Separable recruitment of DNA Polymerase α for leading- and lagging-strand replication

initiation

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ABSTRACT

During eukaryotic DNA replication, DNA polymerase alpha/primase (Pol α) initiates synthesis on

both the leading and lagging strands. It is unknown whether leading- and lagging-strand priming

are mechanistically identical, and whether Pol α associates processively or distributively with

the replisome. Here, we titrate cellular levels of Pol α in *S. cerevisiae* and analyze Okazaki

fragments to study both replication initiation and ongoing lagging-strand synthesis *in vivo*. We

find that leading- and lagging-strand initiation are differentially sensitive to Pol α abundance,

and to the presence of the replisome adaptor protein Ctf4. Our results suggest that distinct,

distributive modes of Pol α recruitment exist for the leading and lagging strands. Additionally, we

observe that activation of the checkpoint becomes essential for viability upon severe depletion

of Pol α, and demonstrate that this checkpoint requirement is due to impaired leading-strand

initiation as opposed to reduced lagging-strand priming.

INTRODUCTION

DNA polymerase alpha/primase (Pol α) is responsible for initiating synthesis on the leading

strand and for each Okazaki fragment on the lagging strand (Kunkel and Burgers, 2008). The

ultimate contribution of Pol α to replication is limited, and bulk synthesis on the leading- and

lagging-strands is carried out by DNA polymerase epsilon (Pol ε) and polymerase delta (Pol δ),

respectively (Clausen et al., 2015; Daigaku et al., 2015; Pursell et al., 2007; Reijns et al., 2015).

Despite the fact that different DNA polymerases carry out the majority of DNA synthesis on the

two daughter strands, Pol α appears to hand off synthesis predominantly to Pol δ during normal

initiation on both strands and during replication restart (Daigaku et al., 2015; Garbacz et al.,

2018; Yeeles et al., 2017; Miyabe et al., 2015). The use of the same initiating polymerase and

downstream partner implies a possible similarity between leading- and lagging-strand initiation.

However, recent analysis of repriming during damage bypass by reconstituted replisomes

provides evidence that leading- and lagging-strand repriming are mechanistically distinct

processes (Taylor and Yeeles, 2018).

Eukaryotic Okazaki fragments are considerably shorter than their prokaryotic counterparts

(Balakrishnan and Bambara, 2013; Ogawa and Okazaki, 1980). Okazaki fragment length is

quantized by the nucleosome repeat via interactions between nascent nucleosomes and Pol δ

in *S. cerevisiae* (Smith and Whitehouse, 2012) and *C. elegans* (Pourkarimi et al., 2016).

Okazaki fragment termini can also be positioned by nucleosomes in a reconstituted *S. cerevisiae* replication reaction (Devbhandari et al., 2017). Both the distribution of Okazaki

fragment termini with respect to nucleosomes and the overall length profile of lagging-strand

products in *S. cerevisiae* and *C. elegans* are remarkably similar. Despite this apparent size

conservation, Okazaki fragment length can be altered on a non-chromatinized template *in vitro*

by varying the concentration of Pol α (Kurat et al., 2017), analogous to the impact of primase

titration on lagging-strand synthesis in a reconstituted *E. coli* replication system (Wu et al.,

1992). Eukaryotic Okazaki fragment length can also be increased *in vivo* by impairing

nucleosome assembly (Smith and Whitehouse, 2012; Yadav and Whitehouse, 2016).

The maximum length of an Okazaki fragment is determined by the amount of single-stranded

DNA unwound at the replication fork before lagging-strand priming and extension. Thus, longer

fragments would result in the exposure of long stretches of damage-prone single-stranded DNA.

Shorter Okazaki fragments would expose shorter stretches of ssDNA, but at the likely cost of

increasing the contribution of the error-prone Pol α to synthesis of the lagging daughter strand

(Kunkel, 2011; Reijns et al., 2015). However, it is currently unclear to what extent changing

Okazaki fragment length directly impacts cellular fitness. Reduced DNA polymerase activity

upon aphidicolin treatment induces chromosome breakage and genomic rearrangements at

fragile sites in mammals (Glover et al., 1984). Analogously, reducing the intracellular

concentration of Pol α in *S. cerevisiae* increases S-phase duration, sensitivity to DNA damaging

agents, and chromosomal rearrangements at defined sites (Lemoine et al., 2005; Song et al.,

2014). The detrimental effects of Pol α depletion on genome integrity could arise due to

defective leading- or lagging-strand initiation, both of which are dependent on Pol α.

Ctf4 was originally identified as a chromosome transmission fidelity mutant (Kouprina et al.,

1992). Subsequent studies have identified multiple roles for Ctf4 in DNA metabolism. Ctf4 is not

only required for the establishment of sister chromatin cohesion (Borges et al., 2013; Hanna et

al., 2001), but also links Pol α to the replication fork via interaction with the replicative helicase

(Gambus et al., 2009; Tanaka et al., 2009), and is additionally required for error-free lesion

bypass (Fumasoni et al., 2015) and rDNA maintenance (Villa et al., 2016). At least some of

these roles for Ctf4 are independent of Pol α binding. The metazoan Ctf4 ortholog AND-1 also

stimulates Pol α binding to chromatin, and is required for efficient DNA replication (Zhu et al.,

2007). Interestingly, despite the conserved contribution of Ctf4 to Pol α recruitment, *ctf4Δ S.*

cerevisiae strains have been demonstrated to synthesize identically sized Okazaki fragments to

wild-type cells (Borges et al., 2013). *In vitro*, the Ctf4 protein has a minimal effect on the priming

of either DNA strand in reconstituted replication reactions (Kurat et al., 2017). Thus, the

contribution of Ctf4 to leading- and lagging-strand priming has not been fully elucidated *in vivo*.

Here, we analyze Okazaki fragments to directly test the effects of Pol α depletion on leading-

and lagging-strand initiation in *S. cerevisiae*. We find that Pol α is recruited distributively to the

replication fork for priming on both strands, but that only lagging-strand priming is dependent on

Ctf4. Impaired lagging-strand priming is well tolerated, but reduced leading-strand initiation

leads to a strict dependence on checkpoint activation for continued viability.

RESULTS

Cells with reduced levels of Pol α synthesize longer Okazaki fragments *in vivo*.

To investigate the effect of Pol1 depletion on leading- and lagging-strand priming during

replication, we modified the approach of Petes and co-workers (Lemoine et al., 2005; Song et

al., 2014), limiting expression of *POL1* by replacing its promoter with *pGAL1*. Expression of Pol1

from galactose-inducible promoters generates a stable polypeptide that can persist for several

cell cycles (Muzi Falconi et al., 1993). Therefore, to facilitate turnover of pre-existing Pol1 and

focus on the acute effects depletion, we additionally fused an N-terminal degron to the *POL1*

coding sequence. Western-blot analysis indicated that the concentration of this GAL1-

expressed, degron-tagged Pol1 (GDPol1) could be specifically and rapidly modulated within 4h

(Fig. 1A). All cultures were grown in media supplemented with 3% raffinose to avoid indirect

effects due to carbon limitation. Pol1 levels oscillate through the cell cycle when the protein is

endogenously expressed, but not when expression is driven by galactose (Muzi Falconi et al.,

1993). Because Pol1 concentration is not constant even within S-phase (Muzi Falconi et al.,

1993), and 2/3 of cells in an asynchronous population are in G1, G2 or M phase, precise

comparisons of Pol1 concentration between galactose-inducible and endogenously expressed

conditions are unreliable. We estimate that the expression level at 0.05% galactose is slightly

lower than endogenous during the relevant phase of the cell cycle.

To analyze Okazaki fragment biogenesis, we crossed the *GDPOL1* allele into a strain

background in which DNA ligase I (Cdc9) can be depleted from the nucleus by rapamycin

treatment using the anchor away method (Haruki et al., 2008). Nuclear depletion of Cdc9

enriches nucleosome-sized Okazaki fragments (Fig. S1A), similarly to transcriptional repression

of Cdc9 (Smith and Whitehouse, 2012; Yadav and Whitehouse, 2016). Robust detection of

Okazaki fragments was possible after 1h rapamycin treatment: therefore, all Okazaki fragment

labeling and sequencing experiments were conducted after a 4h sugar switch to reduce Pol α

levels, followed by 1h ligase depletion by rapamycin (Fig. 1B).

By end labeling unligated Okazaki fragments, we observed that cells with wild-type *POL1* did

not show an increase in Okazaki fragment length under low-galactose growth conditions (Fig.

1C). By contrast, in the *GDPOL1* strain Okazaki fragment length was normal at Pol1

concentrations down to a critical concentration corresponding to growth in 0.014% galactose

(Fig. 1D). At 0.014% galactose the Okazaki fragment length profile was shifted slightly upwards

such that fragments were clearly still phased by nucleosomes, while lower galactose

concentrations (0.005%) showed a significant loss of signal (Fig. 1D cf. lanes 5&6). To confirm

that this loss of signal reflected a further length increase (and therefore a reduction in the

number of ends being labeled), we analyzed Okazaki fragments by Southern blot using a whole-

genome probe: as anticipated for severely perturbed lagging-strand priming, Okazaki fragments

at 0.005% galactose were significantly larger than at 0.014% (Fig. 1E). We conclude that

limiting levels of Pol α lead to reduced priming frequency on the lagging strand, resulting in

longer Okazaki fragments, and that *S. cerevisiae* cells can sustain growth when Okazaki

fragment length is substantially increased. Further, these data are consistent with the repeated,

distributive recruitment of Pol α to the replisome for lagging-strand priming during replication,

since the priming kinetics of a Pol α complex stably associated with the replisome would be

unaffected by cellular Pol α concentrations (see discussion).

To analyze the location of Okazaki fragment termini, we purified and sequenced Okazaki

fragments (Smith and Whitehouse, 2012) from wild-type and *GDPOL1* strains shifted to low

galactose concentrations for 4h before 1h ligase depletion. Galactose concentration does not

significantly affect the distribution of Okazaki fragment termini in wild-type cells (Fig. 1F).

However, we observed that fragment termini in *GDPOL1* cells were no longer enriched at

nucleosome dyads during growth in 0.005% galactose. Instead, the distribution was flattened

and termini were preferentially found upstream of the nucleosome dyad (Fig. 1G). An

intermediate effect is observed at 0.014% galactose. Pol1 interacts with the FACT component

Spt16 (Foltman et al., 2013) Therefore, the change in the distribution of Okazaki fragment ends

upon severe Pol α depletion could plausibly arise due to defects in chromatin assembly as

observed in histone chaperone mutants (Smith and Whitehouse, 2012; Yadav and Whitehouse,

2016). An alternative, though not mutually exclusive, possibility is that Okazaki fragment

processing is impaired when priming frequency is reduced.

Reduced levels of Pol α lead to a global decrease in replication origin firing efficiency

Replication origin firing efficiency can be quantitatively inferred from the distribution of Watson-

and Crick-strand Okazaki fragments after deep sequencing (McGuffee et al., 2013; Petryk et al.,

2016; Pourkarimi et al., 2016). Okazaki fragment distributions on the right arm of chromosome

10 are shown in Fig. 2A, and genome-wide origin efficiencies are quantified in Fig. 2B.

Correlations between replicate datasets were robust, although one replicate at 0.032%

galactose produced systematically low origin efficiencies (Fig. S2A). Data in Fig. 2 represent the

mean origin efficiency across two replicate experiments. While origin efficiency was unaffected

by galactose concentration in wild-type cells, average firing efficiency was linearly reduced in

the *GDPOL1* strain at progressively lower galactose concentrations (Fig. 2B).

Interestingly, we observe that the efficiency of leading-strand priming is already substantially

reduced at Pol1 concentrations below the endogenous expression level that still support normal

lagging-strand priming. Unlike lagging-strand priming, which is robust to reduction in Pol1 levels

down to a critical concentration, leading-strand priming efficiency is sensitive to even small

changes in Pol α concentration. At 0.041%, 0.032% and 0.023% galactose, Pol1 expression is

sufficient for unperturbed lagging-strand synthesis but median origin efficiency is significantly

reduced in the *GDPOL1* strain (Fig. 2B). Further reduction is observed at lower galactose (and

therefore Pol1) concentrations. This dramatic decrease in origin efficiency likely contributes to

the slow growth (Fig. S1B) and cell-cycle delay (Lemoine et al., 2005) observed under limiting

Pol1 conditions. Even at low Pol1 concentrations, we observe no change in fork arrest at tDNAs

(Fig. S3) – the major sites of replisome stalling in the *S. cerevisiae* genome (Ivessa et al., 2003;

Osmundson et al., 2017). Thus, the altered replication profile upon Pol1 depletion most likely

stems exclusively from changes in origin efficiency with no additional effects due to replication-

fork stalling or arrest.

If one or more Pol α complexes is stably recruited to and maintained in the replisome upon

leading-strand priming, reducing Pol α to sub-stoichiometric levels would privilege early and/or

efficient replication origins while disproportionately reducing the efficiency of late and/or

inefficient origins. By contrast, distributive recruitment would lead to reduced efficiency of all

origins under limiting Pol α conditions. We analyzed origin efficiency in the *GDPOL1* strain as a

function of normal firing efficiency. As the concentration of Pol α was decreased, firing of all

origins became less efficient regardless of their normal efficiency (Fig. 2C and S2B). Further

analysis indicated that the activity of each origin is reduced in proportion to its original firing

efficiency (Fig. 2D). These data, along with the reduced lagging-strand priming frequency under

limiting Pol α conditions shown in Fig. 1, support a model where Pol α associates distributively

with the replisome for both leading- and lagging-strand priming.

Ctf4 stimulates Pol α recruitment for lagging-strand but not leading-strand priming

Ctf4 has previously been shown to stimulate the recruitment of Pol α and several additional

proteins to the replisome (Gambus et al., 2009; Samora et al., 2016; Tanaka et al., 2009; Villa et

al., 2016). Indeed, it has been proposed that a Ctf4 homotrimer could simultaneously recruit two

Pol α complexes while the third Ctf4 subunit is tethered to the replisome via interaction with the

Sld5 component of the Cdc45/MCM2-7/GINS (CMG) complex (Simon et al., 2014). *CTF4* is

nonessential in *S. cerevisiae*; the absence of Ctf4 does not affect lagging-strand synthesis in a

reconstituted *S. cerevisiae* replication system (Kurat et al., 2017), and Okazaki fragment length

is unchanged in otherwise wild-type *ctf4Δ* cells (Borges et al., 2013). To investigate the effect of

Ctf4 on leading- and lagging-strand synthesis under limiting Pol α conditions, we analyzed

Okazaki fragments from strains deleted for *CTF4* using Southern blots and sequencing.

In the absence of Ctf4, Okazaki fragments increase in length at ~0.06% galactose (Fig. 3A,)–

significantly higher than the 0.014% observed for a *CTF4* wild-type strain (cf. Fig. 1D&E).

Continued growth while synthesizing long Okazaki fragments was observed down to 0.005%

galactose (Fig. B), with a significant reduction in viability observed only at the lowest

concentration tested (0.005%; Fig. S4A). It has previously been demonstrated that overall

cellular levels of Pol1 are unaffected by the absence of, or a failure to bind, Ctf4 (Villa et al.,

2016). Our data therefore suggest that Ctf4 helps to maintain robust lagging-strand priming

when Pol α activity is reduced, although cellular levels of Pol α are sufficient for normal lagging-

strand priming even in its absence (Fig. 3A and (Borges et al., 2013)).

We analyzed replication origin firing efficiency in the absence of Ctf4 by sequencing Okazaki

fragments from a *ctf4Δ* strain grown at various galactose concentrations (Fig. 3C). Data shown

are the average of two replicates (with the exception of 0.032% galactose, for which a single

replicate was sequenced). Correlations between replicates were extremely robust (Fig. S4C). In

contrast to the *CTF4* strain (Fig. 2B), *ctf4Δ* cells maintained normal levels of origin firing down to

0.032% galactose, after which a linear decrease in firing efficiency was apparent (Fig. 3C).

Surprisingly, firing efficiency for all origins was significantly higher in the *ctf4Δ* strain relative to

CTF4 across all galactose concentrations tested (Fig. 3D).

Each rDNA repeat in *S. cerevisiae* contains a replication origin. rDNA size has been reported to

change due to deletion of *CTF4* (Sasaki and Kobayashi, 2017) or lithium acetate transformation

(Kwan et al., 2016). Expansion of the rDNA repeat increases the total number of origins in the

genome, and could thereby depress origin firing elsewhere (Shyian et al., 2016; Yoshida et al.,

2014). We investigated whether the increased origin efficiency in *ctf4Δ* cells could be an artifact

due to a reduction in the size of the rDNA array. The proportion of Okazaki fragments mapping

to the rDNA in *ctf4Δ* libraries was around 70% higher than in *CTF4* libraries (Fig. S4B),

consistent with substantial array expansion in the absence of Ctf4 (Sasaki and Kobayashi,

2017). Therefore, the global increase in origin efficiency in the absence of Ctf4 is extremely

unlikely to be driven by rDNA copy number changes.

We conclude that Ctf4-mediated recruitment of Pol α to the replisome does not stimulate

leading-strand priming in *S. cerevisiae*, but plays an important role in maintaining the

robustness of lagging-strand priming to fluctuations in the availability of Pol α. In the absence of

Ctf4, Pol α is no longer sequestered to active replication forks (Villa et al., 2016). Consequently,

more Pol α is available to initiate leading-strand synthesis via Ctf4-independent recruitment, and

normal origin firing can be maintained at low overall concentrations of Pol α.

Checkpoint activation is required for viability when origin firing is reduced, but not when

lagging-strand priming is perturbed

In response to DNA damage or replication stress, a checkpoint signaling cascade is initiated

and culminates in the phosphorylation of the effector kinase Rad53 (Ciccia and Elledge, 2010).

We analyzed Rad53 phosphorylation in the *GDPOL1* strain after a switch to low galactose.

Substantial phosphorylation of Rad53 was observed only at concentrations below 0.023%

galactose (Fig. 4A) – a concentration at which both leading- and lagging-strand initiation are

perturbed (Figs. 1&2). To further investigate the interplay between Pol α depletion, increased

Okazaki fragment length, decreased origin firing, and checkpoint activation, we combined the

GDPOL1 allele with deletion of *MEC1* (with additional deletion of *SML1* to maintain viability of

mec1Δ cells). *GDPOL1* and *mec1Δ;sml1Δ* mutant strains grew well at galactose concentrations

from 0.05% to 0.005%, but growth of the *GDPOL1; mec1Δ; sml1Δ* mutant was impaired at

0.05% galactose and virtually absent at 0.014% and 0.005% galactose (Fig. 4B). Thus,

checkpoint-deficient cells apparently cannot survive with limiting Pol α. Consistent with a rapid

loss of viability upon Pol1 depletion in checkpoint-deficient cells, we were unable to robustly

detect long Okazaki fragments in *GDPOL1; mec1Δ; sml1Δ* cells shifted to low concentrations of

galactose (Fig. 4C). Okazaki fragment length was normal in this strain at galactose

concentrations above 0.023%.

To test the contributions of the DNA damage checkpoint (DDC), mediated by Rad9, and the

DNA replication checkpoint (DRC), mediated by Mrc1, to survival under limiting Pol α

conditions, we analyzed the growth of *GDPOL1* strains in combination with *rad9Δ*, *mrc1Δ*, or the

non-phosphorylatable *mrc1[AQ]* allele (Osborn and Elledge, 2003) (Fig. 4B). *GDPOL1* cells

showed robust growth at low Pol1 concentrations in both *rad9Δ* and *mrc1Δ* strain backgrounds.

GDPOL1;mrc1[AQ] cells grow as well as *GDPOL1* cells at all concentrations tested. Therefore, the

slight growth defect at 0.005% galactose observed in *GDPOL1;mrc1Δ* cells is most likely due to

decreased replication fork speed (Szyjka et al., 2005; Yeeles et al., 2017) in combination with

decreased origin firing (Fig. 2B) as opposed to impaired DRC activity. In summary, checkpoint

activation is required for viability under conditions of severe Pol α depletion: this activation can

proceed via either the DDC or the DRC.

To determine whether the requirement for checkpoint activation was due to deregulated lagging-

strand priming or impaired leading-strand initiation, we compared the growth of

GDPOL1;mec1Δ;sml1Δ strains with and without *CTF4* at 0.5% and 0.05% galactose. Deletion of

CTF4 affects lagging-strand priming at relatively high Pol α concentrations, before leading-

strand priming is impaired. Thus, *ctf4Δ* is effectively a separation of function mutant: at 0.05%

galactose, lagging-strand priming is reduced by the absence of Ctf4 while leading-strand

priming is not (Fig. 3). *GDPOL1;mec1Δ;sml1;Δctf4Δ* cells grow slowly relative to *MEC1* or *CTF4*

cells: however, growth was essentially unaffected by reducing the galactose concentration from

0.5% to 0.05% (Fig. 4D). Therefore, perturbed lagging-strand synthesis does not directly cause

growth defects the absence of a functional checkpoint. We conclude that cells with limiting Pol α

become reliant on the checkpoint predominantly due to decreased replication origin firing as

opposed to increased Okazaki fragment length.

DISCUSSION

Cellular impact of perturbed leading- and lagging-strand initiation.

We find that checkpoint activation is required for robust DNA synthesis, and therefore for

viability, when origin firing is significantly reduced (Fig. 4). This observation is consistent with

genetic interactions in *S. cerevisiae* – for example similar negative genetic interactions of *rad9Δ*

with alleles of the catalytic subunits of each of the three replicative polymerases (Dubarry et al.,

2015). It will be interesting to determine the contributions of leading- and lagging-strand

perturbations to the many reported phenotypes resulting from *pol1* mutation or Pol1 depletion –

for example increased trinucleotide repeat expansion rate and size (Shah et al., 2012), and

increased chromosome fragility (Lemoine et al., 2005; Song et al., 2014). Furthermore,

mutations that reduce the levels of functional Pol ε in mammalian cells increase replication

stress linked to reduced origin firing (Bellelli et al., 2018), highlighting the relevance of these

studies beyond budding yeast.

Pol α priming on the leading- and lagging strands

Our data indicate that lagging-strand priming in *S. cerevisiae* is extremely robust with respect to

fluctuations in Pol α availability. Pol α concentration does not normally limit primer synthesis

and/or utilization, and significant disruption of Okazaki fragment synthesis is only observed at

very low Pol α concentrations (Fig. 1). Because cells with limiting Pol α synthesize longer

Okazaki fragments, as opposed to fewer Okazaki fragments of normal size, Pol α must act

distributively *in vivo* as opposed to being stably tethered at the replication fork. We additionally

note that the increase in Okazaki fragment length upon Pol α depletion is consistent with a

priming mechanism in which there is no strict coupling between DNA unwinding and primer

synthesis *in vivo*.

Although the Ctf4 protein has little to no effect on lagging-strand synthesis in chromatinized

reconstituted systems (Kurat et al., 2017), we observe that Ctf4 stimulates lagging-strand

priming *in vivo*. In the absence of Ctf4, Okazaki fragment length can still be modulated by Pol α

concentration (Fig. 3). Thus, in light of the distributive action of Pol α, Ctf4 presumably acts

simply by increasing the local concentration of Pol α at the replication fork. It is unclear what

underlies the differential Ctf4-sensitivity of reconstituted and *in vivo* lagging-strand synthesis.

Neither leading- nor lagging-strand priming is limited by Pol α at normal cellular concentrations

of the complex. However, leading-strand initiation is substantially more sensitive than lagging-

strand priming to fluctuations in Pol α (Figs 1&2). Our data indicate not only that origin firing

efficiency decreases at Pol α concentrations that do not significantly affect priming frequency,

but also that Ctf4-mediated recruitment of Pol α to elongating replication forks can directly

decrease origin activity (Fig. 3 and model, Fig. 5). This competition between replication initiation

and elongation might represent a simple homeostatic mechanism that allows cells to decrease

the number of newly initiating replication forks in order to maintain robust synthesis at ongoing

forks.

We show that, unlike lagging-strand priming, initiation on the leading strand is independent of

Ctf4 *in vivo* (Figs. 2&3). This finding extends previous observations that leading-strand

repriming and lagging-strand priming respond differently to changes in RPA concentration

(Taylor and Yeeles, 2018), and identifies an additional mechanistic difference between the two

priming tasks performed by Pol α. It has been suggested that leading-strand initiation could

occur through Pol ε-mediated extension of the first Okazaki fragment synthesized on the lagging

strand (Taylor and Yeeles, 2018): the significant differences observed between leading-and

lagging-strand priming argue against this possibility, unless synthesis of the first Okazaki

fragment is itself different from ongoing lagging-strand synthesis. We note that, because we are

exclusively analyzing lagging-strand products, it is formally possible that uncoupled lagging-

strand synthesis is occurring in the absence of leading-strand synthesis after origin firing. We

believe that this is an unlikely scenario, as we do not observe a significant reduction in growth

rate or viability even when origin firing is reduced (Fig. S1B).

All replication origins are affected by Pol α depletion, in proportion to their normal firing

efficiency (Fig. 2D). A significant reduction in origin firing efficiency is observed at Pol1

concentrations that do not detectably activate the checkpoint (Figs. 2B & 4A); in addition, origin

firing efficiency is higher in *ctf4Δ* than *CTF4* cells at limiting Pol α. Therefore, it is unlikely that

the reduction in origin firing is a direct result of checkpoint activation. Our data suggest that the

origin firing program is determined by the relative accessibility of licensed origins to limiting

soluble firing factors, even when overall origin firing is reduced. Spatial clustering of replication

origins, mediated by Fkh transcription factors in *S. cerevisiae*, likely plays a significant role in

this accessibility (Knott et al., 2012). We note that coordinately down-regulating the efficiency of

all origins represents a robust strategy to maintain the evolutionarily selected co-orientation of

deleterious transcription events with replication (Hamperl and Cimprich, 2016; Osmundson et

al., 2017; Tran et al., 2017).

Chromatin and lagging-strand synthesis

Pol α acts distributively on naked DNA in reconstituted replication reactions (Yeeles et al.,

2017). Chromatin reduces Okazaki fragment size *in vitro,* and has therefore been proposed to

make Pol α more processive (Kurat et al., 2017). Our data suggest that Pol α acts distributively

on chromatin *in vivo,* but is present at saturating concentrations that would minimize the

difference between distributive or processive activity. Our data do, however, support an intimate

interaction between chromatin and lagging-strand priming. Extreme depletion of Pol α leads to

Okazaki fragment distributions consistent with impaired chromatin assembly (Fig. 1G). It is

possible that the increased length of Okazaki fragments reported in histone chaperone mutants

(Smith and Whitehouse, 2012; Yadav and Whitehouse, 2016) represents an underlying defect in

priming.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Yeast strains

All yeast strains were W303 *RAD5+*, and contained additional mutations required for anchor-

away depletion of Cdc9. The genotype of the wild-type strain is *matα, tor1-1::HIS3,*

fpr1::NatMX4, RPL13A-2xFKBP12::TRP1, CDC9-FRB::HygMX. Additional gene deletions, and

replacement of the *POL1* promoter, were carried out by PCR-mediated replacement in a wild-

type strain, and introduced into the desired background by cross.

Cell growth and spot tests

All strains were grown at 30°C, starting in YEP with 0.5% galactose plus 3% raffinose, unless

otherwise noted. To deplete Pol1, cultures were sugar switched by growing overnight to log

phase then washing the cels with sterile deionized water then sterile YEP before being

inoculated into fresh YEP media with various galactose concentrations supplemented with 3%

raffinose.

For short-term experiments, strains were grown for four hours after the sugar switch before

adding rapamycin for one hour of ligase repression. Cells were collected four hours after the

sugar switch, without depletion of DNA ligase, for western blot analysis.

For spot tests, yeast cells were washed then counted. Similar numbers of cells were plated onto

various galactose concentrations at a 1:5 dilution series and grown overnight for two days at

30°C.

Western blotting

Samples were collected by centrifugation and washed with deionized water before lysate

preparation. Lysates were prepared by five-minute resuspension in 600uL 2M lithium acetate on

ice, pelleted, resuspended in 600uL 400mM sodium hydroxide at room temperature for five

minutes, pelleted, and resuspended in Laemmli buffer with 5% beta-mercaptoethanol prior to

boiling, then briefly pelleted immediately prior to loading the lysate onto a SDS-PAGE gel.

Samples were transferred to PVDF, blocked with 5% milk and probed with C-Myc antibody

(Genscript A00173-100), Rad53 antibody (Abcam ab104232), histone H4 antibody (Abcam

ab10158), or actin antibody (Thermofisher Scientific MA1-744).

Okazaki fragment analysis by gel electrophoresis

Okazaki fragments were purified and end-labeled as previously described (Smith and

Whitehouse, 2012). For southern blot analysis, unlabeled genomic DNA was normalized to total

genomic DNA, and run on 1.3% denaturing agarose gels. After electrophoresis, the gel was

blotted onto a nitrocellulose membrane (Fisher 45-000-932) overnight. Next the membrane was

crosslinked and washed, then hybridized overnight with a probe synthesized with random

hexamers labeling kit (Fisher 18187-013) and sheared genomic DNA. After two low stringency

washes, membranes were dried then exposed to phosphor screens

Okazaki fragment sequencing and origin efficiency analysis

Okazaki fragments were deep-sequenced as previously described (Smith and Whitehouse,

2012). Paired-end sequencing (2 × 75 bp) was carried out on an Illumina Next-seq 500 platform.

Origin efficiency metric analysis of predefined origins was done as previously described

(McGuffee et al., 2013) with the origin list from the same source.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Sequencing data have been submitted to the GEO under accession number GSE115897.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

S.Y.P., N.C.M., C.P.T., and P.S. performed research, S.Y.P. and D.J.S. analyzed and

interpreted data. S.Y.P prepared figures. D.J.S. wrote the manuscript with assistance from

S.Y.P. D.J.S. supervised the study.

COMPETING INTERESTS

No competing interests exist.

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Figure 1. Okazaki fragments increase in length when Pol α is limiting.

(A). Western blot against 13xMyc-tagged Pol1 from S. cerevisiae from a wild-type or *GDPOL1* strain, as indicated, shifted to YPD or YEP + 3% raffinose (hereafter, media) supplemented with various concentrations of galactose

(B). Schematic of experimental workflow for Okazaki fragment analysis and sequencing (also see methods)

(C, D). Alkaline agarose gel analysis of end-labeled Okazaki fragments from a wild-type (C) or *GDPOL1* (D) strain, shifted to YPD or media supplemented with galactose as indicated.

(E). Southern blot using a whole genome probe, on Okazaki fragments from a wild-type or *GDPOL1* strain shifted to media with the indicated sugar concentrations.

(F, G). Distribution of Okazaki fragment termini around consensus nucleosome dyads (Jiang and Pugh, 2009) for a wild-type (F) or *GDPOL1* (G) strain shifted to media containing 0.05% (blue), 0.014% (pink), or 0.005% (green) galactose.

Figure 2. Origin firing efficiency is decreased for all replication origins when Pol α levels are reduced

(A). Okazaki fragment distributions from a wild-type (black) or *GDPOL1* strain shifted to the indicated media. A ~200 kb region from the right arm of chromosome 10 is shown, and three efficient origins are annotated.

(B). Origin efficiency in wild-type or GDPOL1 cells shifted to the indicated concentration of galactose. Origin efficiency was calculated as in (McGuffee et al., 2013), using origin locations annotated in the same study. Significance was calculated by unpaired t-test; **** p<0.0001, * p<0.05. Data from the *GDPOL1* strain are the average of two replicates.

(C). Scatter plot comparing origin firing efficiency in *GDPOL*1 cells at 0.014% galactose, to wild-type cells in 0.5% galactose. Analogous comparisons to other galactose concentrations, and correlations between replicates, are in Fig. S2.

(D). Scatter plot showing the percentage decrease in origin firing efficiency, relative to wild-type cells, for *GDPOL1* cells shifted to the indicated galactose concentrations. Origins were ordered by their firing efficiency in wild-type cells at 0.5% galactose. Each origin efficiency spot represents the average of two replicates.

Figure 3. Ctf4 maintains Okazaki fragment length at low Pol α concentrations but is dispensable for origin firing in vivo

(A). Alkaline agarose gel analysis of end-labeled Okazaki fragments from a wild-type or *GDPOL1;ctf4Δ* strain, as indicated, shifted to media containing various concentrations of galactose. Note that the range of galactose concentrations here is significantly higher than in other figure panels.

(B). Southern blot using a whole genome probe, on Okazaki fragments from a wild-type or *GDPOL1;ctf4Δ* strain shifted to media shifted to low galactose concentrations.

(C). Replication origin efficiency, as in Fig. 2B, for *GDPOL1;ctf4Δ* cells at low galactose concentrations. Data were calculated and analyzed as in Fig. 2B

(D). Comparison of origin efficiencies for *CTF4* vs *ctf4Δ* strains shifted to identical media

Figure 4. The checkpoint is required for viability under conditions of limiting origin firing, but not increased Okazaki fragment size.

(A). Western blot against Rad53 from *GDPOL1* cells shifted to the indicated media. A wild-type strain grown in YPD ± 0.1% MMS were used as negative and positive controls for Rad53 hyperphosphorylation

(B). Serial dilution spot tests to assay the growth of *GDPOL1* strains carrying additional mutations (*mec1Δ;sml1Δ, rad9Δ, mrc1Δ* and *mrc1AQ*) at the indicated galactose concentrations.

(C). Southern blot as in Fig. 3B, for a *mec1Δ;GDPOL1* strain shifted to various galactose concentrations.

(D). Serial dilution spot tests to assay the growth of *ctf4Δ;GDPOL1* strains with or without additional deletion of *MEC1*.

Figure 5. Model of Pol α recruitment for leading- and lagging-strand priming in *S. cerevisiae*

A

B

Figure S1 (Associated with Fig 1)

(A). Timecourse of Okazaki fragment enrichment during Cdc9 nuclear depletion by anchor away (Haruki et al., 2008). Okazaki fragments were prepared and labeled as in Fig. 1C, and as previously described (Smith and Whitehouse, 2012).

(B). Doubling times for wild-type or *GDPOL1* strains in YEP + 3% raffinose, supplemented with the indicated concentration of galactose. Data are the average of at least three replicates in each case.

A   **OEM correlations across replicates**

B   **OEM change relative to unperturbed cells**

Figure S2 (Associated with Fig 2)

(A). Origin efficiency replicate comparisons for data from the *GDPOL1* strain shown in Fig. 2B.

(B). Scatter plots comparing origin firing efficiency in *GDPOL1* cells at various galactose concentrations, to wild-type cells in 0.5% galactose. Data from 0.014% are shown in Figure 2C.

Porcella et al., Figure S3, associated with Figure 2

Figure S3 (Associated with Fig 2)

Analysis of replication-fork direction around 93 origin-distal tRNA genes (Osmundson et al., 2017) in *GDPOL*1 cells grown at various galactose concentrations. Increased replication-fork stalling or arrest at these sites would manifest as a decrease at or after the midpoint of the gene (Osmundson et al., 2017).

Porcella et al., Figure S4, associated with Figure 3

Figure S4 (Associated with Fig 3)

(A). Serial dilution spot tests to assay the growth of *GDPOL1* strains with or without FRB tagging of *CDC9* and/or additional deletion of *CTF4*.

(B). The rDNA repeat is expanded in *ctf4Δ;GDPOL1* cells. The proportion of sequencing reads mapping to the rDNA is indicated. Data represent the mean ± SD of all sequencing datasets used for analysis in figures 2&3.

(C). Origin efficiency replicate comparisons for data from the *ctf4Δ;GDPOL1* strain shown in Fig. 3C.