TITLE:

Beyond ERCs: exploring catastrophic forms of rDNA instability in aging yeast

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ABSTRACT:

Single-celled organisms grown in identical conditions have variable life spans.

Identifying the factors that drive the inherent variability in life span is crucial for our

understanding of aging at a fundamental level. Here, we revisit the role of

chromosome XII instability as a source of life span variability in aging populations of

the budding yeast, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. We followed populations of mother cells as

they aged and quantified changes in karyotype, DNA content, and aberrant DNA

structures, including the production of extrachromosomal rDNA circles (ERCs). We

found that cells massively amplified their rDNA both as ERCs and as a structural form

that could not be resolved on CHEF gels. We propose a model describing how these

unresolved structures are generated. Our model, which we call CICR (Catastrophic

IntraChromosomal Recombination), describes the consequences of recombination

between repeats of different replication status. At the completion of replication, when

all other replication forks have successfully terminated, CICR events leave behind a

single, unopposed replication fork in a branched form of Chr XII that has profound

consequences during mitosis and/or subsequent cycles. This form of instability within

the ribosomal DNA can lead to a myriad of toxic recombination products that may

contribute to the life span variability in isogenic populations of aging yeast.

AUTHOR SUMMARY:

Aging is an uphill battle against entropy. The wear and tear on biological

processes in cells require surveillance mechanisms and repair processes to stave off the

inevitable. A cell's genome is constantly under external and internal insults that can

ultimately lead to death. Known events that impact a cell's DNA are damage from free

radicals (produced by the very oxygen needed for survival), shortening of the caps on

chromosomes (called telomeres) every time a cell divides, and mutations that

accumulate over time that affect essential cell processes. Yeast is an excellent tool to

examine specific causes of aging because of its asymmetric mode of cell division: a

mother cell can divide a limited, but variable number of times before senescing. We

have isolated cohorts of mother cells, examined their genomes over the course of their

life span and find a new intrinsic insult that the genome must endure. We find, in

addition to the accumulation of extrachromosomal copies of the genes that encode the

RNA portion of ribosomes (rDNA), that cells accumulate a toxic product of genetic

recombination within the rDNA. The chromosome that contains the rDNA becomes

branched and/or fragmented which leads to cell death.

INTRODUCTION:

Replicative life span (RLS) in the budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is defined

as the number of daughter cells a mother cell can produce before senescing (Mortimer

and Johnson, 1959). Life span is under genetic control as specific mutations

significantly increase or decrease life span. Yet, in a population of genetically identical

cells, individual cells experience variable life spans. An attractive hypothesis for the

mechanism of yeast replicative aging, first proposed by Sinclair and Guarente (1997),

centered on the observation that aging cells accumulate additional rDNA copies, which

they suggested were entirely due to the accumulation of extrachromosomal rDNA

circles (ERCs). If accumulation of extrachromosomal circles reduces life span, it follows

that mother cells which form ERCs early in life would have a greater effect on life span

than mothers who form an ERC later in life. Consistent with this hypothesis is the

observation that mutations in genes involved in the replication and maintenance of the

rDNA locus alter ERC accumulation and life span (such as *fob1Δ* and *sir2Δ*; Defossez et

al., 1999; Kaeberlein et al., 1999, respectively). It was these findings that popularized the

notion that variation in life span among otherwise genetically identical cells could be

due to variation in their number of ERCs.

While ERCs are generally thought to be a key contributor to life span, a broader

rDNA theory of aging proposes that general instability in the rDNA is a root cause of

aging (Kobayashi, 2008). There are multiple aspects of the structure, replication and

transcription of the yeast rDNA locus that could contribute to its inherent instability.

First, the rDNA locus is made up of ~150 identical 9.1 kb repeats, each with a potential

origin of replication and the coding sequences for the four rRNAs (Fig 1A). The

tandemly repeated nature of the rDNA locus makes it prone to copy number changes at

a much higher rate than the rest of the genome (Supp Fig 1). Second, it is the most

highly transcribed region of the yeast genome; however, many of the copies are kept

silent by the histone deacetylase encoded by *SIR2* (Fig 1B; Aparicio et al., 1991). Third,

while the rest of the genome is replicated by bidirectionally oriented forks, the fates of

the bidirectional forks initiated in the rDNA are not equivalent: most of the replication

is unidirectional by a fork moving in the direction of 35S transcription (Fig 1C; Brewer

and Fangman, 1988; Linskens and Huberman, 1988). The oppositely oriented fork

proceeding into the 3′ end of the adjacent 35S transcription unit is arrested at a site

called the replication fork barrier (RFB; Brewer and Fangman, 1988) by the binding of

the Fob1 protein (Fig 1B,C; Kobayashi and Horiuchi, 1996).

The primary model to explain rDNA instability depends on breakage and repair

of the stalled replication fork resulting in a single-ended, double stranded break at the

RFB (Supp. Fig 2A; Kobayashi et al., 1998). Repair of this break is then thought to lead

to copy number changes within the chromosomal array and to the formation of an ERC.

This proposal is supported by observations that the *fob1Δ* mutant, which fails to arrest

forks at the RFB, is known to have a longer RLS and to produce fewer ERCs. However,

repair of the 3′ end of the broken fork, either by break induced replication (BIR., Supp

Fig 2B,E; Kramara et al., 2018; Li et al., 2026) or replication fork restart (RFR, Supp Fig

2C,F; Amiama-Roig et al., 2025) reestablishes a fork only to be blocked immediately by

Fob1 at the RFB (Supp Fig 2B,C) and does not directly produce an ERC.

The generation of ERCs is more easily explained by intrachromatid (pop-out)

recombination between repeats (but not interchromatid recombination; Supp Fig 2D,G).

If pop-out recombination were the primary mechanism of ERC formation, how might

fob1Δ mutants lead to a reduction in ERCs and an increase in RLS? In addition to its

fork blocking function, Fob1 also plays a role in stimulating recombination rates

regardless of the orientation of the RFB with respect to replication (Ward et al., 2000) as

well as by facilitating chromosome kissing (Choudhury et al., 2015), a process that

brings repeats into proximity. We propose, therefore, that ERCs are mainly formed by

pop-out recombination (Supp Fig 2G) independent of fork breakage.

To re-explore the mechanisms of rDNA instability we observed the aging

genomes of a population of mother cells for wild type and two mutants (*fob1Δ* and

sir2Δ) that differ in both RLS and stability of rDNA copy number. To study the kinetics

of rDNA instability we analyzed genome karyotypes by contour-clamped

homogeneous electric field (CHEF) gel electrophoresis and Southern blotting across the

replicative life span of these populations. In addition to analyzing karyotypes of the

aging populations, we also measured DNA content and cell cycle progression in

individual cells using flow cytometry. We tracked the progression of our time course

by measuring the viability of aging mothers using a membrane permeable stain and by

measuring the age of individual mother cells within the populations by counting bud

scars.

We observed increases to rDNA copy number in an age and genotype specific

manner that are non-uniformly distributed among individual cells in aging

populations. We identified that most of the additional rDNA copies were unable to

migrate during electrophoresis and remained in the well of the CHEF gel. We propose

that a significant portion of these non-migrating rDNA copies are the result of

Catastrophic IntraChromosomal Recombination (CICR, pronounced "sicker") between

rDNA repeats that differ in replication status and we generated a mechanistic model

that describes various outcomes of this catastrophic event. We propose that rDNA

instability manifests in aging populations in two ways: by CICR events that generate

toxic Chr XII recombination products and by pop-out recombination that generates

ERCs. These two forms of rDNA instability lead to different consequences in the

subsequent cell cycles, with each possibility having its own potentially unique impact

on the life span of individuals in aging populations.

RESULTS:

Karyotyping the aging genome:

We karyotyped the genomes of wild type, *fob1Δ* and *sir2Δ* populations

throughout their replicative life span. *FOB1* and *SIR2* are two of the best studied genes

in the field of yeast aging and provide context into high (*sir2Δ*) and low (*fob1Δ*) levels of

rDNA copy number variability with respect to wild-type populations. We used

miniature aging chemostat devices (MADs, Fig 2A; Hendrickson et al., 2018) to cultivate

the large populations needed for karyotyping by CHEF gel electrophoresis. We

assessed viability using a membrane permeable stain and flow cytometry (n > 10,000,

Fig 2B) and we quantified the replicative age of the populations over time by staining

and manually counting bud scars (n = 40, Fig 2C). We observed that *fob1Δ* mother cells

accumulated the highest average number of bud scars (mean: 19.4) and maintained

viability the longest of the three populations, while *sir2Δ* mother cells accumulated the

lowest average bud scars (mean 10.4) and exhibited more rapid loss in viability. These

results align with previously reported effects of *FOB1* and *SIR2* deletions on life span

(Defossez et al, 1999; Kaeberlein et al., 1999). The maximum replicative age observed

for each genotype occurred on different days (*fob1Δ*, day 6; WT, day 4; *sir2Δ*, day 3; Fig

2C). The mean replicative age of the wild type and *sir2Δ* populations slightly decreased

after reaching a maximum, likely due to differences in cell cycle progression among

individual cells.

We periodically sampled from the chemostats over the replicative life span of

each population and prepared agarose plugs for karyotyping by CHEF gel

electrophoresis. The ethidium bromide-stained gels of two replicate sets of aging

populations can be seen in Fig 2D,E. Bands in the CHEF gels contain one or more

comigrating chromosomes, with Chr XII being the largest and least mobile. Over time,

we see the disappearance of Chr XII and the appearance of additional DNA species

both above and below the position of Chr XII. The most prominent of these additional

DNA species is the rapidly migrating DNA smear of DNA in the size range of 50 to 200

kb that appears between days 4 and 6 concurrently with the loss of viability.

Characterizing rDNA structural forms

To explore the apparent disappearance of full length Chr XII, we probed the

CHEF gels with two single copy probes, one from Chr IV as a control (*GAL3*; Fig 3A and

Supp Fig 3A) and one from Chr XII (*CDC45*; Fig 3B; Supp Fig 3B). For wild-type and

fob1Δ populations, Chr XII (*CDC45* probe) appears as a discrete band with diminishing

intensity over time, while for the *sir2Δ* mutant Chr XII appears as a broad distribution

of sizes that was only detectable in the initial inoculum. The quantity of mobile full-

length Chr XII declines with age in all strains. The smear of DNA in the size range of 50

to 200 kb contains Chr XII fragments and increases in intensity with age. When we

hybridized the CHEF blots with unique probes from other chromosomes, we found that

fragmented products are not limited to Chr XII but are found for all chromosomes

probed (Fig 3A; Supp Figs 3A,B; Supp Fig 4) suggesting that the fragmented DNA is

from dead cells. The relative abundance of fragmented DNA serves as a secondary

measure of a decline in cell viability (Supp Fig 5).

The gradual disappearance of the Chr XII band also coincides with the

appearance of species of slowly migrating DNA between the well and the position of

Chr XII (Fig 2D,E). However, the slowly migrating species do not hybridize to the

CDC45 probe and thus are not an intact form of Chr XII (Fig 3B; Supp Fig 3B). To

determine whether the DNA bands migrating slower than Chr XII contained rDNA, we

hybridized the CHEF gel blot with a probe from the nontranscribed portion of the

rDNA repeat (*NTS2*; Fig 3C; Supp Fig 3C). We see an overall increase in *NTS2*

hybridization that is age and genotype specific and that the slowly migrating new

bands are rDNA specific. They appear and accumulate with age, along with additional,

faster migrating bands not easily seen in the ethidium bromide-stained gel.

We characterized the numerous structural forms of rDNA present in the aging

populations via their gel mobility. While linear molecule migration is affected by their

length alone, circular species are particularly sensitive to electrophoresis conditions

(voltage and agarose concentrations) and can exhibit variable migration patterns

depending on their size and whether they are nicked or supercoiled. Supercoiled

monomer circles are compact, while their nicked counter parts have an open

conformation that can be temporarily and repeatedly impaled on agarose spikes,

slowing down their migration. To determine the identity of the various *NTS2* bands we

analyzed the migration patterns of the resident yeast 2-micron (6.3 kb) plasmid that can

exist as monomer circles (supercoiled and nicked) and as concatemers and catenanes

with variable numbers of repeats. Hybridization with 2-micron's *FLP1* probe (Supp Fig

6A) revealed that the migration in CHEF gels of multimeric forms of 2-micron was

particularly aberrant, with migration rates similar to chromosomes more than 100 times

their mass (Fig 3D). Over the course of the 6 days, as DNA fragmentation occurs in

increasing subsets of cells, we see decreases in some bands (supercoils) and a reciprocal

increase in other sets of bands (nicked). On the final day (eg. *fob1Δ* day 6, Supp Fig 6A)

we see the appearance of bands that correspond to linear forms of the different 2-

micron concatemers. We see similar shifts in subsets of bands in the *NTS2* blot (eg. Fig

3C) allowing us to identify different forms of ERCs and to estimate their repeat number.

From this analysis we conclude that, in aging mother cells, the majority of the *NTS2*

signal migrating in the gel corresponds to ERCs containing between one and five rDNA

repeats.

As cells age the amount of *NTS2* signal in the well also drastically increases.

When hybridized with probes from 2-micron and other chromosomes, we see only a

modest increase of signal in the well (Supp Fig 6B; Fig 4A;Supp Fig 7) that likely results

from branched replication intermediates from cells in S phase. What is responsible for

the retention of rDNA in the wells of the CHEF gels (Fig 3C; Supp Fig 3C)?

Quantifying age-related increases in rDNA species

To quantify and compare increases in *NTS2* and *CDC45* signals with age, we

compared the total combined signal (well, extrachromosomal, intact Chr XII and

fragmented) with the combined signal from *GAL3* (well, intact chromosome IV and

fragmented) and plotted the increases as a fold-change relative to *GAL3* over time (Fig

4A). We calculated the rDNA copy number by multiplying the fold change by the

respective rDNA copy number of the starting populations (124 repeats for wild-type,

125 repeats for *fob1Δ*, 106 repeats for *sir2Δ*). The total magnitude of rDNA repeat

increase by day 4 is staggering, especially for the *sir2Δ* aging mothers. The average

increase (~24-fold) in rDNA content corresponds to an additional average of 23.1 Mb

(1.9 genome equivalents) of DNA per cell. The ~12-fold increase in wild type on day 4

is equivalent to 13.5 Mb (1.1 genome equivalents) of additional DNA per cell. The ~3-

fold increase in rDNA in the *fob1Δ* strain is equivalent to an additional 3.4 Mb of DNA

or ~0.3 genomes per cell. We compared mean RLS for days where we observed an

increase to RLS from the previous day (wild type : days 0 – 4, *fob1Δ* : days 1 - 6) and

plotted it against rDNA copy number. We found a high degree of fit to an exponential

increase for each of the three populations (Fig 4B). We quantified how the extra rDNA

copies were distributed based on their structural identity by comparing the product of

NTS2 signal in a particular position (i.e., in the well, as an intact chromosome, as an

ERC or as fragmented signal) and the total *GAL3* signal for each day in all positions (Fig

4C). While we can clearly see an increase in ERC copy number in wild type and *sir2Δ*

populations, most of the additional rDNA copies did not migrate during

electrophoresis and were retained in the well (Fig 4C).

Non-migrating rDNA species

DNA molecules can be retained in the well of a CHEF gel for a variety of reasons.

If incomplete lysis were the case, we would expect the other chromosomes to show the

same pattern, but they do not (Fig 3A; Supp Fig 3A; Supp Fig 4). A second possibility is

that the non-mobile rDNA copies are due to the presence of ERCs larger than five

repeats. However, we would predict that the larger an ERC is, the more likely it would

be broken and produce a linear molecule upon death. We do not see signal in the range

of discrete linear molecules that would be indicative of broken ERCs larger than five

repeats (Fig 3C,E). A third possibility is that the well contains branched circles in the

process of replication. As a comparison, we again used 2-micron molecules which are

known to replicate once each S phase (Zakian et al., 1979). As cells transitioned from

mostly G1 (day 0) to asynchronously cycling (days 1-3) the proportion of 2-micron

retained in the well increased to 40-50% (Supp Fig 6B), consistent with the generation of

branched circular replication intermediates (Brewer and Fangman, 1987). If we assume

a similar relationship for replication intermediates among the ERC concatemers that we

observe in 2-micron concatemers, replicating ERCs can only account for ~50% of the

total well signal. What other process could generate branched forms of Chr XII that

contain a massive increase in copies of rDNA repeats?

Catastrophic IntraChromsomal Recombination (CICR)

242   As noted in the introduction, the most likely way to produce an ERC is through

intramolecular pop-out recombination (Supp Fig 2G). Because homologous

recombination is cell cycle regulated and in haploid yeast occurs primarily in S/G2,

(Branzei and Foiani, 2008), we considered the consequences of recombination occurring

in S phase between repeats that differ in replication status (Fig. 5A,B). A model

proposed by Bruce Futcher (1986) to explain the amplification of the 2-micron plasmid

involves recombination between repeats that differ in replication status (Supp Fig 8)

and was the inspiration for our model. Recombination between the 2-micron's inverted

repeats in 2-micron that differ in replication status converts the bidirectionally

orientated replication forks into two forks that are moving in the same direction around

the 2-micron circle. Instead of terminating at a site opposite the origin, the two forks are

unopposed and continue copying the plasmid multiple times without requiring a new

round of replication initiation.

255   While the repeats of the rDNA locus are in direct orientation (the 2-micron

repeats are inverted) we considered the fate of replication forks when repeats that differ

in replication were to occur. Because replication initiation events in the rDNA are

scattered across the entire locus with approximately one in five of the origins being

active and the other nearby origins being passively replicated (Fig 1; Brewer and

Fangman, 1988; Linskens and Huberman, 1988), this interspersion of active and inactive

origins creates many opportunities for replicated repeats to interact with nearby

unreplicated repeats.

There are two possible orientations for interactions between a replicated and an

unreplicated rDNA repeat on the same chromatid. First, consider recombination

between a centromere proximal repeat that is in a replicated state and a distal repeat

that has not yet been replicated (Fig 5A). After resolution of the cross-over, one of the

products terminates with a closed, single-stranded loop of rDNA repeats hybridized to

a linear tail that extends through the centromere to the left telomere. The junction

between the loop and the tail is a replication fork that is blocked at the RFB. The

circular portion and the branch of the lariat structure could cause the retention of this

molecule in the well. Immediately after resolution of the recombination event, the other

product appears to be an intact linear form of chromosome XII; however, it is an

incompletely replicated molecule. After S-phase (Fig 5B) a single unopposed replication

fork remains in the rDNA in an orientation that would permit unimpeded replication of

centromere-proximal repeats leading to amplification of rDNA by a "runaway" fork.

We also expect the branched full-length chromosome to remain in the well during

electrophoresis.

The second possible interaction between a replicated and an unreplicated rDNA

repeat on the same chromatid is between a centromere-proximal unreplicated repeat

and a distal replicated repeat (Fig 5C). One of the products is again an rDNA lariat, this

time with the tail extending through the right telomere of chromosome XII. The branch

point between the circle and the tail is a fork in the permissive orientation for

replication ("rolling circle" fork), producing many tandem copies of the rDNA in a

process that extends the tail of the lariat. The reciprocal product, after the completion of

S phase (Fig 5D), would have a single branch point blocked at an RFB. In this

orientation the unopposed fork cannot be extended but would prevent the branched

chromosome from migrating out of the well.

Eukaryotic chromosome replication occurs by the establishment of multiple,

bidirectionally oriented replication forks. CICR events upset the balance of equal

numbers of left- and right-oriented replication forks. After a CICR event, when all of

the other forks in the genome have terminated replication by meeting an opposing fork,

there remains a single unopposed fork, either as a rolling circle fork or a runaway fork

which can continue to produce many additional copies of the rDNA repeats producing

the excess *NTS2* hybridization we observe in the well (Fig 3C; Supp Fig 3C).

Consequences of CICR

We propose that CICR events are a form of rDNA instability that lead to the

formation of lariats and singly-branched Chr XII with profound and varied

consequences that could shorten the life spans of individual cells. At the end of S

phase, all portions of Chr XII will have been replicated (Fig 5B,D); however, they cannot

be equally distributed between the two sister chromatids. One chromatid extends from

a telomere to a loop in the rDNA and the other contains a full-length version of Chr XII

with a duplicated terminal branch arising from the rDNA.

As cells proceed into mitosis they would face several challenges (Fig 6). The

ongoing replication fork could trigger a checkpoint similar to the fate of cells

undergoing BIR (Liu et al., 2025) or cells that contain an artificial chromosome that is

deficient in replication origins (van Brabant and Buchanan et al., 2000). The branch

could also break and result in the triggering of a DNA damage checkpoint. In either

case, there would be a cell cycle arrest requiring repair or adaptation to the checkpoint

before the cell can continue into mitosis.

If the cell makes it into mitosis, there are several potential outcomes for

chromosome segregation. First, if the mother cell had undergone recombination

involving a proximal duplicated repeat completes mitosis (Fig 6A), that cell may retain

the lariat, in which case it would be a lethal event due to missing essential genes from

the right arm of the chromosome. Alternatively, if the mother cell retains the branched

molecule the structure would be self-perpetuating in future divisions—the inherited

branch junction can be resolved but a new branched structure to its right is generated.

This scenario sets up the possibility that Chr XII will remain branched and thus will

remain in the well of the CHEF gel. In addition, this cell would have a duplication of

much of the rDNA and all genes distal to the rDNA.

Second, if a mother cell that has undergone recombination involving an

unreplicated proximal repeat completes mitosis, the branched ChrXII will likely be

broken and additional unique outcomes could occur (Fig 6B), depending on the

segregation of the acentric, rolling circle lariat. Mother cells that inherit this lariat could

continue to amass extra rDNA repeats that would be retained in the well by virtue of

the lariat's branched structure. For either scenario (Fig 6A,B) the increase in total rDNA

copies could contribute to an increased likelihood of ERC production through popout

recombination in proportion to their elevated rDNA copy number.

Predictions of the CICR model

We predict that CICR events contribute approximately half of the non-mobile

rDNA copy number increase that we observe retained in the well of CHEF gels;

however, it is inherently difficult to distinguish replicating (non-mobile) ERCs from the

rolling-circle lariat and branched forms of Chr XII predicted by the CICR model. One

way to detect these forked structures is to cleave the DNA in the well and run it on a 2D

gel to look for on-going and blocked forks in the rDNA (Brewer and Fangman, 1988).

However, once the molecules are cleaved, we have no way of distinguishing normal

replication forks in the rDNA (of which there would be many) from the single forks that

are associated with the CICR model.

A second prediction of our model is that concurrent with rDNA accumulation,

some CICR events should lead to a copy number increase in the chromosomal region

distal to the rDNA as the mother cells aged (Fig 6A,B). We further expected that to

detect such a copy number change, we should have to focus our attention on the

chromosome XII material that was retained in the CHEF gel wells and appeared in the

degraded DNA as the populations aged.

Accordingly, we quantified and compared signals from the CHEF gel blots that

were probed with unique probes from both sides of the rDNA (*CDC45* and *MAS1*, to

the left and right of the rDNA, respectively, as shown in Fig 1A; Fig 3, Supp Fig 9). We

selected the days where the fraction of the fragmented DNA signal for *CDC45* could be

quantified reliably (≥8.5% of the total signal in the lane) and calculated the fraction of

total *CDC45* signal present in the different structural forms of chromosome XII (intact,

well, and fragmented; Fig 7A, Supp Fig 10A) as well as the *MAS1/CDC45* ratio for the

well and the fragmented DNA (Fig 7B, Supp Fig 10B). Note that the absolute ratios are

arbitrary, as they will depend on the specific activities of the different probes as well as

how long the blots were exposed to the phosphor screens. What we were testing was

whether the ratio increased with age of the population, as predicted by the CICR model.

Consistent with our prediction for the CICR model, we see an increase in

MAS1/CDC45 ratio with population age in wild type and *fob1Δ*. Such an increase is not

obvious in *sir2Δ*, which may be a manifestation of the accelerated aging of that

population—the increase must have occurred earlier than our earliest days for which

we could quantify signal. Across all populations, we see that the ratio is greater for

fragmented DNA than it is for the well, suggesting that cells that have undergone a

CICR event do not persist for long. Across all genotypes and sample times the

fragmented ratios consistently range from 1.3 to 2.3-fold higher than the well ratios (Fig

7B, Supp Fig 10B). While we do not see a genotype specific magnitude difference

between the well and fragment ratios, we do see a difference in the timing of when the

fragmentation begins with *sir2Δ* being the earliest and *fob1Δ* being the latest.

To confirm that the increase in ratio was not limited to the *MAS1* gene region, we

repeated the aging experiment with wild type cells in quadruplicate, examining DNA

from mother cells recovered on days 2 and 4. In this experiment, the cells appeared to

age more rapidly as we found significant ERC accumulation by day 2 and nearly

complete loss of full length Chr XII by day 4 (Supp Fig 11A). We hybridized the four

replicates with *CDC45* and a sequence approximately 240 kb distal to *MAS1* that

contained the origin of replication *ARS1222* (Supp Fig 11B,C). On day 2, the ratio

among the fragmented DNA was nearly twice that of the DNA retained in the well (Fig

7C), a result consistent with the magnitude of the ratios found for *MAS1/CDC45* ratios

in the original two wild type replicates. By day 4, the ratio fell but was still greater than

the ratio in the well. In addition to the increases in the fragmented DNA, we also

found, between day 2 and day 4, a small but significant increase in the *ARS1222/CDC45*

ratio in the DNA retained in the well, a feature we had not detected with the *MAS1*

probe in the original two replicates of the wild type cells (Fig 7C). This latter finding is

also consistent with the CICR model that branched and lariat forms containing an extra

copy of the distal arm of Chr XII would be expected to be retained in the well.

In principle, bulk short read sequencing of aging mother cells could also reveal

copy number changes in the distal portion of chromosome XII. However, using

sequencing as the assay is challenging because it demands that the CICR events occur in

a large enough sub-population to be detectable by read depth changes. Furthermore,

unlike with CHEF gel analysis, we would not be able to assess read depth for the

molecules of interest (those in the wells and the breakdown products) vs. the

background of intact molecules. Nevertheless, we examined read depth across Chr XII

using short read sequencing on wild type mother cells from days 0 and 4. Perhaps

unsurprisingly, read depth profiles appeared identical, with the exception of a ~3-fold

increase in rDNA copy number between day 0 and day 4 populations (Supp Fig 12 A-

D). The fact that our Southern blot quantifications detected a 10-fold increase between

the same samples (Fig 4A) underscores the documented limitations of short read

sequencing in assessing copy numbers in repetitive DNA (Morton et al., 2020). Overall,

the results support key predictions of the CICR model of rDNA instability and its

potential role in yeast aging.

Assessing the cause of death in aging populations

To determine to what extent additional rDNA copies contributed to cell death we

used flow cytometry and the non-specific DNA stain Sytox green to assess cellular DNA

content across individual cells throughout the life span of our populations. We

generated cell cycle profiles on days 0 – 4 and 6 for each of the three populations (Fig

8A; Supp Fig 13A). These profiles consist of two main peaks, corresponding to the cells

in G1 and G2 phases, with S phase cells in between. The day 0 samples are enriched for

G1 cells because cells are deprived of nutrients for multiple hours during the magnetic

bead-labeling protocol. In the following days, there are clear G1 and G2 peaks, but

most notably, in the *sir2Δ* mutant and to a lesser extent in wild type cells, subsets of

cells were observed to contain more than two (and up to eight) genome equivalents of

DNA (Fig 8A; Supp Fig 13). We quantified the proportion of the cells that contain more

than 2 genome equivalents of DNA and find that more than 40% of the *sir2Δ* population

fell into this category by the end of life, and roughly 20% and 6% in wild type and *fob1Δ*,

respectively (Fig 8B). Because some cells in the G2 peak may actually be G1-arrested

cells with amplified rDNA, we may be underestimating the fraction of cells that have

experienced an amplification event. The subset of cells containing more than 2N

genomic content has an average genome size from 3.3 to 3.8 N, an increase in DNA

content per cell that is consistent with the level of excess rDNA repeats estimated in Fig

4A (an average of ~1.9 extra genome equivalents), but could also include extra copies of

the distal arm of Chr XII generated by CICR. The increase in genome content across all

three genotypes suggests that cells that experience an rDNA instability event succumb

to similar levels of DNA accumulation regardless of genotype and that the major way

these populations differ is in the frequency of the initiating event.

To determine whether the accumulation of additional rDNA was associated with

a loss of viability, we used fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) to separate the

sir2Δ population into live cells and dead cells. The high efficiency of the sort can be

seen in the spot dilution series shown in Fig 8C. We then generated cell cycle profiles

for the live and dead populations and found that the non-viable population was more

likely to contain additional DNA (Fig 8D; Supp Fig 14). This finding suggests that the

additional rDNA copies generated either by unopposed replication forks or as ERCs are

associated with a reduced life span. However, it is important to note that among the

nonviable *sir2Δ* cells ~50% have died without accumulating additional DNA. These

cells may have died by a mechanism unrelated to rDNA instability or from inheriting

only the proximal or distal fragment of Chr XII produced during a CICR event (Fig

6A,B).

Finally, to assess whether unopposed replication forks generated by CICR events

contributed to cell death, we returned to the analysis of the ratios of *MAS1* or *ARS1222*

to *CDC45* among the fragmented DNA (Fig 7B,C; Supp Fig 10). Because these three

probes reside on the same chromosome, we would expect to see equivalent fractions in

the fragmented DNA if cells were dying from ERC accumulation. However, the ratios

in the fragmented DNA (*MAS1*/*CDC45* or *ARS1222*/*CDC45*) were nearly 2:1, indicating

that cells that contain an amplification of the distal arm of Chr XII were dying

preferentially relative to cells with the expected 1:1 ratio. Furthermore, the wild type

ARS1222/*CDC45* ratios declined by day 4, suggesting that cell death was now occurring

in cells with normal Chr XII by either ERC accumulation or some other event unrelated

to rDNA instability.

DISCUSSION:

We propose an alternative mechanism for rDNA instability that can generate

multiple forms of rDNA rearrangements that contribute to a shorter life span. Our

proposed mechanism, based on intrachromosomal (pop-out) recombination (Scherer

and Davis, 1979; Rothstein, 1983), can generate canonical ERCs when recombination

occurs between repeats in the same stage of replication (in G1 or G2 cell cycle phases).

When repeats of different replication status recombine (in S phase) the result is

potentially catastrophic for Chr XII and the cell. These recombination events (that we

have named CICR for Catastrophic IntraChromosomal Recombination) result in lariat

structures that terminate at one end in a telomere and a reciprocal product that is a form

of Chr XII with a branch point within the rDNA locus. In the mitosis following a CICR

event, the potential unequal parsing of regions of Chr XII adds an additional layer of

nuance to the relationship between rDNA instability and aging. Most cells in a

population faithfully complete replication; however, cells also have a small, but similar,

chance to form an ERC or undergo a CICR event at rates that are influenced by their

SIR2 or *FOB1* genotypes (Supp Fig 16). The consequences of a CICR event differ from

an event that creates an ERC because ERCs need multiple cell cycles to accumulate to a

toxic level, while CICR events could have a more profound and acute effect on life span.

Immediately following a CICR event, cells may suffer from delays in cell division,

experience secondary effects of Chr XII segmental duplication, or die within one or a

few cell cycles as a result of the loss of essential genes from either the proximal or distal

arm of Chr XII (Fig 6A,B).

The CICR model can explain our genetic, molecular, and kinetic data and is

consistent with some of the literature on the involvement of rDNA instability in

replicative aging. Here we cite three relevant findings: First, in a strain with impaired

rDNA origins (*rARS-Δ3*; Hattori et al., 2022) ERC production in mothers (~7 divisions)

is significantly reduced yet the accumulation of additional rDNA species in the well of

the CHEF is comparable to that of wild type cells. This finding is consistent with the

proposal that the well-retained rDNA is not in the form of autonomously replicating

ERCs but some other form of branched DNA.

Second, a mutation in the histone acetyl transferase (*rtt109*) significantly shortens

RLS (Dang et al., 2009) and increases rDNA instability (Ide et al., 2013). Using atomic

force microscopy to examine DNA that remained in the well of a CHEF gel from the

rtt109 mutant Ide et al. (2013) found lariat structures, with a loop size equal to roughly

one rDNA repeat, at a frequency of ~1% in the *rtt109* mutant and at a frequency of

<0.1% in wild type cells. They proposed the lariats arose as follows: "To initiate rolling

circle replication, the broken end at the RFB must recombine with . . . popped-out

circular molecules (ERC)." However, the fork that is established by this invasion event

is in the non-permissive orientation for replication with respect to the adjacent RFB and

we believe would be unlikely to form a rolling circle replicon.

Third, Zylstra et al. (2023) measured the DNA content of *rad52Δ* mutant cells at

the onset of senescence and found no ERCs but instead found, by whole genome

sequencing, a modest increase (up to ~1.6-fold) of the unique region of Chr XII between

the rDNA and the right telomere. While our finding of a similar fold increase in *MAS1*

relative to *CDC45* among the Chr XII fragments of aged mothers is consistent with their

finding, it is not clear how our explanation invoking CICR would be operating in a

rad52 mutant. From sequence data they concluded that the extra sequences would

constitute a linear fragment of 1.8 Mb but provided no CHEF gel analysis of uncut

chromosomes to support this claim. We would suggest that if CICR had produced this

excess of Chr XII-right sequences these extra copies would be found either retained in

the well or among fragments of Chr XII released from dead cells.

There is also precedence in the literature for the basic feature of the CICR model

that proposes an unusual fate for intramolecular recombination that occurs between

repeats of different replication states. A model proposed by Bruce Futcher (1986; Supp

Fig 8) for the amplification of the 2-micron plasmid involves recombination between its

two inverted repeats, one replicated and the other unreplicated. The resolution of this

cross-over event converts the bidirectionally moving replication forks into two rolling

circle forks that chase each other around the plasmid spinning out multiple tandem

copies of the 6.3 kb repeat. This mechanism is catalyzed by the site-specific

recombinase, Flp1, which is induced when copy number of the 2-micron plasmid is low

(Murray et al., 1987). A second model by Johansson and Diffley (2021) proposes a

scenario involving DNA repair and replication fork restart that can result in DNA re-

replication. They did not specifically address issues at the rDNA, nor address the

consequences on chromosome segregation. However, when we apply their model to

the rDNA locus, we predict that it would generate a cell with two branched Chr XII

chromatids, one with a runaway fork (B2 in Figure 5B) and the other with a fork

blocked at an RFB (D2 in Figure 5D). The key similarities shared by this model, in

which a replicated segment recombines with a re-replicated segment, and the Futcher

and CICR models, are the creation of unopposed replication forks and the consequences

that this imbalance has on genome stability.

In this study we have focused our attention on recombination events in the

rDNA occurring *in cis* between repeats that differ in replication status and have

proposed that the initial consequence of these CICR events is the generation of

unopposed replication forks. Recombination *in trans*, i.e., between the rDNA locus and

ERCs, can also generate unopposed replication forks (Supp Fig 15A). Integration of an

ERC with an unfired origin or an ERC in the process of replication, into a region of the

rDNA that has already been duplicated, generates the potential for re-replication and

production of one runaway fork and a second fork blocked at the RFB. But in this case,

both forks are on the same chromatid, within the rDNA, oriented away from each other

(Supp Fig 15B). The consequences for chromosome integrity are not as dire since the

regions of Chr XII that are proximal and distal to the rDNA are not affected. In

particular, cell division, would not create gene imbalance or broken chromosomes.

While these events may add to the increase in rDNA copy number we find in the well of

mother cells as they age, they cannot be responsible for the increase in the *MAS1*/ or

ARS1222/*CDC45* ratios we find among the fragmented DNA from aging mothers.

rDNA instability and aging have largely been connected through the ERC

hypothesis; however, we propose that intrachromosomal recombination between rDNA

repeats of different replication states also contribute to rDNA instability by producing

aberrant forms of Chr XII that play a major role in the life span trajectories of individual

yeast cells. We believe this mechanistic model better captures the complex nature of the

relationship between rDNA instability and RLS.

METHODS:

Strains used in this study :

Wild-type (WT)   FY4 - *MATα, flo1*::KanMx, *flo9*::NatMx

sir2Δ   FY4 - *MATα, flo1*::KanMx, *flo9*::NatMx, *sir2*::KanMx

fob1Δ   FY4 - *MATα, flo1*::KanMx, *flo9*::NatMx, *fob1*::KanMx

Each of the strains used in this study contains deletion of two genes which

contribute to flocculation. The deletions of *FLO1* and *FLO9* facilitate the separation of

mother cells from daughter cells. Although the laboratory strain we used, FY4, is not

known to flocculate in standard synthetic growth media, flocculation can be induced in

laboratory strains with age (Hendrickson et al., 2018). We also attempted to keep rDNA

copy number consistent between the three strains by selecting transformants with

similar rDNA copy number to our WT strain.

Magnetic labeling and cultivating aging yeast :

Cultures derived from single cells were grown overnight in 2 mL synthetic

complete (SC) media containing 2% glucose. The overnight cultures were transferred

into 25 mL SC media and allowed to grow overnight until saturation. For each strain

and each replicate, 10^9 cells (~50 ODs) were isolated and washed five times in 5 mL

phosphate buffered saline (PBS) before being resuspended in 5 mL PBS + 30%

polyethylene glycol (PEG; w:v). To activate the carboxylate modified magnetic beads,

1-Ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)carbodiimide (0.091 g) and N-Hydroxyl succinimide

(0.541 g) were added to 2 mL MES buffer (1X) along with carboxylate modified

magnetic particles (Seramag speedbeads, 0.2 mL, washed twice in 0.5 mL MES). The

mixture was briefly sonicated before it was placed on an orbital shaker at room

temperature for 45 minutes. After the incubation, the beads were washed three times in

1 mL PBS (1x) and sonicated again before they were added to the yeast cells suspended

in PBS+30% PEG. The cells and beads mixtures were then placed on an orbital shaker

at room temperature for 45 minutes. The magnetically labeled cells were isolated with a

magnetic rack and washed five times in 25 mL SC media before being resuspended in

1mL SC media. A small aliquot (50 μL) of these cells was saved for characterization and

the remaining portion was loaded into two chemostats. The labeled cells were allowed

to adhere to the exterior magnets for 30 minutes before the media and air pumps were

turned on. SC medium was perfused into the cultures at a rate of ~33 mL hr^{-1} which

corresponds to a dilution rate of ~2 hr^{-1}. Air was filtered, hydrated and continuously

perfused into the chemostats using aquarium pumps. A second set of aging chemostats

was performed with the wild type strain and samples were collected on days 1-4.

Uneven loading of samples on the CHEF gels limited the karyotype analysis to days 2

and 4.

Mother cell sampling and purification:

The aging populations were sampled over a six day period by first stopping the

media and air pumps and vortexing the chemostats to free the cells from the walls of

the chemostat. At each sample time ~10^7 cells were isolated. The mother cells were

separated from the daughter cells using a benchtop magnet. Mother cells were washed

on the magnet five times with 1 mL PBS.

Viability and bud scar quantification :

Viability was approximated using the membrane permeability stain propidium

iodide. Briefly, 5 μL of propidum iodide (1 mg/mL) was added to 1 mL PBS containing

5x10^5 cells. Cells were left in the dark for 20 minutes before viability was assessed using

a C6 flow cytometer. For each sample >20,000 cells were measured. Cells were first

gated from the free magnetic particles and viability was assessed using the FL3 channel

(630 nm).

The average replicative age of the culture was assessed using wheat germ

agglutinin congugated to alexafluor 488 (WGA-488). 5x10^5 fixed cells were washed in 1

mL PBS and sonicated before 5 μL 1 mg/mL WGA-488 was added and the culture was

left to stain for 20 minutes. The cells were centrifuged and resuspended in 20 μL PBS.

Z-stack images of the stained cells were collected using a Leica widefield microscope at

100x. The bud scars of 40 cells were quantified for each sample.

Analysis of genomic DNA by CHEF gel electrophoresis and Southern blotting

Mother cells retrieved from the aging chemostats were embedded in 1% GTG

low-melt agarose (10^7 cells for day 0 and $5x10^6$ cells for the remaining days in a 90 μl

plug). Genomic DNA was purified *in situ* according to Tsuchiyama et al. (2013). The

plugs were embedded in a 1% LE agarose gel and electrophoresis was carried out in 2.3

L of 0.5 × Tris Borate EDTA (circulating at 14°C) using a Bio-Rad CHEF DR-II

electrophoresis cell. Conditions for electrophoresis that maximized the resolution of

Chr XII were 100 V for 68 hr, with a switch-time ramped from 300 to 900 sec (Kobayashi

et al., 1998). The gels were stained with Ethidium Bromide (0.3 μg/ml) for 30 minutes,

destained for 30 minutes and photographed with UV illumination. Southern blotting to

GeneScreen membranes and hybridization with ^{32}P-dATP labeled PCR probes were

carried out using standard protocols. We sequentially probed the blots with different

labeled fragments after stripping twice in boiling 0.1xSSC , 1% SDS. The probes

included fragments to unique sequences on Chr IV (*GAL3*), Chr XII (*CDC45*, *MAS1* and

ARS1222), Chr X (*ILM1*), Chr V (*CUP1*), and repeated sequences on 2-micron (*FLP1*) and

the rDNA (*NTS2*). To image and quantify the signal intensities of individual bands

and/or lanes, we exposed the blots to X-ray film and to Bio-Rad Molecular Imaging FX

phosphor, respectively. Phosphor screens were scanned using a Bio-Rad Personal

Molecular Imaging scanner and analyzed using Bio-Rad's Quantity One software.

Live/dead sorting :

To assess viability, 5 μL of propidum iodide (1 mg/mL) was added to 1 mL PBS

containing $5\text{x}10^5$ purified mother *sir2Δ* cells and incubated in the dark for 20 minutes.

The population viability was assessed to be ~40%. 100,000 cells assessed as dead by the

propidium iodide uptake were collected along with a fraction of 100,000 cells assigned

as live by the lack of fluorescence using a Sony MH800 fluorescence assisted cell sorter.

A series of 10-fold dilutions was spotted onto YPD plates to assess the efficacy of the

sort.

Sytox green staining:

At each sampling time ~10^5 cells were fixed in 70% ethanol. Cells were pelleted

and washed twice in 1 mL 50 mM sodium citrate, treated with RNase A (0.25 mg/mL)

and incubated at 50°C for 1 hour. Cells were then treated with proteinase K (0.5

mg/mL) and incubated at 50°C for an additional hour. Sytox green was added to the

samples which were stored at 4°C until they were measured on a Becton Dickinson

Accuri C6 flow cytometer.

Illumina sequencing and copy number quantification

DNA was isolated from mother cells from days 0 and 4 using a phenol

chloroform extraction. DNA libraries were prepared using the Illumina DNA prep kit.

Whole genome sequencing was performed with a NextSeq 550. Copy number was

calculated by evaluating the average read depth over 1000 bp windows and normalized

to a ploidy of 1.

FUNDING SOURCES:

This project was supported by the Biological Mechanisms of Healthy Aging

Training Grant (T32AG066574) to JA, by the University of Washington Nathan Shock

Center of Excellence in Basic Biology of Aging (P30AG013280) to MJD and by National

Institutes of Health (https://www.nih.gov) grant R35 GM122497 to BJB and MKR.

MJD holds the William H. Gates III Endowed Chair in Biomedical Science.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS:

The authors would like to thank Lorraine Symington and Bruce Futcher for

helpful discussions, Josh Cuperus for reading an early version of the manuscript, Bruce

Futcher for insightful comments on this version of the manuscript, Rebecca Martin for

help with Southern probes, and Kelsey Zane for copy editing.

FIGURE LEGENDS:

Figure 1: Structure, transcription, and replication of the rDNA locus on Chr XII

A) The rDNA locus is found on the 2.5 Mb Chr XII and is composed of ~150 copies of

the 9.1 kb rDNA repeating unit. Each unit is identical in sequence and encodes two

transcripts (35S and 5S), a potential origin of replication, and a replication fork barrier

(RFB). The <u>non</u>transcribed <u>s</u>pacers (*NTS1* and *2*) contain multiple regulatory sequences.

NTS2, the unique genes *CDC45* and *MAS1* and the origin of replication *ARS1222* are

used as hybridization probes in this work. B) The Sir2 deacetylase silences 35S

transcription (blue triangles) in roughly half of the rDNA repeats (Dammann et al.,

1993). The origins downstream of actively transcribed units are preferentially activated

for replication (curved arrows; Pasero et al., 2000). Fob1 binds to the replication fork

barrier (RFB) to prevent head-on collisions between the rightward moving replisome

and the leftward moving RNA polymerases in the 35S transcription unit. C) Replication

of this section of chromosome is illustrated as a series of drawings at progressively later

times in S phase. The RFB/Fob1 complex enforces the mostly unidirectional replication

of this large region of Chr XII (Kobayashi and Horiuchi, 1996) with forks moving

leftward toward the centromere.

Figure 2: Karyotyping the genome from aging chemostats using CHEF gel

electrophoresis

A) Miniature aging chemostats allow us to isolate large populations of aging mother

cells. Magnetic beads are covalently bound to mother cells which are retained on the

chemostat wall by an external magnet while being continuously perfused with fresh

media to maintain a constant environment and to remove daughter cells. B) Viability of

mother cells was assessed with propidium iodide and flow cytometry (n > 10,000).

Dashed lines represent the second replicate population. C) Replicative age was

determined by manually counting bud scars of one mother population for each

genotype over time (n = 40 for each day). D and E) Ethidium bromide-stained CHEF

gels made from cells sampled across six days of growth from the two mother

populations of each of the three genotypes. Individual bands contain one or more

comigrating chromosomes. As cells age, additional DNA species become apparent.

Figure 3: Characterizing individual chromosomes and rDNA structural forms in

aging *fob1Δ*, wild type and *sir2Δ* populations

A and B) The autoradiograms of the CHEF gel shown in Fig 2D,E were produced by

Southern hybridization using fragments from *GAL3* and *CDC45* that identified the

positions in the gel of chromosomes IV and XII, respectively. Over the 6 days of

chemostat growth the intensity of the chr IV band diminishes while a smear of smaller

fragments increases. A similar disappearance of Chr XII occurs with appearance of the

same smear of smaller DNA fragments appearing near the end of each lifespan. C)

Hybridization using the rDNA specific probe reveals the age- and genotype-related

appearance of new bands migrating both slower and faster than Chr XII.

Simultaneously, there is a marked increase in rDNA signal in the well. D) Identification

of the new species of DNA bands that hybridize to the *NTS2* probe is revealed by

comparing their migration to known molecules in the gel: *H. wingei* and *S. cerevisiae*

chromosomes (not including *S. c.* Chr XII) from Fig 2D,E and the migration of

supercoiled (sc), nicked circular (nk) and linear (lin) forms of the 2 micron plasmid

(Supp Fig 6A). The labels of these rDNA specific bands in C were derived from this

log/linear plot. E) Tracings of *NTS2* hybridization on days 4 and 6 of the wild type

mothers reveals the relative amounts of the various forms of extrachromosomal rDNA.

Between days 4 and 6 the supercoils have been converted to nicked and linear species,

making their identification and quantification straightforward.

Figure 4: Quantifying rDNA accumulation in aging populations

A) For each day, the total signal intensity from *NTS2* (rDNA) and *CDC45* (Chr XII) was

divided by the total intensity from *GAL3*. This ratio was normalized to day 0 to

calculate fold change in probe intensity. B) Using the fold change of *NTS2* signal and

the days where replicative age increased from the previous day (WT: days 1 – 4, fob1:

days 1 – 6, sir2: days 1 – 3) we calculated the rate of rDNA copy number accumulation

using an exponential fit. C) The un-normalized intensity ratio of *NTS2/GAL3* is plotted

separately for DNA found in the well, full-length Chr XII, ERCs or fragments.

Figure 5: Intrachromosomal recombination between two rDNA repeats that differ in

replication status

A section of the rDNA locus with four repeats is shown with regions that have already

been replicated shaded in blue. A) The two rDNA repeats adjacent to RFBs 2

(replicated) and 4 (not yet replicated) undergo recombination. At the completion of

strand exchange one chromatid ends in a loop containing RFB3 with the replication fork

stalled at RFB2. The other chromatid has RFB1 adjacent to RFB4. B) After completion

of S phase, the top chromatid (B1) extends from the left telomere, through the

centromere ending in a stalled fork. The bottom chromatid (B2) has an unopposed

active fork that can continue replication toward the centromere through the previously

replicated region of the rDNA (runaway fork). C) The same two repeats engage in

recombination but in this case their replication status is reversed. D) After resolution of

the cross-over and completion of S phase, the top chromatid (D1) ends with an rDNA

loop containing RFBs 3 and 4; however, the fork that connects the loop to the right arm

of Chr XII is in the permissive orientation to replicate through RFBs that lie to its left

(rolling circle fork). The other chromatid (D2) remains branched with duplicated

centromeres and a fork blocked at RFB1.

Figure 6: Mitotic consequences for mother cells with runaway or rolling circle forks

If we assume that neither the runaway or rolling circle fork triggers a DNA damage or

mitotic checkpoint, the cell can continue into mitosis producing mother cells with

different fates. A) A mother cell that retains the truncated Chr XII will not survive due

to loss of essential genes. A mother cell that inherits the branched chromosome with

the runaway fork will survive but after replication in the next S phase the two cells will

each inherit a branched chromosome with a new runaway fork in the rDNA. B) The

branched chromosome contains sister chromatids that will create a bridge at mitosis

and be broken at or near the branch point in the rDNA. The chromatid with a rolling

circle fork lacks a centromere so it may segregate randomly. If the daughter inherits the

Chr XII fragment then the mother will either die from a loss of distal essential genes or

receive the complete copy of Chr XII that can be repaired by ligation across the single-

stranded interruption (Johansson and Diffley, 2021) and allow this mother cell to escape

a catastrophic outcome. If the mother inherits the Chr XII fragment then it can restore

the essential genes on Chr XII-right complementing the loss of those genes from the

centromere-proximal fragment. Subsequently a full-length chromosome could be

reconstructed from these two fragments but it will produce an rDNA-only rolling circle

lariat with a single-ended double stranded DNA break. The reciprocal product of this

division creates a mother cell with a full-length copy of Chr XII and the rolling circle

lariat containing second copies of all of the distal single copy genes. In the following S

phases, the rolling circle fork would continue synthesis and new runaway forks would

be produced. A multiply branched chromosome would be the result as the new forks

chase the preexisting forks along the lengthening lariat fragment.

Figure 7: Extra copies of *MAS1* are found among Chr XII DNA fragments from dead

mother cells

A) Quantification of the distribution of *CDC45* hybridization signal among different

forms of ChrXII in the CHEF gel blot from replicate 1 of the aging chemostat of *fob1Δ*,

wild type and *sir2Δ* strains. Most of the signals in days 1-4 remains in the well as a

consequence of branched chromosomal replication intermediates. In all three strains,

by day 6 more than half of the *CDC45* and *MAS1* signals are in fragments of 50-200 kb.

See Supp Fig 11A for data from replicate 2. B) The raw ratio of *MAS1* to *CDC45* among

DNA retained in the wells and the fragmented DNA was determined from the blots of

replicate 1 in Supp Fig 10A and Fig 3B. These un-normalized ratios are shown for the

days where more than 8.5% of the *CDC45* signal was found in fragmented DNA and

differed among the *fob1Δ*, wild type and *sir2Δ* strains. The data for replicate 2 are

shown in Supp Fig S11B. C) The raw ratio of *ARS1222* to *CDC45* on days 2 and 4 of four

wild type cultures is shown for DNA in the well and fragmented DNA. See Supp Fig 12

for images of the blot hybridized with *NTS2* (to detect ERCs as an indicator of relative

age of the population), *ARS1222* and *CDC45*.

Figure 8. **rDNA accumulation is heterogenous in aging populations**

A) Cell cycle distributions across the replicative lifespan of each population were

generated by staining fixed cells with Sytox green and measuring fluorescence intensity

with a flow cytometer (n > 10,000 cells). In addition to aging mother cells, we also

measured the cell cycle profiles of daughters of aging mothers (dashed distribution).

Day 0 cells were predominantly young mothers and had yet to produce daughters. The

x-axis was transformed from arbitrary fluorescence units to genomic content (N). The

1N and 2N peaks, corresponding to the genome before and after replication are present

in each plot. In mother cells, only a subset of cells appears to accumulate additional

DNA. Daughter cell cycle profiles do not show evidence of DNA accumulation. B) The

fraction of the population from the profiles shown in A (replicate 1) and in

Supplemental Figure 13 (replicate 2) with DNA content above 2.3N were quantified. C)

Mother cells from the *sir2Δ* population were collected on day 4 and sorted into live and

dead pools using fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS) and the membrane

permeable stain, propidium iodide. A spot dilution assay was used to validate the

effectiveness of the sort. D) Cell cycle profiles from unsorted, live and dead cells

confirm that dead cells contain a higher fraction of the population with greater than

2.3N DNA content.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS:

Supplementary Figure 1: Variation in rDNA copy number among clonal isolates

A) 28 colonies derived from isogenic stocks of *fob1Δ*, wild-type (WT) and *sir2Δ* cells were grown from single cells and karyotyped by CHEF gel electrophoresis. Southern blots of the CHEF gels were probed with *CDC45* to determine the size of Chr XII. B) From the size of Chr XII we estimated the rDNA copy number of each of the 28 colonies of each genotype shown in A. Dashed lines represent the starting rDNA copy number for the aging time courses.

Supplementary Figure 2: Pathways for the repair of single-ended, double-strand breaks at the rDNA replication fork barrier

A) Three complete repeats of the rDNA locus are shown after activation of the central origin and migration of the bidirectional forks (green arrows) with the rightward fork arrested at the replication fork barrier. Completion of replication of this region of the rDNA locus depends upon a leftward moving fork from an origin located somewhere to the right. A single stranded break on the leading strand template creates a single-ended, double strand break that can engage three possible repair pathways: break induced replication (BIR), replication fork restart (RFR), or homologous recombination (HR). B) The most frequent pathway for repair of single ended DNA breaks is through BIR (ref). The 3′ end (in this case the leading strand that was blocked at the RFB) invades a homologous repeat and establishes a conservative form of replication, characterized by the displacement bubble moving with the growing 3′ end of the invading strand. However, in the rDNA this invading 3′ end immediately would be blocked at the RFB. While this structure is unstable it could be resolved by the

incoming fork from an adjacent repeat. The number of rDNA repeats in this repaired

chromatid would depend on which repeat in the sister chromatid was used to initiate

BIR. C) Replication restart at a broken fork involves the formation of two separate

displacement loops initiated by each strand. This intermediate contains a Holliday

junction that is cleaved and repaired, resulting in reestablishment of semiconservative

replication at the new fork. That fork is again blocked but is stable and can be resolved

by an incoming fork from an adjacent repeat to the right. Depending on which repeat is

used for the initial invasion, the completed rDNA array may contain more or fewer

repeats. D) Homologous recombination, which involves breaking and rejoining of both

strands, does not repair a single ended break. E-G) The same three mechanisms of

repair can also occur intramolecularly with differing outcomes: BIR and RFR generate

fragments ending in lariat structures, resembling rolling circle replication intermediates,

while HR generates an ERC. E) The fork in the BIR lariat remains arrested at the RFB

and cannot extend into the adjacent sequence. The lariat is likely to be structurally

unstable resolving into the original linear fragment. F) The RFR lariat contains a

covalent circle, making it structurally more stable. The fork is again arrested at the RFB

and unable to use the circle as a replication template. As there is no incoming fork to

allow its resolution, it is likely to persist in this state. G) HR does not involve the

broken DNA end so the linear fragment remains unrepaired; however, it results in the

production of an ERC, with the number of repeats depending on which repeat was

chosen for the HR event. The major productive events and outcomes are highlighted in

green.

Supplementary Figure 3: Southern blot analysis of replicate 2 aging populations

The Southern blot of the second replicate CHEF gel was probed with *GAL3, CDC45* and

NTS2 as in Figure 3A,B,C.

Supplementary Figure 4: Southern blot analysis of Chr VIII and X in aging

populations

The two CHEF gels shown in Figure 3D,E were sequentially probed with *CUP1* and

ILM1. (A and B are from replicate 1; C and D are from replicate 2.) While these probes

are present as a single chromosomal copy, both have also been seen to loop out and

form extrachromosomal circles (ECC). No evidence of ECC DNA was detected in aging

mothers.

Supplementary Figure 5: Fragmented DNA fraction serves as a proxy for viability

The fraction of signal in the range of fragmented DNA was quantified for *CDC45,*

CUP1, GAL3, and *ILM1*. The signal for fragmented DNA increases in a genotype

specific manner that mirrors changes in viability.

Supplementary Figure 6: Quantification of the native 2-micron plasmid

A) The CHEF gel for replicate 2 was probed with *FLP1* and used to confirm how

circular DNA migrates on CHEF gels and was used to identify forms of ERCs shown in

Fig 3D,E. B) We quantified the 2-micron signal by position in the gel—whether it was

retained in the well or whether it was able to migrate and normalized the signal relative

to *GAL3*. While there is a modest increase in total 2-micron over time, we do not see it

disproportionately accumulating in the well. We also note that the three genotypes

appear to maintain different copy numbers of 2-micron.

Supplementary Figure 7: **Quantification of signal in the well for** *CUP1*, *ILM1, CDC45,*

and *NTS2*

Chromosomes VIII and X were quantified using probes for *CUP1* and *ILM1*

respectively. Using either *CUP1* or *ILM1* to normalize rDNA amplification produced

similar results to those shown in Fig. 4A. While *GAL3* (Chr IV) was selected for the

chromosome to normalize against (Fig 4A), the analysis does not dramatically change if

we select either of these other single copy probes on other chromosomes.

Supplementary Figure 8: **Futcher model for 2-micron amplification**

The 6.3 kb 2-micron plasmid contains two 599 bp inverted repeats that partition the

plasmid into two unique loops—one that contains the origin of replication (ORI) and

the other that contains the *FLP1* gene. The plasmid exists in two isomeric forms (A and

B; form B is shown at the left) that differ in the orientation of one loop with respect to

the other. Their interconversion is catalyzed by the site-specific recombination activity

of Flp1 that recognizes the FRT site in each repeat. When recombination between

inverted repeats of differing replication status occurs, the two forks that would

normally meet at a site opposite the origin to terminate replication, are now moving in

the same direction around the 2-micron plasmid. As they chase each other around the

plasmid, they generate a loop of increasing length that is composed of multimers of the

2-micron plasmid. The Futcher model was the first example where recombination

between repeats of different replication status was proposed to lead to DNA

amplification. In the CICR model, we are proposing that recombination between *direct*

repeats in the rDNA also leads to the uncoupling of opposing replication forks. In this

case, the two forks are ultimately found on different DNA molecules without opposing

forks to complete replication. Redrawn from Futcher (1986).

Supplementary Figure 9: **Southern blot analysis of the region distal to the rDNA using *MAS1* as the probe**

The CHEF gels shown in Figure 2D,E were probed with *MAS1*, a single copy sequence located distal to the rDNA. (See Fig 1 for the positions of *MAS1* relative to the rDNA and to *CDC45*.) Scans of the phosphor screens of the *MAS1* and *CDC45* blots were used to quantify the hybridization signal in the well and chromosomal fragments. The *MAS1/CD45* ratios are presented in Fig 7A.

Supplementary Figure 10: **Quantification of *CDC45* and *MAS1* hybridization of the CHEF gel of replicate 2 of the aging chemostat**

See Figure 7A,B for a description of these data.

Supplementary Figure 11: **Southern blots of the CHEF gel with four replicates of aging populations of wild type cells**

Four populations of wild type cells (S-1 through S-4) were aged for 4 days and the samples analyzed by CHEF gel electrophoresis. The Southern blot was sequentially hybridized with *NTS2* (A), *ARS1222* (B), and *CDC45* (C). The *ARS1222/CDC45* ratios for days 2 and 4 are presented in Fig 7B.

Supplementary Figure 12: Assessment of differences in copy number between the rDNA-proximal and -distal regions of Chr XII

A,B) Read-depth of Illumina sequence analysis across Chr XII from day 4 of aging chemostat 1 compared to the day 0 sample. The sequences were aligned to version 3 of the *S. cerevisiae* reference genome (Sac cer3) which has two copies of the rDNA sequence. C,D) High resolution of read-depth across the single copy regions of Chr XII.

Note: the *CDC45* signal in the fragmented DNA for the wild type day 4 sample only

constitutes ~12 of the total signal (Fig 7A) and thus may not produce a significant copy

number change in the read-depth for the unfractionated sample that we sequenced.

Supplementary Figure 13: rDNA accumulation in replicate 2 of the aging populations

DNA content as a function of time and genotype was determined for replicate 2, as

described in Fig 8A. Mothers are indicated by filled histograms and daughters by open

histograms.

Supplementary Figure 14: Live/dead FACS sort of replicate 2 mothers

See Fig 8D for details.

Supplementary Figure 15: Generation of unopposed replication forks by

intermolecular recombination between ERCs and the rDNA locus

A) Chr XII is shown in mid-S phase with replication initiation having occurred within

the rDNA and in the flanking single copy sequences. The ERCs that is in the process of

replication is shown integrating into one of the replicated branches of the rDNA by

homologous recombination. Alternately, if the licensed ERC integrates, a subsequent

activation of its resident origin leads to the same intermediate that has bidirectional

forks with the leftward fork progressing toward the centromere and the rightward fork

being blocked at the RFB. Integration of either of these ERC forms into the unreplicated

portion of the rDNA locus only increases the length of the rDNA locus without creating

an imbalance of forks. B) By the end of S phase, no more licensed origins remain and

the single pair of bidirectional forks persist as there are no opposing forks to complete

replication termination. If these cells complete mitosis, neither cell would experience a

broken chromosome or an imbalance of proximal and distal single copy sequences. As

a result of its branched structure the top chromatid be retained in the well and

contribute an increase in rDNA signal in the well.

Supplementary Figure 16: Overview of different modes of yeast aging

Homologous recombination between rDNA repeats on the same chromatid can produce

either CICR events (left) or ERCs (right). The rates of these two forms of homologous

recombination may differ as CICR depends on the recombination occurring between

repeats of differing replication status and therefore can only occur during S phase.

ERCs could occur through the cell cycle. However, the time between the initial

recombination event and the time of death differ, as ERCs require many divisions to

accumulate to lethal levels while the consequences of CICR events are more proximal.

Loss of viability can also occur through mechanisms that do not involve the rDNA.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

Centromere (proximal) ←   Right Telomere → (distal)

Recombination with a centromere proximal, replicated repeat

One strand is a closed loop

Completion of recombination

Centromere-proximal fragment ends in a loop

Fork blocked by RFB

Chromatid with a runaway fork

B After the completion of S phase

B1   Blocked lariat
B2   Runaway fork

Runaway fork continues to replicate through the rDNA locus

B1
B2

C

Centromere (proximal) ←   Right Telomere → (distal)

Recombination with a distal, replicated repeat

One strand is a closed loop.

Completion of recombination

ChrXII-R telomere fragment ending in a loop

Rolling circle fork

Chromatid with a fork blocked at the RFB

D After the completion of S phase

D1   Rolling circle fork
D2   Fork arrested at RFB

Rolling circle fork continues to create tandem rDNA repeats

D1
D2

Figure 6

A Mother cell at G2/M with a runaway fork

Sister centromeres
Runaway fork

Fates of mother cell after segregation in mitosis

Sister centromeres segregate

Missing essential genes on chr XII-R — Lethal

or

Runaway fork — Segmental aneuploidy with expanding rDNA copy number

Next S-phase

Runaway fork resolved

New runaway forks

Runaway forks continue

○ origin   ☆ centromere
⌇ RFB   ■ telomere
▢ Fob1   — rDNA
* Site of replication termination

Replication perpetuates the terminally branched chrXII with a runaway fork (⇦) in the rDNA

B Mother cell at G2/M with a rolling circle fork

Sister centromeres   Rolling circle fork

Breakage of anaphase bridge in mitosis

Fates of mother cell after segregation in mitosis.

Lariat inherited by daughter

or

Missing essential genes on chr XII-R — Lethal

Repair restores intact chr XII — Escaper

Cross-over restores intact chr XII with variable number of rDNA repeats

Rolling circle fork

Unrepaired double stranded break

Checkpoint arrested with expanding rDNA copy number

Lariat inherited by mother

or

Repair restores intact chr XII

Rolling circle fork

Segmental aneuploidy with expanding rDNA copy number

Rolling circle fork

Runaway fork from first S phase   Runaway forks from second S phase

Figure 7

Figure 8