Separable, Ctf4-mediated recruitment of DNA Polymerase α for initiation of DNA

synthesis at replication origins and lagging-strand priming during replication elongation

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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

observe that both Okazaki fragment initiation and the productive firing of replication origins are

sensitive to Pol α abundance, and that both processes are disrupted at similar Pol α

concentrations. When the replisome adaptor protein Ctf4 is absent or cannot interact with Pol α,

lagging-strand initiation is impaired at Pol α concentrations that still support normal origin firing.

Additionally, we observe that activation of the checkpoint becomes essential for viability upon

severe depletion of Pol α. Using strains in which the Pol α-Ctf4 interaction is disrupted, we

demonstrate that this checkpoint requirement is not solely caused by reduced lagging-strand

priming. Our results suggest that Pol α recruitment for replication initiation and ongoing lagging-

strand priming are distinctly sensitive to the presence of Ctf4. We propose that the global

changes we observe in Okazaki fragment length and origin firing efficiency are consistent with

distributive association of Pol α at the replication fork, at least when Pol α is limiting.

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Author summary

Half of each eukaryotic genome is replicated continuously as the leading strand, while the other

half is synthesized discontinuously as Okazaki fragments on the lagging strand. The bulk of

DNA replication is completed by DNA polymerases ε and δ on the leading and lagging strand

respectively, while synthesis on each strand is initiated by DNA polymerase α-primase (Pol α).

Using the model eukaryote *S. cerevisiae*, we modulate cellular levels of Pol α and interrogate

the impact of this perturbation on both replication initiation on DNA synthesis and cellular

viability. We observe that Pol α can associate dynamically at the replication fork for initiation on

both strands. Although the initiation of both strands is widely thought to be mechanistically

similar, we determine that Ctf4, a hub that connects proteins to the replication fork, stimulates

lagging-strand priming to a greater extent than leading-strand initiation. We also find that

decreased leading-strand initiation results in a checkpoint response that is necessary for

viability when Pol α is limiting. Because the DNA replication machinery is highly conserved from

budding yeast to humans, this research provides insights into how DNA replication is

accomplished throughout eukaryotes.

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 hands 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. Indeed,

recent evidence from reconstituted replisomes suggests that leading-strand initiation can occur

via extension of the first Okazaki fragment synthesized on the lagging strand (Aria and Yeeles,

2018). However, analysis of repriming during damage bypass in the same reconstituted system

implies that leading- and lagging-strand repriming may be mechanistically distinct (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 naked and non-chromatinized

templates *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 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). Additionally, the Ctf4 protein has a minimal effect on the priming of

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

contributions of Ctf4 to Pol α recruitment for origin firing and Okazaki fragment initiation have

not been fully elucidated *in vivo*.

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

efficiency and Okazaki fragment initiation in *S. cerevisiae*. We find that reduced levels of Pol α

lead to an increase in Okazaki fragment length and a global decrease in replication-origin firing

efficiency. In the absence of a Ctf4-Pol1 interaction, lagging-strand initiation is impaired at

moderate Pol α concentrations that support normal levels of origin firing. Impaired Okazaki

fragment initiation is well tolerated: however, a severe reduction in Pol α levels 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 of 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). The lower band marked with an asterisk in GDPol1-myc Western blots is a

degradation product resulting from degron-tagging (see Fig. S1A). 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 only 2/3 of cells in an

asynchronous population are in G1, G2 or M phase, we compared wild-type POL1 expression

during S phase to 0.5% and 0.05% galactose in our inducible system at the zero and 60 minute

timepoints after release from alpha-factor-mediated G1 arrest (Fig. S1A). We estimate that the

expression level at 0.05% galactose is slightly lower than endogenous during the relevant phase

of the cell cycle, consistent with several phenotypes described below. However, we note that

the concentration of free Pol α might vary through the cell cycle as the complex associates with

elongating replication forks, especially under limiting conditions.

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. S1B), 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). This result was highly reproducible (another representative gel is shown in Fig. S1C). 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,

representative replicate experiments are shown in Fig. S1D-E). 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. These data are consistent with the presence of multiple Pol α complexes at the

replication fork and/or the repeated, distributive recruitment of Pol α to the replisome for lagging-

strand priming during replication, since the priming kinetics of a single 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 both the 5' (Fig. 1G) and 3' (Fig. S1F) termini of Okazaki fragments

in *GDPOL1* cells were less enriched at nucleosome dyads during growth at concentrations

below 0.041% galactose (Fig. 1G). Pol1 interacts with the FACT component Spt16 (Foltman et

al., 2013): furthermore, Pol α contains a histone-binding motif for H2A and H2B and it is

implicated in the maintenance of repressive chromatin during replication (Evrin et al., 2018). The

change in the distribution of Okazaki fragment ends at moderate Pol α levels that do not affect

lagging-strand priming (cf. Fig. 1D&G) supports an intimate role for Pol α in chromatin assembly

on the lagging strand.

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). By comparing the fraction of Okazaki fragments mapping to the

Watson and Crick strands in the region ±10 kb from the replication origin midpoint, an Origin

Efficiency Metric (OEM) can be calculated (McGuffee et al., 2013). Okazaki fragment

distributions across a ~400 kb region of chromosome 4 containing both early and late firing

regions are shown in Fig. 2A. Genome-wide origin efficiencies are quantified as OEM in Fig. 2B.

OEMs for each origin at all conditions are compiled in Table S1. Comparisons between replicate

datasets were robust across galactose concentrations (Fig. S2A), and each Pol α concentration

maintains a consistent trend across replicates (Fig. S2B). Data in Fig. 2 represent the mean

origin efficiency across three replicate experiments. In wild-type cells, origin efficiency was

unaffected across the full range of galactose concentrations tested (Fig. 2B). In the *GDPOL1*

strain, origin firing was maintained at wild-type levels above a critically low level of Pol α

(0.023% galactose). A significant reduction in average origin firing efficiency was observed at

0.023% galactose, and firing efficiency was maintained at this decreased level at progressively

lower galactose concentrations (Fig. 2B). These changes in average origin firing efficiency are

also shown in Fig. 2C as a change in the proportion of Okazaki fragments mapping to the

Watson strand around a meta-origin.

Interestingly, we observed that the efficiency of productive replication origin firing is impaired at

a similar Pol1 concentration (0.023% galactose) to the concentration at which Okazaki fragment

length is increased (0.014% galactose) (Fig 1D&E). This decrease in origin efficiency likely

contributes to the slow growth (Fig. S3A), cell-cycle delay (Fig. S3B & (Lemoine et al., 2005)),

and accumulation of S-phase cells (Fig. S3C) observed under limiting Pol1 conditions. However,

since growth is slower at 0.005% than 0.014% while origin efficiency is unchanged, reduced

origin firing cannot be the only cause of the slow growth. To test whether replisome stalling or

arrest at hard-to-replicate sites was increased under low Pol1 conditions, we analyzed

replication direction around 93 tRNA genes (Fig. S4) as previously described (Osmundson et

al., 2017). tRNA genes are the major sites of replisome stalling in the *S. cerevisiae* genome

(Ivessa et al., 2003; Osmundson et al., 2017), and changes in Okazaki fragment polarity can

robustly detect increased or decreased fork stalling at these sites (Osmundson et al., 2017). We

did not observe fork stalling at any galactose concentration (Fig. S4). Thus, we conclude that

replication-fork stalling or arrest is not substantially affected by limiting Pol α concentrations.

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

leading-strand initiation, 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 below the

threshold, firing of essentially all origins became less efficient regardless of their normal

efficiency (Fig. 2D & S2C). Both early- and late-firing replication origins showed a global

decrease in firing efficiency at low Pol1 concentrations (Fig. 2E). Similarly, origins whose firing

is stimulated or unaffected by forkhead-mediated spatial clustering (Knott et al., 2012) were all

affected by Pol α depletion (Fig. 2F). The firing efficiency of origins repressed by forkhead

transcription factors was not significantly impacted by Pol α depletion (Fig. 2F), likely because

these origins fire inefficiently under normal conditions.

To confirm the global decrease in origin firing efficiency at limiting Pol α levels, we analyzed

DNA copy number via whole genome sequencing (WGS) of cells collected in S-phase following

release from G1 arrest at a range of galactose concentrations (Fig. 3A). We sequenced

samples from early, mid, and late S-phase cells based on flow cytometry grown at 0.05%,

0.014% and 0.005% galactose (Fig. S3D), and combined these data to obtain a snapshot of the

population across the whole of S-phase.

The read depth across chromosome 4 from our pan-S-phase samples, normalized to a G1

sample, is shown in Fig. 3B. The global reduction in origin firing efficiency inferred from Okazaki

fragment sequencing (Fig. 2A-D) would be expected to 'flatten' the distribution of read depths in

S-phase such that early-replicating regions are less overrepresented and late-replicating

regions are correspondingly less underrepresented. Our data are broadly consistent with this

prediction (cf. labeled early- and late-replicating regions in Fig. 3B). However, a small number of

early-firing origins do not follow the expected trend, and are present at higher copy number

under limiting Pol α conditions (Fig. 3B). The three such origins on chromosome 4 are among

the earliest replicating sites in the genome (Raghuraman et al., 2001), and we reasoned that the

increased peak heights at these origins under limiting Pol α conditions might represent a

population of cells stuck in early S-phase, corresponding to a persistent peak offset from G1

observed at 0.014% and 0.005% galactose in our flow cytometry data (Fig. S3D). To test this

hypothesis, we compared DNA abundance around replication origins across our samples.

While the overall abundance of genomic DNA around all replication origins was similar for

0.05%, 0.014% and 0.005% galactose (Fig. 3B), the earliest 22 origins with T_{rep} under 18

minutes (Raghuraman et al., 2001) showed increased signal at low galactose while the

remaining 261 origins showed slightly decreased enrichment (Fig. 3C). Thus, for cells

progressing through S-phase, our copy-number data support a global reduction in origin

efficiency. Moreover, the observation that early-replicating regions are more highly sequenced

than late-replicating regions across all galactose concentrations suggests that relative origin

timing is unaffected by Pol α concentration.

Ctf4 stimulates Pol α recruitment for Okazaki fragment initiation at moderate Pol α levels,

and is required for efficient origin firing during severe Pol α depletion.

Ctf4 has previously been shown to stimulate the recruitment or maintenance 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 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).

Pol1 contains a Ctf4 interacting peptide (CIP) motif that is necessary for Ctf4 to recruit Pol α to

the fork: mutating specific residues in the CIP abolishes the interaction between Pol1 and Ctf4

without affecting the recruitment of other proteins to the fork (Simon et al., 2014, Villa et al.,

2016). To investigate the effect of Ctf4 on leading- and lagging-strand synthesis under limiting

Pol α conditions, we abrogated the Pol α-Ctf4 interaction via deletion of *CTF4* or mutation of the

Pol1 CIP box (*pol1-4A*) (Simon et al., 2014). We analyzed Okazaki fragments from these strains

using, end labeling, Southern blots, and sequencing.

In the absence of Ctf4, Okazaki fragments increase in length at ~0.06% galactose (Fig. 4A,)–

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

GDpol1-4A strain showed a similar increase in Okazaki fragment length to the *ctf4Δ* strain, with

longer fragments observed at 0.05% galactose (Fig. 3B&C, replicate experiments in Fig.

S5A&C). These longer Okazaki fragments at sub-endogenous Pol1 levels (0.05%) were further

confirmed by Southern blot with a whole genome probe (Fig. S5B). Continued growth while

synthesizing long Okazaki fragments was observed down to 0.005% galactose (Fig. 4B&C). 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 Okazaki fragment initiation even in its absence (Fig. 4A

and (Borges et al., 2013)).

We analyzed replication origin firing efficiency in the absence of Ctf4-Pol α interactions by

sequencing Okazaki fragments from *ctf4Δ;GDPOL1* and *GDpol1-4A s*trains grown at various

galactose concentrations (Fig. 4C). Data shown are the average of two replicates. Correlations

between replicates were extremely robust at all concentrations of Pol α (Fig. S6A&B). In the

absence of Ctf4*,* cells maintained normal levels of origin firing down to 0.032% galactose (Fig.

4D). The *GDpol1-4A* strain showed normal origin efficiency down to 0.023% galactose (Fig. 4E).

Neither Fkh status (Knott et al., 2012) nor firing time (Raghuraman et al., 2001) modulates the

impact of Ctf4 on origin efficiency (Fig. S7A-C). Notably, in both *ctf4Δ;GDPOL1* and *GDpol1-4A*

*s*trains, further reduction in Pol1 levels below the initial threshold for decreased origin efficiency

led to progressively lower origin firing (Fig. 4D&E). This additional decrease in origin efficiency

was not observed in the *GDPOL1* strain with wild-type *CTF4* (Fig. 2B). Therefore, while the

absence of Ctf4 does not appear to impact origin firing at moderate levels of Pol α*,* the Ctf4-Pol1

interaction appears to maintain relatively robust origin firing when Pol α is severely depleted. We

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

origin firing in *S. cerevisiae* unless Pol α is severely limiting, but plays an important role in

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

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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 origin efficiency in *ctf4Δ* cells is impacted by 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* or *pol1-4A* libraries (Fig. S5E), consistent with substantial

array expansion in the absence of Ctf4 (Sasaki and Kobayashi, 2017). However, this change in

rDNA copy number appears to have a minimal effect on genome-wide origin firing efficiency.

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To address the possibility that chromatin assembly defects may be the major cause of longer

Okazaki fragments upon Pol α depletion, we analyzed the distribution of Okazaki fragment

termini around nucleosome dyads at 0.05% galactose – a concentration that generates longer

Okazaki fragments only in the context of the *ctf4Δ;GDPOL1* and *GDpol1-4A s*trains (Fig. 3A-C)

but not the wild-type strain (Fig. 1C). At this intermediate Pol α concentration, the distribution of

Okazaki fragment 5' and 3' termini was highly nucleosome-biased and very similar between

wild-type, *GDPOL1, ctf4Δ;GDPOL1,* and *GDpol1-4A s*trains (Fig. 3F & S5F-G). At low Pol α

concentrations, the distribution of Okazaki fragment 5' and 3' termini lost nucleosome patterning

in *ctf4Δ;GDPOL1,* and *GDpol1-4A* (Fig. S5F-G), similarly to the behavior of the wild-type

GDPOL1 strain (Fig. 1G). However, the alignment of Okazaki fragment 5' or 3' end locations

with nucleosome dyads was lost at higher Pol α concentrations in *ctf4Δ;GDPOL1* strains

compared to *GDpol1-4A* (Fig. S5F-G), consistent with an additional contribution of Ctf4 to

chromatin assembly beyond Pol α recruitment.

ctf4Δ;GDPOL1, and *GDpol1-4A* cells grown at 0.05% galactose show increased Okazaki

fragment length (Fig. 4B-C) but no defect in the nucleosome patterning of Okazaki fragment

termini (Fig. 4F). Therefore, Okazaki fragment length can be increased by reduced Okazaki

fragment initiation in the absence of an accompanying chromatin assembly defect. We note that

these data are not inconsistent with impaired nucleosome assembly at severely reduced Pol α

concentrations contributing to a further increase in Okazaki fragment length.

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. 5A) – a concentration at which both origin firing and Okazaki fragment 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). Growth of the *GDPOL1; mec1Δ; sml1Δ* mutant was impaired

at 0.05% galactose and virtually absent at 0.014% and 0.005% galactose (Fig. 5B). Thus,

checkpoint-deficient cells 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. 5C). 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. 5B&D; the full range of

galactose concentrations is shown in Fig. S8A-B). *GDPOL1* cells showed robust growth at low

Pol1 concentrations (0.014% galactose) in both *rad9Δ* and *mrc1Δ* strain backgrounds.

GDPOL1;mrc1^{AQ}; rad9Δ cells did not grow at 0.005% galactose (Fig. 5D), confirming that the

inviability of *GDPOL1; mec1Δ; sml1Δ* cells under these conditions is due to the absence of

functional DDC and DRC signaling. We note that *GDPOL1;mrc1^{AQ}* cells grow better than

GDPOL1;mrc1Δ cells at all concentrations tested; this suggests that 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.

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We investigated the sensitivity of *GDPOL1* cells during Pol α depletion to either replication

stress or DNA damage by testing growth defects in the presence of 1 mM hydroxyurea or

0.008% methyl methanesulfonate (Fig. S8A-D). We observed that growth defects in the

presence of HU or MMS were exacerbated by lowering the concentration of Pol α; this effect

was apparent in both checkpoint-proficient and checkpoint-deficient strains. Indeed, in the

presence of 1 mM HU a significant growth defect can be observed at 0.05% galactose – a

concentration at which neither origin firing nor lagging-strand priming is impaired in strains

proficient for Ctf4-Pol α interaction.

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* or *pol1-4A* at 0.5% and 0.05% galactose.

Loss of Ctf4-Pol α interactions affects Okazaki fragment initiation at relatively high Pol α

concentrations, before leading-strand initiation is impaired. Thus, *ctf4Δ* and *pol1-4A* are

effectively separation of function mutants: at 0.05% galactose, Okazaki fragment initiation is

reduced by the absence of Ctf4-mediated recruitment of Pol α while leading-strand initiation is

not (Fig. 4). *GDPOL1;mec1Δ;sml1Δ;ctf4Δ* cells grow slowly relative to *MEC1* or *CTF4* cells:

however, growth was minimally affected by galactose concentrations (Fig. 5E). This result is

recapitulated with *GDpol1-4A;mec1Δ;sml1Δ* strain, which showed essentially no growth defect

at either Pol α concentration (Fig. 5E). 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 at least in part due to decreased replication

origin firing as opposed to solely due to increased Okazaki fragment length.

Discussion

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

Checkpoint activation is required for robust DNA synthesis, and therefore for viability, when

origin firing is significantly reduced (Fig. 5). 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 α (Van Esch et al., 2019) or Pol ε (Bellelli et al.,

2018) in mammalian cells increase replication stress linked to reduced origin firing, highlighting

the relevance of these studies beyond budding yeast.

Pol α initiation on the leading and lagging strands

Our data indicate that both origin firing and Okazaki fragment initiation in *S. cerevisiae* are

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

or replication initiation 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, our data suggest that Pol α can function distributively *in vivo* as

opposed to being obligately 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 (Fig. 6A).

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. 4). Thus, in light of the potentially distributive action of Pol α, we propose a

simple model that Ctf4 acts by increasing the local concentration of Pol α at the elongating

replication fork. An alternative possibility is that Ctf4 maintains two copies of Pol α at each

replisome under normal conditions (Fig. 6B). It is unclear what underlies the differential Ctf4-

sensitivity of reconstituted and *in vivo* lagging-strand synthesis. Our data also show that, unlike

ongoing Okazaki fragment priming during lagging-strand synthesis, the productive initiation of

DNA synthesis at replication origins is not impacted by the absence of Ctf4-mediated

recruitment until severely limiting Pol α concentrations (Figs. 2&4). A recent report

demonstrated that leading-strand initiation can occur via extension of the first Okazaki fragment

from the opposite replication fork, and that the two replisomes are inter-dependent during this

establishment phase (Aria and Yeeles, 2018). The close proximity of the two replisomes at this

stage could underlie the differential Ctf4-sensitivity of replication-origin firing at moderate and

low Pol α concentrations.

All replication origins are affected by Pol α depletion, without dependence on their normal firing

time or efficiency (Fig. 2E & 3B). 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. We note that coordinately down-regulating the efficiency of

all origins, as opposed to selectively reducing the efficiency of a subset, represents a robust

strategy to maintain the evolutionarily selected co-orientation of deleterious transcription events

with replication (Chen et al., 2019; Hamperl et al., 2017; 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 can act 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 and S5F-G). Since

Ctf4 connects Pol α to the replicative helicase, its absence also impacts chromatin dynamics

during DNA replication (Evrin et al., 2018). However, perturbed Okazaki fragment initiation in the

absence of Ctf4-mediated recruitment of Pol α to the fork can generate longer Okazaki

fragments in the absence of an obvious chromatin assembly defect (Fig. 4F). It is also 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 *mata, tor1-1::HIS3,*

fpr1::NatMX4, RPL13A-2xFKBP12::TRP1, CDC9-FRB::HygMX. The *pol1-4A* mutant from

(Simon et al.*, 2014) was generated using the CRISPR/Cas9 system in *S. cerevisiae* as

previously described (Dicarlo et al.*, 2013). Briefly, a guide RNA was synthesized specific to the

CIP box in *POL1* that could not be cleaved if repaired with donor sequence with D141A, D142A,

L144A and F147A mutations and 100 bp of homology on both sides. This created a markerless

strain that was confirmed through Sanger sequencing. After transformations, strains were grown

on YPD to lose the Cas9 and gRNA plasmids. 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, cell-cycle synchronization, 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 levels, cultures were sugar switched by growing overnight to

log phase then washing the cells 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 for western blot analysis.

For cell-cycle synchronization, cultures were sugar-switched at log phase and then added

5g/mL alpha factor to synchronize cells in G1 phase. Cells were released into S phase and were

collected every 15 minutes by centrifugation at 4°C then stored at -80°C or by immediately fixing

cells in 70% ethanol.

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

various galactose concentrations with or without 1mM hydroxyurea (Sigma H8627) or 0.008%

methyl methanesulfonate (Sigma 129925) at a 1:5 dilution series and grown overnight for two

days at 30°C unless indicated otherwise.

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Fluorescence-activated cell sorter (FACS) analysis

Cells were collected after release from G1 arrest every 15 minutes and fixed in 70% ethanol and

incubated at 4°C overnight. Fixed cells were then spun down and resuspended in 50mM sodium

citrate with RNase A (Fisher 50-153-8126) for 1 hour at 50°C. Next, with the addition of

proteinase K (MP Biomedicals) the samples were incubated for 1 hour at 50°C. Cells were then

stained with SYTOX green (Fisher S7020) then sonicated and processed using a Becton

Dickinson Accuri.

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Western blotting

Samples were collected by centrifugation and washed with deionized water and stored at -80°C

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

Following the sugar switch methods above, Okazaki fragments were accumulated by adding

rapamycin (Spectrum 41810000-2) to 1ug/mL to anchor away Cdc9, which is tagging with FRB,

for 1h (Haruki et al., 2008). These cells were collected through centrifugation and immediately

processed or stored at -80°C. Genomic preps from spheroplasts were completed as previously

described (Smith and Whitehouse, 2012). For end-labeling, 5uL of genomic DNA was labeled

using a 50uL reaction with 5U Klenow exo- (NEB M0212L) and α-dCTP (Perkin Elmer

BLU513H500UC) at a final concentration of 33 nM. Reactions were then ethanol precipitated to

remove excess label. Normalized amounts (from either native gel or previous experiment) were

loaded onto a 1.3% denaturing agarose gel. After electrophoresis, gels were then blotted onto

nitrocellulose membrane (Fisher 45-000-932) overnight. Membranes were then dried and

exposed to phosphor screens.

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 purification, sequencing, and analysis

Genomic DNA was boiled at 95°C for 5 min then salt was added to 300mM NaCl, pH 12.

Purification of Okazaki fragments was accomplished by running the denatured genomic DNA

through 400 ul Source 15Q (VWR 89128-854), binding at 300 mM NaCl, pH 12. DNA was

eluted in 50mM steps until 900mM NaCl, pH 12, fractions kept were 800mM, 850mM, and

900mM, these were stored at -20°C. DNA was ethanol precipitated then treated with RNase

cocktail (Thermo Fisher AM2286) for 1h at 37°C to remove any RNA. Next, these reactions

were ethanol precipitated then run through Illustra microspin G-50 columns (Fisher 27-5330-02).

The single-strand Okazaki fragments were boiled at 95°C for 5 min and cooled quickly on ice

and up to 1ug of purified fragments were ligated with T4 DNA ligase (Fisher 50305904) to 1ug

of adaptors with single-stranded overhangs that were generated as previously described (Smith

and Whitehouse, 2012). Purified libraries were amplified (12-16 cycles) using Illumina Truseq

primers according to Illumina protocols, but with Phusion (NEB M0530L). Paired-end

sequencing (2 × 75 bp) was carried out on an Illumina Next-seq 500 platform. FASTQ files were

aligned to the s288c reference genome using the Bowtie (v2.3.2). The files were converted,

then bad quality reads and PCR duplicates were removed using the Samtools suite (v1.9). Then

the genomic coverage was calculated using the Bedtools suite (v2.27.1) in a strand-specific

manner to make stranded bed files. Origin efficiency metric analysis was achieved through

calculating the strand bias in 10kb windows around predefined origins as previously described

(McGuffee et al., 2013) with the origin list from the same source. To map the Okazaki fragments

ends relative to known nucleosome dyads (Jiang and Pugh, 2009), 5' and 3' fragment ends were

extracted from previously generated bed files and a meta-analysis was completed as previously

described (Smith and Whitehouse, 2012).

Whole genome sequencing and analysis

Cells were incubated for 4h at various galactose concentrations with a simultaneous arrest with

5mg/ml alpha factor for 3h. Cells were collected every ten minutes after a room temperature

(25°C) release. Samples were collected and stored for flow cytometry at 4°C and for whole

genome sequencing at -80°C. Samples were selected for analysis based on flow cytometry

data. All samples, including a G1 control, were lysed using a FastPrep system. The lysates

were then sonicated using a Branson 250 sonicator at 15% for 15 seconds 5X. The sheared

DNA was then treated with 100µg of Proteinase K for 2h at 37°C. Samples were then phenol

chloroform extracted and precipitated. DNA was then quantified and libraries were prepped

using TruSeq Nano DNA LT Kit (Illumina 20015964). Sequencing and alignment methods were

performed as mentioned above, but sequencing was not strand-specific. Pertinent S phase

samples were pooled for analysis. These genomic coverage files were normalized to the

median coverage, binned to 100bps, and poorly mapped sites were removed from all datasets

(Table S2). Next, the coverage was calculated by taking the read depth normalized to G1 and

the smoothed using a Loess regression in R. To perform a meta-analysis around all or specific

origins of replication, the average coverage around these origins were calculated using the

same origin list as above.

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LEGENDS TO FIGURES

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. The lower band indicated by an asterisk is a degradation

product resulting from degron-tagging.

(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 5' ends around consensus nucleosome dyads (Jiang

and Pugh, 2009) for a wild-type (F) or *GDPOL1* (G) strain shifted to media containing the

indicated concentration of galactose. Data for Okazaki fragment 3' ends in *GDPOL1* are in Fig.

S1F

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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 ~400 kb region from the left arm of chromosome 4 is shown, and the late

and early replicating regions are annotated.

(B). Origin efficiency calculated as OEM (see methods) in wild-type or *GDPOL1* cells shifted to

the indicated concentration of galactose. Data is in the form of box and whisker plots with the

ends of the boxes being the upper and lower quartiles, the median is denoted by the line within

the box, and the whiskers indicate the highest and lowest data points. 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<0.0005, * p<0.05. Data from

the *GDPOL1* strain are the average of three replicates.

(C). Meta-analysis of the fraction of Okazaki fragments mapping to the Watson strand

(corresponding to leftward-moving replication forks) around all 283 origins normalized to the

maximum, using the same origin list as above.

(D). Scatter plot comparing origin firing efficiency in *GDPOL1* 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.

(E). Firing efficiency for origins with replication timing below (early) or above (late) the median

replication timing for origins in our dataset. Significance was calculated by unpaired t-test; ****

p<0.0001.

(F). Firing efficiency for origins with Forkhead (Fkh) status: activated, repressed, or

independent. Using the Fkh status determined in Knott et al., 2012. Significance was calculated

by unpaired t-test; **** p<0.0001, * p<0.05.

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Figure 3. Global decreases in origins firing from Pol α depletion leads to a proportion of

cells stalling in early S phase

(A). Schematic of experimental workflow for whole genome sequencing (also see methods).

(B) Read depth of chromosome 4, normalized to G1 and RPM, then smoothed through a Loess

regression. Poorly mapped regions were removed for analysis (Table S2). Galactose

concentrations are indicated. Early and late replication regions (LRR) are marked, as are the

three earliest firing origins on chromosome 4: ARS428 (12min), ARS429 (14min), ARS453

(12min).

(C, D). Coverage from pan-S-phase samples mapped around replication origins. Either all 283

origins (C) or the earliest firing 22 origins compared to the other 261 origins (D) are shown.

Read depth was normalized to G1 and smoothed to 1kb. Note the different y-axis scale for the

earliest origins in D.

Figure 4. Ctf4 maintains Okazaki fragment length at moderate Pol α concentrations but is

dispensable for origin firing *in vivo* unless Pol α is severely limiting

(A, B, C). Alkaline agarose gel analysis of end-labeled Okazaki fragments from a wild type or

GDPOL1;ctf4Δ strain (A&B), or *GDpol1-4A* (C) as indicated, shifted to media containing various

concentrations of galactose. Note that the range of galactose concentrations in A is significantly

higher than in other figure panels. Traces of lanes are shown for wild type YPD (black), or

GDPOL1 0.5% (gray) and 0.05% galactose (blue).

(D, E). Replication origin efficiency, as in Fig. 2B, for *GDPOL1;ctf4Δ* (D) or *GDpol1-4A* (E) cells

at low galactose concentrations. Data were calculated and analyzed as in Fig. 2B.

(F). Distribution of Okazaki fragment 5' termini around consensus nucleosome dyads, as in Fig.

1F,G, for each indicated strain shifted to media containing 0.05% galactose. Data were

calculated and analyzed as in Fig. 1F&G.

Figure 5. The checkpoint is required for viability under conditions of limiting origin firing,

but not increased Okazaki fragment size.

(A). Western blot against Rad53 from asynchronous *GDPOL1* cells shifted to the indicated

media. A wild-type strain grown in YPGal ± 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, rad9Δ;mrc1Δ;sml1Δ*) 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 *GDPOL1* strains carrying additional

mutations (*rad9Δ, mrc1^{AQ}, rad9Δ;mrc1^{AQ}*) at the indicated galactose concentrations.

(E). Serial dilution spot tests to assay the growth of *ctf4Δ;GDPOL1* or *GDpol1-4A* strains with or

without additional deletion of *MEC1*.

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856 **Figure 6. Model of Pol α recruitment for leading- and lagging-strand priming in *S.***

857 ***cerevisiae***

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Porcella et al., Figure 1

Porcella et al., Figure 3

Porcella et al., Figure 5

A

%Gal   0.050 0.041 0.032 0.023 0.014 0.005 2.0 2.0+MMS

anti-Rad53

anti-H4

GDPOL1   WT

B

GDPOL1 background

0.5% Gal   0.05% Gal   0.014% Gal   0.005% Gal

WT
WT
sml1Δ
mrc1Δ
rad9Δ
mec1Δ;sml1Δ
rad9Δ;mrc1Δ;
sml1Δ

C

WT   GDPOL1; mec1Δ

YPD   0.500 0.050 0.041 0.032 0.023 0.014 0.005   %Gal

Size (nt)

500 —
200 —
100 —

Southern blot
(whole genome probe)

D

GDPOL1 background

0.5% Gal   0.05% Gal   0.014% Gal   0.005% Gal

WT
WT
mrc1AQ
rad9Δ
mrc1AQ;
rad9Δ

E

GDPOL1
background   0.5% Gal   0.05% Gal

WT
ctf4Δ
pol1-4A
mec1Δ;sml1Δ
ctf4Δ;mec1Δ;sml1Δ
pol1-4A;mec1Δ;sml1Δ

A. With Ctf4-mediated recruitment of Pol α

- Lagging strand priming is not coupled to DNA unwinding
- Limiting Pol α:
    - Infrequent priming ⟶ Longer Okazaki fragments
    - Global decrease in origin firing
- Ctf4 concentrates Pol α at the replisome

B. Without Ctf4-Pol α interactions

- Without Ctf4:
    - Moderate Pol α levels:
        - Longer Okazaki fragments
        - Unaffected origin firing
    - Limiting Pol α ⟶ Origin firing progressively decreases

LEGENDS TO SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

Figure S1 (Associated with Fig 1)

(A). Western blot against 13xMyc-tagged Pol1 from wild-type or *GDPOL1* cells at the indicated

sugar concentration, released from alpha-factor arrest for the indicated time. The GDPol1-

specific degradation product is indicated by an asterisk.

(B). 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).

(C-E). Representative replicate Okazaki fragment end-labeling gels for wild-type (C) and

GDPOL1 (D-E) at the indicated galactose concentrations. Traces adjacent to the plots in D&E

indicate the change in size distribution of Okazaki fragments at 0.014% (pink) and 0.005%

(green) galactose.

(F). Distribution of Okazaki fragment 3' ends around consensus nucleosome dyads (Jiang and

Pugh, 2009) in the *GDPOL1* strain shifted to media containing the indicated concentration of

galactose

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Figure S2 (Associated with Fig 2)

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

each of three replicates are plotted against each other and indicated by color.

(B). Comparison of origin efficiency data from each replicate from *GDPOL1* cells shifted to the

indicated concentration of galactose. Significance was calculated by unpaired t-test; ****

$p < 0.0001$, * $p < 0.05$.

(C). Scatter plots comparing origin firing efficiency in *GDPOL1* cells at various galactose

concentrations, to wild-type cells in 0.5% galactose.

885
Figure S3 (Associated with Fig 2)

(A). 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.

(B). DNA content, assayed by flow cytometry, of an arrest release of wild type or *GDPOL1* cells

also analyzed in A.

(C). DNA content, assayed by flow cytometry, of asynchronous cells post 4h sugar switch of

wild type or *GDPOL1* cells.

(D). DNA content, assayed by flow cytometry, *GDPOL1* cells, released into S-phase after 4h

sugar switch in G1. The samples collected at these time points were used to generate

sequencing libraries for the analysis shown in Fig. 3.

Figure S4

Analysis of replication-fork direction around 93 origin-distal tRNA genes (Osmundson et al.,

2017) in *GDPOL1* 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).

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Figure S5 (Associated with Fig 3)

(A-C). Representative replicate end-labeling gel (A, C) or Southern blot (B), on Okazaki

fragments from a *GDPOL1;ctf4Δ* (A, B) or *GDpol1-4A* (C) strain shifted to media shifted to low

galactose concentrations. Traces of YPD (black) and 0.05% galactose (blue) lanes on the right.

A control lane for wild-type cells grown in YPD is included on each gel.

(D). Serial dilution spot tests to assay the growth of *GDPOL1* strains with or without FRB

tagging of CDC9 and/or *ctf4Δ* or *pol1-4A* mutations.

(E). 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.

(F-G). Distribution of Okazaki fragment 5' (left panel) and 3' ends (right panel) around

consensus nucleosome dyads (Jiang and Pugh, 2009) in the *GDPOL1;ctf4Δ* (F) or *GDpol1-4A*

strain (G) shifted to media containing various galactose concentrations.

Figure S6 (Associated with Fig 3)

(A, B). Origin efficiency replicate comparisons for data from the *ctf4Δ;GDPOL1* strain shown in

Fig. 3D (A) and the *GDpol1-4A* strain show in Fig. 3F (B).

Figure S7 (Associated with Fig 4)

(A, B, C). Firing efficiency for origins separated by Fkh status or replication timing for the data

sets in Fig. 4. Significance was calculated by unpaired t-test; **** $p<0.0001$, * $p<0.05$.

Figure S8 (Associated with Fig 4)

(A, B). Serial dilution spot tests to assay the growth of *GDPOL1* strains carrying additional

mutations (*mec1Δ;sml1Δ, rad9Δ, mrc1Δ, mrc1AQ*) at the indicated galactose concentrations. A

selection of these concentrations is shown in Fig. 4A-B

(C,D). Serial dilution spot tests of the indicated strains with or without 1 mM hydroxyurea (C) or

with or without 0.008% methyl methanesulfonate (D). Note that the full ranges of galactose

concentrations were independently plated as loading/growth controls for both C and D.

Porcella et al., Figure S1, associated with Figure 1

A   OEM correlations across replicates

B

C   OEM change relative to unperturbed cells

Porcella et al., Figure S3, associated with Figure 1

Porcella et al., Figure S4, associated with Figure 2

Porcella et al., Figure S5, associated with Figure 4

A   **OEM correlations across replicates (*GDPOL1*, *ctf4Δ*)**

B   **OEM correlations across replicates (*GDpol1-4A*)**

A. *GDPOL1-4A*

OEMs separated by forkhead status

OEMs separated by timing

B. *GDPOL1; ctf4Δ*

OEMs separated by forkhead status

OEMs separated by timing

C. WT

OEMs separated by forkhead status

OEMs separated by timing

Porcella et al., Figure S8, associated with Figure 5

A

B

C **Checkpoint mutants growth defects with/without 1mM HU**

D **Checkpoint mutants growth defects with/without 0.008% MMS**