

1 **Checkpoint inhibition of origin firing prevents** 2 **inappropriate replication outside of S-phase**

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13

13 **Abstract**

14 Across eukaryotes, checkpoints maintain the order of cell cycle events in the face of
15 DNA damage or incomplete replication. Although a wide array of DNA lesions
16 activates the checkpoint kinases, whether and how this response differs in different
17 phases of the cell cycle remains poorly understood. The S-phase checkpoint for
18 example results in the slowing of replication, which in the budding yeast
19 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is caused by Rad53 kinase-dependent inhibition of the
20 initiation factors Sld3 and Dbf4. Despite this, we show here that Rad53
21 phosphorylates both of these substrates throughout the cell cycle at the same sites
22 as in S-phase, suggesting roles for this pathway beyond S-phase. Indeed we show
23 that Rad53-dependent inhibition of Sld3 and Dbf4 limits re-replication in G2/M phase,
24 preventing inappropriate gene amplification events. In addition we show that
25 inhibition of Sld3 and Dbf4 after DNA damage in G1 phase prevents premature
26 replication initiation at all origins at the G1/S transition. This study redefines the
27 scope and specificity of the 'S-phase checkpoint' with implications for understanding
28 the roles of this checkpoint in the majority of cancers that lack proper cell cycle
29 controls.

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31 Introduction

32 It is vitally important that in every cell division the entire genome is replicated once
33 and only once. In eukaryotes this is achieved by linking DNA replication control to the
34 cell cycle (Siddiqui et al., 2013). The first step in replication is the formation of the
35 pre-replicative complex (pre-RC) at origins – a process called ‘licensing’. Licensing
36 involves the Orc1-6 and Cdc6-dependent loading of double hexamers of the Mcm2-7
37 helicase on double stranded DNA. Licensing is restricted to late mitosis/early G1
38 phase by the activity of the APC/C, which eliminates licensing inhibitors such as
39 cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK) and geminin in this window of the cell cycle. In the
40 budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, which lacks geminin, CDK inhibits
41 licensing from late G1 phase until mitosis by multiple mechanisms including direct
42 phosphorylation of Orc2/Orc6, nuclear exclusion of the Mcm2-7 complex and by
43 mediating SCF^{CDC4}-dependent degradation of Cdc6 (Blow and Dutta, 2005; Nguyen
44 et al., 2001).

45 Importantly, Mcm2-7 double hexamers loaded in late M/early G1 phase are inactive
46 and replication initiation can only occur after the inactivation of the APC/C at the
47 G1/S transition. APC/C inactivation allows the accumulation of S-phase CDK and
48 Dbf4-dependent (DDK) kinase activities (Labib, 2010). DDK directly phosphorylates
49 the inactive Mcm2-7 double hexamers, generating a binding site for firing factors
50 including Sld3/Sld7 and Cdc45, while CDK phosphorylates Sld3 and an additional
51 initiation factor Sld2, which via phospho-interactions with Dpb11, results in replisome
52 assembly by poorly understood mechanisms (Riera et al., 2017). This duality of
53 function of CDK, both as an inhibitor of licensing and as an activator of the replisome
54 is critical to ensure once per cell cycle replication (Diffley, 2004).

55 In light of the importance of the linkage between DNA replication control and cell
56 cycle progression, multiple checkpoints exist to regulate DNA synthesis and genome

57 integrity before (G1 checkpoint), during (S-phase checkpoint) and after S-phase
58 (G2/M checkpoint, Hartwell and Weinert, 1989; Kastan and Bartek, 2004). These
59 checkpoints are mediated by the PI3 kinase superfamily checkpoint kinases
60 ATM/ATR (Tel1/Mec1 in budding yeast) and the effector checkpoint kinases
61 Chk1/Chk2 (Chk1/Rad53 in budding yeast).

62 In G1 phase, DNA damage such as UV photoproducts causes checkpoint-dependent
63 delays in the onset of DNA replication by inhibition of G1/S cyclins (Lanz et al., 2019;
64 Shaltiel et al., 2015). In budding yeast this occurs in part by Rad53-dependent
65 phosphorylation and inhibition of the Swi6 subunit of the transcriptional activator SBF
66 (SCB binding factor) leading to reduced cyclin transcription (Sidorova and Breeden,
67 1997) and in humans by ATM-Chk2 mediated stabilisation of p53, as well as by
68 checkpoint-dependent degradation of cyclin D and Cdc25A (Lanz et al., 2019;
69 Shaltiel et al., 2015).

70 Although CDK and DDK are activated at the G1/S transition, normally origin firing
71 occurs as a continuum throughout S-phase, with some origins firing in the first half of
72 S-phase (early origins) and others in the second half (late origins). When replication
73 forks emanating from early firing origins stall, for example due to DNA lesions,
74 activation of the S-phase checkpoint kinase response results in the dramatic slowing
75 of replication rates (Painter and Young, 1980; Paulovich and Hartwell, 1995), which
76 occurs in large part through inhibition of late firing origins (Yekezare et al., 2013). In
77 budding yeast, Rad53 blocks late origin firing by directly inhibiting two replication
78 initiation factors; the DDK subunit Dbf4 and the CDK target Sld3 (Lopez-Mosqueda et
79 al., 2010; Zegerman and Diffley, 2010). The checkpoint-mediated inhibition of origin
80 firing likely occurs by similar mechanisms in human cells as the checkpoint kinases
81 also bind to and inhibit the Sld3 orthologue Treslin (Boos et al., 2011; Guo et al.,
82 2015) and inhibit DDK (Costanzo et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2012). One function of
83 inhibiting origin firing during S-phase in the presence of DNA lesions is to prevent the

84 exhaustion of essential factors, such as topoisomerase activities, by excessive
85 numbers of replisomes (Morafraille et al., 2019; Toledo et al., 2017).

86 A key proposed feature of the DNA damage checkpoints is that the response is
87 tailored to the cell cycle phase in which the DNA damage occurred. Despite this,
88 there is very little evidence to suggest that substrate specificity of the checkpoint
89 kinases changes during the cell cycle. Indeed, in budding yeast most forms of DNA
90 damage and replication stress converge on the single effector kinase Rad53, but how
91 different checkpoint responses in different cell cycle phases can be mediated by a
92 single kinase is not known. In this study we set out to explore the specificity of Rad53
93 towards the replication substrates Sld3 and Dbf4 across the cell cycle in the budding
94 yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. We show that Rad53 phosphorylates both of these
95 substrates throughout the cell cycle at the same sites as in S-phase. From this we
96 hypothesised that although these substrates are deemed to be targets of the ‘S-
97 phase checkpoint’, Rad53 may also prevent aberrant origin firing outside of S-phase.
98 Indeed we show that Rad53-dependent inhibition of Sld3 and Dbf4 limits re-initiation
99 of replication in G2/M phase and also prevents premature firing of all origins, not just
100 late origins, at the G1/S transition. This study overhauls our understanding of the cell
101 cycle phase specificity of the ‘S-phase checkpoint’ and provides a novel mechanism
102 that restricts replication initiation to a specific window of the cell cycle after DNA
103 damage.

104 **Results and Discussion**

105 **Sld3 and Dbf4 are phosphorylated by Rad53 outside of S-phase**

106 Since the DNA damage checkpoint response can be activated in all phases of the
107 cell cycle, we addressed whether the replication factors Sld3 and Dbf4 could be
108 targeted by Rad53 outside of S-phase *in vivo* in budding yeast. To test this, we first
109 analysed the consequences of DNA damage in G1 phase cells arrested with the
110 mating pheromone alpha factor (Figure 1A). These experiments were conducted with
111 strains containing a null mutation in the alpha factor protease, *bar1* Δ , to ensure that
112 cells were fully arrested in G1 phase and had not started DNA replication. Addition of
113 the UV mimetic drug 4-NQO to G1 phase cells resulted in robust Rad53 activation,
114 as determined by the accumulation of the phospho-shifted forms of the kinase
115 (Figure 1B, 1C). Importantly, we observed a dramatic increase in lower mobility forms
116 of Sld3 when Rad53 was activated in G1 phase (Figure 1B), which was indeed
117 Rad53-dependent (Supplementary Figure 1). For Dbf4, which is an APC/C substrate
118 and partially degraded in alpha factor arrested cells (Ferreira et al., 2000), we also
119 observed a mobility shift in G1 phase coincident with Rad53 activation (Figure 1C).

120 To test whether Sld3 and Dbf4 could also be phosphorylated by Rad53 after DNA
121 replication is complete we performed the same experiment as in Figure 1A-C, except
122 in cells arrested in G2/M phase with nocodazole (Figure 1D). Significantly, we
123 observed a Rad53-dependent mobility shift in Sld3 and Dbf4, even in G2/M arrested
124 cells (Figure 1E and 1F). Sld3 and Dbf4 are phosphorylated by other kinases in
125 G2/M, such as by CDK (Holt et al., 2009), giving rise to additional isoforms of
126 Sld3/Dbf4 proteins even in Rad53 null cells (* Figure 1E and 1F). Note that the CDK
127 phosphorylated form of Sld3 is visible in Figure 1E as this is a phos-tag gel.

128 Previously we have identified the serine and threonine residues in Sld3 and Dbf4 that
129 are directly phosphorylated by Rad53 in S-phase (Zegerman and Diffley, 2010). We

130 mapped 38 such phospho-sites in Sld3 and 19 sites in Dbf4, of which 4 were critical
131 for the Rad53-dependent inhibition of Dbf4. Mutation of these serine/threonine
132 residues to alanine in Sld3 and Dbf4 generated alleles that are refractory to Rad53
133 phosphorylation in S-phase (Zegerman and Diffley, 2010) and are hereafter referred
134 to as *sld3-A* and *dbf4-A* respectively. We reasoned that if the same sites in Sld3 and
135 Dbf4 are phosphorylated by Rad53 throughout the cell cycle, then *sld3-A* and *dbf4-A*
136 should be defective in Rad53-dependent phosphorylation in G1 and G2/M as well. In
137 G1 phase the Sld3-A protein demonstrated a dramatic loss of Rad53 phosphorylation
138 (Figure 2A), consistent with direct phosphorylation of Sld3 by Rad53 at the same
139 sites as in S-phase. We also observed a similar result with the Dbf4-A protein in G1
140 phase after Rad53 activation (Figure 2B). As in G1 phase, both Sld3-A and Dbf4-A
141 showed greatly reduced phosphorylation during Rad53 activation in G2/M phase
142 (Figure 2C and 2D). Together, Figures 1 and 2 show that although Sld3 and Dbf4 are
143 considered to be ‘S-phase checkpoint’ substrates of Rad53, they are phosphorylated
144 at the same sites as in S-phase after DNA damage in G1 and G2 phase.

145 **Rad53-dependent phosphorylation of Sld3 and Dbf4 reduces re-replication in** 146 **G2 phase**

147 We have previously shown that Rad53 phosphorylates Sld3 and Dbf4 in S-phase to
148 inhibit origin firing (Lopez-Mosqueda et al., 2010; Zegerman and Diffley, 2010). As
149 Sld3 and Dbf4 are phosphorylated at the same sites by Rad53 after DNA damage in
150 both G1 and G2 phase (Figure 1 and 2) we wondered whether this phosphorylation
151 could also be required to inhibit replication initiation outside of S-phase. DNA
152 replication is tightly restricted to S-phase in large part by the action of CDK, which
153 prevents licensing outside of late M/early G1 phase. As a result, transient reduction
154 of CDK-activity in G2/M phase is sufficient to induce re-replication (Dahmann et al.,
155 1995). To test a role for Rad53 phosphorylation of Sld3/Dbf4 in re-replication control
156 we first combined the *sld3-A/dbf4-A* alleles, which cannot be inhibited by Rad53

157 (Zegerman and Diffley, 2010), with a hypomorphic mutant of the CDK catalytic
158 subunit Cdc28 (*cdc28-as1*). This allele of Cdc28 is analogue sensitive (as) and is
159 inhibited by the addition of the ATP competitive inhibitor 1-NM-PP1. Interestingly we
160 observed that the *sld3-A/dbf4-A* alleles are synthetically sick with *cdc28-as1* in the
161 presence of sub-lethal doses of 1-NM-PP1 (Figure 3A), suggesting that inhibition of
162 Sld3 and Dbf4 by Rad53 is important in cells that have reduced CDK activity.

163 To specifically test whether the Rad53-dependent inhibition of origin firing is
164 important to prevent re-replication, we combined the *sld3-A/dbf4-A* alleles with
165 mutants that circumvent the CDK-dependent inhibition of licensing. Over-expression
166 of Cdc6, forcing the nuclear localisation of the Mcm2-7 complex (through an Mcm7-
167 2xNLS fusion) and mutation of the CDK phosphorylation sites in ORC is sufficient to
168 induce re-replication in G2/M phase (Finn and Li, 2013; Nguyen et al., 2001) and has
169 been shown to induce Rad53 activation (Archambault et al., 2005; Green and Li,
170 2005). Importantly, conditional over-expression of licensing mutants that cannot be
171 inhibited by CDK combined with *sld3-A* and *dbf4-A* led to an increase in the total re-
172 replication in nocodazole arrested cells (Figure 3B – compare FACS overlay red vs
173 black). This suggests that Rad53-dependent inhibition of replication initiation can
174 reduce inappropriate replication in G2 phase.

175 One of the consequences of re-replication is the generation of head-to-tail tandem
176 gene amplifications, a process termed RRIGA (re-replication induced gene
177 amplification, Green et al., 2010). To examine whether the Rad53-dependent
178 inhibition of origin firing helps to prevent RRIGA we adapted an assay to
179 quantitatively assess gene amplification events in G2/M arrested cells (Finn and Li,
180 2013). Briefly a marker gene (in this case LEU2, which allows growth on media
181 lacking leucine) was split with some remaining homology across an origin that re-
182 initiates when licensing control is lost (ARS317). Re-initiation at ARS317 followed by
183 fork-breakage and strand annealing at the regions of LEU2 homology results in gene

184 amplification and the generation of a functional LEU2 gene (Figure 3C and
185 Supplementary Figure 2). In this assay, as in Figure 3B, the re-replication mutants
186 were induced only in G2/M arrested cells. In contrast to wild type yeast or the *sld3-*
187 *A/dbf4-A* strain alone, expression of the licensing mutants by the addition of
188 galactose resulted in a large increase in RRIGA events, as expected (Figure 3D).
189 Importantly RRIGA events were even greater when the mutants that allow licensing
190 in the presence of CDK were combined with the *sld3-A/dbf4-A* alleles (Figure 3D).
191 This assay demonstrates that the checkpoint kinase Rad53 indeed reduces gene
192 amplification events after re-replication through inhibition of Sld3 and Dbf4, even in
193 G2/M arrested cells.

194 **Rad53 prevents precocious origin firing after DNA damage in G1 phase**

195 DNA damage in G1 phase delays the G1/S transition, which from humans to yeast,
196 involves the checkpoint kinase-dependent down-regulation of G1/S cyclins, delaying
197 cell cycle entry (Bertoli et al., 2013; Lanz et al., 2019; Shaltiel et al., 2015; Sidorova
198 and Breeden, 1997). Here we have shown that DNA damage in G1 phase also
199 results in the inhibitory checkpoint phosphorylation of two replication initiation factors,
200 Sld3 and Dbf4 (Figure 1 and 2), suggesting that this might be an additional
201 mechanism to prevent premature DNA replication at the G1/S transition (Figure 4A).
202 To specifically analyse the consequences of DNA damage in G1 phase we added 4-
203 NQO to G1 arrested yeast cells and then released cells into S-phase in fresh medium
204 without 4-NQO. Crucially, this approach resulted in robust Rad53 activation in G1
205 phase, such that cells enter S-phase with an already active checkpoint (Figure 4D
206 and Supplementary Figure 3C). Rad53 activation in G1 phase resulted in the slowing
207 of the G1/S transition as detected by the delay in budding (a G1 cyclin mediated
208 event) and delay in DNA synthesis (Supplementary Figure 3A-B). Despite this the
209 *sld3-A dbf4-A* alleles caused little difference in S-phase progression after DNA
210 damage in G1 phase, compared to the wild type strain (Supplementary Figure 3A).

211 As Rad53 is known to inhibit CDK activation through phosphorylation of the Swi6
212 subunit of the transcriptional activator SBF (Sidorova and Breeden, 1997), we
213 wondered whether Rad53-dependent inhibition of both origin firing and G1/S
214 transcription might prevent precocious DNA replication after damage in G1 phase
215 (Figure 4A). To test this we over-expressed a truncated form of the SBF transcription
216 factor Swi4 (Swi4-t), which lacks the C-terminus required for interaction with Swi6
217 and thus cannot be inhibited by Rad53 (Sidorova and Breeden, 1997). Over-
218 expression of Swi4-t indeed resulted in faster progression through the G1/S transition
219 in the presence of 4-NQO (Supplementary Figure 3D), as expected (Sidorova and
220 Breeden, 1997). Importantly the combination of expression of Swi4-t together with
221 *sld3-A dbf4-A* resulted in much faster S-phase progression after DNA damage in G1
222 phase compared to Swi4-t expression alone (Figure 4B). These differences in the
223 onset of DNA replication between *swi4-t* with and without *sld3-A/dbf4-A* were not due
224 to differences in the G1/S transition as these strains budded at the same time (Figure
225 4C) and both strains also exhibited similar levels of Rad53 activation (Figure 4D).
226 Together this suggests that Rad53 activation in G1 phase prevents precocious DNA
227 replication initiation by not only inhibiting G1/S transcription, but also by inhibiting
228 Sld3 and Dbf4.

229 Activation of Rad53 during S-phase caused by fork stalling/DNA damage at early
230 replicons results in inhibition of subsequent (late) origin firing, which in yeast is
231 mediated by inhibition of Sld3 and Dbf4 (Lopez-Mosqueda et al., 2010; Zegerman
232 and Diffley, 2010). We therefore wondered whether the accelerated S-phase we
233 observe when we combine *swi4-t* with *sld3-A dbf4-A*, is simply due to the canonical
234 S-phase checkpoint inhibition of late origin firing or whether by activating Rad53 in
235 G1 phase we are actually causing a delay in genome duplication from all origins. To
236 assess this we analysed the replication dynamics of the time-course in Figure 4B-D
237 by high-throughput sequencing and copy number analysis. At the earliest time-point

238 (20mins), while the *swi4-t* over-expressing strain alone had barely begun to replicate
239 (Figure 4E, chromosome VII as an example), the *swi4-t sld3-A dbf4-A* strain showed
240 peaks of replication initiation at the earliest firing origins (for example see *, Figure
241 4E), even though Rad53 is highly activated (Figure 4D). By analysis of initiation at all
242 origins, split into quintiles according to their normal firing time, we observe much
243 greater firing of early origins in the *swi4-t sld3-A dbf4-A* strain compared to *swi4-t*
244 alone throughout the time-course (Figure 4F and Supplementary Figure 4). Over
245 time, we also observe an increase in later firing origins in the *swi4-t sld3-A dbf4-A*
246 strain (arrows Figure 4F and Supplementary Figure 4), suggesting that the relative
247 timing of origin firing is not affected. Together this demonstrates that activation of
248 Rad53 and inhibition of Sld3 and Dbf4 in G1 phase contributes to the mechanism
249 preventing the onset of DNA replication from all origins, not just late firing origins, in
250 the presence of DNA damage (Figure 4A).

251 If the checkpoint-mediated inhibition of G1/S transcription and Sld3/Dbf4 both
252 contribute to prevent precocious S-phase entry then we hypothesised that loss of
253 both pathways should show synthetic lethality in the presence of DNA damage. We
254 have previously conducted genetic interaction analysis of the *sld3-A/dbf4-A* alleles
255 with the yeast whole genome gene knock-out collection in the presence of the DNA
256 damaging agent phleomycin (Morafraille et al., 2019). Significantly loss of function of
257 genes that result in a delay in the G1/S transition, such as *CLN2*, *SWI4* and *BCK2*
258 (Di Como et al., 1995) improved the growth of *sld3-A/dbf4-A* in the presence of
259 phleomycin (suppressors, Supplementary Figure 5), whereas loss of function of
260 genes that would result in the acceleration of G1/S, such as *WHI5* and *SIC1* (Bertoli
261 et al., 2013) were synthetic sick with the *sld3-A/dbf4-A* alleles (enhancers,
262 Supplementary Figure 5). These genetic interactions are consistent with an important
263 role for Rad53-dependent inhibition of origin firing in preventing precocious
264 replication after DNA damage in G1 phase.

265 Here we show that the two critical targets of the S-phase checkpoint mediated
266 inhibition of origin firing, Sld3 and Dbf4, are actually regulated by Rad53 after DNA
267 damage throughout the cell cycle (Figures 1 and 2). This has important implications
268 for understanding the consequences of inappropriate re-replication in human cells,
269 where the role of the checkpoint differs depending on the cell cycle phase in which
270 re-replication occurs (Klotz-Noack et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2007). By combining tight
271 cell cycle arrests with the separation-of-function mutants, *sld3-A dbf4-A*, we show
272 specifically that the checkpoint-dependent inhibition of origin firing limits further re-
273 replication and gene amplifications in G2 phase when licensing control is
274 compromised (Figure 3). This pathway is likely to be evolutionarily conserved, as
275 checkpoint activation in S-phase in human cells also appears to limit re-replication
276 through inhibition of Dbf4 (Lee et al., 2012). As tandem head-to-tail duplications are a
277 prominent feature of many cancers (Menghi et al., 2018), knowledge of the pathways
278 that prevent this form of structural variation may be important for understanding
279 oncogenesis.

280 In addition to preventing re-replication in G2, we show that the checkpoint also
281 inhibits the replication initiation factors Sld3 and Dbf4 to delay origin firing after DNA
282 damage in G1 phase (Figure 4). This likely increases the time for DNA repair to occur
283 before replication begins and may also serve to increase the window of time where
284 origin firing and licensing are mutually exclusive, preventing re-replication. It is
285 interesting that failure to inhibit Sld3 and Dbf4 alone has little effect on the G1/S
286 transition (Supplementary Figure 3A), probably because Sld3 (and Sld2) act
287 downstream of CDK activation (Figure 4A). Inhibition of origin firing may therefore be
288 a failsafe mechanism when inhibition of G1/S CDK activity is incomplete. Mutations in
289 genes such as Rb and p53 that control the G1/S transition and the G1 checkpoint
290 response respectively are amongst the most common mutations in cancers
291 (Malumbres and Barbacid, 2001; Massague, 2004). Work from yeast to humans has

292 shown that defects in the G1/S transition results in increased dependence on the
293 checkpoint kinases for survival (Rundle et al., 2017; Sidorova and Breeden, 2002).
294 The checkpoint inhibition of all origin firing as a failsafe to prevent precocious S-
295 phase entry described in this study (Figure 4) may provide a potential mechanistic
296 rationale for the selective targeting of p53/Rb mutant cancers using Chk1 and ATR
297 inhibitors, which are currently in clinical trials (Bradbury et al., 2020).

298

299 **Figure legends**

300 **Figure 1.** Dbf4 and Sld3 are phosphorylated by Rad53 after DNA damage in G1 and
301 G2 phase

302 A) Flow cytometry of strains arrested in G1 phase with the mating pheromone alpha
303 factor. Strains were held in G1 phase, with or without the addition of 10µg/ml 4-NQO
304 for the indicated times. All strains are *bar1Δ* to maintain G1 arrest.

305 B) Western blot of Sld3 (anti-myc) and Rad53 phosphorylation from the experiment
306 outlined in A. Sld3 was resolved on a phos-tag SDS PAGE gel.

307 C) As B, but for Dbf4. Both blots are from SDS-PAGE.

308 D) As A, except strains were arrested in G2/M in nocodazole before the addition of 4-
309 NQO. All strains are *sml1Δ*.

310 E) Western blot of Sld3 (anti-myc) and Rad53 phosphorylation as in B from the
311 experiment outlined in D. Sld3 was resolved on a phos-tag SDS PAGE gel, * is CDK
312 phosphorylated Sld3.

313 F) As E, but for Dbf4. Dbf4 is phosphorylated by other kinases in G2/M, resulting in
314 residual phosphorylated forms remaining in *rad53Δ* cells *.

315

316 **Figure 2.** Rad53 phosphorylates Sld3 and Dbf4 in G1 and G2 phase at the same
317 residues as in S-phase

318 A) and B) as Figure 1 B/C. *sld3-A* and *dbf4-A* refers to mutant alleles with Rad53
319 phosphorylation sites mutated to alanine (38 sites for Sld3 and 19 sites for Dbf4). All
320 strains are *bar1Δ*.

321 C) as Figure 1E, except this is Western blot from an SDS-PAGE gel.

322 D) as Figure 1F.

323

324 **Figure 3.** Checkpoint-dependent inhibition of origin firing prevents re-replication in
325 G2 phase

326 A) Growth assay of the indicated strains

327 B) Flow cytometry of the indicated strains grown overnight in YPr raffinose, then
328 arrested in G2/M with nocodazole. After addition of fresh nocodazole, 2% galactose
329 was added for the indicated times to express the licensing mutants. Right, overlay
330 between the 0 and 2 hour timepoints for the licensing mutant strain with (red) or
331 without (black) the *sld3-A/dbf4-A* alleles.

332 C) Schematic diagram of RRIGA assay for gene amplification events. Re-replication
333 of the split LEU2 gene from origin ARS317 results in tandem head to tail gene
334 duplications, leading to a functional LEU2 gene.

335 D) RRIGA assay in C) was performed with the indicated strains. Strains were grown
336 overnight in YPr raffinose then arrested in G2/M with nocodazole (pre-induction, blue
337 timepoint). After addition of fresh nocodazole, 2% galactose was added for 3 hours to
338 express the licensing mutants (red timepoint). Cells were plated on YPD (viable cell
339 count) and SC-leu plates (LEU+ count) and the % of LEU+ colonies out of the viable

340 cell population was plotted. N=3, error bars are SD and P value was calculated using
341 an unpaired t-test.

342

343 **Figure 4.** Checkpoint-dependent inhibition of origin firing prevents premature
344 replication initiation at all origins at the G1-S transition.

345 A) Activation of Rad53 in G1 phase can delay genome duplication by at least 2
346 mechanisms; by inhibition of the transcriptional activator Swi6, which is required for
347 G1- and subsequently S-phase cyclin transcription and by inhibition of the origin firing
348 factors Sld3 and Dbf4.

349 B) Flow cytometry of the indicated strains grown overnight in YPr raffinose, then
350 arrested in G1 phase with alpha factor. Cells were held in fresh alpha factor, while
351 2% galactose and 0.5µg/ml 4-NQO was added for 30 minutes (0 timepoint) before
352 washing and release from alpha factor arrest into fresh YPgal medium without 4-
353 NQO.

354 C) Budding index from the experiment in B. Timepoint 0 refers to cells held in alpha
355 factor + galactose + 0.5µg/ml 4-NQO for 30mins.

356 D) Rad53 Western blot from experiment in B.

357 E) Copy number analysis of chromosome VII of the indicated strains 20 mins after
358 release as in B-D. The y-axis ratio refers to the amount of DNA at the 20 mins
359 timepoint divided by the DNA copy number in G1 phase. Known origins are
360 annotated above the replication profile and coloured according to their normal
361 median replication time (T_{rep}).

362 F) Box plots of the amount of replication at all origins, split into equal quintiles
363 depending on their normal median firing time (T_{rep}). Arrows in time-point 40 mins

364 indicate that later firing origins also initiate by 40mins in the *swi4-t sld3-A dbf4-A*
365 strain. For example the yellow and green quintiles are significantly different at
366 20mins, but non-significantly different (ns) at 40mins. P-values are from t-tests.

367 **Methods**

368 **Strains and Growth Conditions**

369 Cell growth, arrests, flow cytometry and yeast protein extracts were as previously
 370 described (Zegerman and Diffley, 2010). All the strains used in this work are derived
 371 from W303 (*ade2-1 ura3-1 his3-11,15 trp1-1 leu2-3,112 can1-100, rad5-535*)

Strain	Genotype	Source
yPZ 1223	<i>MATa Sld3-10his13myc::KanMX bar1Δ::hisG</i>	this work
yPZ 1319	<i>MATa sld3-38A-10his13myc::KanMX bar1Δ::hisG</i>	this work
yPZ 1317	<i>MATa Dbf4-13myc::KanMX bar1Δ::hisG</i>	this work
yPZ 4018	<i>MATa YCLWdelta5::HphMX-EU2-ARS317-LEU::NFS1 Mcm7-2xNLS::AbA ura3::P_{GAL}-Cdc6-13myc::URA3 orc6-4A</i>	this work
yPZ 705	<i>MATa</i>	PZ lab
yPZ 4076	<i>MATa trp1::P_{GAL}-swi4-t::TRP1</i>	this work
yPZ 4137	<i>MATa dbf4-4A::HIS3 sld3-38A-10his13myc::KanMX trp1::P_{GAL}-swi4-t::TRP1</i>	this work
yPZ 917	<i>MATa dbf4-4A::HIS3 sld3-38A-10his13myc::KanMX</i>	PZ lab
yPZ 1523	<i>MATa sml1Δ::URA3 rad53Δ::LEU2 Sld3-10his13myc::KanMX bar1Δ::hisG</i>	this work
yPZ 1522	<i>MATa sml1Δ::URA3 Sld3-10his13myc::KanMX bar1Δ::hisG</i>	this work
yPZ 1198	<i>MATa cdc28-as1 (F88G)</i>	this work
yPZ 1767	<i>MATa cdc28-as1 (F88G) dbf4-4A::HIS3 sld3-38A-10his13myc::KanMX</i>	this work
yPZ 4085	<i>MATa YCLWdelta5::HphMX-EU2-ARS317-LEU::NFS1 trp1::orc6-4A-P_{GAL1-10}-Mcm7-2xNLS::TRP1 ura3::P_{GAL}-Cdc6-13myc::URA3</i>	this work
yPZ 4089	<i>YCLWdelta5::HphMX-EU2-ARS317-LEU::NFS1 trp1::orc6-4A-P_{GAL1-10}-Mcm7-2xNLS::TRP1 sld3-38A-10his13myc::KanMX dbf4-4A::HIS3 ura3::P_{GAL}-Cdc6-13myc::URA3</i>	this work
yPZ 125	<i>MATa Dbf4-13myc::KanMX</i>	PZ lab
yPZ 170	<i>MATa dbf4Δ::TRP1 his3::P_{DBF4}-dbf4-19A-13myc::KanMX::HIS3</i>	PZ lab
yPZ 2	<i>MATa sld3-38A-10his13myc::KanMX</i>	PZ lab
yPZ 52	<i>MATa Sld3-10his13myc::KanMX</i>	PZ lab
yPZ 1471	<i>MATa sml1Δ::URA3 rad53Δ::HphNT1 Dbf4-13myc::KanMX bar1Δ::hisG</i>	this work
yPZ 1473	<i>MATa sml1Δ::URA3 Dbf4-13myc::KanMX bar1Δ::hisG</i>	this work
yPZ 520	<i>MATa sml1Δ::URA3 Sld3-13myc::KanMX</i>	PZ lab
yPZ 89	<i>MATa sml1Δ::URA3 rad53Δ::LEU2 Sld3-13myc::KanMX</i>	PZ lab
yPZ 519	<i>MATa sml1Δ::URA3 Dbf4-13myc::KanMX</i>	PZ lab
yPZ 228	<i>MATa sml1Δ::URA3 rad53Δ::LEU2 Dbf4-13myc::KanMX</i>	PZ lab

372

373 *dbf4-4A* refers to the rad53 site mutant. It has serine/threonine to alanine mutations
374 at amino acids: 518, 521, 526, 528.

375 *dbf4-19A* refers to the rad53 site mutant. It has serine/threonine to alanine mutations
376 at amino acids 53, 59, 188, 192, 203, 222, 224, 226, 228, 318, 319, 328, 374, 375,
377 377, 518, 521, 526, 528.

378 *sld3-38A* refers to the rad53 site mutant. It contains serine/threonine to alanine
379 mutations at amino acids 306, 310, 421, 434, 435, 438, 442, 445, 450, 451, 452,
380 456, 458, 459, 479, 482, 507, 509, 514, 519, 521, 524, 540, 541, 546, 547, 548, 550,
381 556, 558, 559, 565, 569, 582, 607, 653 and 654. 539 is mutated to arginine.

382 *Orc6-4A* refers to CDK sites 106, 116, 123 and 146 mutated to alanine.

383 **Western blot**

384 Western blots were performed as previously described (Can et al., 2019). Rad53 was
385 detected with ab104232 (Abcam, dilution 1:5000).

386 **Replication profiles**

387 Yeast genomic DNA was extracted using the smash & grab method (<https://fangman-brewer.genetics.washington.edu/smash-n-grab.html>). DNA was sonicated using the
388 Bioruptor Pico sonicator (Diagenode) and the libraries were prepared according to
389 the TruSeq Nano sample preparation guide from Illumina. To generate replication
390 timing profiles, the ratio of uniquely mapped reads in the replicating samples to the
391 non-replicating samples was calculated following (Batrakou et al., 2020). Replication
392 profiles were generated using custom R scripts and smoothed using a moving
393 average. The values of Trep were taken from OriDB (Siow et al., 2012).

395 **RRIGA assay using split LEU2 marker**

396 Cells were pre-grown under permissive conditions in YPruff overnight 30°C. At 1×10^7
397 cells/ml, nocodazole (2mg/ml in DMSO) was added to a final concentration of
398 10µg/ml. Cells were arrested for 90mins at 30°C (uninduced timepoint) and then

399 galactose was added to a final concentration of 2% + fresh nocodazole for 3 hours
400 (induced timepoint).

401 For each timepoint a 0.5ml sample was spun at 3.2K for 1min in benchtop centrifuge,
402 cells were washed with 1ml sterile water to remove YPD, respun and resuspended in
403 0.5ml sterile water. Cells were sonicated briefly to ensure cells are separated then a
404 serial dilution was made into sterile water as follows:

405 dilution 1: 10 μ l cells + 990 μ l water = approx 1×10^5 cells/ml = 1×10^2 cells/ μ l

406 dilution 2: 10 μ l dilution 1 + 990 μ l water = approx 1×10^3 cells/ml = 1 cell/ μ l

407 100 μ l of dilution 2 was plated on YPD plates in triplicate for the viability calculation.

408 100 μ l and 10 μ l of undiluted cells were plated in triplicate on SC-leu plates to obtain
409 the fraction of viable cells that are LEU+ before and after induction of re-replication.

410 Plates were incubated at 25°C for 48hrs before colonies were counted. To calculate
411 the percentage of cells in the population that were LEU+ the number of LEU+
412 colonies per ml was divided by the number of viable cells per ml.

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421 **Author Contribution**

422 All authors performed and designed the experiments. PZ wrote the paper.

423 **Declaration of Interests.** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

424 **Supplementary Figure legends**

425 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Sld3 phosphorylation in G1 phase after DNA damage is
426 Rad53-dependent.

427 A) Flow cytometry of strains arrested in G1 phase with the mating pheromone alpha
428 factor. Strains were held in G1 phase, with the addition of 10µg/ml 4-NQO for the
429 indicated times. All strains are *bar1Δ* to maintain G1 arrest and also *sml1Δ*.

430 B) Western blot of Sld3 and Rad53 phosphorylation from the experiment outlined in
431 A. Sld3 was resolved on a phos-tag SDS PAGE gel.

432

433 **Supplementary Figure 2.** RRIGA assay using split LEU2 marker

434 A. Schematic diagram of the RRIGA assay. Endogenous LEU2 was replaced with a
435 split LEU2 marker, separated by the re-replication origin ARS317. The two non-
436 functional halves contain 417bp of identity *. Re-initiation at ARS317 followed by fork-
437 breakage and strand annealing at the regions of LEU2 homology results in gene
438 amplification and the generation of a functional LEU2 gene.

439 B. Verification of RRIGA by PCR using the amplicons as depicted in A. The parental
440 strain (which is leu-) was induced to re-replicate in the presence of galactose and
441 cells were plated on SC-leu plates. 10 independent colonies were assayed for the
442 presence of the duplication and all were positive.

443

444 **Supplementary Figure 3.** 4-NQO addition in G1 phase delays the G1/S transition

445 A. Flow cytometry of the indicated strains, which were grown overnight in YPr raffinose
446 and arrested in G1 phase with alpha factor (G1 time point). Strains were then held in
447 G1 phase for an extra 30 minutes by the addition of fresh alpha factor plus galactose,

448 with or without 0.5 μ g/ml 4-NQO. Cells were washed into fresh YPgalactose medium
449 to release into S-phase. Note that YPr raffinose and galactose medium was used in
450 this experiment to match the exact conditions that were used in the main Figure 4B
451 with the *P_{GAL}-swi4-t* strains, allowing a direct comparison, as in D.

452 B. Budding index (a G1 cyclin mediated event) from experiment in A.

453 C. Rad53 western blot from the 4-NQO treated samples in A.

454 D. Overlay of budding profiles (from Figure 4C and this Figure B) between strains
455 expressing or not expressing Swi4-t. Swi4-t, which cannot be inhibited by Rad53,
456 causes earlier activation of G1 cyclin/CDK as shown here by budding.

457

458 **Supplementary Figure 4.** Rad53 activation in G1 phase inhibits all origin firing
459 through phosphorylation of Sld3 and Dbf4.

460 Replication profile of Chromosome VII as an example at 20, 30 and 40mins from the
461 experiment in Figure 4B. Green * are examples of very early firing origins, which
462 initiate at the 20min timepoint in the *P_{GAL}-swi4-t sld3-A dbf4-A* strain. Purple * are
463 examples of late firing origins which do not initiate at the 20min timepoint, but are
464 clearly firing by the 40 min timepoint in the *P_{GAL}-swi4-t sld3-A dbf4-A* strain. This
465 shows that the relative timing of origin firing is not affected in the *P_{GAL}-swi4-t sld3-A*
466 *dbf4-A* strain.

467

468 **Supplementary Figure 5.** Genetic interactions of the *sld3-A dbf4-A* alleles with
469 mutants that either accelerate or delay the G1/S transition.

470 Scatter plot of the fitness of the yeast genome knock out collection grown in 0.5 μ g/ml
471 phleomycin with (y-axis) or without (x-axis) the *sld3-A dbf4-A* alleles. Each dot

472 corresponds to a different gene deletion. The top 25% of gene deletions (yfg = your
473 favourite gene) that significantly enhance (green) or suppress (red) the fitness of
474 *sld3-A dbf4-A* are indicated. This data was originally published in (Morafraille et al.,
475 2019).

476

477

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- 596

Figure 1

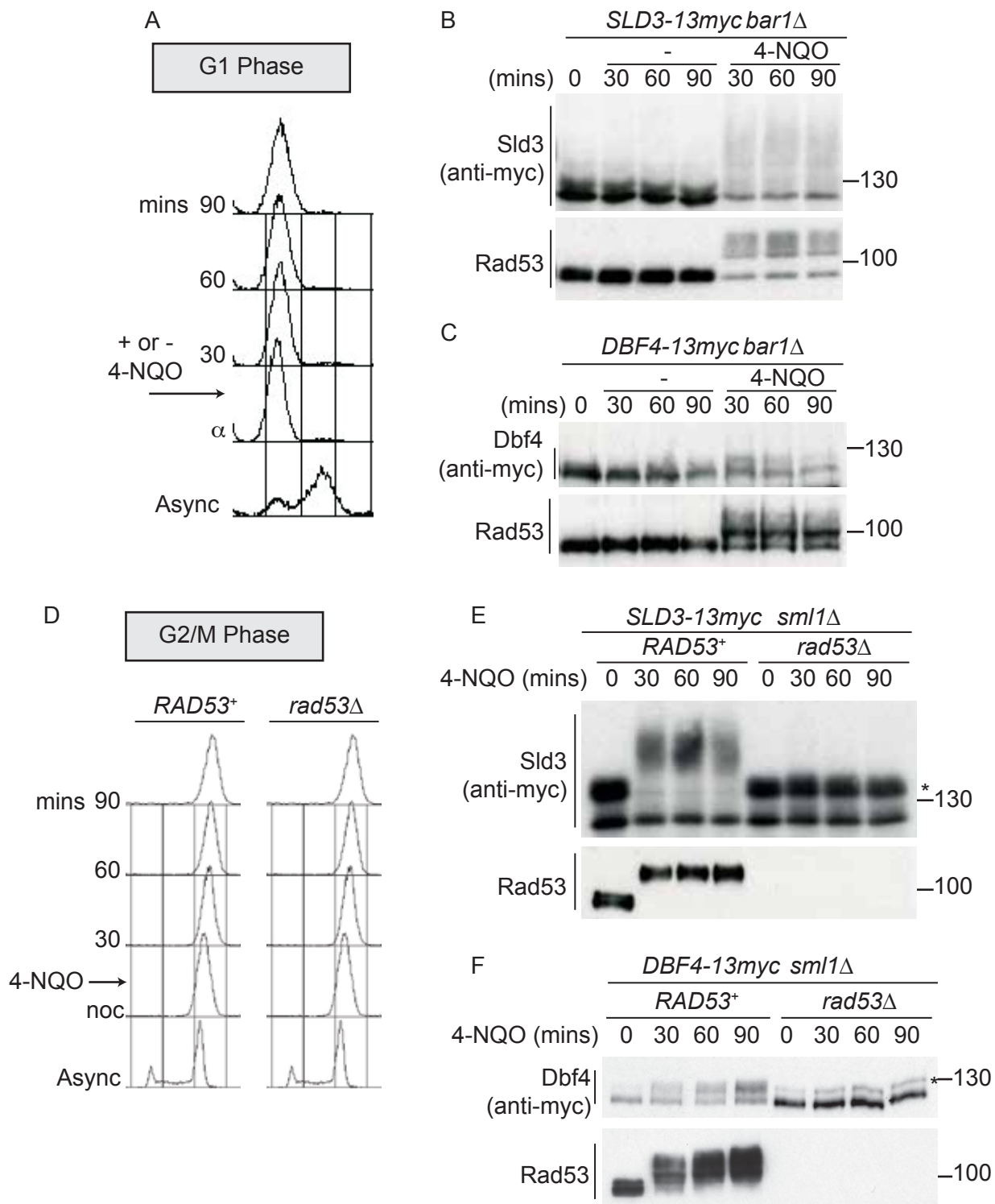


Figure 2. Rad53 phosphorylates Sld3 and Dbf4 in G1 and G2 phase at the same residues as in S-phase

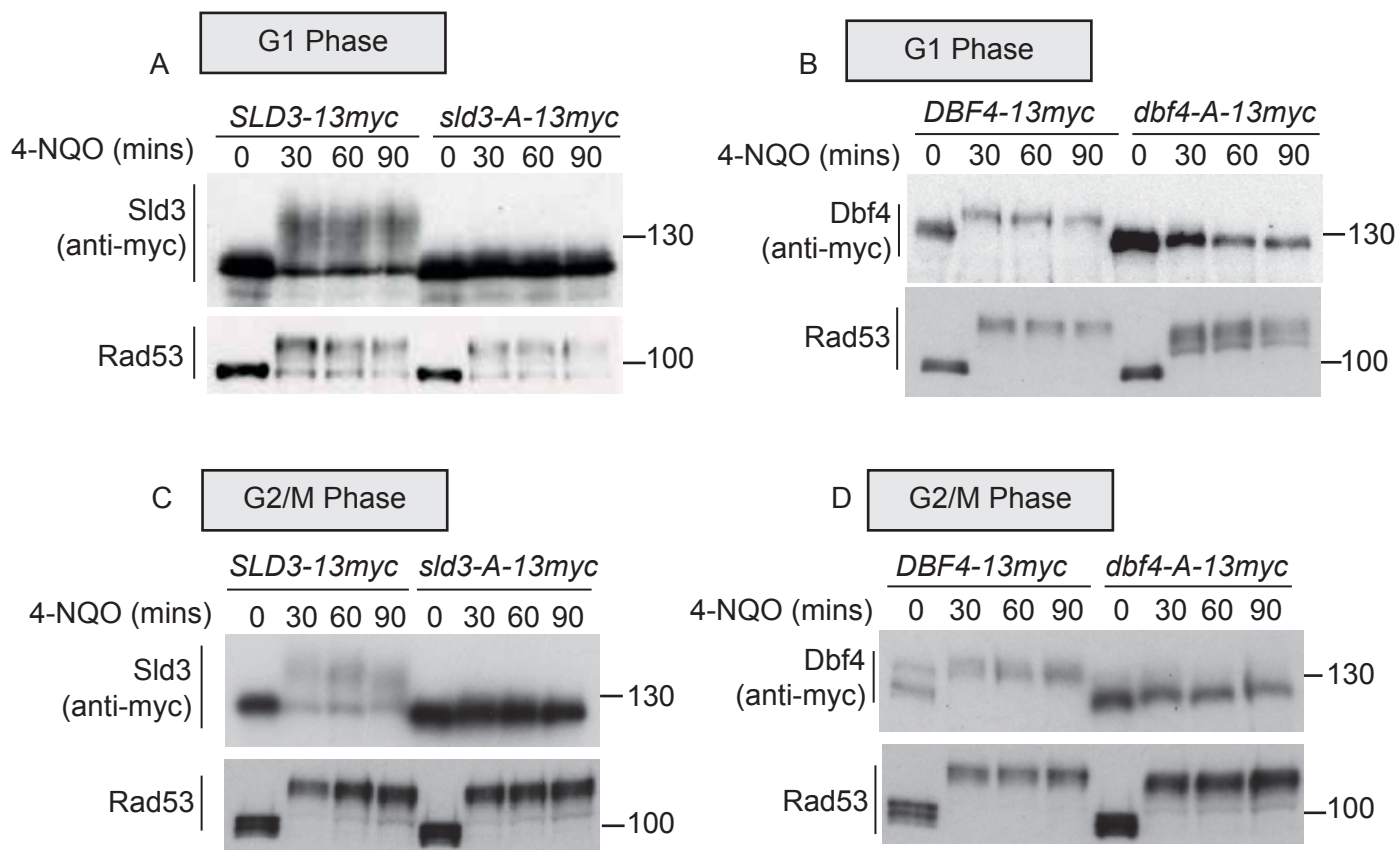


Figure 3. Rad53 inhibition of Sld3 and Dbf4 prevents re-replication in G2/M

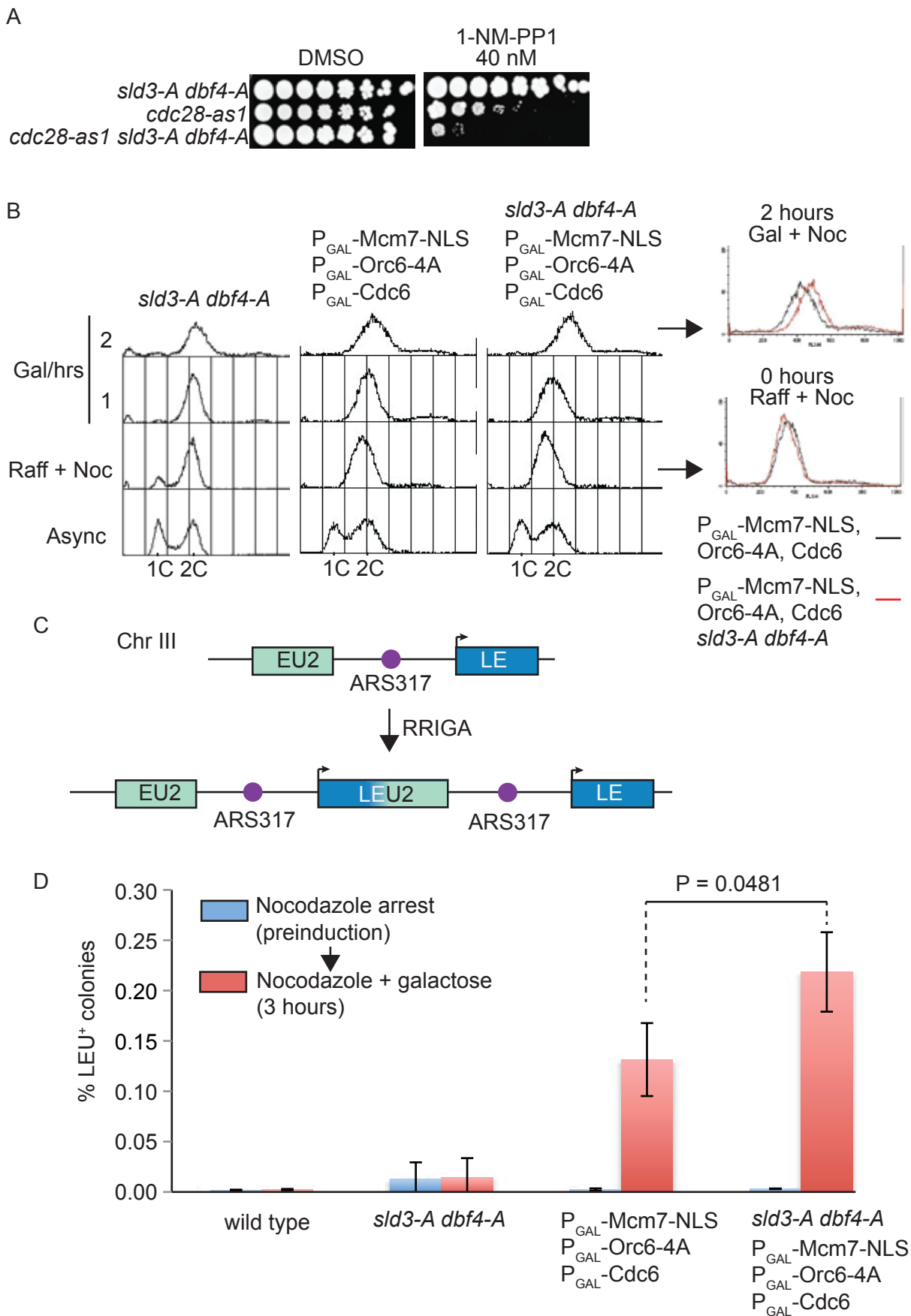
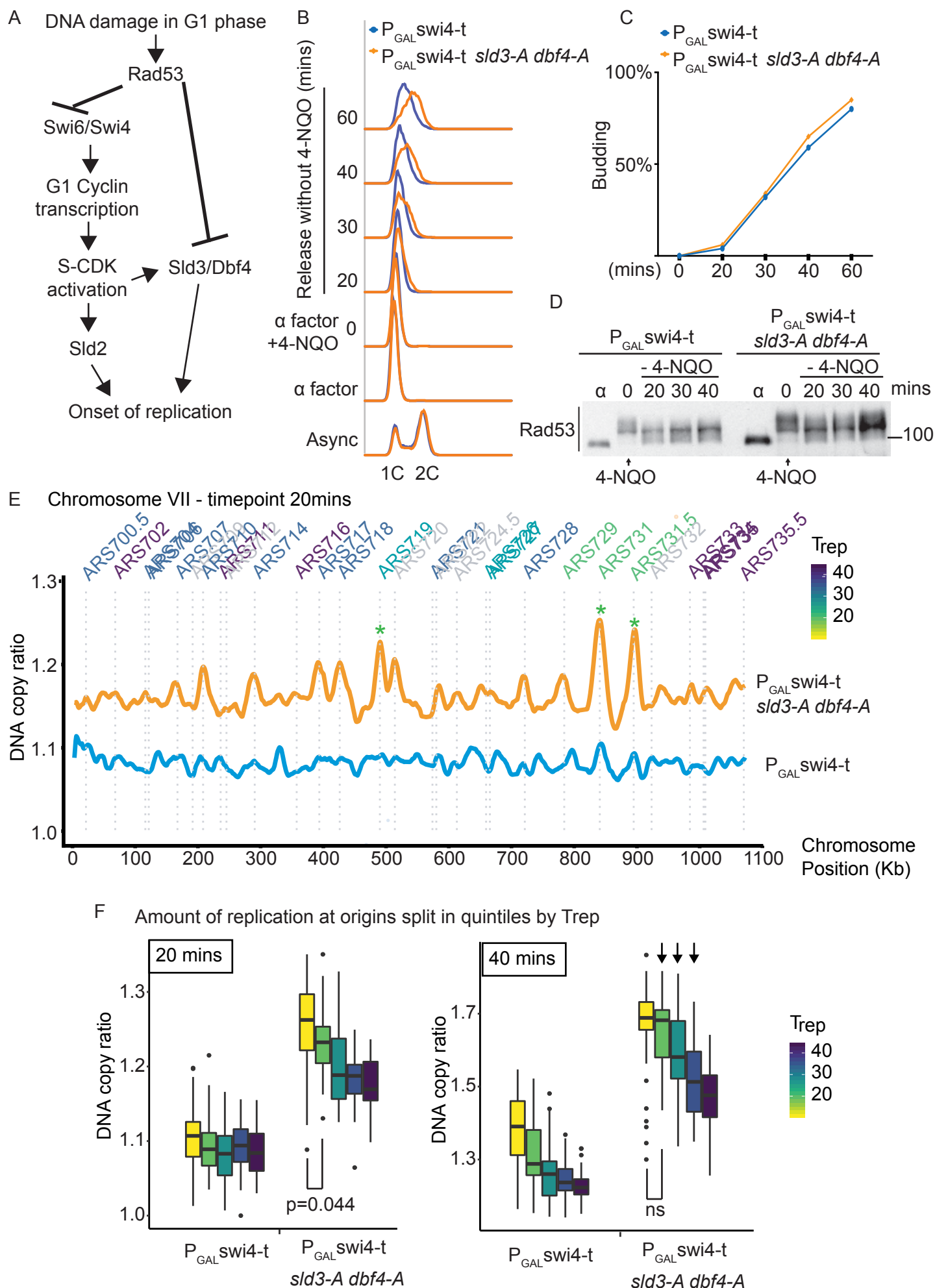
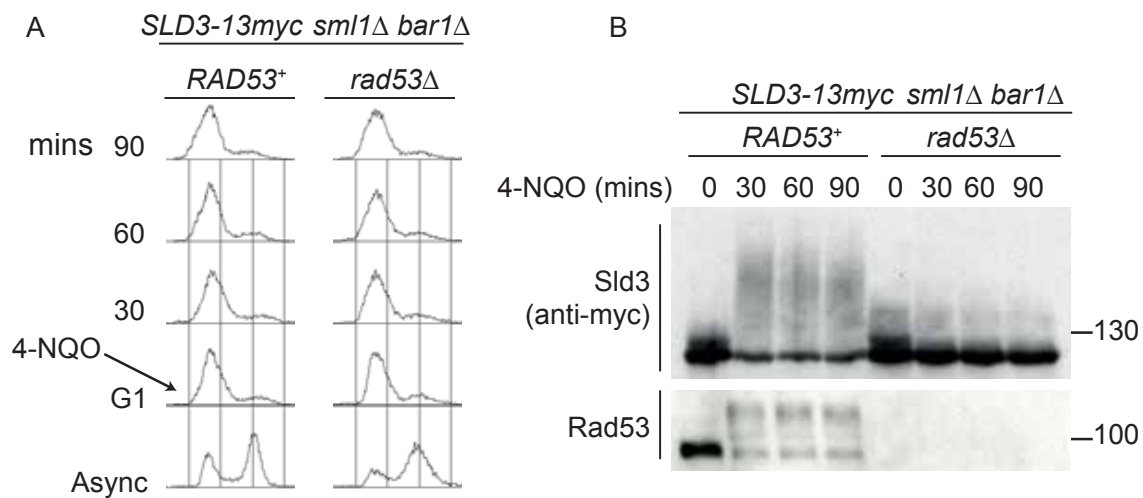


Figure 4. Checkpoint inhibition of origin firing prevents premature replication at the G1-S transition

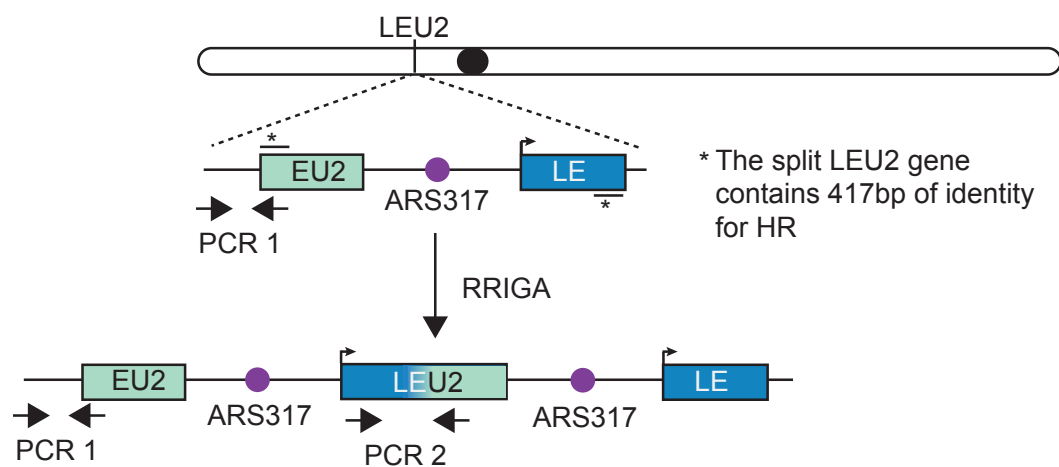


Supplementary Figure 1

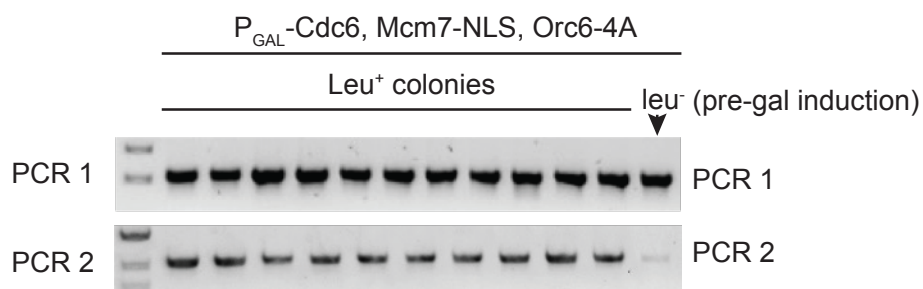


Supplementary Figure 2

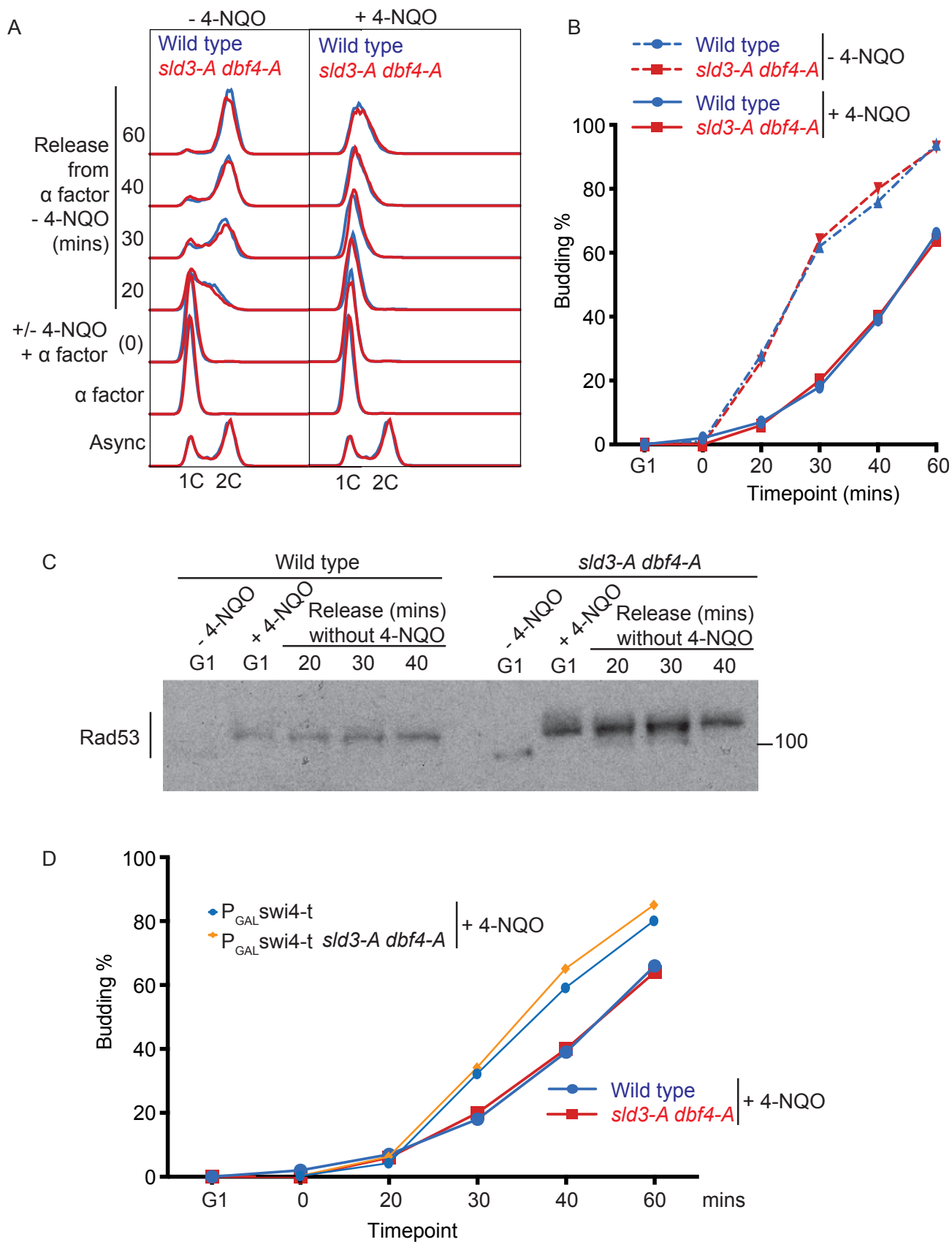
A Chr III (replaces endogenous LEU2 gene)



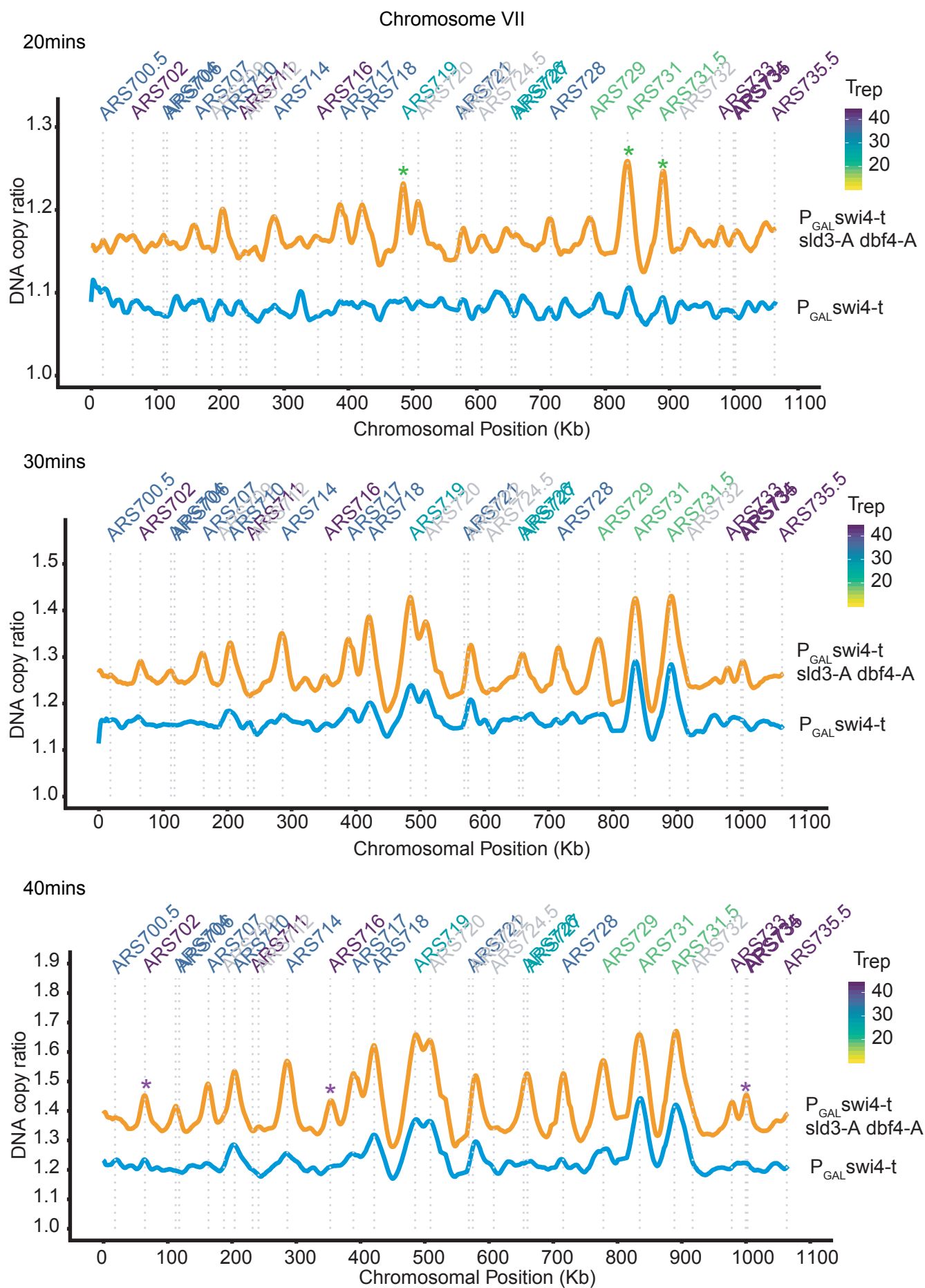
B



Supplementary Figure 3



Supplementary Figure 4



Supplementary Figure 5

