Rad51 filaments assembled in the absence of the complex formed by the Rad51 paralogs Rad55 and Rad57 are outcompeted by translesion DNA polymerases on UV-induced ssDNA gaps

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Running title: Rad55-Rad57 prevents recruitment of translesion DNA polymerases

Abstract

The bypass of DNA lesions that block replicative polymerases during DNA replication relies on DNA damage tolerance pathways. The error-prone translesion synthesis (TLS) pathway relies on specialized DNA polymerases that incorporate nucleotides in front of base lesions, potentially inducing mutagenesis. Two error-free pathways can bypass the lesions: the template switching pathway, which uses the sister chromatid as a template, and the homologous recombination pathway (HR), which also can use the homologous chromosome as template. The balance between error-prone and error-free pathways controls the mutagenesis level. Therefore, it is crucial to precisely characterize factors that influence the pathway choice to better understand genetic stability at replication forks. In yeast, the complex formed by the Rad51 paralogs Rad55 and Rad57 promotes HR and template-switching at stalled replication forks. At DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs), this complex promotes Rad51 filament formation and stability, notably by counteracting the Srs2 anti-recombinase. To explore the role of the Rad55-Rad57 complex in error-free pathways, we monitored the genetic interactions between Rad55-Rad57, the translesion polymerases Polζ or Polη, and Srs2 following UV radiation that induces mostly single-strand DNA gaps. We found that the Rad55-Rad57 complex was involved in three ways. First, it protects Rad51 filaments from Srs2, as it does at DSBs. Second, it promotes Rad51 filament stability independently of Srs2. Finally, we observed that UV-induced HR is almost abolished in Rad55-Rad57 deficient cells, and is partially restored upon Polζ or Polη depletion. Hence, we propose that the Rad55-Rad57 complex is essential to promote Rad51 filament stability on single-strand DNA gaps, notably to counteract the error-prone TLS polymerases and mutagenesis.

Author summary

Processive and accurate DNA polymerases replicate genomic DNA during the S phase of each cell cycle. DNA base lesions on template DNA block these polymerases and result in an accumulation of single-stranded DNA gaps behind moving replication forks. These gaps are filled-in by error-prone and error-free pathways. In this work, we show that the complex made by the Rad51 paralogs Rad55 and Rad57 is essential for the error-free homologous recombination gap-filling pathway when DNA replication is stalled by UV-induced DNA lesions, but not for DNA double strand break repair. Interestingly, we found that homologous recombination is efficiently outcompeted by error-prone translesion DNA polymerases in Rad55-Rad57-deficient cells. We propose that the Rad55-Rad57 complex is essential for Rad51 filament stability at UV-induced DNA gaps to promote efficient error-free homologous recombination. Furthermore, our study in yeast predicts that inhibitors of error-prone DNA polymerases might selectively target cancer cells in which RAD51 paralogs are mutated.

Introduction

In all living organisms, genomic DNA undergoes chemical modifications or crosslinking with proteins. These damages greatly compromise DNA replication because they induce replication fork stalling. DNA damage tolerance mechanisms have evolved to ensure completion of genome replication [1], and rely on two main mechanisms: i) translesion synthesis (TLS) DNA polymerases and ii) the use of a homologous template, typically the newly synthesized sister chromatid. Specialized TLS polymerases efficiently insert nucleotides opposite and beyond lesions on DNA templates that block the replicative DNA polymerases [2]. They possibly extend blocked primer/template junctions at replication forks or at single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) gaps left behind the forks [3,4]. TLS polymerases are intrinsically error-prone and constitute a major source of DNA damage-induced mutagenesis [5,6]. Recombination-mediated pathways, such as the template switching and homologous recombination (HR) pathways, mediate damage bypass through the annealing of the damaged ssDNA gaps to the intact homologous template on the sister chromatid [7–9]. HR, also referred to as the salvage pathway, can use homologous chromosomes as intact donors rather than sister chromatids [10]. As TLS, template switching and HR compete for the same ssDNA substrates, they can partly compensate for each other [11–13]. However, template switching and HR are error-free lesion bypass mechanisms and counterbalance mutagenesis induced by TLS [14,15]. Thus, it is crucial to precisely characterize the factors that influence pathway choice to better understand genetic stability at replication forks.

The template switching pathway involves ubiquitin ligase and the Rad18/Rad6 pathway conjugating activities. In budding yeast, Rad6 and Rad18 induce PCNA mono-ubiquitination at its conserved K164 residue, whereas Rad5 and Mms2-Ubc13-dependent activities trigger its poly-ubiquitination at K164 [16,17] and the formation of X-shaped intermediates between

sister chromatids when replication is challenged by DNA damages [8]. Interestingly, the

formation of these X-shaped intermediates relies also on the HR factors Rad51 and Rad52

[7,18].

The HR pathway relies on the recombinase Rad51 that oligomerizes on ssDNA to form

a right-handed helical nucleoprotein filament [19,20]. This filament performs homology

search and catalyzes DNA joint formation between ssDNA and double-stranded DNA

(dsDNA) homologous partners, thereby leading to strand exchange [21–23]. Eventually,

repair DNA synthesis occurs from the damaged DNA invading ends on undamaged template

homologous DNA sequences [24]. Rad51 loading on RPA-coated ssDNA is a crucial step in

HR and is mediated mainly by Rad52 in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and BRCA2 in metazoans

[25–27]. Rad51 filament assembly also requires the activity of Rad51 paralogs (Rad55-Rad57

complex in *S. cerevisiae*; RAD51B, RAD51C, RAD51D, XRCC2, and XRCC3 in human

cells; and the SHU complex in both [28]). Rad55 and Rad57 share 20% identity with the

RecA/Rad51 ATPase core region [29,30]. However, they do not form filaments on ssDNA,

and they do not exhibit strand exchange activity [31,32]. Electron microscopy images showed

the association of gold-labeled Rad55 with Rad51 filaments assembled on ssDNA (Rad51-

ssDNA) [32], and two-hybrid experiments revealed the interaction between Rad51 and Rad55

[33,34]. However, recent single-molecule studies suggest that the interaction between the

Rad55-Rad57 complex and Rad51 filaments is transient and the Rad55-Rad57 complex

dissociates during filament extension [35]. As similar findings were obtained in nematodes

[36], it has been proposed that RAD51 paralogs behave as classical chaperones to temporarily

assist Rad51 filament formation. More studies are required to clearly describe the precise role

of each complex of Rad51 paralogs. In addition, each complex might play a specific role

depending on the initial HR-inducing DNA lesion [37].

110   Rad55-Rad57 role in DNA double strand break (DSB) repair is considered accessory

111 on the basis of the weaker sensitivity of *rad55* and *rad57* mutants to ionizing radiation and to

112 site-directed DSBs compared with *rad51* mutants [38,39]. Interestingly, this sensitivity seems

113 to depend on the Srs2 helicase activity because it is partially suppressed by *SRS2* ablation

114 [32,39]. *In vitro* experiments have shown that the Srs2 translocase activity disrupts Rad51

115 filaments [40,41] and that the Rad55-Rad57 complex counteracts Srs2 to maintain Rad51

116 filaments on ssDNA [32,35]. Therefore, it has been proposed that Rad51 filament assembly

117 and disassembly, which are mediated by the Rad55-Rad57 complex and Srs2 respectively,

118 provide a regulatory mechanism to control HR initiation. However, *SRS2* deletion does not

119 rescue spontaneous HR defects between direct repeats in the *rad55* and *rad57* mutants,

120 indicating that the Rad55-Rad57 complex also acts independently of Srs2 [39].

121   To explain the different defects observed between spontaneous and DSB-induced HR,

122 it was hypothesized that spontaneous HR between direct repeats is initiated by ssDNA gaps

123 rather than DSBs [39]. Thus, the Rad55-Rad57 complex would play a more prominent role in

124 HR when the initiating lesion is a ssDNA gap. In agreement, it has been observed that in cells

125 lacking the TLS polymerases Pol ζ, *RAD55* ablation leads to a synergistic increase in DNA

126 damage sensitivity [42–44].

127   Here, we explored Rad55-Rad57 role in Rad51 filament formation on ssDNA gaps and

128 in the balance between HR and TLS in *S. cerevisiae*. For that purpose, we induced

129 interhomolog HR in diploid strains by ionizing radiation (IR) or UV radiation. IR generates

130 DSBs and ssDNA gaps, whereas UV generates mostly ssDNA gaps [11]. We found that the

131 Rad55-Rad57 complex is essential for UV-induced HR, but only accessory for IR-induced

132 HR. Interestingly, this essential role is mainly Srs2-independent, and UV-induced HR in

133 Rad55-Rad57-deficient cells can be restored by inactivation of a TLS polymerase (Polζ or

134 Polη). Conversely, UV-induced HR cannot be restored upon inactivation of the template

switch pathway in *MMS2* deficient cells. Overall, our results show that the Rad55-Rad57

complex is essential for Rad51 filament assembly on UV-induced ssDNA gaps. When this

complex is absent, Rad51 filaments cannot prevent the recruitment of TLS polymerases and

counterbalance mutagenesis.

Results

The Rad55-Rad57 heterodimer is essential for UV-induced
homologous recombination

To investigate Rad55-Rad57 role in HR induced by DSB and ssDNA gaps, we

analyzed UV- and IR-induced interhomolog HR in wild type (WT) and *rad55Δ* isogenic

diploid strains. The previous observation that *rad51* and *rad52* mutant cells are very sensitive

to IR indicates that IR generates DSBs, whereas these mutants are much more resistant to UV

radiation, indicating that DSBs are probably rarely induced [45,46]. Additionally, genetic

evidence suggests that UV-induced HR is triggered by ssDNA gaps [47]. We measured

interhomolog HR using two mutant alleles of *ARG4*: *arg4-RV*, a 2-bp deletion that ablates the

*Eco*RV site at position +258, and *arg4-Bg*, a 4-bp insertion by fill-in of a *Bgl*II site at position

+1,274 [48] (**Fig 1A**). These alleles do not revert [48] and only recombination in heteroallelic

arg4-RV/arg4-Bg diploid cells results in the formation of a WT *ARG4* gene primarily by non-

reciprocal transfer covering one mutation [49].

The *rad55Δ* diploid strain was not sensitive to UV radiation (**Fig 1B**), but remarkably,

UV-induced recombinant [Arg$^+$] frequency was strongly reduced in the *rad55Δ* diploid strain

compared with WT cells (10-fold at 120 J/m^2) (**Fig 1C**), suggesting that the Rad55-Rad57

complex is determinant in UV-induced HR. Conversely, *rad55Δ* diploid cells were sensitive

to IR (**Fig 1D**), but γ-ray-induced HR frequencies were identical in *rad55Δ* and WT cells at

high doses (400 Gy and 600 Gy) (**Fig 1E**). We observed the same phenotypes in the *rad57Δ*

mutant (**S1 Fig**). Likewise, it was previously reported that spontaneous HR rates are identical

in *rad57Δ* and WT cells [38,50], a result we confirmed here in *rad55Δ* cells (**Fig. 1F**). These

observations suggest that the Rad55-Rad57 complex plays a specific and essential role in UV-

induced HR, while it seems accessory for DSB repair induced by IR and spontaneous HR.

UV-induced DNA lesions are channeled towards the *REV3* error-prone DNA repair pathway in the *rad55Δ* mutant

Although UV-induced HR was almost abolished in *rad55Δ* cells, these cells were

resistant to UV radiation. We hypothesized that in *rad55Δ* mutant cells, UV-induced ssDNA

gaps at replication forks could be repaired by TLS instead of HR. The TLS polymerase Polζ

is required to bypass UV-induced DNA lesions, as illustrated by the strong UV-sensitivity of

haploid cells lacking the Rev3 catalytic subunit of Polζ (**Fig 2A**) [51]. Conversely, *rev3Δ*

diploid cells were much more resistant to UV radiation (**Fig 2B**), possibly due to HR

promoted by *MAT* heterozygosity [50,52–54]. In addition, Polζ is responsible for almost all

UV-induced mutagenesis in yeast cells [51,55]. Therefore, we expected that *rad55Δ* cells

strongly rely on Polζ and on its catalytic subunit Rev3 for UV resistance, and that UV-

induced mutagenesis is increased in *rad55Δ* cells, as previously shown for spontaneous

mutagenesis [42]. In agreement with previous studies, we confirmed that UV sensitivity is

much higher in the *rev3Δ rad55Δ* double mutant than in the *rev3Δ* single mutant in haploid

cells [42–44] (**Fig 2A**) and also in diploid cells (**Fig 2B**). Therefore, the high resistance of

Rad55-deficient cells is related to the TLS pathway that could compensate for HR deficiency

in these cells.

We then monitored mutagenesis in *rad55Δ* cells using the *CAN1* forward mutation

assay [56]. In agreement with our hypothesis of a major role of the error-prone TLS pathway,

the frequency of UV-induced canavanine-resistant cells was two-fold higher in the *rad55Δ*

mutant than in WT cells (**Fig 2C**). This observation supports the channeling of DNA lesions

towards the error-prone Polζ-dependent pathway in *rad55Δ* cells.

188 UV-induced DNA lesions are channeled to the HR pathway
189 in cells lacking TLS polymerases

The finding that UV-induced DNA lesions can be channeled to the TLS pathway in

rad55Δ cells suggested that such lesions could be managed by the HR pathway in TLS-

deficient cells. In that case, TLS-deficient cells should display a hyper-recombinogenic

phenotype. To test this hypothesis, we measured the frequencies of UV-induced HR in *rev3Δ*

(Polζ mutant) and *rad30Δ* (Polη mutant) cells. As expected, HR frequency was strongly

increased in the *rev3Δ* and to a lower extent in the *rad30Δ* mutant (**Fig 3A and B**). However,

UV sensitivity was similar in diploid cells harboring the *rev3Δ* or *rad30Δ* mutation (**Figs 2B**

and 3C). We propose that in the *rad30Δ* mutant, UV-induced DNA lesions can be bypassed

by both HR and Polζ, while Polη cannot always take over Polζ function in *rev3Δ* cells,

resulting in higher HR frequency.

201 Translesion DNA polymerases prevent UV-induced HR in
202 the *rad55Δ* mutant

We showed that UV-induced HR is strongly decreased in Rad55-Rad57 deficient cells.

We also observed that the TLS and HR pathways compete for the same UV-induced ssDNA

gaps, because mutagenesis was increased in *rad55Δ* mutants, and HR in *rev3Δ* mutants.

Therefore, the recruitment of TLS polymerases at the lesion site might decrease HR in

rad55Δ cells. We measured HR frequencies in the *rev3Δ rad55Δ* double mutant, and

observed a significantly increased frequency compared with *rad55Δ* cells (**Fig 4A**). This

indicated that Polζ effectively impairs HR in the absence of the Rad55-Rad57 complex. We

propose that the Rad55-Rad57 complex is important to stabilize Rad51 filaments on ssDNA

gaps at the DNA lesion site, thus avoiding the recruitment of TLS polymerases. Our results

also suggest that in the absence of the Rad55-Rad57 complex, Rad51 filaments are functional

enough to promote some HR events (**Fig 4A**), but this is not sufficient to improve UV

resistance (**Fig 2**). We observed the same results when a Polη mutation (*rad30Δ*) was

combined with *rad55Δ* (**Fig 4B-D**). Thus, both Polζ and Polη are responsible for the decrease

of UV-induced HR in *rad55Δ* mutant cells.

Next, we asked whether UV-induced HR can be observed independently of the Rad55-

Rad57 complex in cells deficient for the template switching pathway. Therefore, we measured

the cell survival and recombination frequencies after UV radiation of cells in which *MMS2*

was deleted. We found that the *rad55Δ mms2Δ* double mutant was more sensitive than the

single mutants (**Fig 4E**), suggesting that some template switching events can occur

independently of HR. Strikingly, the frequency of UV-induced recombinants was very low in

the *rad55Δ mms2Δ* double mutant (**Fig 4F**). This suggests that the template switching

pathway does not compete with HR between homologous chromosome and that TLS

polymerases still prevent HR in the *rad55Δ mms2Δ* double mutant. On the other hand, the

recombination frequency in the *mms2Δ* single mutant was increased, but only after exposure

to the highest UV dose (120 J/m², **Fig 4F**).

229   **The acute UV sensitivity of the *rad55Δ rev3Δ* double**
230   **mutant is partially suppressed by *SRS2* deletion**

As the Rad55-Rad57 complex limits Rad51 filament destabilization by Srs2 at DSBs

[32,35], we asked whether Srs2 would be partially involved in the defective UV-induced HR

associated with *rad55Δ* or *rad57Δ*. To address this question, we measured UV-induced HR

frequencies in *rad55Δ srs2Δ* and *rad57Δ srs2Δ* double mutants. We found that they were

similar to those observed in *rad55Δ* and *rad57Δ* single mutants (**Fig 5A and 5B**; **S2A and**

S2B Fig). However, *rev3Δ rad55Δ srs2Δ* diploid cells were less sensitive to UV radiation

than *rev3Δ rad55Δ* cells (**Fig 5C**). Thus, the Rad55-Rad57 complex is involved also in the

protection of Rad51 filaments against Srs2 at ssDNA gaps formed after UV radiation, but this

can only be seen in the absence of Polζ. When Polζ is active, the HR rate is probably too low

in *rad55Δ* mutant cells to allow measuring the effect of Rad51 displacement by Srs2.

Additionally, despite Srs2 absence, the *rev3Δ rad55Δ srs2Δ* triple mutant was more

sensitive to UV than the *rev3Δ* single mutant (**Fig 5C**). This indicates that besides the

protection it provides to Rad51 filaments against Srs2, the Rad55-Rad57 complex plays a

Srs2-independent role in UV-induced HR that is only revealed in *rev3Δ* mutants. We propose

that the Rad55-Rad57 complex provides stability to Rad51 filaments independently of the

protection against Srs2.

The Rad55-Rad57 complex is essential for the formation of UV-induced lethal recombination events

We confirmed that the *srs2Δ/srs2Δ* diploid strain is very sensitive to UV radiation as reported

before [57]; however, this sensitivity was completely suppressed in *rad55Δ srs2Δ* and

rad57Δ srs2Δ mutant cells (**Fig 5D**; **S2C Fig**). Previous genetic studies led to the concept of

toxic Rad51-dependent recombination intermediates that accumulate in the absence of Srs2

[58–60]. Therefore, on the basis of the complete suppression of *srs2Δ*-associated UV

sensitivity by *rad55Δ* and *rad57Δ*, we propose that the Rad55-Rad57 complex participates in

the formation of UV-induced Rad51 filaments that are toxic for the cells in the absence of

Srs2. In agreement with previous reports [57,61,62], we observed a strong UV-induced hyper-

recombination phenotype in Srs2-deficient cells. This phenotype was completely suppressed

by the concomitant deletion of Rad55 or Rad57 (**Fig 5A**; **S2A Fig**).

The translesion DNA polymerases Polζ and Polη are not essential for DSB repair

The large impact of the *rad55Δ rev3Δ* double mutant on cell survival after UV radiation

suggested that the Rad55-Rad57 complex and Polζ play an important and specific role in UV-

induced DNA repair. Although the Rad55-Rad57 complex is not essential for DSB repair

[39], we wanted to determine the potential role of TLS polymerases in DSB repair in *rad55Δ*

cells. To this aim, we measured the repair of a DSB induced at the *MAT* locus upon

expression of the HO endonuclease controlled by a galactose-inducible promoter. The DSB

was repaired by HR using an ectopic *MAT***a**-inc sequence inserted in chromosome V [62,63]

(**Fig 6A**). After DSB induction, survival was decreased by 3-fold in *rad55Δ* cells compared

with WT cells (**Fig 6B**). Conversely, survival of the *rev3Δ*, *rad30Δ,* and *rev3Δ rad30Δ*

mutants was not affected by DSB induction, and they did not change the sensitivity of the

rad55Δ mutant. This indicates that the TLS polymerases are not required for DSB repair

efficiency.

Discussion

The Rad55-Rad57 complex is essential for HR-mediated repair of UV-induced ssDNA gaps

Genetic studies provided evidence that ssDNA gaps are the major initiator of

spontaneous and UV-induced HR in yeast [47,57]. In addition, electron microscopy and two-

dimensional gel electrophoresis showed that UV-irradiated cells accumulate ssDNA gaps,

likely resulting from re-priming events downstream of stalled replication forks at UV-induced

DNA lesions [11]. UV-induced ssDNA gaps were also inferred from a physical assay [12]

and from the study of RPA focus distribution relatively to sites of ongoing replication [13].

Interestingly, both studies reported that TLS and HR counteract ssDNA gap accumulation.

Here, we show that the complex formed by the Rad51 paralogs Rad55 and Rad57 is

essential for Rad51 filament formation at UV-induced ssDNA gaps, while it is accessory for

Rad51 filament formation at DSB sites. We observed a strong decrease of HR frequencies in

the *rad55Δ* and *rad57Δ* mutants specifically after UV radiation. Moreover, we confirmed the

synergistic increase of UV sensitivity upon depletion of both Rad55 and Polζ in haploid and

diploid cells (Fig. 2A and B). We did not observe this negative interaction after induction of a

site-directed DSB (Fig. 6). In addition, we found that UV-induced mutagenesis at the *CAN1*

locus was increased in the *rad55Δ* mutant (Fig. 2C), and that UV-induced HR was increased

in Pol ζ and Pol η deficient cells (Fig. 3A and B). Most importantly, we observed UV-

induced HR in the absence of the Rad55-Rad57 complex only in cells deficient for TLS (Fig.

4). These data suggest that the Rad55-Rad57 complex might stabilize Rad51 filaments on

ssDNA gaps to prevent the recruitment of the TLS polymerases.

The Rad55-Rad57 complex plays three prominent roles in UV-induced HR

One of the best defined role of Rad55-Rad57 is the protection of Rad51 filaments from

Srs2 at DSBs [32,35]. Here, we found that although the defect in UV-induced HR observed in

rad55Δ cells was not suppressed by *SRS2* deletion (**Fig 5A and B**), the very high UV

sensitivity of the *rad55Δ rev3Δ* double mutant was partially suppressed by *srs2Δ* (**Fig 5C**).

This suggests that the Rad55-Rad57 complex protects Rad51 filaments against Srs2 also at

UV-induced ssDNA gaps, although Esc2- and Elg1-dependent mechanisms also regulate

negatively Srs2 at sites of stalled replication forks [64,65]. More genetic studies are required

to determine the interplay between these regulating factors.

The increased UV-sensitivity of the *rev3Δ rad55Δ srs2Δ* triple mutant compared with

the *rev3Δ* single mutant (**Fig 5C**) clearly indicates that the Rad55-Rad57 complex plays a

Srs2-independent role in UV-induced HR. We propose that the second role of this complex is

to provide stability to Rad51 filaments, independently of the protection against Srs2. In

agreement with this conclusion, we found that in *rad55Δ* or *rad57Δ* mutants, *srs2Δ*-

associated UV-sensitivity was completely suppressed (**Fig 5D, S2C Fig**). This indicates that

in the absence of Srs2 activity, Rad51 stabilization by the Rad55-Rad57 complex would lead

to lethal events, possibly initiated by ssDNA gaps that could block replication fork restart. On

the basis of the results of single-molecule studies, it was proposed that the Rad55-Rad57

complex helps Rad51 filament formation by acting as a chaperone [35], in agreement with our

observations.

Remarkably, UV-induced HR frequency increased in *rad55Δ* cells upon Polζ or Polη

deletion (**Fig 5**). Therefore, the third role of the Rad55-Rad57 complex would be to allow HR

to outcompete the TLS polymerases. Rad51 filament stabilization by the Rad55-Rad57

complex on ssDNA at the lesion site could prevent the recruitment of TLS polymerases by

PCNA because of structural constraints. In the absence of Rad55-Rad57, unstable Rad51

filaments cannot prevent the loading of the TLS polymerases that inhibit HR and induce

mutagenesis. TLS polymerase depletion in *rad55Δ* mutants would allow some HR events to

occur, but the inherent instability of Rad51 filaments would make them rare and explain the

low survival rate of *rev3Δ rad55Δ* mutant cells. Our results clearly highlight that UV-induced

lesions can be channeled from HR to TLS and *vice versa*, when one pathway is inactivated.

This provide further support to a model in which HR and TLS can share common substrates

[12,13].

Model for the activity of the Rad55-Rad57 complex in ssDNA gap repair

Our genetic data suggest three different and essential functions for the Rad55-Rad57 complex in UV-induced interhomolog HR initiated at ssDNA gaps (**Fig 7A**). First, this complex is required for Rad51 filament formation and stabilization that are essential for efficient strand exchange at ssDNA gaps. The 5'ends of DSBs are resected to generate 3' ssDNA that can invade the homologous donor. Conversely, 3' ssDNA is not directly available at ssDNA gaps. Therefore, the Rad55-Rad57 complex may be required to form Rad51 filaments that can invade without 3' ssDNA extremities. Alternatively, the Rad55-Rad57 complex can be involved in the 3' end denaturation at the lesion site to generate a 3' ended ssDNA by recruitment of a DNA helicase. Second, the Rad55-Rad57 complex within Rad51 filaments counterbalances Srs2 activity through a mechanism that remains poorly understood [32,35]. Third, the Rad55-Rad57 complex inhibits TLS polymerases by preventing their loading at the primer/template junction within ssDNA gaps, probably through the stabilization of Rad51 filaments (**Fig 7B-E**). This competition might be crucial to control mutagenesis resulting from gap-filling by Polζ. Thus, in our model, Rad51 filaments formed with the Rad55-Rad57 complex preserve the genome stability through ssDNA gap repair by HR, but also through direct competition with TLS on common ssDNA gap substrates.

The interplay between HR and TLS in mammals

The interplay between error-prone and error-free lesion-bypass pathways is documented in *E. coli* and yeast (the present study, [13,14]), and it has been recently investigated in mammals. Specifically, in mammalian cells, HR is triggered by PRIMPOL-dependent ssDNA gaps behind stalled replication forks [66]. Moreover, BRCA1- and BRCA2-defective breast cancer cells, in which HR is impaired, display an increased somatic mutational load specific

of TLS polymerases [67–70]. Accordingly, a recent study found that BRCA1/2-defective

cancer cells rely much more on TLS for repair of PRIMPOL-dependent ssDNA gaps [71]. In

addition, similarly to PARP1 or DNA polymerase Polθ inhibitors that are used to treat HR-

deficient cancers [72–74], the small molecule JE-RH-06 disrupts the interaction between the

TLS polymerases REV1 and Polζ and shows preferential cytotoxicity in BRCA1-deficient

cancer cells [71,75]. Thus, it would be interesting to determine whether the association of

cancer-associated RAD51 paralog mutations and TLS mutations leads to a synergic

sensitivity to replication fork blocking lesions, as we observed in yeast in the *rad55Δ rev3Δ*

double mutant. If an acute sensitivity is found, one might expect a cytotoxicity associated

with TLS polymerase inhibitors in RAD51 paralog-deficient cancer cells.

Materials and Methods

Yeast strains, plasmids and media

The *S. cerevisiae* strains used in the present study are isogenic derivatives of FF18733 (*his7-2, leu2-3,112, lys1-1, trp1-289, ura3-52*) and JKM146 (*hml::ADE1 MATalpha hmr::ADE1, arg5,6::MATa-inc::HPH1, ade3::GAL::HO*) and are listed in **S1 Table**. Yeast cells were incubated at 30°C for all the experiments described. Gene deletions were performed by PCR-mediated one-step replacement [76,77]. Mutants were selected on YPD medium containing 300 mg/L geneticin (Sigma) or nourseothricin (cloNAT; Werner BioAgents). All deletions were confirmed by PCR amplification of genomic DNA. All media were prepared as previously described [78].

Irradiation, cell survival assay, and measurement of DNA damage-induced HR frequency

Cells in stationary phase and in exponential growth phase were used for irradiation with UV and γ-rays, respectively. UV irradiation was performed using a 264 nm source. Yeast cells were irradiated with 30, 60, 90 and 120 J/m^2 (2 J/m^2/s dose rate). γ-irradiation was performed using a GSR D1 irradiator (Gamma-Service Medical GmbH). It is a self-shielded irradiator with four sources of ^{137}Cesium. The total activity was 180.28 TBq in March 2014. As yeast cells resuspended in 1 mL of sterile H$_2$O were irradiated in 1.5ml plastic microtubes, dosimetry was performed using plastic microtubes with a cylindrical ionizing chamber 31010 (PTW, Freiburg, Germany) following the American Association of Physicists in Medicine recommendations [79]. This ionizing chamber has a cavity of 0.125 cm^3 calibrated with ^{137}Cesium in air kerma free in air and the reference number of our facility is 210382401. The polarity and the ion recombination were measured for this ^{137}Cesium source. Each

measurement was corrected with the KTP factor to take into account the variations in

temperature and atmospheric pressure. Yeast cells were irradiated at 100, 200, 400 and 600

Gy (single doses) and with a 12 Gy/min dose rate that takes the radioactive decrease into

account.

Before (UV) or after (γ-rays) irradiation, cells were plated at the appropriate dilution

on rich medium (YPD) to measure the survival rate, and on synthetic plates without arginine

to quantify the number of HR events between *ARG4* heteroalleles. HR frequencies were

determined by dividing the number of recombinant colonies growing on selective medium by

the number of unselected colonies subjected to the same dose of irradiation. The values

obtained were corrected by subtracting the number of recombinants on the non-irradiated

plates. The mean percentage from at least three independent experiments is presented.

Measurement of spontaneous heteroallelic HR

405 Rates of spontaneous HR between two heteroalleles of *ARG4* were determined by

406 fluctuation tests using the method of the median [80]. The reported rates were obtained from

407 three independent experiments, each performed with nine independent 2-ml cultures started

408 with less than 200 cells and incubated at 30°C for three days. The significance of the rates is

409 indicated by the 95% confidence interval [80].

Measurement of UV-induced mutagenesis

UV-induced mutagenesis was measured with the *CAN1* forward-mutation assay [56].

UV-induced mutagenesis frequencies were obtained by dividing the number of colonies

growing on synthetic plates without arginine and containing l-canavanine (Sigma, 30 mg/l)

(*i.e.*, canavanine-resistant, Can^R, cells) by the number of cells that survived irradiation

counted on rich media YPD. The number of Can^R colonies obtained after irradiation was

corrected by subtracting the number of spontaneous Can^R colonies growing on non-irradiated

plates.

Survival following DSB formation

421   Cells were grown overnight in liquid culture medium containing lactate acid instead of

422 glucose. Survival following HO-induced DSB was measured as the number of cells growing

423 on galactose-containing medium divided by the number of colonies growing on YPD. The

424 results shown are the mean values of at least 3 independent experiments.

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Figure legend

Fig 1. Rad55 plays a major role in UV-induced HR. (A) Schematic representation of the

genetic system used. Frameshift mutations were introduced at the *Eco*RV site (RV, ±2 bp) or

the *Bgl*II site (Bg, +4 bp). HR between the two *ARG4* mutant alleles can restore a WT *ARG4*

allele associated with the [Arg+] phenotype. (B) Survival and (C) [Arg+] recombinant

frequencies after UV exposure of WT and *rad55Δ* diploid cells. (D) Survival and (E) [Arg+]

recombinant frequencies after γ irradiation of WT and *rad55Δ* diploid cells. (F) Spontaneous

mitotic [Arg+] recombinant rates ([Arg+] x 10^{-7}/cell/generation) of WT and *rad55Δ* diploid

strains.

Fig 2. Channeling UV-induced DNA lesions into the *REV3*-dependent pathway in

***rad55Δ* cells.** (A) Survival of haploid cells following UV radiation. (B) Survival of diploid

cells following UV radiation. (C) UV-induced mutagenesis in WT and *rad55Δ* cells

determined by quantifying the Can^R mutant frequency for the indicated UV doses.

Fig 3. Channeling UV-induced DNA lesions into the HR pathway in TLS-deficient cells.

(A) UV-induced [Arg+] recombinant frequencies in WT and *rev3Δ* diploid cells. (B) UV-

induced [Arg+] recombinant frequencies in WT and *rad30Δ* diploid cells. (C) Survival of

diploid *rad30Δ* cells after UV radiation.

Fig 4. *RAD55*-independent UV-induced HR in TLS-deficient cells. (A) UV-induced

[Arg+] recombinant frequencies in *rad55Δ rev3Δ* diploid cells. The very strong UV

sensitivity displayed by the double mutant precluded the quantification of the UV-induced

recombinant rate at UV doses higher than 40J/m². (B) Survival of *rad55Δ rad30Δ* diploid

cells following UV radiation. (C) UV-induced [Arg+] recombinant frequencies in *rad55Δ* and

rad30Δ diploids cells. (D) Close-up view of (C) to exclude the hyper-recombinogenic

phenotype of *rad30Δ*. (E) *Rad55Δ mms2Δ* diploid cell-survival upon UV radiation. (F) UV-

induced [Arg+] recombinant frequencies in *rad55Δ* and *mms2Δ* diploid cells.

Fig 5. Srs2 role in the *rad55Δ* mutant exposed to UV radiation. (A) UV-induced [Arg+]

recombinant frequencies in *rad55Δ srs2Δ* diploid cells. (B) Close-up view of (A) to exclude

the hyper-recombinogenic phenotype of *srs2Δ*. (C) The acute UV sensitivity displayed by the

rad55Δ rev3Δ mutant is partially suppressed by *SRS2* deletion. The red arrow between the

rev3Δ rad55Δ and *rev3Δ rad55Δ srs2Δ* survival curves highlights the partial *srs2Δ*

suppression. (D) Survival curves of diploid cells following UV radiation. The acute

sensitivity to UV radiation of the diploid *srs2Δ* strain is suppressed by *rad55Δ* (blue arrow).

Fig 6. TLS DNA polymerases are not required for cell survival after a site-specific DSB.

(A) Schematic representation of the system used to measure repair of a HO-induced DSB by

gene conversion between ectopic copies of *MAT*. (B) Cell viability after DSB formation.

Fig 7. Model of Rad55-Rad57 roles in the repair of ssDNA gaps by HR behind

replication forks. The figure shows an ssDNA gap generated after stalling of a replicative

DNA polymerase at a UV-induced DNA lesion. This gap is a substrate for both the HR and

TLS pathways. (**A**) The three roles of the Rad55-Rad57 complex in Rad51 filament formation

on ssDNA gaps are highlighted: (1) formation of functional Rad51 filaments; (2) protection

against Srs2 dismantling activity; (3) prevention of TLS polymerase recruitment at the

primer/template junction. (**B**) In WT cells, Rad55-Rad57 heterodimers form and stabilize

Rad51 filaments on ssDNA leading to HR, avoiding bypass by TLS. Rad51 filaments could

prevent the recruitment of the TLS polymerases Polζ and Polη (collectively named TLS Pol)

by covering the 3' extremity blocked at the DNA lesion. (**C**) In the *rad55Δ* mutant, inefficient

and/or fewer Rad51 filaments are formed that cannot prevent the recruitment of the TLS

polymerases. Therefore, more UV-induced DNA lesions are channeled towards the TLS

pathway (red arrows). (**D**) In the *rev3Δ* or in the *rad30Δ* mutant, the absence of Polζ or Polη

allows channeling UV-induced DNA lesions towards the HR pathway (red arrows). (**E**) In the

rad55Δ rev3Δ and *rad55Δ rad30Δ* double mutants both the HR and the TLS pathways are

impaired.

Supporting information

S1 Fig. Rad57 plays a major role specifically in UV-induced HR. (A) Survival, and (B)

[Arg+] recombinant frequencies in WT and *rad57Δ* diploid cells following UV radiation. (C)

Survival and (D) [Arg+] recombinant frequencies in WT and *rad57Δ* diploid cells after γ

irradiation.

S2 Fig. Srs2 roles in the *rad57Δ* mutant exposed to UV radiation. (A) UV-induced [Arg+]

recombinant frequencies in *rad57Δ srs2Δ* diploid cells. (B) Close-up view of (A) to exclude

the hyper-recombinogenic phenotype of *srs2Δ*. (C) Survival curves of diploid cells following

UV radiation. The acute sensitivity to UV radiation of the diploid *srs2Δ* strain is suppressed

by *rad57Δ* (blue arrow).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

B

Figure 6

Figure 7

Supplemental Figure S1

Supplemental Figure S2