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Srs2 binding to PCNA and its sumoylation contribute to RPA antagonism during the DNA damage response

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Abstract

Activation of the DNA damage checkpoint upon genotoxin treatment induces a multitude of cellular changes to cope with genome stress. After prolonged genotoxin treatment, the checkpoint can be downregulated to allow cell cycle and growth resumption. In yeast, downregulation of the DNA damage checkpoint requires the Srs2 DNA helicase, which removes the ssDNA binding complex RPA and the associated Mec1 checkpoint kinase from DNA, thus dampening Mec1-mediated checkpoint. However, it is unclear whether the 'anti-checkpoint' role of Srs2 is temporally and spatially regulated to allow timely checkpoint termination while preventing superfluous RPA removal. Here we address this question by examining regulatory elements of Srs2, such as its phosphorylation, sumoylation, and protein-interaction sites. Our genetic analyses and checkpoint level assessment suggest that the RPA countering role of Srs2 is promoted by Srs2 binding to PCNA, which recruits Srs2 to a subset of ssDNA containing regions. RPA antagonism is further fostered by Srs2 sumoylation, which we found depending on the Srs2-PCNA interaction and Mec1, and peaking after Mec1 activity reaches maximal levels. These data suggest that Srs2 recruitment to PCNA proximal ssDNA-RPA filaments followed by its sumoylation can promote checkpoint recovery, whereas Srs2 action is minimized at regions with no proximal PCNA to permit RPA-mediated ssDNA protection.

Introduction

The DNA damage response promotes organismal survival of genotoxic stress by eliciting many cellular changes. A critical component of this response is a signaling process termed the DNA damage checkpoint (DDC) (Enoch *et al.*, 1992, Hartwell and Weinert, 1989, Lanz *et al.*, 2019). Upon experiencing genotoxic stress, apical DDC kinases are recruited to DNA lesion sites by the damage sensing proteins and are then activated by activator proteins (Usui *et al.*, 2001, Zou and Elledge, 2003). A universal DDC sensor is the RPA complex that binds with high affinity and specificity to single-strand DNA (ssDNA), whose abundance rises under almost all types of genotoxic stress (Marechal and Zou, 2015). Using the budding yeast system as an example, RPA bound to the ssDNA filament can interact with Ddc2 (homolog of the human ATRIP protein), the co-factor of the Mec1 (homolog of the human ATR protein) checkpoint kinase, and recruit the Mec1-Ddc2 complex to DNA lesion sites (Elledge, 1996, Foiani *et al.*, 2000). Subsequently, Mec1 is activated by activator proteins, such as the 9-1-1 complex loaded at the 5' DNA ends at ssDNA and double strand (ds) DNA junctions. Activated Mec1 can then phosphorylate multiple substrates, among which is a key downstream effector kinase Rad53, the phosphorylation of which turns on its own kinase activity and yields further phosphorylation events (Harrison and Haber, 2006). Collectively, the DDC kinases can modify hundreds of proteins, inducing multitude of pathway changes (Lanz *et al.*, 2019). For example, DDC can arrest or delay the cell cycle progression to allow more time for genome repair (Sanchez *et al.*, 1999, Wang *et al.*, 2001).

While DDC activation is crucial for the cell to cope with genotoxic stress, its timely downregulation is equally vital (Waterman *et al.*, 2020). Many changes induced by the DDC kinases need to be reversed to allow continued cell growth and recovery. For example, the DDC-mediated cell cycle arrest has to be lifted to allow proliferation and alternative DNA repair mechanisms permitted at other cell cycle phases (Pellicioli *et al.*, 2001, Waterman *et al.*, 2020). Thus far, DDC downregulation has been mainly studied using the model organism yeast, with several strategies being identified (Waterman *et al.*, 2020). One of these is mediated by the DNA helicase Srs2 that targets the most upstream step of the DDC pathway through removing RPA and the associated Mec1-Ddc2 from chromatin (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). Importantly, the role of Srs2 in DDC dampening (anti-checkpoint) can be separated from its well-studied role in removing the recombinase Rad51 from ssDNA (anti-recombination) that modulates homologous recombination levels and outcomes (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). The former role of Srs2 is critical for cell survival of genotoxins, such as camptothecin (CPT) that traps Top1 on DNA (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). Considering that other organisms also possess DNA helicases capable of removing RPA from ssDNA (Hormeno *et al.*, 2022, Jenkins *et al.*, 2021, Shorrocks *et al.*, 2021), it is plausible that an anti-checkpoint strategy involving RPA antagonism may be present beyond yeast.

Currently, little is known about how checkpoint dampening can be temporally controlled to minimize interference with the initial DDC activation that must occur in the early phase of the DNA damage response. In the case of the Srs2-mediated checkpoint regulation, it is also unclear how the process can minimize superfluous removal of RPA from ssDNA sites that unlikely induce the DDC due to lacking 5' DNA ends at ss-dsDNA junctions for 9-1-1 loading, such as at those formed at R-loops. The main functions of RPA at these sites can be ssDNA protection and repair, rather than DDC induction, thus these sites may benefit from shielding from Srs2-mediated RPA removal. In addressing these questions, we hypothesize that Srs2-based RPA antagonism should be selective in location and timing, and that the regulatory elements within the Srs2 protein may contribute to such selectivity.

To examine the above hypothesis and to define Srs2 features relevant to its RPA
antagonism during DDC regulation, we inspected Srs2 protein sites involved in its post-
translational modifications and interactions with other proteins. Our genetic analyses of
mutations affecting each of these sites suggest that while most of the examined features do not
affect RPA antagonism, Srs2 binding to PCNA, which marks 3' DNA ends of ss-dsDNA
junctions that flank ssDNA gaps or tails, and Srs2 sumoylation contribute to RPA regulation in
the context of DDC. Srs2 binding to PCNA is known to recruit Srs2 to replication perturbation
sites, while the roles of Srs2 sumoylation were less clear (Kolesar *et al.*, 2012, Moldovan *et al.*,
2007, Papouli *et al.*, 2005, Pfander *et al.*, 2005, Saponaro *et al.*, 2010). Unexpectedly, we found
that Srs2 binding to PCNA and Srs2 sumoylation are functionally related, since PCNA binding
promotes Srs2 sumoylation. Moreover, Srs2 sumoylation level peaks late in the response to
genomic stress after the DDC kinases are hyper-activated, and this modification depends on the
Mec1 checkpoint kinase. Collectively, our data suggest a model wherein Srs2 can distinguish
between two types of ssDNA regions using PCNA proximity as a guide for subsequent
sumoylation, RPA removal, and countering hyper-activated checkpoint.
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115 **Results**
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117 **Srs2 regulatory features and their disabling mutants**
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To understand which Srs2 attributes are relevant to RPA regulation during the DNA damage
response, we examined mutant alleles that perturb known features of the Srs2 protein. Srs2
was reported to contain a helicase domain at its N-terminal region and three protein-protein
interaction sites at its C-terminal region (Fig. 1A) (Niu and Klein, 2017). We have previously
shown that the Srs2 ATPase-dead allele (*srs2-K41A*) fails to downregulate both RPA levels on
chromatin and the Mec1-mediated DDC, indicating a requirement of ATPase-driven stripping of
RPA from ssDNA (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). The reported Srs2 protein-bindings sites include a
Rad51 binding domain (Rad51-BD), a PCNA interaction motif (PIM), and a SUMO interaction
motif (SIM) (Fig. 1A) (Armstrong *et al., 2012*, Colavito *et al.*, 2009, Kolesar *et al.*, 2016, Kolesar
et al., 2012, Papouli *et al., 2005*). We employed CRISPR-based editing to generate the *srs2-*
ΔPIM (Δ1159-1163 amino acids) and the *srs2-SIM^{mut}* ($_{1170}$IIVID$_{1174}$ to $_{1170}$AAAAD$_{1174}$) alleles used
in previous studies and examined an established *srs2-ΔRad51BD* allele (Δ875-902 amino acids)
(Armstrong *et al.*, 2012, Colavito *et al.*, 2009, Kolesar *et al.*, 2016, Kolesar *et al.*, 2012, Papouli
et al., 2005). We note that despite Srs2 can remove of RPA from ssDNA, an interaction
between the two proteins has yet to be reported.
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We also queried post-translational modifications reported for Srs2 by mutating the
corresponding modification sites (Fig. 1A). First, seven Cdk1 phosphorylation consensus sites
of Srs2 were mutated to produce the *srs2-7AV* (T604V, S698A, S879A, S893A, S938A, S950A,
and S965A) allele (Chiolo *et al.*, 2005), which was previously shown to affect homologous
recombination. Second, three sumoylation sites of Srs2 were mutated to generate *srs2-3KR*
(K1081R, K1089R, and K1142R) (Saponaro *et al.*, 2010). Finally, we mutated two serine
residues (S890 and S933) to alanine to generate *srs2-2SA*, since phosphorylation at these sites
was identified in proteomic studies as dependent on both the Mec1 kinase and genotoxic
treatments (Faca *et al.*, 2020). Because the Srs2 C-terminal end contributes to the protein's
functions (Antony *et al.*, 2009, Colavito *et al.*, 2009), the six mutant alleles described above
were not tagged with epitopes at its C-terminus. Using an anti-Srs2 specific antibody, we
showed that all six alleles supported wild-type levels of Srs2 protein based on immunoblotting
(Fig. 1B).
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150 **Mutating PCNA binding and sumoylation sites of Srs2 rescues *rfa1-zm2* CPT sensitivity**
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Srs2 loss leads to persistent DDC and perturbed recombination, both of which contribute to
srs2Δ sensitivity to genotoxins, including CPT and methyl methanesulfonate (MMS) (Fig. 2A)
(Niu and Klein, 2017). Significantly, our recent study has shown that RPA mutants that reduce
its ssDNA binding affinity rescue the persistent DDC levels in *srs2Δ* cells but not their
recombination defects (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). *rfa1-zm2* (N492D, K493R, K494R) is one of the
RPA alleles examined that contains mutations at three DNA contacting residues in the Rfa1
subunit of RPA (Fan and Pavletich, 2012). Purified RPA complex containing these mutations
exhibited a two-fold increase in dissociation constant using ssDNA as substrate, compared to
the wild-type RPA complex (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). In cells, *rfa1-zm2* supports normal Rfa1
protein level, cell growth, DNA replication (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). It also did not affect gene
conversion, direct repeat repair or rDNA recombination, nor the hyper-recombination phenotype
of *srs2Δ* (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). However, *rfa1-zm2* and *srs2Δ* are mutually suppressive for both
their genotoxic sensitivities and their DDC abnormalities (Fig. 2B, S1A) (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021).
These data suggest that the *srs2* and *rfa1-zm2* genetic relationship can be used as a readout
for the antagonism between Srs2 and RPA in DDC and that this functional relationship can be
separable for Srs2's anti-recombination role stemming from Rad51 regulation. Based on this
rationale, we employed the genetic suppression as an initial readout in querying whether any of
the six *srs2* mutant alleles described above are related to RPA regulation. Given that Srs2's role
in checkpoint dampening was best examined in CPT (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021), which induces the
DNA damage checkpoint to delay G2/M progression, but does not induce the DNA replication
checkpoint, experiments were mostly carried out in this condition.
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We found that on their own, *srs2-ΔPIM*, *SIM^{mut}*, and *-7AV* showed different levels of
sensitivity toward CPT at a concentration ranging from 2 to 8 µg/ml, while *srs2-ΔRad51BD* and -
3KR exhibited close to wild-type level of CPT resistance, which are consistent with previous
reports (Colavito *et al.*, 2009, Saponaro *et al.*, 2010) (Fig. S1A). In addition, *srs2-2SA,* which
has not been examined previously*,* did not show CPT sensitivity (Fig. S1A). Since *rfa1-zm2*
cells exhibited stronger CPT sensitivity than the tested *srs2* alleles (Fig. S1A), we asked if the
latter could suppress *rfa1-zm2* CPT sensitivity. We found that both *srs2-ΔPIM* and *-3KR*
improved the CPT resistance of *rfa1-zm2* cells on media containing 2 µg/ml CPT (Fig. 2C).
Rescue was also seen at higher CPT concentrations, with *srs2-ΔPIM* exhibiting a stronger effect
than *srs2-3KR* (Fig. S1B). In contrast to *srs2-ΔPIM* and *srs2-3KR*, *srs2-ΔRad51BD* and *-2SA*
showed no effect on *rfa1-zm2* growth on media containing CPT, whereas *srs2-7AV and -SIM^{mut}*
worsened it (Fig. 2D). The differential effects seen for the *srs2* alleles are consistent with the
notion that Srs2 has multiple roles in cellular survival of genotoxic stress (Bronstein *et al.*, 2018,
Niu and Klein, 2017). The unique suppression seen for mutants affecting Srs2 binding to PCNA
and its sumoylation suggests that these features are relevant to RPA regulation during the DNA
damage response.
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192 **Additional suppressive effects conferred by *srs2-ΔPIM* and *-3KR* toward *rfa1* mutants**
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We next tested whether the observed *srs2-ΔPIM* and *-3KR* suppression was specific towards
rfa1-zm2 or applicable to other *rfa1* mutants that are also defective in ssDNA binding. While
rfa1-zm2 affects the ssDNA binding domain C (DBD-C) of Rfa1, a widely used *rfa1* allele, *rfa1-*
t33, impairs the DBD-B domain (Fig. 2E) (Umezu *et al.*, 1998). Unlike *rfa1-zm2, rfa1-t33*
additionally decreases Rfa1 protein level and interferes with DNA replication and repair (Deng *et*
al., 2014, Umezu *et al.*, 1998). Despite having these additional defects, CPT survival of *rfa1-t33*

cells was also improved by *srs2-ΔPIM* or *srs2-3KR* (Fig. 2E). As seen in the case of *rfa1-zm2*,
srs2-ΔPIM conferred better rescue than *srs2-3KR* toward *rfa1-t33* (Fig. 2E). When comparing
the two *rfa1* alleles, *srs2* rescue was stronger toward *rfa1-zm2*, likely because *rfa1-t33* has
other defects besides reduced ssDNA binding (Fig. 2C, 2E). In either case, *srs2* mutants only
conferred partial suppression, consistent with the notion that Srs2 has roles beyond RPA
regulation, such as in Rad51 regulation and removing DNA joint molecules (Bronstein *et al.*,
2018, Niu and Klein, 2017). Nevertheless, the observed rescue of both *rfa1-zm2* and *rfa1-t33*
provided strong genetic evidence that Srs2 binding to PCNA and sumoylation are involved the
regulation of RPA during the DNA damage response.
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Srs2 regulation of RPA during DDC is not only observed under CPT treatment, but is
also seen in treatment with MMS (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021), which induces both DDS and the DNA
replication checkpoint and thus delaying both S phase progression and G2/M phase exit
(Paciotti *et al.*, 2000, Tercero *et al.*, 2003). Consistent with observation made in CPT conditions,
srs2-ΔPIM moderately improved the MMS sensitivity of *rfa1-zm2* and *rfa1-t33,* while *srs2-3KR*
had a small effect on the MMS sensitivity of *rfa1-zm2* (Fig. S1B, S1C). The degrees of
suppression seen in MMS treatment were less than those observed in CPT conditions, and we
address likely reasons for this difference in Discussion. Collectively, the multiple genetic results
are consistent among themselves and provide evidence that the roles of Srs2 binding to PCNA
and sumoylation in RPA antagonism can be applicable to more than one genomic stress
situation.
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223 ***srs2-ΔPIM* and *-3KR* rescue checkpoint abnormality of *rfa1-zm2* cells**
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We next investigated whether *srs2-ΔPIM* and *-3KR* suppression of the DNA damage sensitivity
of *rfa1-zm2* cells pertained to DDC regulation. We employed two readouts for DDC that are
widely used. First, we used the F9 antibody, which specifically recognizes phosphorylated
Rad53, to measure the levels of activated Rad53 (Fiorani *et al.*, 2008). Second, we measure
cellular ability to timely exit the G2/M phase after CPT treatment using FACS analyses. We note
that CPT-induced DDC leads to G2/M delay rather than an arrest as shown in previous studies
(Dhingra *et al.*, 2021, Menin *et al.*, 2018, Redon *et al.*, 2003). We recently reported that *srs2Δ*
cells exhibit increased levels of phosphorylated Rad53 and diminished ability to timely exit G2/M
phase in CPT, and that both are suppressed by *rfa1-zm2* (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). Interestingly,
rfa1-zm2 leads to similar defects and these are rescued by *srs2Δ* (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021) (Fig.
3A). The mutual suppression seen in these assays is consistent with that seen for CPT
sensitivity (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). We note that several other RPA ssDNA binding mutants, such
as *rfa1-t33*, also exhibit phenotypes indicative of increased DDC levels (Pellicioli *et al.*, 2001,
Seeber *et al.*, 2016, Smith and Rothstein, 1995, Zou and Elledge, 2003). This is likely because
compromised ssDNA protection can lead to increased levels of DNA lesions thus enhancing the
activation of Mec1 and/or its homolog Tel1.
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We reasoned that if *srs2-ΔPIM* and *srs2-3KR* compromise Srs2's ability to remove RPA
from DNA in cells, they should alleviate *rfa1-zm2* cells' defects in ssDNA protection and the
associated DDC abnormalities (Fig. 3A). Indeed, while *rfa1-zm2* exhibited about 5-fold increase
in Rad53 phosphorylation levels in CPT compared with wild-type cells as seen before (Dhingra
et al., 2021), *srs2-ΔPIM* and *-3KR* reduced this level by about 50% and 80%, respectively (Fig.
3B). Similar to earlier data, we observed that wild-type cells arrested in G_2/M after 1 hour of CPT
treatment and about 25% of these cells entered G_1 after another hour (Fig. 3C) (Dhingra *et al.*,
2021). The ability to timely exit from G_2/M was reduced in *rfa1-zm2* cells so that only 13% cells
moved to G1 after 2 h treatment with CPT, as seen before (Fig. 3C) (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021).

Compared with *rfa1-zm2* cells, *srs2-ΔPIM rfa1-zm2* and *srs2-3KR rfa1-zm2* cells showed
increased percentages of cells transitioning into the G1 phase (Fig. 3C). The suppressive
effects seen in both assays were stronger for *srs2-ΔPIM* than *srs2-3KR* as seen in genotoxicity
assays (Fig. S1B; 3B, 3C). When assaying for chromatin RPA levels, we found that while *srs2-*
Δpim showed an increase compared with the wild-type control, *rfa1-zm2* reversed this effect
(Fig. S2). This data supports the Srs2 and RPA antagonism. Collectively, results from the above
assays are consistent with each other and suggest that Srs2 binding to PCNA and its
sumoylation contribute to RPA antagonism during DDC regulation.
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261 **srs2-ΔPIM is additive with a slx4 mutant defective in DDC recovery**
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We found that *srs2-ΔPIM* and *srs2-3KR* mutants on their own behaved normally in the two DDC
assays described above, which differs from *srs2Δ* cells that exhibit increased levels of Rad53
phosphorylation and reduced G1 entry (Fig. 3B, 3C) (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). One plausible
interpretation of this difference is that unlike *srs2Δ*, these partially defective *srs2* mutants only
mildly impair Srs2-mediated RPA regulation during DDC downregulation, such that their defects
can be compensated for by other DDC dampening systems. To test this idea, we examined the
consequences of removing the Slx4-mediated anti-checkpoint function in *srs2-ΔPIM* cells. Slx4
is known to bind the scaffold protein Rtt107, and their complex can compete with the DDC
protein Rad9 for binding to damaged chromatin, consequently disfavoring Rad9's role in
promoting Rad53 phosphorylation (Ohouo *et al.*, 2010, Ohouo *et al.*, 2013). Slx4 uses an Rtt107
interaction motif (RIM) to bind Rtt107 and a previously established RIM mutant, *slx4^{RIM}* (T423A,
T424A, and S567A), abolishes Rtt107 binding without affecting other Slx4 protein attributes
(Wan *et al.*, 2019). *slx4^{RIM}* was tagged with a TAP tag at its C-terminal end and examined
together with a control wherein the wild-type Slx4 was tagged in the same manner. Compared
with the control, *slx4^{RIM}* exhibited mild sensitivity toward CPT (Fig. 4A). Significantly, when *srs2-*
ΔPIM was combined with *slx4^{RIM}*, the double mutant exhibited stronger CPT sensitivity
compared with corresponding single mutants (Fig. 4A).
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We further examined DDC levels when cells were exposed to CPT using both Rad53
phosphorylation and ability to timely exit G2/M as readouts. Compared with *SLX4-TAP* cells,
slx4^{RIM}-TAP cells exhibited a 2-fold increase in Rad53 phosphorylation levels, consistent with a
role of Slx4 in downregulating DDC (Fig. 4B). In *SLX4-TAP* background, *srs2-ΔPIM* led to 2-fold
increase in Rad53 phosphorylation level (Fig. 4B). As cells containing untagged Slx4 and *srs2-*
ΔPIM did not show Rad53 phosphorylation changes (Fig. 3B), tagging Slx4 appeared to
sensitize *srs2-ΔPIM.* Significantly, the *srs2-ΔPIM slx4^{RIM}-TAP* double mutant exhibited further
increase in Rad53 phosphorylation than either *srs2-ΔPIM* or *slx4^{RIM}-TAP* single mutant (Fig.
4B). Congruous with this finding, the *srs2-ΔPIM slx4^{RIM}-TAP* double mutant also reduced the
percentage of cells entering G_1 compared with their single mutants after 2-hour treatment with
CPT (Fig. 4C). Together, these three lines of evidence support the notion that defects in the
Srs2-mediated DDC downregulation can be compensated for by Slx4-mediated mechanisms.
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295 **Srs2 binding to PCNA facilitates Srs2 sumoylation**
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We next addressed whether the two Srs2 features involved in RPA antagonism are functionally
related. To this end, we tested if Srs2 binding to PCNA affected Srs2 sumoylation in cells. We
confirmed that endogenous sumoylation of Srs2 could be detected in cell extracts after
enriching SUMOylated proteins using 8His-tagged SUMO (8His-Smt3) (Fig. 5A). Briefly,
proteins were extracted from cells under denaturing conditions to disrupt protein-protein

association and prevent desumoylation, and sumoylated proteins were enriched on Ni-NTA
(nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid) resin (Ulrich and Davies, 2009). Consistent with previous findings,
sumoylated forms of Srs2 in the Ni-NTA eluate were detected on immunoblots using an anti-
Srs2 antibody only when cells contained 8His-Smt3, where unmodified Srs2 was seen in the
presence or absence of 8His-Smt3 due to nonspecific binding to the resin (Fig. S3A) (Saponaro
et al., 2010). These bands were only seen in wild-type cells but not *srs2Δ* cells (Fig. S3A). We
found that Srs2 sumoylation level was reduced in *srs2-3KR* strains in CPT conditions, as
expected from mutating the three major sumoylation sites (Fig. 5A) (Saponaro *et al.*, 2010).
Interestingly, *srs2-ΔPIM* cells exhibited a similar reduction in Srs2 sumoylation as seen in *srs2-*
3KR cells (Fig. 5A). This result suggests that Srs2 sumoylation largely depends on Srs2 binding
to PCNA, supporting the notion that the two events occur sequentially.
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315 **Srs2 sumoylation peaks after maximal Mec1 activation and depends on Mec1**
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While RPA can engage with ssDNA generated in different processes, such as transcription,
DNA repair, and DNA replication, only a subset of ssDNA regions is adjacent to 3'-junctions
loaded with PCNA. This is because PCNA loading requires an ssDNA and dsDNA junction site
with a 3' DNA end (Moldovan *et al.*, 2007). We thus reasoned that Srs2 binding to PCNA may
prevent Srs2 from removing RPA bound to ssDNA that is not flanked by PCNA, such as within
R-loop regions and negatively supercoiling DNA regions, both of which are generated
abundantly in CPT conditions due to topological stress (Pommier *et al.*, 2022). This could
provide a means for spatial control of Srs2's anti-RPA role. We explored whether this role could
also be regulated temporally. As the genetic data described above suggest that Srs2
sumoylation acts downstream of Srs2 binding to PCNA in antagonizing RPA, we examined the
timing of Srs2 sumoylation after CPT treatment.
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We released G1 synchronized cells into media containing CPT and examined Srs2
sumoylation at several time points (Fig. 5B). A similar experimental scheme was used to
monitor the level of Mec1 activation using Rad9 phosphorylation as a readout (Fig. 5C).
Quantification of Srs2 sumoylated forms relative to its unmodified forms showed that its
sumoylation level peaked between 1.5 and 2 h after cells were released into CPT (Fig. 5D).
Quantification of phosphorylated forms of Rad9 relative to its unmodified form showed that
checkpoint activation peaked 1 hour after cell release (Fig. 5D). That checkpoint level peaked
before Srs2 sumoylation level peaked suggests a possible dependence of the latter on the
checkpoint. In testing this idea, we found that *mec1Δ* cells, which contain *sml1Δ* to support
viability (Zhao *et al.*, 1998), abolished Srs2 sumoylation (Fig. 5E). Neither *sml1Δ* alone nor
removal of Rad53 affected Srs2 sumoylation (Fig. 5E), suggesting that Mec1's effect on this
modification does not require the downstream Rad53 effector kinase. As Mec1 is not generally
required for protein sumoylation during the DNA damage response (Cremona *et al.*, 2012), its
involvement in Srs2 sumoylation presents a rather unique effect.
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345 **Examination of Mec1-S1964 phosphorylation in Srs2-mediated DDC regulation**
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The combined results that Srs2 sumoylation levels peak after Rad9 phosphorylation reaches
maximal level and that Srs2 sumoylation depends on Mec1 raised the possibility that Mec1
hyper-activation during the late part of the DNA damage response may favor Srs2's role in DDC
dampening. Recently, Mec1 protein bound to Ddc2 was shown to be auto-phosphorylated at
Ser1964 in a late part of the DNA damage response after a single DNA break is induced by the
HO endonuclease (Memisoglu *et al.*, 2019). Further, the phosphorylation-defective mutant

mec1-S1964A impaired checkpoint downregulation in this condition, leading to the model that
Mec1-S1964 phosphorylation contributes to DDC dampening at least after HO-induced break
(Memisoglu *et al.*, 2019). We thus tested whether Mec1-S1964 phosphorylation is also involved
in Srs2-mediated DDC regulation under CPT conditions.
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First, we asked whether Mec1-S1964 phosphorylation occurs under CPT conditions
using a time course scheme similar to the one used in testing Srs2 sumoylation as described
above. Ddc2-bound Mec1 was recovered after immunoprecipitating Ddc2 at each timepoint and
the proteins were examined by immunoblotting. To detect Mec1-S1964 phosphorylation, we
used an antibody raised against the peptide containing this modification provided kindly by the
Haber lab (Memisoglu *et al.*, 2019). The antibody detected the Mec1 S1964 phosphorylation
band in immunoprecipitated fractions only when Ddc2 was Myc tagged but not when Ddc2 was
untagged (Fig. S3B). Further, the Mec1 S1964 phosphorylation band was largely abolished in
the *mec1-S1964A* cells (Fig. S3B; 6A). Given that the antibody also detects a closely spaced
background band (Fig. S3B; 6A), we calculated the relative level of Mec1 S1964
phosphorylation in each sample by normalizing to this band. Quantification results showed that
Mec1 S1964 phosphorylation level peaked around the same time as seen for Rad9
phosphorylation, which was 1 hour after CPT treatment (Fig. 6A).
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After confirming that Mec1 S1964 phosphorylation also took place under CPT
conditions, we tested whether *mec1-S1964A* or the phosphorylation-mimetic mutant, *mec1-*
S1964E, influenced *rfa1-zm2* or *srs2* growth on media containing CPT. If Mec1 S1964
phosphorylation aids Srs2-mediated RPA antagonism in CPT, we would expect *mec1-S1964A*
to behave similarly to *srs2* mutants in rescuing *rfa1-zm2* CPT sensitivity, while *mec1-S1964E*
should have the opposite effects. We found that *mec1-S1964A,* which showed normal CPT
resistance on its own, did not affect the growth of *rfa1-zm2* cells on CPT-containing media (Fig.
6B). *mec1-S1964A* also did not influence the growth of *srs2-ΔPIM* and *srs2-3KR* cells
regardless of *rfa1-zm2* (Fig. 6B; S4A).
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Though *mec1-S1964E* on its own did not cause CPT sensitivity*,* it led to slight but
reproducible slow growth in cells containing *srs2-3KR* and *srs2-ΔPIM* with or without *rfa1-zm2*
(Fig. S4B). We found that neither *mec1-S1964A* nor *mec1-S1964E* affected Srs2 sumoylation
levels (Fig. S4C). Thus, Mec1, but not its S1964 phosphorylation, is required for Srs2
sumoylation. These data provide evidence that even though an HO-induced DNA break and
CPT treatment both induce Mec1 S1964 phosphorylation, this modification appears to not affect
Srs2-mediated DDC dampening in the latter situation.
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391   **Genetic data suggest that known RPA phosphorylation sites do not affect DDC recovery**
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While we mainly focused on the identification of Srs2 features that contribute to RPA
antagonism during DDC regulation, we also considered the possibility that certain regulatory
RPA features may contribute to this control as well. RPA is known to be phosphorylated by
Mec1 (Chen *et al.*, 2010, Faca *et al.*, 2020, Lanz *et al.*, 2021). We thus tested whether Mec1-
mediated phosphorylation may render RPA more susceptible to be removed from ssDNA by
Srs2. To this end, we mutated previously identified Mec1 phosphorylation sites on the Rfa1 and
Rfa2 subunits. These include Rfa1 Ser178 and three sites on Rfa2 (S122, S187, S189)
(Albuquerque *et al.*, 2015, Chen *et al.*, 2010). We generated corresponding non-
phosphorylatable mutants, *rfa1-S178A* and *rfa2-3SA (*S122A, S187A, and S189A), and
phosphomimetic mutants, *rfa1-S178D* and *rfa2-3SD*.
403

Using genetic suppression as a readout for possible involvement of RPA mutants in
Srs2-based DDC regulation, we examined the interactions between the mutants affecting RPA
phosphorylation sites as described above and *srs2Δ*. If RPA phosphorylation promote its
removal by Srs2, the *SD* mutants may show suppressive interactions with *srs2Δ*, while *SA*
mutants would behave like *srs2* mutants. We found that neither *rfa1-S178D* nor *S178A*, both of
which showed normal CPT resistance on their own, affected *srs2Δ* cell growth on CPT-
containing media (Fig. 6C). In contrast, *rfa2-3SD* or *rfa2-3SA,* which also behaved like wild-type
regarding CPT sensitivity, sensitized *srs2Δ* growth on CPT-containing media (Fig. 6D). This
negative genetic interaction contrasts with the positive interaction seen between *srs2Δ* and *rfa1-
zm2* or *rfa1-t33* (Fig. S1A) (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021). The differential Srs2 genetic interactions
among distinct RPA alleles likely reflect the multifunctional natures of Srs2 and RPA.
Collectively, these analyses suggest that the known phosphorylation sites on RPA are unlikely
to be involved in Srs2-based DDC regulation.
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419   **Discussion**
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Timely termination of DDC is crucial for cell survival, yet the underlying mechanisms are not well
understood. Here we address this question in the context of Srs2-mediated DDC dampening in
budding yeast. Our previous work reports a requirement of Srs2's ATPase activity in this role;
here we examined additional Srs2 features involved in either binding to other proteins or post-
translational modifications. Our results suggest that among the examined features, Srs2 binding
to PCNA and its sumoylation are involved in RPA antagonism during DDC downregulation. We
showed that mutants impairing these features, namely *srs2Δ-PIM* and *srs2-3KR*, suppressed
both DDC abnormalities and CPT sensitivity of *rfa1-zm2* cells. Interestingly, these features are
functionally linked, since optimal Srs2 sumoylation requires its binding to PCNA. Further, the
Srs2 sumoylation level peaks after Mec1 activity reaches its maximum and that Mec1 is
required for this modification. We posit a model that can interpret previous and current data. In
this model, Srs2 removal of RPA is favored at a subset of ssDNA-containing regions that have
proximal PCNA (Fig. 7, top). PCNA recruits Srs2 toward the adjacent RPA-ssDNA filament, and
promotes Srs2 sumoylation together with hyperactive Mec1 to foster downregulation of the
Mec1 checkpoint (Fig. 7, bottom).
436
RPA-ssDNA filaments can be separated into two groups from the perspective of PCNA
loading status. The first group contains 3' DNA end at the ss-dsDNA junction that permit PCNA
loading (Fig. 7, top, green). These regions can include ssDNA gaps produced from perturbed
replication (Sogo *et al.*, 2002) or from excision and repair of trapped Top1 (Sun *et al.*, 2020).
Due to PCNA proximity, this group of ssDNA regions can favor Srs2 recruitment and RPA
removal. Since they often also contain 5' DNA ends required for loading the 9-1-1 complex
(Majka *et al.*, 2006), these sites can be ideal for Srs2's action in checkpoint dampening.
Biochemical data suggested that PCNA is loaded exclusively at the 3' DNA ends at ssDNA-
dsDNA junctions by the RFC complex in the presence of RPA, though PCNA loading could
occur at 5' DNA ends in the absence of RPA (Ellison and Stillman, 2003, Majka *et al.*, 2006).
We thus do not exclude the possibility that ssDNA-dsDNA junctions containing 5' DNA ends,
such as those formed at resected DNA breaks, may also allow Srs2-based RPA regulation. The
second group of ssDNA regions are devoid of DNA ends thus PCNA loading (Fig. 7, top, white).
These regions can be within R-loops or negatively supercoiled regions, which are induced by
CPT treatment due to increased topological stress associated with the depletion of the
functional pool of Top1 (Pommier *et al.*, 2022). These regions are unlikely to contain DNA ends
at ss-dsDNA junctions; thus, RPA there mainly supports DNA protection and repair and not
DDC. We reason that these ssDNA sites can be shielded from Srs2 removal of RPA to allow

better repair and protection. The notion that ssDNA regions close to PCNA are preferred for
Srs2 anti-checkpoint action provides a rationale for how Srs2 could remove RPA at some sites
while minimizing unnecessary RPA loss from other sites. Quantitative assessment of RPA
residence on DNA and genome-wide mapping of Srs2 action sites in the future can further test
the proposed models and provide more clarity. Regardless, results presented in this work
provide evidence for the model that Srs2 can distinguish between two types of ssDNA regions
using PCNA proximity as a guide for RPA removal.
462
Genetic analysis showed that *srs2Δ-PIM* also suppressed *rfa1-zm2* sensitivity toward
MMS, though to a less degree as seen in CPT conditions. While more than one factor could
contribute to this difference, we note that CPT only activates the DNA damage checkpoint, while
MMS additionally induces the DNA replication checkpoint (Menin *et al.*, 2018, Redon *et al.*,
2003, Tercero *et al.*, 2003). It is thus possible that the Srs2-RPA antagonism is more important
for the DNA damage checkpoint compared with the DNA replication checkpoint. With this said,
we do not exclude the possibility that the Srs2-RPA antagonism may also be relevant to specific
forms of DNA repair. Further investigation of this possibility among others will shed light on
differential suppressive effects seen here.
472
An involvement of Srs2-PCNA binding in Srs2-based RPA regulation could compensate
for a lack of interaction between Srs2 and RPA. This scenario differs from Srs2-based Rad51
stripping that requires Srs2 interacts with Rad51 (Antony *et al.*, 2009, Colavito *et al.*, 2009,
Krejci *et al.*, 2003). It is thus likely that though both the anti-recombinase and anti-checkpoint
roles of Srs2 benefit from selectivity of protein to be stripped from DNA, they are achieved via
different means. Our previous work has provided several lines of evidence to support that
Rad51 removal by Srs2 can be functionally separable from the Srs2-RPA antagonism (Dhingra
et al., 2021). Consistent with this conclusion, deleting the Rad51 binding domain in Srs2 had no
effect on *rfa1-zm2* phenotype in CPT (Fig. 2D). This contrasts with mutating the PCNA binding
and the sumoylation sites of Srs2, which suppressed *rfa1-zm2* defects (Fig. 2C). This data
provides additional evidence that Srs2 regulation of Rad51 is separable from the Srs2-RPA
antagonism at genetic level. For this reason, the Srs2-based Rad51 function was not further
examined in this study. However, future studies to address how Srs2 regulates RPA and Rad51
in different manners and whether there is a crosstalk between them in specific contexts will help
to generate a more comprehensive understanding of both roles of Srs2.
488
Previous studies have suggested that both PIM and SIM aid Srs2 recruitment to
sumoylated form of PCNA (Papouli *et al.*, 2005, Pfander *et al.*, 2005). Our data reveal that at
least in CPT conditions, Srs2-PIM, but not Srs2-SIM, is involved in RPA regulation. This
observation is congruent with phenotypic differences between Srs2's PIM and SIM seen in other
studies and here, such as a much stronger genotoxic sensitivity of the latter (Fig. S1A) (Fan *et
al.*, 2023, Kolesar *et al.*, 2016, Kolesar *et al.*, 2012). Considering that only a small percentage of
PCNA is sumoylated and mainly during S phase (Papouli *et al.*, 2005, Pfander *et al.*, 2005), it is
probably advantageous for Srs2 not being restricted to sumoylated PCNA in order to achieve
efficiency in RPA regulation.
498
How could Srs2 binding to PCNA helps Srs2 sumoylation? While a full answer awaits
future studies, we speculate that this interaction may render Srs2 more permissive for
sumoylation and/or position Srs2 in proximity with its sumoylation E3 ligase Siz2 that binds RPA
(Chung and Zhao, 2015, Kolesar *et al.*, 2012). Considering that Mec1, Ddc2, and RPA contain
SUMO interaction motifs (SIMs) (Psakhye and Jentsch, 2012), it is possible that sumoylation
could help enrich Srs2 at ssDNA-RPA sites via SIM interactions, though other effects are
possible. Compared with *srs2-3KR*, *srs2-ΔPIM* showed better suppression of *rfa1-zm2* defects.

This indicates that during RPA regulation, PCNA plays additional roles besides promoting Srs2
sumoylation.
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We found that Srs2 sumoylation in cells also requires Mec1, which does not promote
sumoylation in general (Cremona *et al.*, 2012). On the contrary, Mec1 loss causes increased
sumoylation levels of multiple proteins (Cremona *et al.*, 2012). It is currently unclear how Mec1
can specifically promote Srs2 sumoylation, but this may involve Mec1-mediated phosphorylation
of SUMO substrates and/or enzymes. A requirement of Mec1 for Srs2 sumoylation and the
dynamic nature of sumoylation suggest that Srs2 sumoylation may be a potential timing
regulator. It is possible that hyperactivation of Mec1 favors Srs2 sumoylation that may aid its
own downregulation. While fully testing this idea requires time-course phosphor-proteomic
studies under genotoxin treatment, we examined a Mec1 auto-phosphorylation site implicated in
its downregulation after induction of a single DNA break (Memisoglu *et al.*, 2019). We did not
find evidence that it is involved in Mec1 dampening in CPT condition, raising the possibility that
distinct mechanisms may be used in different genomic stress conditions. We also found that two
phosphorylation sites on Srs2 that showed Mec1 dependency in proteomic studies had no effect
in the CPT situation (Albuquerque *et al.*, 2015, Faca *et al.*, 2020); however we note that these
sites do not fit with the typical S/TQ Mec1 consensus sites, thus may not be the bona fide Mec1
sites. Other phosphorylation sites examined here include five Mec1 sites on Rfa1 and Rfa2
(Albuquerque *et al.*, 2015, Chen *et al.*, 2010). Genetic analyses did not support their roles in the
Srs2 and RPA antagonism. Thus, comprehensively map DDC kinase phosphorylation sites on
Srs2, RPA, and possibly their regulators, such as the RPA chaperone Rtt105 (Li *et al.*, 2018),
will be needed to identify targets of the kinases that can facilitate Srs2-based RPA regulation.
529
While we provide multiple lines of evidence in support of the involvement of Srs2 binding
to PCNA and its sumoylation in RPA regulation during DDC downregulation, *srs2-ΔPIM* or *-3KR*
alone behaved normally in checkpoint assays. A lack of defect here can be due to buffering
effects, both from not-yet characterized Srs2 features and from other checkpoint dampening
pathways. In addressing the former possibility, we tested the separation pin of Srs2 (Y775).
This residue was shown to be key for the Srs2's helicase activity *in vitro* in a report that was
published during the revision of our work (Meir *et al.*, 2023). We found that *srs2-Y775A* that
severely compromised the Srs2 helicase activity rescued *rfa2-zm2* sensitivity to CPT (Fig. S5).
This result suggests that Y775 could contribute to *in vivo* RPA removal; future examination of
this feature in conjunction with PCNA binding and sumoylation, can extend our understanding of
Srs2-mediated DDC regulation. We also provided evidence for the latter possibility, since *srs2-*
ΔPIM or *-3KR* showed additive phenotype when combined with a *slx4* mutant defective in DDC
dampening function. The presence of multiple checkpoint-dampening factors that target different
checkpoint modules highlights the importance of the process. Recent demonstration of other
DNA helicases, such as the human HELB, HELQ, and BLM proteins, in stripping of RPA from
ssDNA *in vitro* suggests that Srs2-like checkpoint downregulation may present in human cells
as well (Hormeno *et al.*, 2022, Jenkins *et al.*, 2021, Shorrocks *et al.*, 2021). Since RPA-ssDNA
binding not only plays a key role in checkpoint, but also in many other processes, the Srs2
features uncovered here may help to better understand how RPA dynamics is controlled by
helicases and other factors during additional processes beyond DDC.
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552 **Methods**
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Yeast strains and genetic techniques. Standard procedures were used for cell growth and
media preparation. The strains used in this work are listed in Table S1 and are isogenic to
W1588-4C, a *RAD5* derivative of W303 (Zhao and Blobel, 2005). Mutant alleles of *srs2*, *rfa1*,

rfa2 and *mec1* used in this work were generated by CRISPR-Cas9-based gene replacement,
except for *srs2-3KR* that was introduced using a PCR-based method (DiCarlo *et al.*, 2013). All
mutations were verified by sequencing. Standard procedures were used for tetrad analyses and
genotoxin testing. For each assay, at least two biological duplicates were used per each
genotype. Cells were grown at 30 ºC unless otherwise stated.

Cell synchronization and cell cycle analyses. Cells from log-phase cultures were treated with
5 µg/mL α factor (GenScript RP01002) for 1 h, followed by an additional 2.5 µg/mL α factor for
30 min. When at least 95% cells were arrested in G1 phase based on the percentage of
unbudded cells, they were released into yeast extract–peptone–dextrose (YPD) media
containing 100 µg/mL Protease (Millipore 53702) and 16 µg/mL CPT (Sigma C9911) for 2 h.
Cell cycle progression was monitored by standard flow cytometry analyses as described
previously (Zhao and Rothstein, 2002). To derive percentage of G1 cells in Figure 3B, the G1
region of the "G1 sample" was used to demarcate the G1 region of the "CPT 2h" sample of the
same strain in the same experiment.

Protein extraction using trichloroacetic acid (TCA). To examine the protein levels of Srs2,
the phosphorylation form of Rad53, and Rad9, cell extracts were prepared as reported (Regan-
Mochrie *et al.*, 2022) . Briefly, 2×10^8 cells were collected at indicated time points. Cell pellets
were resuspended in 20% TCA and lysed by glass bead beating. The lysate was then
centrifuged to remove supernatant. Precipitated proteins were suspended in Laemmli buffer (65
mM Tris-HCl at pH 6.8, 2% SDS, 5% 2-mercaptoethanol, 10% glycerol, 0.025% bromophenol
blue) with 2 M Tris added to neutralize the solution. Prior to loading, samples were boiled for 5
min and spun down at 14,000 rpm for 10 min to remove insoluble materials. Samples were
separated on 4-20% Tris-glycine gels (Bio-Rad 456-1096) to examine Srs2 level and
phosphorated Rad53 form or 7% Tris-acetate gels (Thermo Fisher EA03555) to detect Rad9
phosphorylation.

Detection of Srs2 sumoylation. Sumoylated proteins were pulled down from cells containing
8His-tagged SUMO expressed from its endogenous locus using the standard Ni-NTA pull-down
method as previously described (Ulrich and Davies, 2009). Briefly, protein extracts prepared in
55% TCA were incubated in buffer A (6 M guanidine HCl, 100 mM sodium phosphate at pH 8.0,
10 mM Tris-HCl at pH 8.0) with rotation for 1 h at room temperature. The cleared supernatant
was obtained after centrifuging for 20 min and was then incubated overnight at room
temperature with Ni-NTA resin (Qiagen 30210) in the presence of 0.05% Tween-20 and 4.4 mM
imidazole with rotation. Beads were washed twice with buffer A supplemented with 0.05%
Tween 20 and then four times with buffer C (8 M urea, 100 nM sodium phosphate at pH 6.3, 10
mM Tris-HCl at pH 6.3) supplemented with 0.05% Tween 20. Proteins were eluted from the
beads using HU buffer (8 M urea, 200 mM Tris-HCl at pH 6.8, 1 mM EDTA, 5% SDS, 0.1%
bromophenol blue, 1.5% DTT, 200 mM imidazole). Samples were loaded onto NuPAGE^{TM} 3–
8% Tris-acetate gels (Thermo Fisher EA03752) for immunoblotting to detect both sumoylated
and unmodified Srs2. Equal loading was verified using Ponceau S staining.

Detection of Mec1 S1964 phosphorylation during CPT treatment. G1-arrested cells were
filtered and resuspended in prewarmed YPD media containing 16 µg/mL CPT to allow entry into
S phase. Samples were collected at indicated time points. Cells were disrupted by glass bead
beating in lysis buffer, followed by centrifugation at 20,000 g for 15 min to obtain whole-cell
extract. The lysis buffer consisted of 25 mM K-HEPES (pH 7.6), 100 mM NaCl, 100 mM K-
glutamate, 5 mM Mg(OAc)$_2$, 0.02% NP40, and 0.5% Triton X-100 supplemented by protease
inhibitor cocktail (Sigma P8215) and Complete Ultra EDTA-free protease inhibitor (Roche
11836145001). The activated form of Mec1 was enriched by immunoprecipitating myc-tagged

Ddc2 using Protein A beads and an anti-Myc antibody (Thermo Fisher 9E10) for 2–4 h at 4°C.
Beads were washed five to six times with lysis buffer, and proteins were eluted using Laemmli
buffer (65 mM Tris-HCl at pH 6.8, 2% SDS, 5% 2-mercaptoethanol, 10% glycerol, 0.025%
bromophenol blue). After boiling for 5 min, eluted proteins were loaded onto NuPAGE^{TM} 3–8%
Tris-acetate gels for SDS-PAGE and subsequent immunoblotting analyses.
613
Immunoblotting analysis and antibodies. After SDS-PAGE, proteins were transferred to a
0.2-µm nitrocellulose membrane (GE, #G5678144) for immunoblotting. Pgk1 was used as a
loading control. Antibodies used were anti-myc (Thermo, Fisher 9E10). anti-Srs2 (Santa Cruz,
yC-18), anti-Pgk1 (Invitrogen, 22C5D8), F9 (a kind gift from Marco Foiani and Daniele Piccini,
The FIRC Institute of Molecular Oncology, Milan, Italy) (Pellicioli *et al.*, 2001), anti-Rad9 (a kind
gift from John Petrini, MSKCC, NY, USA) (Usui *et al.*, 2009), anti-Mec1-S1964-p (a kind gift
from James E. Haber, Brandeis University, MA, USA) (Memisoglu *et al.*, 2019). Validation of
antibodies is provided either by the manufacturers or in the cited references. Membranes were
scanned with a Fujifilm LAS-3000 luminescent image analyzer, which has a linear dynamic
range of 10^4. The signal intensities of non-saturated bands were measured using ImageJ
software. For graphs, mean and SD are depicted.
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626   **Statistical analyses.** Pairwise comparison was conducted, and statistical differences were
627   determined using two-sided Student's t-test as indicted in the graphs and figure legends.
628
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632
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634   D., T. Y., and V. Y. performed research. J. F. and X.Z. wrote the paper with all authors' input.
635
636   **Competing interest statement**: The authors declare no competing interests.
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638   **Figure Legends.**
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Figure 1. Regulatory features of Srs2 and corresponding mutants.
(A) Schematic of Srs2 protein domains, regulatory features, and mutations affecting each of its
features. Cdk1 phosphorylation sites depicted here include T604, S698, S879, S893, S938,
S950, and S965 (Chiolo *et al.*, 2005). Potential Mec1 phosphorylation sites include S890
and S933 (Albuquerque *et al.*, 2015, Faca *et al.*, 2020). Sumoylation sites mapped
previously include K1081, K1089, and K1142 (Saponaro *et al.*, 2010). Protein-interaction
domains or motifs include the Rad51 binding domain (BD), PCNA Interaction Motif (PIM),
and SUMO Interaction Motif (SIM) (Colavito *et al.*, 2009, Kolesar *et al.*, 2016, Kolesar *et al.*,
2012). The residues for these domains are indicated. Mutant alleles disabling each of these
features are included in the parentheses.
(B) Mutations affecting Srs2 features do not affect Srs2 protein level. Protein extracts were
prepared from asynchronous cells. Srs2 was examined using anti-Srs2 antibody by
immunoblotting. Srs2 levels in each mutant were first normalized to the Pgk1 loading control
and then to those in wild-type cells. Mean of two biological isolates per genotype is graphed
with error bars representing standard deviation (SD). No statistical differences were seen
when compared the Srs2 protein level between the wild-type (WT) control and each of the
indicated mutants based on student t-test.
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Figure 2. Srs2 PCNA binding and sumoylation are involved in suppressing *rfa1* mutants

(A) Schematic to show that Srs2's roles in checkpoint dampening (anti-checkpoint for simplicity) and DNA repair, both of which contribute to genotoxin resistance.

(B) Schematic to highlight the mutual suppressive relationship between *srs2Δ* and *rfa1* mutants and the underlying effects on the RPA-ssDNA levels in cells.

(C) *srs2-ΔPIM* or *-3KR* suppresses *rfa1-zm2* sensitivity to CPT. A 10-fold serial dilution of cells of the indicated genotypes were spotted and growth was assessed after incubation at 30°C for 40 hours unless otherwise noted.

(D) Several *srs2* mutants did not suppress *rfa1-zm2* sensitivity to CPT. Experiments were performed as in panel C.

(E) *srs2-ΔPIM* or *-3KR* suppresses *rfa1-t33* sensitivity to CPT. Top: schematic of the Rfa1 protein domains and *rfa1* mutant alleles. Bottom: *srs2-ΔPIM* or *-3KR* improved *CPT* sensitivity of *rfa1-t33* cells. Experiments were performed as in panel C.

Figure 3. *srs2-ΔPIM* and *-3KR* correct checkpoint abnormalities in *rfa1-zm2* cells.

(A) A table summarizing DDC levels observed in *rfa1-zm2*, *srs2* null or partially defective mutants, and their combined mutants in this work and in a previous study (Dhingra *et al.*, 2021) and interpretations.

(B) *srs2-ΔPIM* or *-3KR* reduces the levels of phosphorylated Rad53 in *rfa1-zm2* cells. Protein extracts were examined after G1 cells were released into cycling in the presence of 16 ug/ml CPT for 2 hours. Phosphorylated Rad53 (active form) was detected by the F9 antibody by immunoblotting. Phosphorylated Rad53 signals in each indicated strain were compared to the Pgk1 loading control and normalized to those of *rfa1-zm2*. Two biological isolates per genotype were examined in two technical repeats and results are graphed with error bars representing SD. Statistical analysis was performed using pairwise Student's t-test (*, $p < 0.05$; ***, $p < 0.001$; ****, $p < 0.0001$, and non-statistical significance is not marked)

(C) *srs2-ΔPIM* and *-3KR* allow better G1 entry of *rfa1-zm2* cells. Experiments were performed as in panel A and samples were collected at indicated time points. FACS profiles of the samples are shown at the top and percentages of G1 cells after 2 hours of CPT treatment (CPT 2 h) are plotted at the bottom. Two biological isolates per genotype were examined in two technique repeats and results are graphed with error bars representing SD. Statistical analysis was performed and results are depicted as in panel B.

Figure 4. *srs2-ΔPIM* and *slx4^RIM^* are additively defective in DDC down-regulation.

(A) The *srs2-ΔPIMΔ slx4^RIM^* double mutant shows stronger CPT sensitivity than either single mutant. Experiments are performed as in Figure 2C.

(B) *srs2-ΔPIM* and *slx4^RIM^* are additive for increasing the level of phosphorylated Rad53 when cells are treated with CPT. Experiments were conducted, and data are quantified as those described in Figure 3B. Results from three biological isolates per genotype are graphed with error bars representing SD. Statistical analysis was performed using pairwise Student's t-test. *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$.

(C) *srs2-ΔPIM* and *slx4^RIM^* are additive for reducing cells exiting from G2/M phase at 2 hours post CPT treatment. Experiments were conducted and data are quantified as those described in Figure 3C. Results from three biological isolates per genotype are graphed with error bars representing SD. Statistical analysis was performed using pairwise Student's t-test. *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$.

Figure 5. Srs2 sumoylation depends on Srs2 PIM motif and the Mec1 kinase

(A) Srs2 sumoylation level is reduced in *srs2-ΔPIM* cells. Samples were collected after CPT treatment as in Figure 3A and sumoylated proteins were enriched as described in the text

and Methods. Sumoylated form of Srs2 (Srs2-Su) migrated slower than unmodified Srs2 on
gel and both were detected using anti-Srs2 antibody in immunoblotting. Equal loading is
indicated by Ponceau-S stain (Stain). The levels of sumoylated Srs2 relative to those of
unmodified Srs2 were normalized to wild-type cells and plotted. Two biological isolates per
genotype were examined in two technique repeats and results are graphed with error bars
representing SD. Statistical analysis was performed using pairwise Student's t-test. *, *p*
<0.05.
(B) Srs2 sumoylation level during CPT treatment. Samples were collected as described in
Figure 3B. Experiments were conducted, and immunoblotting data is presented as those in
panel A. Time 0 samples are G1 cells before CPT treatment. FACS analysis at
corresponding time points are included below the plot.
(C) Rad9 phosphorylation level during CPT treatment. Samples used in panel B were examined
for Rad9 phosphorylation using an anti-Rad9 antibody. Unmodified and phosphorylated
(Rad9-p) Rad9 forms are indicated. FACS analysis at corresponding time points are
indicated below blots.
(D) Quantification of Srs2 sumoylation and Rad9 phosphorylation level changes during CPT
treatment. Srs2 sumoylation signals were normalized based on unmodified form. Values at
each timepoint were relative to that of G1 sample (Time 0) before CPT treatment, and fold
changes were indicated on left y-axis. Rad9 signals were normalized to non-modified form
and percentage of phosphorylated form were indicated on right y-axis. Results from three
biological isolates per genotype are graphed.
(E) Mec1 is required for Srs2 sumoylation. Experiments were performed and data are presented
as in panel A.
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Figure 6. Mec1 and RPA phosphorylation did not link to Srs2 anti-checkpoint function.
(A) Mec1 autophosphorylation at S1964 during CPT treatment. Samples were collected as
described in Figure 3B. Ddc2-myc was immunoprecipitated and the associated Mec1 was
co-purified. The anti-Mec1-S1964-p antibody detected the phosphorylated form of Mec1 and
a non-specific band (*). Quantification below the blot was based on results from two
biological isolates.
(B) *mec1-S1964A* did not rescue *rfa1-zm2* sensitivity toward CPT. Experiments were performed
as in Figure 2C.
(C) Examination of the *rfa1-S178A* and *-S178D* mutants. Top: schematic of the Rfa1 protein
domains and position of Ser178. ssDNA binding domain (DBD) A-C are shown. Bottom,
rfa1-S178A and *-S178D* had no effect on *srs2Δ*'s sensitivity to CPT. Experiments were
performed as in Figure 2C.
(D) Examination of the *rfa2-3SA* and *-3SD* mutants. Top, schematic of the Rfa2 protein domains
and position of Ser122, Ser187 and Ser189 mutated in *rfa2-3SA* and *-3SD*. ssDNA binding
domain (DBD)-D is indicated. Bottom, *rfa2-3SA* has no effect on *srs2Δ*'s sensitivity toward
CPT while *rfa2-3SD* showed additive effect. Experiments were performed as in Figure 2C.
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Figure 7. A working model for the regulation of Srs2-mediated checkpoint dampening.
RPA-coated ssDNA regions generated from multiple DNA metabolic processes include those
without proximal PCNA, such as ssDNA within R-loops and negatively supercoiled regions, and
those with proximal PCNA, such as ssDNA gaps associated with perturbed DNA replication or
repair. In latter situations, the resultant RPA-ssDNA can recruit the Mec1/Ddc2 kinase complex.
Mec1 is subsequently activated by other DDC proteins, such as the 9-1-1 complex that
demarcates the 5' end junctions adjacent to ssDNA regions (not drawn). After DDC is activated
for a prolonged period, Srs2 recruited to PCNA that demarcates the 3' end junction flanking the

ssDNA regions can be sumoylated. Srs2 sumoylation level increases as Mec1 activation
heightens and can result in more efficient RPA removal, leading to Mec1 downregulation.
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Supplemental Materials

Figure S1. *srs2* mutants examined for CPT sensitivity and interactions with *rfa1* mutant.
(A) *srs2* mutants exhibit different levels of CPT sensitivity. *srs2-ΔPIM* showed slow growth on 8 µg/ml CPT. Sensitivity *srs2-SIM^MUT* toward CPT was seen at three CPT concentrations. *srs2-7AV* showed slow growth on media containing 4 and 8 µg/ml CPT. *srs2Δ* and *rfa1-zm2* are mutually suppressive for CPT sensitivity. Experiments are performed as in Figure 2C.
(B) *srs2-ΔPIM* confers better suppression of *rfa1-zm2's* CPT and MMS sensitivity than *srs2-3KR*. We note that mild suppression of *rfa1-zm2* by *srs2-3KR* was only seen at 0.03% MMS plates. Experiments are performed as in Figure 2C, and incubation times are noted. Dashed lines indicate the removal of superfluous rows.
(C) *srs2-ΔPIM* suppresses *rfa1-t33* sensitivity toward MMS. Dashed lines indicate the removal of superfluous rows.

Figure S2. *srs2-Δpim* cells exhibit increased levels of Rfa1 on chromatin.
(A) *rfa1-zm2* suppresses increased levels of Rfa1 in the chromatin fraction seen in *srs2-ΔPIM*. Rfa1 in chromatin and non-chromatin fractions as well as in total cell extracts was examined for strains with indicated genotypes. Histone H3 and Pgk1 were used as markers for chromatin and nonchromatin fractions, respectively.
(B) The relative levels of chromatin-bound Rfa1 after being normalized to H3 levels is shown. Mean of three biological isolates per genotype is graphed, with error bars representing standard deviation (SD). Statistical analysis was performed using pairwise Student's t-test. *, $p < 0.05$

Figure S3. Confirmation of Srs2 sumoylation and Mec1-S1964 phosphorylation.
(A) Detection of Srs2 sumoylation. Protein extracts from asynchronous cells were bound to Ni-NTA beads and the elutes were examined by immunoblotting using an anti-Srs2 antibody. Sumoylated Srs2 form was detected in wild-type cells expressing 8His-tagged SUMO (Smt3) but not in cells lacking this construct or in *srs2Δ* cells. Unmodified Srs2 showed unspecific Ni-NTA bead binding, thus being detectable in cells containing Srs2 regardless of the SUMO status.
(B) Detection of Mec1-S1964 phosphorylation. Cells were treated with CPT for 2 hours before immunoprecipitating Ddc2-myc was conducted. Ddc2 and the co-immunoprecipitated Mec1 were examined by immunoblotting. Phosphorylation of Ser1964 of the Mec1 protein was detected using the anti-Mec1-S1964-p antibody. This antibody also detected a non-specific band (*). Cells containing untagged Ddc2 or the *mec1-S1964A* mutation were used as controls.

Figure S4. Examination of Mec1-S964 phosphorylation.
(A) *mec1-S1964A* does not affect the CPT sensitivity of *srs2-3KR* or *srs2-3KR rfa1-zm2* cells. Experiments were performed as in Figure 2C.
(B) The effects of *mec1-S1964E* on the CPT sensitivity of *srs2-3KR* and *srs2-ΔPIM* cells with or without *rfa1-zm2*. Experiments were performed as in Figure 2C.
(C) *mec1-S1964A* or *-S1964E* does not affect Srs2 sumoylation. Experiments were performed as in Figure 4A. Mean values of three biological isolates per genotype are graphed, with error bars representing SD. Statistical analysis was performed using pairwise Student's t-test; no significance was found between values of wild-type and mutant strains.

Figure S5. *srs2-Y775A* improves *rfa1-zm2* mutant growth on CPT containing media.
The endogenous *SRS2* gene was deleted in cells, while the wild-type *SRS2* or the *srs2-Y775A* allele was integrated at the *HIS3* locus (Meir *et al.*, 2023). The control strain contains vector

969   sequence integrated at the *HIS3* locus (Meir *et al.*, 2023). Experiments were performed as in
970   Figure 2C.
971
972

973 **Table S1: Strains Sources.**
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975 All strains are derived from W1588-4C, a *RAD5* derivative of W303 (*MATa ade2-1 can1-100*
976 *ura3-1 his3-11,15, leu2-3, 112 trp1-1 rad5-535*). Only one strain is listed per each genotype, but
977 at least two independent isolates of each genotype were used in the experiments.
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Strain	Genotype	Source	Used In Figures
G16	Wild-type W303 *RAD5* strain	Lab collection	1B, 2C-E, 3B-C, 5C, 6B-D, S1-5
X8047-14B	*srs2Δ*	(Dhingra *et al.*, 2021)	6C-D, S1A, S3A
X8665-12-22D	*MATa srs2-ΔPIM*	This study	1B, 2C, 3B-C, 6B, S1A-C, S2
X8198-15B	*srs2-SIM^{MUT}*	This study	1B, 2D, S1A
G1114	*MATa srs2-7AV::HIS3*	(Saponaro *et al.*, 2010)	1B, 2D, S1A
X8650-2-1D	*MATa srs2-3KR::NAT*	This study	1B, 2C, 3B-C, S1A-C
X8659-14A	*MATa srs2-2SA*	This study	1B, 2D, S1A
G854	*MATα srs2-Δ(875-902)::HPH*	(Colavito *et al.*, 2009)	1B, 2D, S1A
X8047-1B	*MATα rfa1-zm2*	(Dhingra *et al.*, 2021)	2C, 2C-D, 3B-C, 6B, S1A-B, S2, S4B
X8650-2C	*MATa srs2-3KR::NAT rfa1-zm2*	This study	2C, 3B-C, S1B, S4A-B
X8666-35-6A	*MATa srs2-ΔPIM rfa1-zm2*	This study	2C, 3B-C, 6B, S1B, S2, S4B
X8210-2B	*MATa rfa1-t33*	(Dhingra *et al.*, 2021)	2E, S1C
X8745-2A	*MATa srs2-3KR::NAT rfa1-t33*	This study	2E, S1C
X8743-13A	*MATα srs2-ΔPIM rfa1-t33*	This study	2E, S1C
X8198-15A	*srs2-SIM^{MUT} rfa1-zm2*	This study	2D
X8637-6B	*MATa srs2-7AV::HIS3 rfa1-zm2*	This study	2D
X8137-10B	*MATa srs2-Δ875-902::HPH rfa1-zm2*	This study	2D
X8660-4B	*MATα srs2-2SA rfa1-zm2*	This study	2D
T1358-2	*MATa 8His-SMT3::TRP1*	Lab Collection	5A-B, 5E
X8898-19D	*MATa srs2-Δ::HIS3 8His-SMT3::TRP1*	This study	S3A
X8808-2D	*MATa srs2-ΔPIM 8His-SMT3::TRP1*	This study	5A
X8795-9D	*MATa srs2-3KR::NAT 8His-SMT3::TRP1*	This study	5A
X8807-6A	*MATa sml1Δ::URA3 8His-SMT3::TRP1*	This study	5E
X8746-4D	*MATa sml1Δ::URA3 mec1Δ::TRP1 8His-SMT3::TRP1*	This study	5E
X8807-7A	*MATa sml1Δ::URA3 rad53Δ::HIS3 8His-SMT3::TRP1*	This study	5E
X9055-1D	*MATa DDC2-Myc18::HIS3*	This study	6A, S3B
X9190-8A	*MATa DDC2-Myc18::HIS3 mec1-S1964A*	This study	S3B
X9225-3A	*MATa mec1-S1964A*	This study	6B
X9225-3C	*MATa mec1-S1964A rfa1-zm2*	This study	6B
X9088-38C	*MATa mec1-S1964A srs2-ΔPIM*	This study	6B
X9225-1B	*MATα mec1-S1964A srs2-ΔPIM rfa1-zm2*	This study	6B
X8495-5D	*MATa rfa1-S178D*	This study	6C
X8495-2D	*MATa srs2Δ::HIS3 rfa1-S178D*	This study	6C
X8494-3B	*MATa rfa1-S178A*	This study	6C

X8494-3A	*MATa srs2Δ::HIS3 rfa1-S178A*	This study	6C
X8658-14-22D	*MATa rfa2-3SA*	This study	6D
X8658-14-13C	*MATa srs2Δ::HIS3 rfa2-3SA*	This study	6D
X8779-13D	*MATa rfa2-3SD*	This study	6D
X8779-13B	*MATa srs2Δ rfa2-3SD*	This study	6D
X9265-4D	*MATa SLX4-TAP::HIS3*	(Wan *et al.*, 2019)	4A-C
X9265-4A	*MATa srs2-ΔPIM SLX4-TAP::HIS3*	This study	4A-C
X8956-7C	*MATa slx4^{RIM}-TAP::HIS3*	(Wan *et al.*, 2019)	4A-C
X8956-5D	*MATa srs2-ΔPIM slx4^{RIM}-TAP::HIS3*	This study	4A-C
X9228-2D	*MATa mec1-S1964A srs2-3KR::NAT*	This study	S4A
X9228-5A	*MATα mec1-S1964A srs2-3KR::NAT rfa1-zm2*	This study	S4A
X9090-9C	*MATa mec1-S1964E*	This study	S4B
X9091-14A	*MATa mec1-S1964E rfa1-zm2*	This study	S4B
X9090-19A	*MATa mec1-S1964E srs2-ΔPIM*	This study	S4B
X9132-15B	*MATa mec1-S1964E srs2-ΔPIM rfa1-zm2*	This study	S4B
X9091-13A	*MATa mec1-S1964E srs2-3KR::NAT*	This study	S4B
X9132-10B	*MATα mec1-S1964E srs2-3KR::NAT rfa1-zm2*	This study	S4B
X9137-3B	*MATa mec1-S1964A 8His-SMT3::TRP1*	This study	S4C
X9136-2B	*MATa mec1-S1964E 8His-SMT3::TRP1*	This study	S4C
X9486-5B	*MATa his3::pRS303-p500-SRS2::HIS3 srs2Δ::KanMX*	This study	S5
X9485-8D	*MATa his3::pRS303-p500::HIS3 srs2Δ::KanMX*	This study	S5
X9485-8B	*MATa rfa1-zm2 his3::pRS303-p500::HIS3 srs2Δ::KanMX*	This study	S5
X9486-1D	*MATa rfa1-zm2 his3::pRS303-p500-SRS2::HIS3 srs2Δ::KanMX*	This study	S5
X9484-9C	*MATa rfa1-zm2 his3::pRS303-p500-Srs2-Y775A::HIS3 srs2Δ::KanMX*	This study	S5
X9484-18D	*MATa his3::pRS303-p500-Srs2-Y775A::HIS3 srs2Δ::KanMX*	This study	S5

Fig. 1

A

Mutants	Checkpoint levels	Interpretations
rfa1-zm2	Increased	Suboptimal RPA levels on DNA lead to increased DNA lesions and checkpoint activation
rfa1-zm2 *srs2Δ (srs2-ΔPIM or srs2-3KR)*	Normal	RPA levels on DNA and checkpoint levels are restored compared with *rfa1-zm2*
srs2-ΔPIM or srs2-3KR	Normal	Mild-defects of partially defective *srs2* alleles is masked by other checkpoint dampening proteins

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

A

srs2: WT *3KR* *ΔPIM*

Srs2-Su—
Srs2—
—150

αSrs2 | kd

Stain | CPT

Srs2-Su/unmod (relative to WT)

srs2: WT *3KR* *ΔPIM*

B

CPT (h) 0 1 1.5 2 2.5 3

Srs2-Su—
Srs2—
—150

αSrs2 kd

2N
1N

C

CPT (h) 0 0.5 1 1.5 2 2.5 3

—250 kd

Rad9-p—
Rad9—

—150 kd

αRad9

2N
1N

D

Srs2-Su/unmodified form (relative to G1)

% of Rad9-p

Time after CPT (hr)

E

WT | *sml1Δ*
| WT *mec1Δ* *rad53Δ*

Srs2-Su—
Srs2—
—150

αSrs2 kd | CPT

Stain

Fig. 7

Two types of ssDNA regions and examples

No proximal PCNA

R-loop

Negative supercoils

RNA

With proximal PCNA

Replication gaps or repair intermediates

PCNA

Mec1-Ddc2

Checkpoint

RPA

ON

hyper-activated Mec1

Su

PIM

Srs2

Su

OFF

Fig. S1

A

B

C

Fig. S2

A

B

Fig. S3

A

smt3: WT   8His
srs2: WT Δ WT Δ

Srs2-Su—
Srs2—
-150
kd

αSrs2

Stain

B

IP: Myc
DDC2-myc: -   +   +
mec1: WT WT S1964A

Mec1-S1964p-
*
-250

αMec1-S1964p

-100
Ddc2-myc-
kd

αMyc

Fig. S5

Endogenous *SRS2* deleted in all cells.