give the replication profile for *S. pombe* chromosomes. Xaxis is the window index of 200 bp. Y-axis is the height of the peak and gives the number of reads at each chromosomal position. The three chromosomes have plenty of peaks, which are potential origins. There does not seem to be any centromeric effect on any of the chromosomes. The potential origins do not have AT rich islands. The peaks identified as origins in this study are currently being experimentally verified using 2-D gels.

Figure IV.9B Replication profiles of *S. octosporus* **chromosomes**

Figure IV.10 Replication profiles of *S. japonicus* **scaffolds**

Raw data from sequencing of yFS275 was taken for the G2 and S phase samples and normalized. The G2 peaks were subtracted from the S phase and the resulting data was smoothed to give the replication profile for *S. pombe* chromosomes. X-axis is the window index of 200 bp. Y-axis is the height of the peak and gives the number of reads at each scaffold position. The number of chromosomes in *S. japonicus* is not known and the data shown is from two of the contigs. Due to a lack of S phase arrest in HU, the number of S phase peaks after removing the G2 peaks is low. There are potential peaks identified by the peak finding software but the amplitude is low.

Figure IV.10 Replication profiles of *S. japonicus* **scaffolds**

S phase. It appears *S. japonicus* yeast requires a greater HU concentration (100 mM) for efficient arrest in S phase. We repeated the experiment with the HU arrest for only one hour to prevent cells from leaking through. We have also used an asynchronous culture using higher dose of HU and collected cells after 3 hours. Sequencing of the samples is currently going on.

CONCLUSIONS

Initial bioinformatic analysis shows that the AT rich islands prevalent in *S. pombe* origins do not seem to be determinants of origins in the other two fission yeast (Segurado *et al.* 2003). There seem to be no similarities between the origins identified on the different chromosomes of *S. pombe* and *S. octosporus* on which initial analysis has been performed. Further analysis is going on to identify the characteristics of origins to be able to identify them de novo across the genome.

We have shown that single molecule sequencing is an effective way of identifying origins across the genome and to make replication profiles, which can help in measuring the efficiency of an origin.

Table IV.2 – List of experiments performed for deep sequencing

Chapter V

Unpublished data

APPENDIX V.1. ORIGIN INHIBITION BY DNA DAMAGE CHECKPOINT

INTRODUCTION

DNA damage during S phase leads to a slowing of replication. Studies in mammals have shown that slowing occurs by inhibition of origin firing and a slowing of fork progression (Falck *et al.* 2002). However, it is unclear as to how the DNA damage checkpoint slows replication in fission yeast. Recent work by Nick Willis in our lab shows that in the presence of DNA damage, replication forks are slowed and hence S-phase progression is slowed. This result does not rule out the possibility that replication origins are also prevented from firing once the cells encounter damage. Recent work has suggested that a combination of replication fork slowing and inhibition of origin firing is the mechanism by which DNA damage checkpoint slows replication (Kumar and Huberman 2009). I performed an experiment to look at *ars3001*, known efficient origin present in multiple copies in the rDNA loci, in the presence or absence of damage (0.03% MMS) using two-dimensional gel electrophoresis. In the presence of DNA damage *ars3001* stopped firing as observed by the absence of bubble arcs, which are present when there is no damage.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

 $vFS128$, a $cdc25-22$ mutant was grown to an $OD₆₀₀$ 0.6 and kept at the restrictive temperature of 35°C for four hours which arrests and synchronizes cells in G2. The cells were then shifted to the permissive temperature of 25°C in the presence of HU for two hours to synchronize and arrest cells at the beginning of S phase. The first time point was collected at the end of the HU arrest. The remaining culture was pelleted, HU washed, and the pellet resuspended in a HU free media. The culture was divided into two and 0.03% MMS was added to one of the cultures. The cells were kept at 25°C to allow for progression through S phase and samples were collected at 30 and 60 minutes from $+$ or $-$ MMS cultures. Cells were also fixed every 20 minutes and nuclear DNA content measured by flow cytometry.

Two-Dimensional gel electrophoresis

Genomic DNA was isolated using cesium chloride gradients and two-Dimensional gel electrophoresis performed as described (Noguchi *et al.* 2003). To study origin firing at *ars3001*, genomic DNA was digested with KpnI and HindIII. Southern blotting was performed as described (Noguchi *et al.* 2003).

RESULTS

Figure V.1 shows the 2-D gels for the *ars3001* origin in the presence or absence of MMS. *ars3001* is an efficient origin and fires early represented by the presence of bubble arcs on the 2-D gel. In the absence of any insult, when cells are released from HU arrest, replication is still on going at 30 minutes evident by the presence of the bubble arc at the 30' –MMS 2-D gel. However, in the presence of MMS, origin firing is inhibited inferred from a loss of bubble arc on the 30' + MMS 2-D gel. Replication is still continuing because Y-arcs can be seen which implies that the forks that have already fired are passively replicating the genome but no further origins are being fired.

CONCLUSIONS

The data shown here suggests that origins are inhibited from firing in the presence of DNA damage. Origin inhibition might not be responsible for bulk slowing but it certainly may play a role in slowing DNA replication. Further experiments involving different drugs and ionizing radiation (IR) can be done using 2-D gels allowing us to understand the mechanism of replication slowing.

APPENDIX V.2 USING MICROARRAYS TO MEASURE REPLICATION ORIGIN FIRING EFFICIENCY

INTRODUCTION

Studies from our lab showed that Hsk1-Dfp1 kinase regulates origin efficiency (Patel *et al.* 2008). Hsk1-Dfp1 is rate limiting and is required at each origin to fire. Level of Dfp1, the catalytic subunit of Hsk1, increases at the beginning of the cell cycle and it is a freely diffusible factor. DNA combing studies from our lab showed that modulating the levels of either Dfp1 or Hsk1 affects the origin efficiency (Patel *et al.* 2008). We sought to show a similar effect on origin efficiency using microarrays. We designed probes to cover the well studied *ura4* locus present on chromosome III of *S. pombe.* Experiments were performed on wild type and Dfp1 overexpression strains to measure the difference in origin efficiencies when Dfp1 is constitutively active or localized to an origin.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Synchronization experiments

For the microarray HU experiments, cells were grown to an OD_{600} 0.5 and collected for G2 phase sample. 10 mM HU was added to the culture and the cells were collected after 2, 3 or 4 hours for the S phase sample for different experiments.

For the microarray time course experiments, cells were synchronized by centrifugal elutriation followed by synchronization using the *cdc25-22* mutation which arrests cells in G2 at restrictive temperature of 35°C. Cells were kept at 35°C for 3.5 hours. The cells are then released from the block by shifting to the permissive temperature of 25°C. Samples were collected at the indicated times and cell cycle progression followed by flow cytometry.

Micro-array design

Probes were designed to cover 200 kb region around the *ura4* locus using the Arraydesigner 4.2. The average distance between the probes was 250 bp and 768 probes were designed with an average length of 60 bp. The slides for microarrays were printed in the Rando lab and the slides post-processed using the protocols followed in their lab.

DNA preparation and microarray experiment

Genomic DNA was isolated using cesium chloride gradients as described (Noguchi *et al.* 2003). DNA was indirectly labeled to cy3 and cy5 dyes using Amino-allyl labeling protocol from DeRisi lab with a few modifications used in our lab (http://derisilab.ucsf.edu/data/microarray/protocols.html) (Dutta *et al.* 2008). Experimental DNA was mixed with the reference DNA, which was the G2 samples for all our experiments, for differential hybridization. The sample was hybridized onto the microarray slides for 16 hours at 65°C. Slides were scanned using Genepix5000b scanner and the data was acquired using Genepix pro 6.0 software. The data was normalized and replication profiles created using excel.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To measure the change in origin efficiency when Dfp1 was constitutively expressed, we designed probes for 200 kb region of chromosome III including the *ura4* locus which has well defined origins (Dubey *et al.* 1994). We used microarrays to study origin efficiency as measured by the change in DNA copy number described previously in chapter III. To study if we could look at origin efficiency using this technique, we did HU arrest experiments where cells were arrested for different periods of time. HU arrests cells in early S phase where early firing origins have fired and traveled about 10 kb and then arrested. We did HU arrest experiments for four hours using wild type cells (figure V.2A). Although we observed the firing of all the origins known in *ura4* locus, the peaks were very broad and it seemed that forks are able to travel longer making it hard to estimate the exact location of origin firing. We proceeded to shorter HU arrests of three and two hours (figure V.2B and 2C). Figure V.2C shows that two hour HU arrests gave us sharp peaks closer to the known origins and we used two hour HU arrests for subsequent experiments.

The positions of peaks identified in our microarrays correspond to already known origins in the *ura4* region. To ensure that the peaks observed in our experiments are not random noise, we label G2 samples with two different dyes and hybridize on the array to give us self-self hybrizidization. There are no peaks in the G2 control array indicating that the peaks identified are actual origins and not random noise (figure V.3). Hybridizing two G2 samples with different labels

served as the negative control for all experiments and also indicated the level of noise for each array experiment.

Dfp1 effect on origin firing was studied using two different strains. We used a strain in which *dfp1* was constitutively expressed using an *adh1* promoter. Studies from our lab showed that origin efficiency increased globally when Dfp1 was expressed continuously indicating an effect on origin efficiency. Dfp1 was also tethered near the origin *AT3003* using Gal4 DNA binding domain (DBD) as described in appendix III.1. To measure the increase in origin efficiency in the *adh1:dfp1* cells, we performed the two hour HU arrest experiment in the wild type and *adh1:dfp1 cells*. Replication profile of the *ura4* locus in the wild type cells is shown in Figure V.4A. The replication profile shown is an average of three independent experiments and shows all the known origins represented by peaks in the *ura4* locus. Replication profile of *adh1:dfp1* has a similar pattern to the wild type cells (figure V.4B). Overlays of the replication profiles of wild type and *adh1:dfp1* indicate no change in origin efficiency when *dfp1* is constitutively expressed (figure V.4C).. We also looked at the replication profiles when *dfp1* is tethered to *AT3003*. Although we observed the known origins firing in the *ura4* locus, the data is noisy and it is difficult to make conclusions from it (Data not shown). Based on our combing data, we expected an increase in origin efficiency by around 15-20%, but it is possible that the microarray data has a low signal to noise ratio to detect that magnitude of change.

Figure V.2 Timing of HU arrest to look at replication profile of *ura4* **locus**

Cells were arrested in early S phase using 10 mM HU in wild type *S.pombe* yFS240. Known origins are represented with **120.** 2A) Cells were arrested in HU for four hours. 2B) Cells were arrested in HU for three hours. 2C) Cells were arrested in HU for four hours. The peaks representing the origins become sharper as the HU arrest time is reduced. *AT3004*/*3005* is a combination of two origins, which we cannot separate on our array due to the resolution. The data shows that two hours is the suitable time for HU arrest experiments.

 $\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4}$

Figure V.2 Timing of HU arrest to look at replication profile of *ura4* **locus**

Figure V.3 Control for HU arrest profiles using Self hybridizations

Cells were arrested in early S phase using HU in yFS240 and is the same experiment performed in the previous figure. The replication profile is from the control array where two G2 samples were labeled was Cy3 and Cy5 and hybridized to the array. The array shows the noise level for the HU experiment. The profile has been created by averaging the control arrays for all the three HU experiments.

Figure V.3 Control for HU arrest profiles using Self hybridizations

A time course synchronization experiment was performed and replication profiles for cells during S phase were made. The S phase progression was followed by flow cytometry. Figure V.5 shows the replication profiles from 80 to 95 minutes. Although the origins in the *ura4* locus seem to fire during this time course, there is no noticeable change in the profiles itself at the various points. The lack of change in the replication profiles can be due to a lack of synchrony or due to the resolution of the microarrays itself. We used a double synchronization protocol to ensure maximum synchrony and the absence of any difference in the profiles indicates that the change in efficiency we are looking for cannot be observed using microarrays. We have also done early time course points (60-75 minutes) and see no peaks at all indicating that the origins have not fired yet (Data not shown). We tried to capture the transition of an origin from no firing, to firing, and collected cells every 10 minutes or 20 minutes. However, these datasets were very noisy and we have been unable to reach any conclusions from them (Data not shown).

Figure V.4 No change in replication profile when dfp1 is overexpressed

Cells were arrested in early S phase using 10 mM HU in wild type yFS240 and *adh1:dfp1* yFS458. Cells were arrested in HU for two hours. 4A) Replication profile of wild type cells. 4B) Replication profile of *adh1:dfp1* cells. The known origins are represented by \Box . There seems to be no increase in origin efficiency in these cells. 4C) Replication profile overlays of yFS240 and yFS458 show no noticeable difference in the origin efficiency.

Figure V.4 No change in replication profile when dfp1 is overexpressed

Figure V.5 Replication kinetics at *ura4* **locus**

cdc25-22 mutant cells were synchronized in G2 by centrifugal elutriation. The cells were then arrested at 35 C for 3.5 hours. Cells were collected at 80', 85', 90' and 95' and replication profile made as described earlier. The replication profile shows no change in the origin firing over time as represented by no change in the peaks indicating that we are unable to see the small change in origin efficiency observed using DNA combing.

CONCLUSION

Microarrays have been used as a method to measure a change in copy number to study change in origin efficiencies in various mutant strains. Although, we are able to identify known origins from the replication profiles, we have been unable to notice a change in origin efficiency. The absence of any changes in the replication profiles during various time courses shows that our setup has a low signal to noise ratio. Microarrays can be used to measure changes in origin efficiency using density transfer method instead of measuring the change in DNA copy number. The data shows that microarrays can be used for origin studies and different origin studies can still employ microarrays. The resolution of my setup was also significantly higher than the previous origin mapping studies and such a high-resolution array can be made for the entire genome. We are also able to see a couple of putative origins, which have not been identified in the previous genomic studies and we can use this system to look at other regions for identifying new origins.

APPENDIX V.3. EFFECTS OF MODULATING DFP1 LEVELS

INTRODUCTION

Studies from our lab showed that origin firing is stochastic in fission yeast. We have been working on identifying the factor responsible for the stochasticity and randomness of origin firing. We were able to identify Hsk1-Dfp1 as the kinase that regulates origin efficiency (Patel *et al.* 2008). Hsk1-Dfp1 is rate limiting and is required at each origin to fire. Level of Dfp1, the catalytic subunit of Hsk1, increases at the beginning of the cell cycle and it is a freely diffusible factor. DNA combing studies from our lab showed that modulating the levels of either Dfp1 or Hsk1 affects the origin efficiency (Patel *et al.* 2008). This appendix presents my work towards showing that Hsk1-Dfp1 is responsible for regulating origin efficiency.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To increase the activity of the Hsk1-Dfp1 kinase, we overexpressed Dfp1 from the constitutive *adh1* promoter, leading to an approximately 3-fold increase in Dfp1 protein and Hsk1-Dfp1 kinase activity relative to wild-type S-phase levels (Figure V.6). The *adh1:dfp1* cells grow normally and have normal bulk replication kinetics by flow cytometry.

 To test if over-expression of Dfp1 interferes with or activities the replication checkpoint in fission yeast, we assayed HU sensitivity and Cds1 kinase activity in *adh1:dfp1* cell. We find no evidence of HU sensitivity, Cds1 inhibition or Cds1 activation, suggesting that the effects of Dfp1 over-expression are not due to indirect effects on the replication checkpoint (Figure V.7).

Although the simplest explanation for the effect of tethering Hsk1-Dfp1 on the efficiency of local origins in that Hsk1-Dfp1 is directly activating the origins by phosphorylating MCM, it is also possible that the local high concentration of Hsk1-Dfp1 affects local chromatin structure, which in turn indirectly affects local origin efficiency. We reasoned that any effect on local chromatin structure that would affect origin efficiency would also affect transcription. Therefore, to test for local chromatin affects, we used genome-wide transcriptional profiling to assay transcript levels in cells with and without Hsk1-Dfp1 tethered near the ura4 locus (Oliva et al. 2005). We find no significant difference in transcript levels near ura4 between wild-type cells and cells with Gal4-Dfp1 tethered at AT3003

Figure V.6 Expression levels of *dfp1* **alleles.**

A) Protein levels measured by Western blot. Cells were elutriation synchronized and harvested in S phase as determined by septation index and flow cytometry. 150 µg of whole cell lysate was separated by SDS-PAGE on a 10% gel, transferred to a PVDF membrane and visualized using anti-Dpf1antibodies as previously described (Takeda et al., 1999). The bands representing Dpf1 and the Dpf1-2xGFP fusion are indicated; asterisks indicate non-specific bands. The membrane was reprobed with anti-tubulin antibodies. When normalized to the tubulin control, the adh1-expressed Dfp1 is approximately 3-fold more abundant that the wild-type Dfp1 and the Dfp1-2xGFP is approximately equal.

B) Protein activity measured by *in vitro* kinase assay. Cells were elutriation synchronized and harvested in S phase as determined by septation index and flow cytometry. IP kinase assay was performed as described, using polyclonal anti-Dfp1 antibodies and myelin basic protein as substrate (Takeda et al.1999). Lanes 1 and 2 are wild type (yFS240) cells; lane 3 is *adh1:dfp1* (yFS458) cells. Lane 1 is a mock IP, using no antibody; lanes 2 and 3 are Dpf1 IPs. Quantitation of activity is shown below the figure in arbitrary units with the background in Lane 1 subtracted.

Figure V.7 Over-expression of Dfp1 does not activate or inhibit the replication checkpoint.

A) Dfp1 over-expressing cells are not sensitive to chronic exposure to HU. Wild-type (yFS240), *adh1:dfp1* (yFS458) and *cds1::ura4* (yFS199) cells were grown to mid-log, 10-fold serially diluted, spotted onto YES plates containing 0, 1 or 3 mM HU and grown for 5 days.

B) Dfp1 over-expressing cells are not sensitive to acute exposure to HU. Wild-type (yFS240), *adh1:dfp1* (yFS458) and *cds1::ura4* (yFS199) cells were grown to mid-log, transferred to YES containing 10 mM HU, grown for the indicated time, plated on YES, grown for 5 days and counted. Data points represent mean $+/-$ s.e.m.; n = 4. C) Dfp1 over-expressing cells activate Cds1 normally in response to HU. Wild-type (yFS240), *adh1:dfp1* (yFS458) and *cds1::ura4* (yFS199) cells were grown to mid-log, transferred to YES containing 10 mM HU for 4 hours and harvested. Cds1 was immunoprecipitated from 10 OD pellets and assayed by *in vitro* kinase assay using myelin basic protein as a substrate (Lindsay et al., 1998). Quantitation is mean \pm SEM; n is 3 or 4.

Figure V.7 Over-expression of Dfp1 does not activate or inhibit the replication checkpoint.

(Figure V.8). Specifically the change in transcript levels for the 24 genes with in the 50 kb around AT3003 is 1.02 fold, as compared to a genome wide change of 1.01 fold $(p > 0.2)$. These results suggest that the increased local concentration of Hsk1-Dfp1 is not affecting origin efficiency indirectly through local chromatin effects.

CONCLUSION

Using DNA combing and other methods we identified Hsk1-Dfp1 as the regulatory kinase responsible for firing efficiency. I used microarrays to measure a change in firing efficiency when Hsk1-Dfp1 levels are increased globally and locally. Here we show that putting Dfp1 under *adh1* promoter increases the Dfp1 protein and kinase levels 3-fold and does not activate a checkpoint response. Increasing local Dfp1 levels also does not change firing efficiency indirectly by having any effect on local chromatin state.

Figure V.8 Genome-wide transcript levels of in cells with Gal4-Dfp1 tethered at *AT3003***.**

Relative transcript levels in wild-type and *5xGal4 UAS:AT3003 Gal4-Dfp1* (yFS459) cells were determined by competitive hybridization of labeled cDNA to an microarray containing probes for all 5004 pombe annotated ORFs as described (Oliva et al., 2005). Wild-type (yFS105) cDNA was used as a reference in both cases to control for dye bias. The figures show relative difference in transcript levels between the two strains (Log 2) versus chromosome position. Relative p-values are shown by circle size; a circle of $p = 0.01$ is indicated on Chromosome 2. 98% (5282/5414) probes showed less than a two-fold difference between the two strains. The location of the Gal4 UAS site on Chromosome 3 is indicated; the bar shows the 50 kb surrounding the sites. All array data will be available at ArrayExpress (www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress).

Figure V.8 Genome-wide transcript levels of in cells with Gal4-Dfp1 tethered at *AT3003***.**

Chapter VI

Discussion and Future Directions

Maintenance of DNA replication fidelity during S phase is essential to prevent cells from disastrous consequences. Cells must replicate in an efficient, timely and error-free manner. Cells ensure error-free manner of replication through cell cycle checkpoints, which make sure that cells do not replicate when encountering damage. To ensure that replication is completed in an efficient and timely manner, the cells regulate origin firing. Checkpoints and origin regulation are the crucial components of a successful S phase. During my thesis research, I have studied the various aspects of checkpoints and origin regulation. My studies have also indicated origin regulation during DNA damage by the cell cycle checkpoints.

Mechanism of slowing and role of Cdc25 in damage checkpoint

Studies from the metazoans have identified the downstream targets for the origin regulation by the checkpoint (Falck *et al.* 2002). Another mechanism by which cells can slow replication is by slowing the progression of forks in the presence of DNA damage. Such a mechanism has been shown in mammals when damage is induced by MMS (Merrick *et al.* 2004). Recent work from our lab shows that in the presence of damage, fork progression is slowed (Willis N, personal communication). However, it remains to be seen whether checkpoints affect replication only by slowing the fork progression or also by inhibiting origin firing. Using 2-D gels, I did preliminary experiments where DNA damage was induced using MMS. Looking at rDNA origin *ars3001*, origin firing seems to be prevented in the presence of damage. It is possible that inhibition of origin firing might not contribute to the bulk slowing observed due to a relatively minor role in slowing replication. This result along with Nick Willis's results seems to favor slowing by inhibition of origin firing as well as slowing the replication fork progression.

 When I began my thesis research, it was not clear as to what the downstream targets were for the S-phase DNA damage checkpoints in fission yeast. Work from the Huberman lab suggested that Cdc25 is the target for the checkpoint and the checkpoint functions in a similar manner to the metazoans (Kumar and Huberman 2004). It is believed that different levels of Cdc2 trigger different functions of Cdc2 and dephosphorylation by Cdc25 during S phase would lead to catastrophic mitosis (Lundgren *et al.* 1991; Stern and Nurse 1996). Cdc2 is also known to remain phosphorylated during S phase (Gould and Nurse 1989). Cdc25 levels are also known to be low during S phase (Moreno *et al.* 1990). Due to these reasons we did not believe that Cdc25 would be a downstream target of S-phase damage checkpoint. In an attempt to resolve this confusion in the field, we initiated experiments using mutant strains in which *cdc25* is over-expressed or *cdc25* is deleted. Studies from our lab showed that asynchronous as well as different synchronized cultures of these mutant strains had a slowing of S phase comparable to a wild type strain in the presence of damage. Although data from the Pyp3 studies shows a lack of slowing when *cdc25* is deleted, based on the literature and data from *cdc25* deletion in the *cdc2-Y15F* background we drew the conclusion that Cdc25 is not a target of the

S-phase DNA damage checkpoint (Kommajosyula and Rhind 2006). The difference in the results obtained in these studies is primarily due to the kind of flow cytometry being used in both the labs. We use isolated-nuclei approach as opposed to a whole-cell method used by the Huberman lab. Our protocol increases the resolution of the assay and is quantifiable allowing us to reproducibly detect checkpoint dependent slowing in situations in which is slowing is not apparent in whole-cell flow cytometry experiments. Recently, work from their lab has raised concerns over our paper and I have addressed those concerns in the discussion.

Hsk1 as an alternate target

If Cdc25 is not acting downstream of the damage checkpoint, then we need to identify the target of the checkpoint in order to understand how replication is slowed in the presence of damage. The downstream target of the Sphase damage checkpoint could be Hsk1. Previous work has suggested that Hsk1 may play a role in S-phase damage checkpoint in fission yeast (Snaith *et al.* 2000; Sommariva *et al.* 2005). Hsk1 interacts with Cds1 and is phosphorylated by it. However, Hsk1 is essential to cells and its deletion leads to lethality due to its requirement in replication initiation. To study the role of Hsk1 in S-phase damage checkpoint, we need to bypass the replication function of Hsk1. Such a bypass has been done in budding yeast where a mutation in *mcm5* (P83L) is able to bypass the Cdc7 or Dbf4 requirement for origin firing (Hardy *et al.* 1997). This mutant is known as the *mcm5*-*bob1*. The corresponding amino

acid is at position 85 in fission yeast. We initiated work to replace the endogenous *mcm5* with *bob-1* by transforming the *mcm5 P85L* into wild-type fission yeast. However, due to the recessive nature of *mcm5-bob1*, where bob1 will express only in the absence of the wild type *mcm5*, we were unable to get transformants. Future work in the lab will focus on making the *bob-1* mutant in fission yeast. Hsk1 will be deleted in the *bob-1* background and then the effect of DNA damage on replication can be studied. If Hsk1 is involved in the DNA damage checkpoint, then its deletion will lead to the absence of slowing when damage is induced using methyl methane sulfonate (MMS). If cells slow replication when presented with damage in the *hsk1* delete, then Hsk1 is not a target of the DNA damage checkpoint.

It is possible that the checkpoint may function by not targeting either Cdc25 or Hsk1. Nevertheless, it is important to identify the targets for the DNA damage checkpoint to give us a clear understanding of the mechanism by which this checkpoint functions. Identifying the downstream targets for the DNA damage checkpoint will advance the field of S phase checkpoints in fission yeast.

Origin efficiency studies

In the second part of my thesis, I have tried to measure the efficiency of a late replicating sequence. Previous studies and work from our lab have demonstrated that origin firing is stochastic in nature (Patel *et al.* 2006). The stochastic nature of origin firing could lead to a potential problem in replicating by taking long time to finish replicating DNA stretches where no origin may fire (Lucas *et al.* 2000; Herrick *et al.* 2002; Jun *et al.* 2004). This potential problem has been termed as the random gap problem. Work in *Xenopus* embryos have suggested that the efficiency of a particular origin increases as the cells progress through S phase (Lucas *et al.* 2000; Herrick *et al.* 2002). We proposed that a similar mechanism in fission yeast was responsible for efficient replication in spite of inefficient origin firing. To study such a phenomenon, we have to measure the efficiency of a late replicating sequence. Two things made this project challenging: the absence of well defined late firing origins and passive replication of origins, which are capable of firing late.

Regions are capable of firing late in S phase, but if they have not fired in the early stages, the chances are that replication forks from neighboring origins would passively replicate them. We set out to solve the problem of measuring efficiency of a late firing origin by preventing the passive replication from neighboring origins. The block was established using fork terminators known as RTS1 sequences (Dalgaard and Klar 2001). The RTS1 sequences are present at the mating locus in fission yeast and it has been shown that RTS1 is capable of blocking replication when placed at other sites in the genome (Codlin and Dalgaard 2003; Lambert *et al.* 2005). We integrated RTS1 sites on either side of a late replicating sequence *AT2062*. Using a combination of methods we tried to study the efficiency of this region. Initial results from two-Dimensional gel electrophoresis showed that passive replication was occurring at *AT2062*. We

also used microarrays and deep sequencing to look at the 80 kb region flanked by RTS1 sites. Deep sequencing revealed several inefficient origins yet to be identified and we surmised that when forks from neighboring regions were prevented from passively replicating *AT2062*, these inefficient origins would be responsible for the replication of the 80 kb region. We looked to make sure that forks were getting blocked at RTS1 sites and the forks were getting arrested. However, the block seemed to be weak leading to the possibility that forks were beginning to bypass the block. Deletion of *rad51* in the strain having RTS1 flanking *AT2062* had no effect on the viability of the strain. Deleting *rad51* prevents any bypass of RTS1 sites by neighboring forks and hence replication of the 80 kb region is due to origins present within the region. We realized that *AT2062* was not a good choice for studying origin efficiency due to the large distance between the RTS1 sites. I have recently focused my attention on integrating RTS1 sites at *AT3003*, a well-defined origin which fires during the early S phase. The RTS1 sites are being integrated at *AT3003* about 7.5 kb apart on either side. To ensure that neighboring forks do not bypass the RTS1, I am integrating the fork blocks in a *rad51∆* background.

A biochemical explanation for the increasing efficiency model would be a rate-limiting factor required at each origin for it fire. Factors essential for origin firing could be an ideal candidate. One of the prime candidates for regulating origin firing was Hsk1. We showed that Dfp1, the regulatory subunit of Hsk1, was indeed a rate-limiting factor (Patel *et al.* 2008). Increasing Dfp1 levels in the cell

181

led to an increase in a global increase in origin efficiency as determined by DNA combing. Reducing Hsk1 levels by using a temperature sensitive allele led to a decrease in origin efficiency. Also, when the local concentration of Dfp1 was experimentally increased near one of the origins in the *ura4* locus, an increase in efficiency was noted for that particular origin. I measured the protein levels of Dfp1 as well as kinase activity in the Dfp1 overexpression strains and there was a three-fold increase in the Dfp1 activity. Normal activation of checkpoints was observed in the dfp1 overexpression strain showing that the effects observed were not the indirect results of checkpoints.

I used microarrays and 2-D gels to show similar effects of increase in origin efficiency using a different method. Because we were looking to see an increase in efficiency by only about 10-20%, these techniques were not sensitive enough. Although I observed replication profiles using microarrays at the *ura4* locus, I was unable to note a change in efficiency due to the high background noise when measuring the change in copy number using oligonucleotide arrays.

Ways of using RTS1 sites to study origin efficiency

Another mechanism to prevent forks from bypassing RTS1 is by putting *rad51* under an *nmt1* promoter. The presence or absence of thiamine allows for shutting off the *nmt1* promoter thereby shutting off *rad51*. Experiments will be performed in the presence of thiamine to prevent *rad51* expression. Efficiency of *AT3003* will be measured using two-Dimensional gel electrophoresis as well as deep sequencing described in chapter IV.

We hope to address the random gap problem by the efficiency studies at *AT3003*. There are several lines of data that suggest that increasing origin efficiency is the way cells deal with stochastic firing. Mathematical modeling (Monte-carlo simulations) done in collaboration with Bechhoefer lab show that inefficient origins firing randomly would lead to longer replication times whereas increasing the efficiency of origins through the S phase leads to completion of replication in a finite amount of time (Rhind N, personal communication). Studies from *Xenopus* embryos have led to similar models being proposed (Lucas *et al.* 2000). Finally, identifying Hsk1-dfp1 as the rate-limiting kinase responsible for origin efficiency suggests that our model may be correct. Understanding the mechanism of how cells avoid the random gap problem will lead to a more realistic picture of how origin regulation works.

However, the direct evidence for the increasing efficiency model will come from measuring the efficiency of a potentially later firing origin, which usually gets passively replicated before it has a chance to fire. Presently, the work is focused upon measuring the efficiency at *AT3003*. In the future a cryptic origin like *ars727* can be targeted.

One of the advantages of using RTS1 to measure firing efficiencies will be to study the effect of DNA damage on late firing origins in fission yeast. Studies

in budding yeast have shown that DNA damage during S phase prevents late origins from firing (Shirahige *et al.* 1998). However, the mechanism by which S phase DNA damage checkpoint slows replication is not known. Isolating a potential late firing origin from getting passively replicated will allow us to study the effect of drugs like methane methyl sulfonate (MMS) on replication. The advantages of these studies lies in the fact that mammalian origins are similar to fission yeast origins and the results inferred from DNA damage studies in fission yeast can be extrapolated on mammals.

Identifying replication origins

We recently started genome-wide search for *Schizosaccharomyces* genus using deep sequencing. Looking at origin efficiency at *AT2062*, we realized that the 80 kb region flanked by RTS1 seemed to have some inefficient origins which have not been identified. The reason for this is the low resolution of the various genome-wide analyses for origins in fission yeast. The only known common features of origins in *S. pombe* are the presence of AT rich islands, AT asymmetry and their presence in intergenic regions. We are using sequencing in collaboration with Helicos Biosciences and the Weng lab. Preliminary studies of the replication profiles in *S. pombe* show that the origins identified by sequencing correlates very well with previously characterized origins from other studies. The peak finding algorithm in the Igor software being used for studying replication profiles has identified potential origins in both *S. octosporus* and *S. japonicus*. The identification of peaks as well as correlation with previously identified origins

makes deep sequencing a good method for identifying origins. The reason for identifying origins in three different fission yeast species is an attempt to overcome a lack of sequence specificity between the known origins of *S. pombe*. Identification of sequences determining origin activity can help in finding origins in fission yeast *de novo.* The origins are large and inefficient similar to mammals. Resolution of genome wide origin studies in mammals is only about 100 kb which is very low for identifying specific regions acting as origins. Sequencing can also be used to identify origins in mammals and should provide sufficiently higher resolution compared to the previous studies. Identifying origins will also lead to the advancement of research in *S. japonicus* and *S. octosporus* where origins are yet to be identified. Studying the origins across the three distant pombe species will also give us an idea about the evolutionary divergence of replication amongst these fission yeasts. To identify these origins I have performed the experiments using HU arrest in the early S phase in all the three fission yeast species. I have also done a time course in *S. pombe* in order to make replication kinetic profiles and see the how replication progresses through the genome. Bioinformatic analysis will be done on these datasets and common motifs identified. The origins identified in *S. octosporus* in our studies do not have AT rich islands and due to this I believe that it is not simply the presence of AT rich islands that defines an origin but a sequence motif that is yet to be identified. The results from our sequence analysis should help us in understanding the nature of the origins and identify this sequence motif. The absence of origins defined by AT rich islands, markers for origin prediction in *S. pombe*, in *S. octosporus* and *S. japonicus,* is the proof that some other sequence specificity governs origins.

Potential uses of using sequencing to identify origins

In the future, the effect of nucleosome positioning on origin firing can also be studied using deep sequencing. The presence of nucleosomes at a particular region would alter the firing potential of origins. Genome-wide analysis of such a nucleosomal effect on origin regulation can be studied using sequencing.

Effects of DNA damage can also be studied using sequencing. Cells can be sequenced in the presence or absence of DNA damage like MMS and the corresponding replication profiles can be compared. If origin firing is inhibited upon damage, then we will see the absence of origins in the replication profiles of damage induced cells.

Deep sequencing approach will open up many avenues of research especially in identifying origins in organisms with newly completed genome sequences. This is clearly seen by finding potential origins in *S. octosporus* and *S. japonicus*. The potential impact on mammalian origin studies can also be huge.

SUMMARY

Origin regulation and checkpoints have been the focus of my thesis research. My results have shown that neither tyrosine-15 phosphorylation of Cdc2, nor Cdc25 itself, is involved in the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint in fission yeast. I have also studied the origin efficiency of a late replicating sequence. Although, my work has not proven that firing efficiency increases through S phase, my work has setup the platform for future studies pertaining to origin efficiency. This work can be pursued in a number of different ways. This work also has the potential to help in future studies pertaining to DNA damage and becoming a good model to study the effects of damage on origin firing. Finally, I have collaborated with other labs to carry out a genome-wide analysis of origins as well as finding origins in three *Schizosaccharomyces* species. Two of these *Schizosaccharomyces* species did not have previously identified origins and this work identifies the origins across the genome in these species for the first time. This will advance the field of origin studies in *Schizosaccharomyces* species and information gained from this study can potentially be used to identify origins de novo in mammals.

References

- Adachi, Y., J. Usukura and M. Yanagida (1997). "A globular complex formation by Nda1 and the other five members of the MCM protein family in fission yeast." Genes Cells **2**(7): 467-79.
- Aparicio, O. M., D. M. Weinstein and S. P. Bell (1997). "Components and dynamics of DNA replication complexes in S. cerevisiae: redistribution of MCM proteins and Cdc45p during S phase." Cell **91**(1): 59-69.
- Arias, E. E. and J. C. Walter (2006). "PCNA functions as a molecular platform to trigger Cdt1 destruction and prevent re-replication." Nat Cell Biol **8**(1): 84- 90.
- Bartek, J., C. Lukas and J. Lukas (2004). "Checking on DNA damage in S phase." Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol **5**(10): 792-804.
- Bell, S. P. and A. Dutta (2002). "DNA REPLICATION IN EUKARYOTIC CELLS." Annual Review of Biochemistry **71**(1): 333-374.
- Bell, S. P., J. Mitchell, J. Leber, R. Kobayashi and B. Stillman (1995). "The multidomain structure of Orc1p reveals similarity to regulators of DNA replication and transcriptional silencing." Cell **83**(4): 563-8.
- Bell, S. P. and B. Stillman (1992). "ATP-dependent recognition of eukaryotic origins of DNA replication by a multiprotein complex." Nature **357**(6374): 128-34.
- Bentley, N. J., D. A. Holtzman, G. Flaggs, K. S. Keegan, A. DeMaggio, J. C. Ford, M. Hoekstra and A. M. Carr (1996). "The Schizosaccharomyces pombe rad3 checkpoint gene." Embo J **15**(23): 6641-51.
- Blow, J. J., P. J. Gillespie, D. Francis and D. A. Jackson (2001). "Replication origins in Xenopus egg extract Are 5-15 kilobases apart and are activated in clusters that fire at different times." J Cell Biol **152**(1): 15-25.
- Bochman, M. L. and A. Schwacha (2008). "The Mcm2-7 complex has in vitro helicase activity." Mol Cell **31**(2): 287-93.
- Bousset, K. and J. F. Diffley (1998). "The Cdc7 protein kinase is required for origin firing during S phase." Genes Dev **12**(4): 480-90.
- Brewer, B. J. and W. L. Fangman (1987). "The localization of replication origins on ARS plasmids in S. cerevisiae." Cell **51**(3): 463-71.
- Brewer, B. J. and W. L. Fangman (1991). "Mapping replication origins in yeast chromosomes." Bioessays **13**(7): 317-22.
- Burhans, W. C. and J. A. Huberman (1994). "DNA replication origins in animal cells: a question of context?" Science **263**(5147): 639-40.
- Carlson, C. R., B. Grallert, R. Bernander, T. Stokke and E. Boye (1997). "Measurement of nuclear DNA content in fission yeast by flow cytometry." Yeast **13**(14): 1329-35.
- Carpenter, P. B., P. R. Mueller and W. G. Dunphy (1996). "Role for a Xenopus Orc2-related protein in controlling DNA replication." Nature **379**(6563): 357-60.
- Chahwan, C., T. M. Nakamura, S. Sivakumar, P. Russell and N. Rhind (2003). "The fission yeast Rad32 (Mre11)-Rad50-Nbs1 complex is required for the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint." Molecular and Cellular Biology **23**(18): 6564-6573.
- Christensen, P. U., N. J. Bentley, R. G. Martinho, O. Nielsen and A. M. Carr (2000). "Mik1 levels accumulate in S phase and may mediate an intrinsic link between S phase and mitosis." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **97**(6): 2579- 84.
- Chuang, R. Y., L. Chretien, J. Dai and T. J. Kelly (2002). "Purification and characterization of the Schizosaccharomyces pombe origin recognition complex: interaction with origin DNA and Cdc18 protein." J Biol Chem **277**(19): 16920-7.
- Chuang, R. Y. and T. J. Kelly (1999). "The fission yeast homologue of Orc4p binds to replication origin DNA via multiple AT-hooks." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **96**(6): 2656-61.
- Clyne, R. K. and T. J. Kelly (1995). "Genetic analysis of an ARS element from the fission yeast Schizosaccharomyces pombe." Embo J **14**(24): 6348-57.
- Codlin, S. and J. Z. Dalgaard (2003). "Complex mechanism of site-specific DNA replication termination in fission yeast." The EMBO Journal **22**(13): 3431- 3440.
- Coleman, T. R., P. B. Carpenter and W. G. Dunphy (1996). "The Xenopus Cdc6 protein is essential for the initiation of a single round of DNA replication in cell-free extracts." Cell **87**(1): 53-63.
- Cook, J. G., D. A. Chasse and J. R. Nevins (2004). "The regulated association of Cdt1 with minichromosome maintenance proteins and Cdc6 in mammalian cells." J Biol Chem **279**(10): 9625-33.
- Costanzo, V., K. Robertson, M. Bibikova, E. Kim, D. Grieco, M. Gottesman, D. Carroll and J. Gautier (2001). "Mre11 protein complex prevents doublestrand break accumulation during chromosomal DNA replication." Mol Cell **8**(1): 137-47.
- Costanzo, V., K. Robertson, C. Y. Ying, E. Kim, E. Avvedimento, M. Gottesman, D. Grieco and J. Gautier (2000). "Reconstitution of an ATM-dependent checkpoint that inhibits chromosomal DNA replication following DNA damage." Mol Cell **6**(3): 649-59.
- Coue, M., S. E. Kearsey and M. Mechali (1996). "Chromotin binding, nuclear localization and phosphorylation of Xenopus cdc21 are cell-cycle dependent and associated with the control of initiation of DNA replication." EMBO J **15**(5): 1085-97.
- Czajkowsky, D. M., J. Liu, J. L. Hamlin and Z. Shao (2008). "DNA Combing Reveals Intrinsic Temporal Disorder in the Replication of Yeast Chromosome VI." Journal of Molecular Biology **375**(1): 12-19.
- Dai, J., R. Y. Chuang and T. J. Kelly (2005). "DNA replication origins in the Schizosaccharomyces pombe genome." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **102**(2): 337-42.
- Dalgaard, J. Z. and A. J. Klar (2001). "A DNA replication-arrest site RTS1 regulates imprinting by determining the direction of replication at mat1 in S. pombe." Genes & Development **15**(16): 2060-2068.
- Delmolino, L. M., P. Saha and A. Dutta (2001). "Multiple mechanisms regulate subcellular localization of human CDC6." J Biol Chem **276**(29): 26947-54.
- Diffley, J. F. (1996). "Once and only once upon a time: specifying and regulating origins of DNA replication in eukaryotic cells." Genes Dev **10**(22): 2819- 30.
- Dijkwel, P. A., S. Wang and J. L. Hamlin (2002). "Initiation sites are distributed at frequent intervals in the Chinese hamster dihydrofolate reductase origin of replication but are used with very different efficiencies." Mol Cell Biol **22**(9): 3053-65.
- Dolan, W. P., D. A. Sherman and S. L. Forsburg (2004). "Schizosaccharomyces pombe replication protein Cdc45/Sna41 requires Hsk1/Cdc7 and Rad4/Cut5 for chromatin binding." Chromosoma **113**(3): 145-156.
- Donaldson, A. D., W. L. Fangman and B. J. Brewer (1998). "Cdc7 is required throughout the yeast S phase to activate replication origins." Genes Dev **12**(4): 491-501.
- Donovan, S., J. Harwood, L. S. Drury and J. F. Diffley (1997). "Cdc6p-dependent loading of Mcm proteins onto pre-replicative chromatin in budding yeast." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **94**(11): 5611-6.
- Drury, L. S., G. Perkins and J. F. Diffley (1997). "The Cdc4/34/53 pathway targets Cdc6p for proteolysis in budding yeast." Embo J **16**(19): 5966-76.
- Dubey, D. D., S. M. Kim, I. T. Todorov and J. A. Huberman (1996). "Large, complex modular structure of a fission yeast DNA replication origin." Curr Biol **6**(4): 467-73.
- Dubey, D. D., J. Zhu, D. L. Carlson, K. Sharma and J. A. Huberman (1994). "Three ARS elements contribute to the ura4 replication origin region in the fission yeast, Schizosaccharomyces pombe." Embo J **13**(15): 3638-47.
- Dutta, A. and S. P. Bell (1997). "Initiation of DNA replication in eukaryotic cells." Annual Review of Cell and Developmental Biology **13**: 293-332.
- Dutta, C., P. K. Patel, A. Rosebrock, A. Oliva, J. Leatherwood and N. Rhind (2008). "The DNA replication checkpoint directly regulates MBFdependent G1/S transcription." Molecular and Cellular Biology **28**(19): 5977-5985.
- Elledge, S. J. (1996). "Cell cycle checkpoints: preventing an identity crisis." Science **274**(5293): 1664-72.
- Ellison, V. and B. Stillman (2001). "Opening of the clamp: an intimate view of an ATP-driven biological machine." Cell **106**(6): 655-60.
- Enoch, T. and P. Nurse (1990). "Mutation of fission yeast cell cycle control genes abolishes dependence of mitosis on DNA replication." Cell **60**(4): 665-73.
- Eshaghi, M., R. K. Karuturi, J. Li, Z. Chu, E. T. Liu and J. Liu (2007). "Global profiling of DNA replication timing and efficiency reveals that efficient

replication/firing occurs late during S-phase in S. pombe." PLoS One **2**(1): e722.

- Eydmann, T., E. Sommariva, T. Inagawa, S. Mian, A. J. S. Klar and J. Z. Dalgaard (2008). "Rtf1-mediated eukaryotic site-specific replication termination." Genetics **180**(1): 27-39.
- Falck, J., N. Mailand, R. G. Syljuasen, J. Bartek and J. Lukas (2001). "The ATM-Chk2-Cdc25A checkpoint pathway guards against radioresistant DNA synthesis." Nature **410**(6830): 842-7.
- Falck, J., J. H. Petrini, B. R. Williams, J. Lukas and J. Bartek (2002). "The DNA damage-dependent intra-S phase checkpoint is regulated by parallel pathways." Nat Genet **30**(3): 290-4.
- Fangman, W. L. and B. J. Brewer (1992). "A question of time: replication origins of eukaryotic chromosomes." Cell **71**(3): 363-6.
- Feng, W., D. Collingwood, M. E. Boeck, L. A. Fox, G. M. Alvino, W. L. Fangman, M. K. Raghuraman and B. J. Brewer (2006). "Genomic mapping of singlestranded DNA in hydroxyurea-challenged yeasts identifies origins of replication." Nat Cell Biol **8**(2): 148-55.
- Fisher, D. L. and P. Nurse (1996). "A single fission yeast mitotic cyclin B p34cdc2 kinase promotes both S-phase and mitosis in the absence of G1 cyclins." EMBO J **15**(4): 850-60.
- Forsburg, S. L. (2004). "Eukaryotic MCM proteins: beyond replication initiation." Microbiol Mol Biol Rev **68**(1): 109-31, table of contents.
- Forsburg, S. L. and N. Rhind (2006). "Basic methods for fission yeast." Yeast (Chichester, England) **23**(3): 173-183.
- Friedman, K. L., J. D. Diller, B. M. Ferguson, S. V. Nyland, B. J. Brewer and W. L. Fangman (1996). "Multiple determinants controlling activation of yeast replication origins late in S phase." Genes Dev **10**(13): 1595-607.
- Friedman, K. L., M. K. Raghuraman, W. L. Fangman and B. J. Brewer (1995). "Analysis of the temporal program of replication initiation in yeast chromosomes." J Cell Sci Suppl **19**: 51-8.
- Fujita, M., Y. Hori, K. Shirahige, T. Tsurimoto, H. Yoshikawa and C. Obuse (1998). "Cell cycle dependent topological changes of chromosomal replication origins in Saccharomyces cerevisiae." Genes Cells **3**(11): 737- 49.
- Gilbert, D. M. (2001). "Making Sense of Eukaryotic DNA Replication Origins." Science **294**(5540): 96-100.
- Goldar, A., M. C. Marsolier-Kergoat and O. Hyrien (2009). "Universal temporal profile of replication origin activation in eukaryotes." PLoS One **4**(6): e5899.
- Gomez, M. and F. Antequera (1999). "Organization of DNA replication origins in the fission yeast genome." EMBO J **18**(20): 5683-90.
- Gould, K. L., S. Moreno, N. K. Tonks and P. Nurse (1990). "Complementation of the mitotic activator, p80cdc25, by a human protein-tyrosine phosphatase." Science **250**(4987): 1573-6.
- Gould, K. L. and P. Nurse (1989). "Tyrosine phosphorylation of the fission yeast cdc2+ protein kinase regulates entry into mitosis." Nature **342**(6245): 39- 45.
- Gregan, J., K. Lindner, L. Brimage, R. Franklin, M. Namdar, E. A. Hart, S. J. Aves and S. E. Kearsey (2003). "Fission yeast Cdc23/Mcm10 functions after pre-replicative complex formation to promote Cdc45 chromatin binding." Mol Biol Cell **14**(9): 3876-87.
- Hardy, C. F., O. Dryga, S. Seematter, P. M. Pahl and R. A. Sclafani (1997). "mcm5/cdc46-bob1 bypasses the requirement for the S phase activator Cdc7p." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **94**(7): 3151-5.
- Hartwell, L., T. Weinert, L. Kadyk and B. Garvik (1994). "Cell cycle checkpoints, genomic integrity, and cancer." Cold Spring Harb Symp Quant Biol **59**: 259-63.
- Harvey, K. J. and J. Newport (2003). "Metazoan origin selection: origin recognition complex chromatin binding is regulated by CDC6 recruitment and ATP hydrolysis." J Biol Chem **278**(49): 48524-8.
- Hayashi, M., Y. Katou, T. Itoh, A. Tazumi, Y. Yamada, T. Takahashi, T. Nakagawa, K. Shirahige and H. Masukata (2007). "Genome-wide localization of pre-RC sites and identification of replication origins in fission yeast." EMBO J **26**(5): 1327-39.
- Hayashi, M. T., T. S. Takahashi, T. Nakagawa, J. Nakayama and H. Masukata (2009). "The heterochromatin protein Swi6/HP1 activates replication origins at the pericentromeric region and silent mating-type locus." Nat Cell Biol **11**(3): 357-62.
- Heichinger, C., C. J. Penkett, J. Bahler and P. Nurse (2006). "Genome-wide characterization of fission yeast DNA replication origins." EMBO J **25**(21): 5171-9.
- Henry-Mowatt, J., D. Jackson, J. Y. Masson, P. A. Johnson, P. M. Clements, F. E. Benson, L. H. Thompson, S. Takeda, S. C. West and K. W. Caldecott (2003). "XRCC3 and Rad51 modulate replication fork progression on damaged vertebrate chromosomes." Mol Cell **11**(4): 1109-17.
- Herrick, J., S. Jun, J. Bechhoefer and A. Bensimon (2002). "Kinetic model of DNA replication in eukaryotic organisms." J Mol Biol **320**(4): 741-50.
- Herrick, J., P. Stanislawski, O. Hyrien and A. Bensimon (2000). "Replication fork density increases during DNA synthesis in X. laevis egg extracts." Journal of Molecular Biology **300**(5): 1133-1142.
- Homesley, L., M. Lei, Y. Kawasaki, S. Sawyer, T. Christensen and B. K. Tye (2000). "Mcm10 and the MCM2-7 complex interact to initiate DNA synthesis and to release replication factors from origins." Genes Dev **14**(8): 913-26.
- Hyrien, O., K. Marheineke and A. Goldar (2003). "Paradoxes of eukaryotic DNA replication: MCM proteins and the random completion problem." Bioessays **25**(2): 116-25.
- Hyrien, O. and M. Mechali (1993). "Chromosomal replication initiates and terminates at random sequences but at regular intervals in the ribosomal DNA of Xenopus early embryos." Embo J **12**(12): 4511-20.
- Hyrien, O. and M. Méchali (1993). "Chromosomal replication initiates and terminates at random sequences but at regular intervals in the ribosomal DNA of Xenopus early embryos." The EMBO Journal **12**(12): 4511-4520.
- Itzhaki, J. E., C. S. Gilbert and A. C. Porter (1997). "Construction by gene targeting in human cells of a "conditional' CDC2 mutant that rereplicates its DNA." Nat Genet **15**(3): 258-65.
- Izumi, M., K. Yanagi, T. Mizuno, M. Yokoi, Y. Kawasaki, K. Y. Moon, J. Hurwitz, F. Yatagai and F. Hanaoka (2000). "The human homolog of Saccharomyces cerevisiae Mcm10 interacts with replication factors and dissociates from nuclease-resistant nuclear structures in G(2) phase." Nucleic Acids Res **28**(23): 4769-77.
- Izumi, M., F. Yatagai and F. Hanaoka (2001). "Cell cycle-dependent proteolysis and phosphorylation of human Mcm10." J Biol Chem **276**(51): 48526-31.
- Jackson, A. L., P. M. Pahl, K. Harrison, J. Rosamond and R. A. Sclafani (1993). "Cell cycle regulation of the yeast Cdc7 protein kinase by association with the Dbf4 protein." Mol Cell Biol **13**(5): 2899-908.
- Jallepalli, P. V., G. W. Brown, M. Muzi-Falconi, D. Tien and T. J. Kelly (1997). "Regulation of the replication initiator protein p65cdc18 by CDK phosphorylation." Genes Dev **11**(21): 2767-79.
- Jallepalli, P. V., D. Tien and T. J. Kelly (1998). "sud1(+) targets cyclin-dependent kinase-phosphorylated Cdc18 and Rum1 proteins for degradation and stops unwanted diploidization in fission yeast." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **95**(14): 8159-64.
- Jares, P. and J. J. Blow (2000). "Xenopus cdc7 function is dependent on licensing but not on XORC, XCdc6, or CDK activity and is required for XCdc45 loading." Genes Dev **14**(12): 1528-40.
- Jares, P., A. Donaldson and J. J. Blow (2000). "The Cdc7/Dbf4 protein kinase: target of the S phase checkpoint?" EMBO Rep **1**(4): 319-22.
- Jeon, Y., S. Bekiranov, N. Karnani, P. Kapranov, S. Ghosh, D. MacAlpine, C. Lee, D. S. Hwang, T. R. Gingeras and A. Dutta (2005). "Temporal profile of replication of human chromosomes." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **102**(18): 6419-24.
- Johnston, L. H., H. Masai and A. Sugino (1999). "First the CDKs, now the DDKs." Trends Cell Biol **9**(7): 249-52.
- Jonsson, Z. O. and U. Hubscher (1997). "Proliferating cell nuclear antigen: more than a clamp for DNA polymerases." Bioessays **19**(11): 967-75.
- Jun, S., J. Herrick, A. Bensimon and J. Bechhoefer (2004). "Persistence length of chromatin determines origin spacing in Xenopus early-embryo DNA replication: quantitative comparisons between theory and experiment." Cell Cycle (Georgetown, Tex.) **3**(2): 223-229.
- Kastan, M. B. and D. S. Lim (2000). "The many substrates and functions of ATM." Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol **1**(3): 179-86.
- Kelly, T. J. and G. W. Brown (2000). "Regulation of chromosome replication." Annual Review of Biochemistry **69**: 829-880.
- Kim, J. M., M. Yamada and H. Masai (2003). "Functions of mammalian Cdc7 kinase in initiation/monitoring of DNA replication and development." Mutat Res **532**(1-2): 29-40.
- Kim, S. M. and J. A. Huberman (1999). "Influence of a replication enhancer on the hierarchy of origin efficiencies within a cluster of DNA replication origins." J Mol Biol **288**(5): 867-82.
- Kim, S. M. and J. A. Huberman (2001). "Regulation of replication timing in fission yeast." EMBO J **20**(21): 6115-26.
- Kommajosyula, N. and N. Rhind (2006). "Cdc2 tyrosine phosphorylation is not required for the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint in fission yeast." Cell Cycle (Georgetown, Tex.) **5**(21): 2495-2500.
- Kong, D. and M. L. DePamphilis (2002). "Site-specific ORC binding, prereplication complex assembly and DNA synthesis at Schizosaccharomyces pombe replication origins." Embo J **21**(20): 5567- 76.
- Krysan, P. J. and M. P. Calos (1991). "Replication initiates at multiple locations on an autonomously replicating plasmid in human cells." Molecular and Cellular Biology **11**(3): 1464-1472.
- Kumar, S. and J. A. Huberman (2004). "On the slowing of S phase in response to DNA damage in fission yeast." J Biol Chem **279**(42): 43574-80.
- Kumar, S. and J. A. Huberman (2009). "Checkpoint-dependent regulation of origin firing and replication fork movement in response to DNA damage in fission yeast." Mol Cell Biol **29**(2): 602-11.
- Labib, K. and J. F. Diffley (2001). "Is the MCM2-7 complex the eukaryotic DNA replication fork helicase?" Curr Opin Genet Dev **11**(1): 64-70.
- Labib, K., J. F. Diffley and S. E. Kearsey (1999). "G1-phase and B-type cyclins exclude the DNA-replication factor Mcm4 from the nucleus." Nat Cell Biol **1**(7): 415-22.
- Labib, K. and A. Gambus (2007). "A key role for the GINS complex at DNA replication forks." Trends in Cell Biology **17**(6): 271-278.
- Labib, K., J. A. Tercero and J. F. Diffley (2000). "Uninterrupted MCM2-7 function required for DNA replication fork progression." Science **288**(5471): 1643- 7.
- Lambert, S., A. Watson, D. M. Sheedy, B. Martin and A. M. Carr (2005). "Gross chromosomal rearrangements and elevated recombination at an inducible site-specific replication fork barrier." Cell **121**(5): 689-702.
- Larner, J. M., H. Lee, R. D. Little, P. A. Dijkwel, C. L. Schildkraut and J. L. Hamlin (1999). "Radiation down-regulates replication origin activity throughout the S phase in mammalian cells." Nucleic Acids Res **27**(3): 803-9.
- Lee, D. G., A. M. Makhov, R. D. Klemm, J. D. Griffith and S. P. Bell (2000). "Regulation of origin recognition complex conformation and ATPase activity: differential effects of single-stranded and double-stranded DNA binding." Embo J **19**(17): 4774-82.
- Lee, J. K., K. Y. Moon, Y. Jiang and J. Hurwitz (2001). "The Schizosaccharomyces pombe origin recognition complex interacts with multiple AT-rich regions of the replication origin DNA by means of the AThook domains of the spOrc4 protein." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **98**(24): 13589-94.
- Lee, J. K., Y. S. Seo and J. Hurwitz (2003). "The Cdc23 (Mcm10) protein is required for the phosphorylation of minichromosome maintenance complex by the Dfp1-Hsk1 kinase." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **100**(5): 2334-9.
- Legouras, I., G. Xouri, S. Dimopoulos, J. Lygeros and Z. Lygerou (2006). "DNA replication in the fission yeast: robustness in the face of uncertainty." Yeast **23**(13): 951-62.
- Lei, M., Y. Kawasaki, M. R. Young, M. Kihara, A. Sugino and B. K. Tye (1997). "Mcm2 is a target of regulation by Cdc7-Dbf4 during the initiation of DNA synthesis." Genes Dev **11**(24): 3365-74.
- Lei, M. and B. K. Tye (2001). "Initiating DNA synthesis: from recruiting to activating the MCM complex." J Cell Sci 114(Pt 8): 1447-54.
- Lindsay, H. D., D. J. Griffiths, R. J. Edwards, P. U. Christensen, J. M. Murray, F. Osman, N. Walworth and A. M. Carr (1998). "S-phase-specific activation of Cds1 kinase defines a subpathway of the checkpoint response in Schizosaccharomyces pombe." Genes Dev **12**(3): 382-95.
- Liu, E., X. Li, F. Yan, Q. Zhao and X. Wu (2004). "Cyclin-dependent kinases phosphorylate human Cdt1 and induce its degradation." J Biol Chem **279**(17): 17283-8.
- Liu, J., C. L. Smith, D. DeRyckere, K. DeAngelis, G. S. Martin and J. M. Berger (2000). "Structure and function of Cdc6/Cdc18: implications for origin recognition and checkpoint control." Mol Cell **6**(3): 637-48.
- Lopes, M., C. Cotta-Ramusino, A. Pellicioli, G. Liberi, P. Plevani, M. Muzi-Falconi, C. S. Newlon and M. Foiani (2001). "The DNA replication checkpoint response stabilizes stalled replication forks." Nature **412**(6846): 557-61.
- Lucas, I., M. Chevrier-Miller, J. M. Sogo and O. Hyrien (2000). "Mechanisms ensuring rapid and complete DNA replication despite random initiation in Xenopus early embryos." Journal of Molecular Biology **296**(3): 769-786.
- Lundgren, K., N. Walworth, R. Booher, M. Dembski, M. Kirschner and D. Beach (1991). "mik1 and wee1 cooperate in the inhibitory tyrosine phosphorylation of cdc2." Cell **64**(6): 1111-22.
- MacAlpine, D. and S. Bell (2005). "A genomic view of eukaryotic DNA replication." Chromosome Research **13**(3): 309-326.
- MacAlpine, D. M., H. K. Rodriguez and S. P. Bell (2004). "Coordination of replication and transcription along a Drosophila chromosome." Genes Dev **18**(24): 3094-105.
- Mailand, N., J. Falck, C. Lukas, R. G. Syljuasen, M. Welcker, J. Bartek and J. Lukas (2000). "Rapid destruction of human Cdc25A in response to DNA damage." Science **288**(5470): 1425-9.
- Maiorano, D., W. Rul and M. Mechali (2004). "Cell cycle regulation of the licensing activity of Cdt1 in Xenopus laevis." Exp Cell Res **295**(1): 138-49.
- Marchetti, M. A., S. Kumar, E. Hartsuiker, M. Maftahi, A. M. Carr, G. A. Freyer, W. C. Burhans and J. A. Huberman (2002). "A single unbranched S-phase DNA damage and replication fork blockage checkpoint pathway." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **99**(11): 7472-7.
- Masai, H. and K. Arai (2002). "Cdc7 kinase complex: a key regulator in the initiation of DNA replication." J Cell Physiol **190**(3): 287-96.
- McGarry, T. J. and M. W. Kirschner (1998). "Geminin, an inhibitor of DNA replication, is degraded during mitosis." Cell **93**(6): 1043-53.
- Merrick, C. J., D. Jackson and J. F. Diffley (2004). "Visualization of altered replication dynamics after DNA damage in human cells." J Biol Chem **279**(19): 20067-75.
- Mickle, K. L., S. Ramanathan, A. Rosebrock, A. Oliva, A. Chaudari, C. Yompakdee, D. Scott, J. Leatherwood and J. A. Huberman (2007). "Checkpoint independence of most DNA replication origins in fission yeast." BMC Mol Biol **8**: 112.
- Millar, J. B., G. Lenaers and P. Russell (1992). "Pyp3 PTPase acts as a mitotic inducer in fission yeast." EMBO J **11**(13): 4933-41.
- Mizushima, T., N. Takahashi and B. Stillman (2000). "Cdc6p modulates the structure and DNA binding activity of the origin recognition complex in vitro." Genes Dev **14**(13): 1631-41.
- Moreno, S., P. Nurse and P. Russell (1990). "Regulation of mitosis by cyclic accumulation of p80cdc25 mitotic inducer in fission yeast." Nature **344**(6266): 549-52.
- Moser, B. A., J. M. Brondello, B. Baber-Furnari and P. Russell (2000). "Mechanism of caffeine-induced checkpoint override in fission yeast." Mol Cell Biol **20**(12): 4288-94.
- Moyer, S. E., P. W. Lewis and M. R. Botchan (2006). "Isolation of the Cdc45/Mcm2-7/GINS (CMG) complex, a candidate for the eukaryotic DNA replication fork helicase." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **103**(27): 10236-41.
- Myung, K., A. Datta and R. D. Kolodner (2001). "Suppression of spontaneous chromosomal rearrangements by S phase checkpoint functions in Saccharomyces cerevisiae." Cell **104**(3): 397-408.
- Natale, D. A., C. J. Li, W. H. Sun and M. L. DePamphilis (2000). "Selective instability of Orc1 protein accounts for the absence of functional origin recognition complexes during the M-G(1) transition in mammals." EMBO J **19**(11): 2728-38.
- Newlon, C. S. and J. F. Theis (1993). "The structure and function of yeast ARS elements." Curr Opin Genet Dev **3**(5): 752-8.
- Nguyen, V. Q., C. Co, K. Irie and J. J. Li (2000). "Clb/Cdc28 kinases promote nuclear export of the replication initiator proteins Mcm2-7." Curr Biol **10**(4): 195-205.
- Nguyen, V. Q., C. Co and J. J. Li (2001). "Cyclin-dependent kinases prevent DNA re-replication through multiple mechanisms." Nature **411**(6841): 1068-73.
- Nieduszynski, C. A., Y. Knox and A. D. Donaldson (2006). "Genome-wide identification of replication origins in yeast by comparative genomics." Genes Dev **20**(14): 1874-9.
- Nishitani, H., Z. Lygerou, T. Nishimoto and P. Nurse (2000). "The Cdt1 protein is required to license DNA for replication in fission yeast." Nature **404**(6778): 625-8.
- Noguchi, E., C. Noguchi, L. L. Du and P. Russell (2003). "Swi1 prevents replication fork collapse and controls checkpoint kinase Cds1." Mol Cell Biol **23**(21): 7861-74.
- Ogawa, Y., T. Takahashi and H. Masukata (1999). "Association of fission yeast Orp1 and Mcm6 proteins with chromosomal replication origins." Molecular and Cellular Biology **19**(10): 7228-7236.
- Okuno, Y., A. J. McNairn, N. den Elzen, J. Pines and D. M. Gilbert (2001). "Stability, chromatin association and functional activity of mammalian prereplication complex proteins during the cell cycle." Embo J **20**(15): 4263- 77.
- Oliva, A., A. Rosebrock, F. Ferrezuelo, S. Pyne, H. Chen, S. Skiena, B. Futcher and J. Leatherwood (2005). "The cell cycle-regulated genes of Schizosaccharomyces pombe." PLoS Biol **3**(7): e225.
- Orren, D. K., L. N. Petersen and V. A. Bohr (1997). "Persistent DNA damage inhibits S-phase and G2 progression, and results in apoptosis." Mol Biol Cell **8**(6): 1129-42.
- Painter, R. B. and B. R. Young (1980). "Radiosensitivity in ataxia-telangiectasia: a new explanation." Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **77**(12): 7315-7.
- Pasion, S. G. and S. L. Forsburg (1999). "Nuclear localization of Schizosaccharomyces pombe Mcm2/Cdc19p requires MCM complex assembly." Mol Biol Cell **10**(12): 4043-57.
- Patel, P. K., B. Arcangioli, S. P. Baker, A. Bensimon and N. Rhind (2006). "DNA replication origins fire stochastically in fission yeast." Molecular Biology of the Cell **17**(1): 308-316.
- Patel, P. K., N. Kommajosyula, A. Rosebrock, A. Bensimon, J. Leatherwood, J. Bechhoefer and N. Rhind (2008). "The Hsk1(Cdc7) replication kinase regulates origin efficiency." Molecular Biology of the Cell **19**(12): 5550- 5558.
- Perkins, G. and J. F. Diffley (1998). "Nucleotide-dependent prereplicative complex assembly by Cdc6p, a homolog of eukaryotic and prokaryotic clamp-loaders." Mol Cell **2**(1): 23-32.
- Perkins, G., L. S. Drury and J. F. Diffley (2001). "Separate SCF(CDC4) recognition elements target Cdc6 for proteolysis in S phase and mitosis." Embo J **20**(17): 4836-45.
- Petersen, B. O., C. Wagener, F. Marinoni, E. R. Kramer, M. Melixetian, E. Lazzerini Denchi, C. Gieffers, C. Matteucci, J. M. Peters and K. Helin (2000). "Cell cycle- and cell growth-regulated proteolysis of mammalian CDC6 is dependent on APC-CDH1." Genes Dev **14**(18): 2330-43.
- Petrini, J. H. (2000). "The Mre11 complex and ATM: collaborating to navigate S phase." Curr Opin Cell Biol **12**(3): 293-6.
- Raghuraman, M. K., E. A. Winzeler, D. Collingwood, S. Hunt, L. Wodicka, A. Conway, D. J. Lockhart, R. W. Davis, B. J. Brewer and W. L. Fangman (2001). "Replication dynamics of the yeast genome." Science **294**(5540): 115-21.
- Randell, J. C., J. L. Bowers, H. K. Rodriguez and S. P. Bell (2006). "Sequential ATP hydrolysis by Cdc6 and ORC directs loading of the Mcm2-7 helicase." Mol Cell **21**(1): 29-39.
- Reynolds, A. E., R. M. McCarroll, C. S. Newlon and W. L. Fangman (1989). "Time of replication of ARS elements along yeast chromosome III." Mol Cell Biol **9**(10): 4488-94.
- Rhind, N., B. Furnari and P. Russell (1997). "Cdc2 tyrosine phosphorylation is required for the DNA damage checkpoint in fission yeast." Genes Dev **11**(4): 504-11.
- Rhind, N. and P. Russell (1998). "The Schizosaccharomyces pombe S-phase checkpoint differentiates between different types of DNA damage." Genetics **149**(4): 1729-37.
- Rhind, N. and P. Russell (1998). "Tyrosine phosphorylation of cdc2 is required for the replication checkpoint in Schizosaccharomyces pombe." Mol Cell Biol **18**(7): 3782-7.
- Rhind, N. and P. Russell (2000). "Checkpoints: it takes more than time to heal some wounds." Current Biology: CB **10**(24): R908-911-R908-911.
- Rhind, N. and P. Russell (2000). "Chk1 and Cds1: linchpins of the DNA damage and replication checkpoint pathways." Journal of Cell Science **113 (Pt 22)**: 3889-3896.
- Rhind, N. and P. Russell (2001). "Roles of the mitotic inhibitors Wee1 and Mik1 in the G(2) DNA damage and replication checkpoints." Molecular and Cellular Biology **21**(5): 1499-1508.
- Romanowski, P., M. A. Madine, A. Rowles, J. J. Blow and R. A. Laskey (1996). "The Xenopus origin recognition complex is essential for DNA replication and MCM binding to chromatin." Curr Biol **6**(11): 1416-25.
- Rowles, A., S. Tada and J. J. Blow (1999). "Changes in association of the Xenopus origin recognition complex with chromatin on licensing of replication origins." J Cell Sci **112 (Pt 12)**: 2011-8.
- Rowley, R., E. N. Phillips and A. L. Schroeder (1999). "The effects of ionizing radiation on DNA synthesis in eukaryotic cells." Int J Radiat Biol **75**(3): 267-83.
- Russell, P. and P. Nurse (1986). "cdc25+ functions as an inducer in the mitotic control of fission yeast." Cell **45**(1): 145-53.
- Saha, P., J. Chen, K. C. Thome, S. J. Lawlis, Z. H. Hou, M. Hendricks, J. D. Parvin and A. Dutta (1998). "Human CDC6/Cdc18 associates with Orc1 and cyclin-cdk and is selectively eliminated from the nucleus at the onset of S phase." Mol Cell Biol **18**(5): 2758-67.
- Santocanale, C. and J. F. Diffley (1996). "ORC- and Cdc6-dependent complexes at active and inactive chromosomal replication origins in Saccharomyces cerevisiae." Embo J **15**(23): 6671-9.
- Santocanale, C. and J. F. Diffley (1998). "A Mec1- and Rad53-dependent checkpoint controls late-firing origins of DNA replication." Nature **395**(6702): 615-8.
- Santocanale, C., K. Sharma and J. F. Diffley (1999). "Activation of dormant origins of DNA replication in budding yeast." Genes Dev **13**(18): 2360-4.
- Sato, M., T. Gotow, Z. You, Y. Komamura-Kohno, Y. Uchiyama, N. Yabuta, H. Nojima and Y. Ishimi (2000). "Electron microscopic observation and single-stranded DNA binding activity of the Mcm4,6,7 complex." J Mol Biol **300**(3): 421-31.
- Savitsky, K., A. Bar-Shira, S. Gilad, G. Rotman, Y. Ziv, L. Vanagaite, D. A. Tagle, S. Smith, T. Uziel, S. Sfez, M. Ashkenazi, I. Pecker, M. Frydman, R. Harnik, S. R. Patanjali, A. Simmons, G. A. Clines, A. Sartiel, R. A. Gatti, L. Chessa, O. Sanal, M. F. Lavin, N. G. Jaspers, A. M. Taylor, C. F. Arlett, T. Miki, S. M. Weissman, M. Lovett, F. S. Collins and Y. Shiloh (1995). "A single ataxia telangiectasia gene with a product similar to PI-3 kinase." Science **268**(5218): 1749-53.
- Schubeler, D., D. Scalzo, C. Kooperberg, B. van Steensel, J. Delrow and M. Groudine (2002). "Genome-wide DNA replication profile for Drosophila melanogaster: a link between transcription and replication timing." Nat Genet **32**(3): 438-42.
- Schwacha, A. and S. P. Bell (2001). "Interactions between two catalytically distinct MCM subgroups are essential for coordinated ATP hydrolysis and DNA replication." Mol Cell **8**(5): 1093-104.
- Segurado, M., A. de Luis and F. Antequera (2003). "Genome-wide distribution of DNA replication origins at A+T-rich islands in Schizosaccharomyces pombe." EMBO Rep **4**(11): 1048-53.
- Segurado, M., M. Gomez and F. Antequera (2002). "Increased recombination intermediates and homologous integration hot spots at DNA replication origins." Mol Cell **10**(4): 907-16.
- Shendure, J. and H. Ji (2008). "Next-generation DNA sequencing." Nat Biotechnol **26**(10): 1135-45.
- Sheu, Y. J. and B. Stillman (2006). "Cdc7-Dbf4 phosphorylates MCM proteins via a docking site-mediated mechanism to promote S phase progression." Mol Cell **24**(1): 101-13.
- Shinomiya, T. and S. Ina (1994). "Mapping an initiation region of DNA replication at a single-copy chromosomal locus in Drosophila melanogaster cells by two-dimensional gel methods and PCR-mediated nascent-strand analysis: multiple replication origins in a broad zone." Molecular and Cellular Biology **14**(11): 7394-7403.
- Shirahige, K., Y. Hori, K. Shiraishi, M. Yamashita, K. Takahashi, C. Obuse, T. Tsurimoto and H. Yoshikawa (1998). "Regulation of DNA-replication origins during cell-cycle progression." Nature **395**(6702): 618-21.
- Snaith, H. A., G. W. Brown and S. L. Forsburg (2000). "Schizosaccharomyces pombe Hsk1p is a potential cds1p target required for genome integrity." Mol Cell Biol **20**(21): 7922-32.
- Sommariva, E., T. K. Pellny, N. Karahan, S. Kumar, J. A. Huberman and J. Z. Dalgaard (2005). "Schizosaccharomyces pombe Swi1, Swi3, and Hsk1 are components of a novel S-phase response pathway to alkylation damage." Mol Cell Biol **25**(7): 2770-84.
- Sorensen, C. S., R. G. Syljuasen, J. Falck, T. Schroeder, L. Ronnstrand, K. K. Khanna, B. B. Zhou, J. Bartek and J. Lukas (2003). "Chk1 regulates the S phase checkpoint by coupling the physiological turnover and ionizing radiation-induced accelerated proteolysis of Cdc25A." Cancer Cell **3**(3): 247-58.
- Stern, B. and P. Nurse (1996). "A quantitative model for the cdc2 control of S phase and mitosis in fission yeast." Trends Genet **12**(9): 345-50.
- Stevenson, J. B. and D. E. Gottschling (1999). "Telomeric chromatin modulates replication timing near chromosome ends." Genes Dev **13**(2): 146-51.
- Takahashi, T., E. Ohara, H. Nishitani and H. Masukata (2003). "Multiple ORCbinding sites are required for efficient MCM loading and origin firing in fission yeast." EMBO J **22**(4): 964-74.
- Tanaka, S. and J. F. Diffley (2002). "Deregulated G1-cyclin expression induces genomic instability by preventing efficient pre-RC formation." Genes Dev **16**(20): 2639-49.
- Tanaka, S., T. Umemori, K. Hirai, S. Muramatsu, Y. Kamimura and H. Araki (2007). "CDK-dependent phosphorylation of Sld2 and Sld3 initiates DNA replication in budding yeast." Nature **445**(7125): 328-32.
- Tanaka, T., D. Knapp and K. Nasmyth (1997). "Loading of an Mcm protein onto DNA replication origins is regulated by Cdc6p and CDKs." Cell **90**(4): 649- 60.
- Tatsumi, Y., T. Tsurimoto, K. Shirahige, H. Yoshikawa and C. Obuse (2000). "Association of human origin recognition complex 1 with chromatin DNA and nuclease-resistant nuclear structures." J Biol Chem **275**(8): 5904-10.
- Tercero, J. A. and J. F. Diffley (2001). "Regulation of DNA replication fork progression through damaged DNA by the Mec1/Rad53 checkpoint." Nature **412**(6846): 553-7.
- Vas, A., W. Mok and J. Leatherwood (2001). "Control of DNA rereplication via Cdc2 phosphorylation sites in the origin recognition complex." Mol Cell Biol **21**(17): 5767-77.
- Vogelauer, M., L. Rubbi, I. Lucas, B. J. Brewer and M. Grunstein (2002). "Histone acetylation regulates the time of replication origin firing." Mol Cell **10**(5): 1223-33.
- Walter, J. and J. Newport (2000). "Initiation of eukaryotic DNA replication: origin unwinding and sequential chromatin association of Cdc45, RPA, and DNA polymerase alpha." Mol Cell **5**(4): 617-27.
- Walter, J. and J. W. Newport (1997). "Regulation of replicon size in Xenopus egg extracts." Science **275**(5302): 993-5.
- Willis, N. and N. Rhind (2009). "Mus81, Rhp51(Rad51), and Rqh1 form an epistatic pathway required for the S-phase DNA damage checkpoint." Molecular Biology of the Cell **20**(3): 819-833.
- Wohlschlegel, J. A., S. K. Dhar, T. A. Prokhorova, A. Dutta and J. C. Walter (2002). "Xenopus Mcm10 binds to origins of DNA replication after Mcm2-7 and stimulates origin binding of Cdc45." Mol Cell **9**(2): 233-40.
- Wolf, D. A., F. McKeon and P. K. Jackson (1999). "Budding yeast Cdc6p induces re-replication in fission yeast by inhibition of SCF(Pop)-mediated proteolysis." Mol Gen Genet **262**(3): 473-80.
- Woodfine, K., H. Fiegler, D. M. Beare, J. E. Collins, O. T. McCann, B. D. Young, S. Debernardi, R. Mott, I. Dunham and N. P. Carter (2004). "Replication timing of the human genome." Human Molecular Genetics **13**(2): 191-202.
- Wu, J. R. and D. M. Gilbert (1995). "Rapid DNA preparation for 2D gel analysis of replication intermediates." Nucleic Acids Res **23**(19): 3997-8.
- Wu, P.-Y. J. and P. Nurse (2009). "Establishing the program of origin firing during S phase in fission Yeast." Cell **136**(5): 852-864.
- Wuarin, J., V. Buck, P. Nurse and J. B. Millar (2002). "Stable association of mitotic cyclin B/Cdc2 to replication origins prevents endoreduplication." Cell **111**(3): 419-31.
- Wyrick, J. J., J. G. Aparicio, T. Chen, J. D. Barnett, E. G. Jennings, R. A. Young, S. P. Bell and O. M. Aparicio (2001). "Genome-wide distribution of ORC and MCM proteins in S. cerevisiae: high-resolution mapping of replication origins." Science **294**(5550): 2357-60.
- Xiao, Z., Z. Chen, A. H. Gunasekera, T. J. Sowin, S. H. Rosenberg, S. Fesik and H. Zhang (2003). "Chk1 mediates S and G2 arrests through Cdc25A degradation in response to DNA-damaging agents." J Biol Chem **278**(24): 21767-73.
- Yabuki, N., H. Terashima and K. Kitada (2002). "Mapping of early firing origins on a replication profile of budding yeast." Genes Cells **7**(8): 781-9.
- You, Z., Y. Ishimi, H. Masai and F. Hanaoka (2002). "Roles of Mcm7 and Mcm4 subunits in the DNA helicase activity of the mouse Mcm4/6/7 complex." J Biol Chem **277**(45): 42471-9.
- Zappulla, D. C., R. Sternglanz and J. Leatherwood (2002). "Control of replication timing by a transcriptional silencer." Curr Biol **12**(11): 869-75.
- Zegerman, P. and J. F. Diffley (2007). "Phosphorylation of Sld2 and Sld3 by cyclin-dependent kinases promotes DNA replication in budding yeast." Nature **445**(7125): 281-5.
- Zhou, B. B. and S. J. Elledge (2000). "The DNA damage response: putting checkpoints in perspective." Nature **408**(6811): 433-9.
- Zou, L. and B. Stillman (1998). "Formation of a preinitiation complex by S-phase cyclin CDK-dependent loading of Cdc45p onto chromatin." Science **280**(5363): 593-6.
- Zou, L. and B. Stillman (2000). "Assembly of a complex containing Cdc45p, replication protein A, and Mcm2p at replication origins controlled by Sphase cyclin-dependent kinases and Cdc7p-Dbf4p kinase." Mol Cell Biol **20**(9): 3086-96.
Appendix Table List of oligonucleotides for *AT2062* **microarray**

TGA TTG GAG TAA CAG ATC CAG AAG ATA CAC

AAA TTC TTA TAT CGG CTT TCA ATA TGC GGT

CTC AAT AAA TAG GCG AGA AAA GAG AAT GAT TT

GTT ATT GGA GAA GTC GGT GGT AAG TGT

TGG TGG TGG AAC AAG ACC AGG CAC ACT

TTC GAA AAT TCC GTT GAT GCA CGT AGT

CTC TTT TCA TTC TGG AAG TTC GAT A

GGG CTG AGC TAG AAG AAA TAT GGG ATT T

TTT GTA ACA ACC TCC AAA CCT GTT TTC AGA TCT

GGA TTC TTT TCA TAT TTG TTT ATT AAT GCC

CTT GGG TTT TGT AGA TAA CAT AAA ACT TGC

AAA TGA AGA TAT TCA AGT TCA GAA AAA

GTC GCA CGC GCT TTC TCA GCC ATA TAA

TGT GTA GCC TAA TAC TTA CCA AGC AAT GC

ACC TTT TAC ACC TTC CTG TTT TGG CTT AGT

Appendix Table List of oligonucleotides for *ura4* **microarray**

GCT TGC TGT TTG TTA TTT ATT GGT

AAA TTT AGT TGA TGC CGC TTG TAT C

TCC AGG TGG GAA CTT GCT GAA TAA GAC C

TCG TCA ACC AAC CTA GAT TGA TCC TGT TTC

TGT GAT GGA ATT GAT TTT GCT TGT G

AAA CAC AAT TAA ATG GTC CTG GGG

GTT AGA GTA GTA ATT TGC GGT GAC CAA GG

SPC163550.57 GTT CTT TGC GAA AAT AAA TCA GAG GAT CTG GAC AAC TAT CAG GGA CTT CAT ACA ATT SPC164100.63 TTT ATG AAG GAC AGT TGA CTT TGC CTG GGT TTT TAG CTT ATA ATC GTG TAC AAG TTG AAA ATG SPC164550.57 GAT TAT AAA ACA ACA TTG GCT TAT TTG GCG TAC 57 CTT GGG TTT GAC ACT GAT GGA CGT SPC165100.57 TTA GAA TTT ATA CCC GGA TCT TCA AAA GAT TCC 57 CTG CGT TTT CGC TGC TAC CAA GGC SPC165650.62 ATA TAT TGC CAA GTA TGC TAG AAT CGC ATT ATG CAT TAT TGG TTA TTT CGT AAA ATT AGG GC SPC166200.59 CAT TTT GAA GTT CGG GCA AAT CAA AGA CAC CAA TTA AAA CGC ATG TCG CTA AAC TAA AG SPC166700.60 GCT TCG TCA CTG TCC ATG TCT TCA TTA ATT GAC TGC AAA GAT AAA TGC GAT TGA ATA TGA SPC173900.58 ACA CAC ACT CTC TTG GTA AAC TGT TAA TCT AGA AAA CCG GGA AGT TTC CGT TCT TTT C SPC174400.57 CAA CAA CGA TAA CTC CTA TGG TGG AAA CAA CAA CAA TTC TTC CTA TGG CAG CAA TGA SPC174900.57 AGC ATG GTA AGC ACC ATA AGG ACG ACA ACT CCT 57 ATG GAA GCA ATG ATA ACT CCT ACG SPC175300.63 AAC AAT TAA ACG TCA ACG ACA ATT CGT CGA ACA ATA ATT CAT CTG GCA ATA CAG ATA GTT CCA SPC175750.57 CTA ACA ACA ATT CCA ATA CAT CCA ACA ACA ATT 57 CCA ATA CAT CCA ACA ACG AGT CCA SPC176250.61 TCG TTC TCA TTT TCT TTG GTA AAC AGG TTG GTG AGC GCA TTC TAG TTC TTT TGA TAG TTA G SPC176800.58 CCG CTG AAA GTT GGA ATA AGC AAT CGA TAC TTT TAT CTC GGC TGA TCG CAA ATT AAA A SPC177250.57 GGA AAA GGC TAA AAT TGC AAA GGC TAA AGG AAG CAC TAG ATT TTG TAT GGG AAG TGC

TAT TTA ATC ATT AAA AGA TGC CGT AAA GGA

ATC AAA AGG AAC ATT ACT ATA GGT AAA GAT

SPC211350.57 CAT CCA TGC GTC GTT ACT TGT CCG TTC GGT AAA 57 ACT GTC AGC AAG GCA ATT TTG TGG

AAA CAA ATG GAT TGC CAA ACA CCA

ATG TCA TTC TGT GTA ATA AAA TTG TCA CCA

SPC174650.57 57 AAC TCC TAT GGT GGA AAC AAC GAC

271

TTT CTG CTG ATT CAA AGA CTT CGA ACA TGT

ATA GCT TTC AAT GTT TCA CTC TAA GTA GAA

ATT TAT GTT TGT TAG TTC GTC ATG GTT T

ATT GGT TTC TTA CCT ATT ACA GTT TTA GTC GCT

ATC TCT TTA TTA GAA TTT GGT ATT GCT TTT

SPM15401.63

TGA CAG GAG CTA CGA AGT CAT CGT

