EXO1-dependent single-stranded DNA at telomeres activates subsets of DNA damage and spindle checkpoint pathways in budding yeast $yku70\Delta$ mutants

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We have examined the role of checkpoint pathways in responding to a $yku70\Delta$ defect in budding yeast. We show that CHK1, MEC1, and RAD9 checkpoint genes are required for efficient cell cycle arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants cultured at 37°C, whereas RAD17, RAD24, MEC3, DDC1, and DUN1 play insignificant roles. We establish that cell cycle arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants is associated with increasing levels of single-stranded DNA in subtelomeric Y' regions, and find that the mismatch repair-associated EXO1 gene is required for both ssDNA generation and cell cycle arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants. In contrast, MRE11 is not required for ssDNA generation. The behavior of $yku70\Delta$ exo1 Δ double mutants strongly indicates that ssDNA is an important component of the arrest signal in $yku70\Delta$ mutants and demonstrates a link between damaged telomeres and mismatch repair-associated exonucleases. This link is confirmed by our demonstration that EXO1 also plays a role in ssDNA generation in cdc13-1 mutants. We have also found that the MAD2 but not the BUB2 spindle checkpoint gene is required for efficient arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants. Therefore, subsets of both DNA-damage and spindle checkpoint pathways cooperate to regulate cell division of $yku70\Delta$ mutants.

[Key Words: Checkpoint; telomere; KU; EXO1; CDC13; ssDNA]

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The telomere is a DNA-protein complex at the end of eukaryotic chromosomes. If telomeric DNA, which has many properties of a double strand break (DSB), was perceived as a DSB by DNA repair machinery and underwent recombination, then harmful telomere fusions and dicentric chromosomes would be generated. Similarly, if telomeric DNA were perceived as a DSB by DNA damage checkpoint machinery, it would be harmful, because in budding yeast a single unrepaired DSB elsewhere in the genome can inhibit cell cycle progression for many generation times (Sandell and Zakian 1993). Therefore, it is essential for chromosome stability and cell cycle progression that telomeres hide the DSB-like structures that they contain. An important function of some of the large number of telomere binding proteins, such as Cdc13p (essential in budding yeast) and Ku70/Ku80 heterodimer (conserved from yeast to mammalian cells), is to hide telomeric DNA from repair and checkpoint pathways.

Budding yeast mutants defective in telomere binding proteins are useful tools to address the mechanisms by

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which checkpoint pathways recognize damaged DNA, because in these cells telomeres become potent activators of DNA damage checkpoint pathways in a conditional manner. For example, at 23°C, a permissive temperature for *cdc13-1* mutants, telomeres are not recognized as damaged DNA, but at 36°C temperatures, they are potent activators of cell cycle arrest (Weinert and Hartwell 1993). Cell cycle arrest of *cdc13-1* mutants is associated with accumulation of single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) at telomeres (Garvik et al. 1995). Furthermore, not only do checkpoint pathways recognize *cdc13-1*-induced damage, but they also affect the rate at which ssDNA arises (Lydall and Weinert 1995).

The Ku heterodimer is an evolutionarily conserved protein complex involved in the nonhomologous endjoining (NHEJ) pathway of DNA repair (Smith and Jackson 1999). Interestingly and paradoxically, the Ku heterodimer is important for telomere stability. For example, there is evidence that the Ku heterodimer protects mammalian chromosomes from telomere fusions (Bailey et al. 1999; Hsu et al. 2000; Samper et al. 2000; d'Adda di Fagagna et al. 2001). In one study, 62% of $ku80^{-/-}$ mouse embryonal fibroblasts contained telomere fusions, a level 30 times higher than that seen in Ku-proficient fibroblasts (Hsu et al. 2000).

The budding yeast homolog of the Ku heterodimer is

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the Yku70p/Yku80p heterodimer. Mutants with deletions of *YKU70* or *YKU80* contain short telomeres (Boulton and Jackson 1996, 1998; Porter et al. 1996), have single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) in their repetitive telomeric TG sequences (Gravel et al. 1998; Polotnianka et al. 1998), display decreased telomeric silencing (Boulton and Jackson 1998; Mishra and Shore 1999; Pryde and Louis 1999), and altered telomere localization (Laroche et al. 1998). Furthermore, there is evidence that the KU heterodimer is able to bind to the telomerase RNA directly (Peterson et al. 2001) and is localized at telomeres (Martin et al. 1999).

While both *yku70* Δ and *yku80* Δ mutants are viable at permissive temperatures such as 30°C, they are unable to form colonies at 37°C (Feldmann and Winnacker 1993; Barnes and Rio 1997). This temperature-sensitive phenotype appears to be due specifically to a telomere defect, rather than a more generalized DNA repair defect, because the temperature-sensitive phenotype can be partially suppressed by overexpression of telomerase subunits (Nugent et al. 1998; Teo and Jackson 2001; Lewis et al. 2002) or rarely $(1 \times 10^{-7}/\text{cell})$ by amplification of subtelomeric repeats (Fellerhoff et al. 2000). By combining the $yku70\Delta$ mutation with checkpoint mutations and culturing the cells at high temperatures, we have been able to examine the role of different checkpoint genes in responding to (sub) telomeric defects in $yku70\Delta$ mutants.

Checkpoint pathways consist of proteins that interact with damaged DNA and signal transduction cascades that inhibit cell division (Lowndes and Murguia 2000; Caspari and Carr 2002). Here we show that some, but not all DNA damage checkpoint genes contribute to the inhibition of cell division of $yku70\Delta$ mutants. Interestingly, a subset of spindle checkpoint pathways also contributes to arrest. Furthermore, there is a correlation between cell cycle arrest and the accumulation of ssDNA in subtelomeric sequences in $yku70\Delta$ mutants. Finally, we show that the mismatch repair-associated exonuclease *EXO1* is essential for ssDNA generation in $yku70\Delta$ mutants, while *MRE11* is not, and that *EXO1* is also required to generate ssDNA in *cdc13-1* mutants.

Results

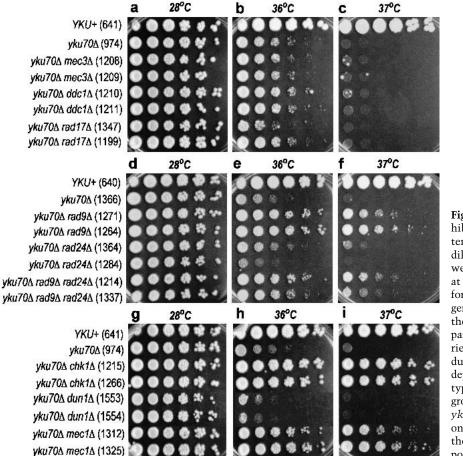
CHK1, MEC1, and RAD9 are required for a yku70 Δ -induced checkpoint

To determine how checkpoint pathways interact with $yku70\Delta$ -induced damage in budding yeast, we generated a panel of double and triple mutants. Weinert and Hartwell showed previously that checkpoint mutations allow cdc13-1 mutant strains, defective in a telomere binding protein, to form colonies at higher temperatures than checkpoint-proficient cdc13-1 strains (Weinert and Hartwell 1993; Weinert et al. 1994). This is presumably because loss of checkpoint control allows cells with non-lethal levels of DNA damage to divide and form colonies. Figure 1 shows the growth of serial dilutions of $yku70\Delta$ and checkpoint mutant cells at 28° C, 36° C, and 37° C. At 28° C, a permissive temperature for $yku70\Delta$ mutants, all

strains grew at similar rates and formed similarly sized colonies. At the restrictive temperatures of 36°C and 37°C, different strains formed colonies with different efficiencies. A *chk1* Δ mutation had the most profound effect and significantly increased the ability of $yku70\Delta$ mutants to form colonies at both 36°C and 37°C (Fig. 1g-i). rad9 Δ and mec1 Δ also increased yku70 Δ colony size, but the colonies were smaller than the $yku70\Delta$ chk1 Δ colonies (Fig. 1d–i). In contrast, mec3 Δ , ddc1 Δ , *rad17* Δ , *rad24* Δ , and *dun1* Δ mutations had minor effects on the growth of $yku70\Delta$ mutants (Fig. 1a–i). The growth of rad9 Δ rad24 Δ yku70 Δ triple mutants at 36°C and 37° C was most similar to that of *yku70* Δ *rad9* Δ mutants, indicating that the strong growth phenotype was epistatic (Fig. 1d-f). These experiments suggested that a CHK1, MEC1, and RAD9-dependent, but DDC1, MEC3, RAD17, RAD24, and DUN1-independent mechanism is responsible for the poor growth of $yku70\Delta$ mutants at 36°C and 37°C.

To determine whether checkpoint pathways are activated in $yku70\Delta$ mutants, we examined the growth and cell cycle distribution of $yku70\Delta$ and checkpoint mutants in liquid cultures (Fig. 2). In four separate experiments, the growth of $yku70\Delta$ mutants at 37°C was much slower than YKU70⁺ cells, such that by 8.5 h their cell number had increased about 4-8-fold, instead of 80-100fold as observed in the YKU70⁺ cells (Fig. 2a-d). In addition, in three of four experiments, the growth of $yku70\Delta$ cells began to plateau after about 6 h in liquid culture (Fig. 2a–d; data not shown). The poor growth of $yku70\Delta$ mutants correlates with an increasing fraction of cells at the medial nuclear division stage of the cell cycle (Hartwell 1974), increasing from ~20% at the beginning of the experiments, to over 85% during 8.5 h culture at 37°C (Fig. 2e-h). This accumulation of cells at medial nuclear division suggests they are accumulating before the metaphase/anaphase transition, and is consistent with an earlier study which showed that the large budded cells that accumulated in $yku70\Delta$ (hdf1 Δ) mutant cultures at 37°C contained short mitotic spindles and a nucleus at the neck between the mother and daughter cells (Barnes and Rio 1997). The slow kinetics of arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants is in contrast to the behavior of cdc13-1mutants, because 94% of cdc13-1 mutants arrest in the first cell cycle (within 2 h) at restrictive temperature (Weinert and Hartwell 1993).

At 37°C, the growth and cell cycle distribution of $yku70\Delta chk1\Delta$, $yku70\Delta rad9\Delta$, and $yku70\Delta mec1\Delta$ mutants was most like $YKU70^+ RAD^+$ strains because they grew exponentially and did not accumulate at medial nuclear division (Fig. 2c,d,g,h; data not shown). Therefore, it appears that the poor growth of $yku70\Delta$ mutants at 37°C and the accumulation in medial nuclear division is due to a *CHK1*, *MEC1*, and *RAD9*-dependent checkpoint pathway. In contrast, the growth and cell cycle distributions of $yku70\Delta$ ddc1 Δ , $yku70\Delta$ rad24, and $yku70\Delta$ dun1 Δ mutants were most similar to $yku70\Delta$ strains, suggesting that $yku70\Delta$ -induced checkpoint pathways are intact in $rad24\Delta$, ddc1 Δ , and $dun1\Delta$ mutants (Fig. 2a,b,e,f). Both $yku70\Delta$ mec3 Δ and $yku70\Delta$



EXO1-dependent ssDNA and yku70Δ checkpoints

Figure 1. RAD9, MEC1, and CHK1 inhibit growth of $yku70\Delta$ strains at high temperatures. Small aliquots of fivefold dilution series of several yeast strains were transferred to plates and incubated at the temperatures indicated for 2 d before being photographed. The relevant genotypes of the strains are indicated on the *left*, and the strain numbers shown in parentheses. The $mec1\Delta$ strains also carried an $sml1\Delta$ mutation. To ensure reproducibility we routinely examined two independent strains with the same genotypes. All strains grouped together were grown on the same plates, except for the $yku70\Delta dun1\Delta$ strains, which were grown on different plates. The photographs of the $yku70\Delta dun1\Delta$ strains were superimposed in g,h,i.

 $rad17\Delta$ mutants behaved similarly to $yku70\Delta$ $rad24\Delta$ mutants (data not shown). We found that $rad53\Delta$ $sml1\Delta$ single mutants, as well as $yku70\Delta$ $rad53\Delta$ $sml1\Delta$ triple mutants grew poorly in liquid culture at 37°C, which made it difficult to determine the role of *RAD53* in cell cycle arrest (data not shown). This may be because *RAD53* has an essential function at 37°C that is unrelated to checkpoint control (Gardner et al. 1999; Sanchez et al. 1999).

We noted that, despite their initial checkpoint defective phenotype, $yku70\Delta$ mec1 Δ and $yku70\Delta$ chk1 Δ mutants begin to slow cell division and start to accumulate at medial nuclear division, after long periods (8 h) at 37°C (Fig. 2 c,d,g,h). This suggests that another checkpoint pathway, independent of CHK1 and MEC1, can arrest cell division of $yku70\Delta$ mutants after long periods at 37°C. This arrest is due to the activation of spindle checkpoint pathways (see Fig. 4, below). Both $yku70\Delta$ $rad24\Delta$ $rad9\Delta$ and $yku70\Delta$ $rad24\Delta$ $mec1\Delta$ triple mutants showed the exponential growth phenotype of $yku70\Delta$ $rad9\Delta$ and $yku70\Delta$ mec1 Δ mutants respectively, indicating that the exponential growth phenotype is epistatic to the poor growth phenotype (Fig. 2d,h; data not shown). In summary, these liquid culture experiments suggest that a checkpoint pathway that arrests $yku70\Delta$ mutants at medial nuclear division at 37°C is dependent on CHK1, RAD9, and MEC1, but independent of RAD17, RAD24, MEC3, DDC1, and DUN1.

Microcolony assays were used to confirm that $yku70\Delta$ mutants are able to divide several times before ceasing growth at 37°C, and that $rad9\Delta$ and $rad24\Delta$ mutations had different effects on cell division. MATa cells were first arrested in G1 using the mating pheromone alpha factor, the pheromone was removed, and single cells incubated on plates for 20 h at 37°C. After 20 h at 37°C, YKU70⁺ RAD⁺ and yku70 Δ rad9 Δ cells had formed much larger and more uniformly sized colonies (>1000 cells) than $yku70\Delta$ and $yku70\Delta$ $rad24\Delta$ cells (2–200 cells) (Fig. 3a-d). This shows that deletion of RAD9, but not RAD24, allows yku70 Δ mutants to grow over 20 h, at 37°C, at rates indistinguishable from the rate of YKU70⁺ cells. The behavior of $yku70\Delta$ checkpoint Δ double mutants cultured at 37°C is in contrast to the behavior of cdc13-1 checkpoint Δ double mutants cultured at a similar temperature, as cdc13-1 $rad9\Delta$ mutants formed smaller microcolonies at 36°C compared to the cdc13-1 $rad24\Delta$ mutants (Lydall and Weinert 1997).

A model that might explain the different roles of *RAD9* and *RAD24* in responding to $yku70\Delta$ and cdc13-1-induced damage is that *RAD9* is required for the primary checkpoint response in $yku70\Delta$ and cdc13-1 mutants, and that *RAD24* is required for arrest only when

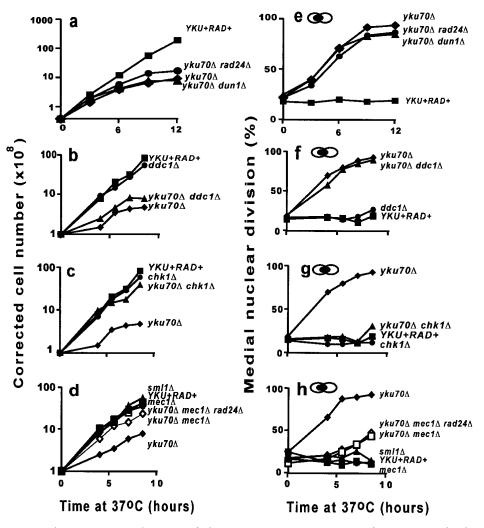


Figure 2. *RAD9*, *MEC1*, and *CHK1* cause G2/M arrest of *yku70* Δ strains at 37°C. A series of yeast strains dividing exponentially at 23°C were placed at 37°C and their growth and cell cycle distribution were monitored. At indicated time points, cells density was determined by hemocytometer (*a*–*d*) and cell cycle distribution was determined by staining with DAPI (*e*–*h*). The yeast stains used were *YKU*⁺ *RAD*⁺: DLY640 in *a,d,e,h*, and DLY641 in *b,c,e,f*; *yku70* Δ : DLY1412 in *a,e*, and DLY1366 in *b,c,d,f,g,h*; *yku70* Δ *rad24* Δ : DLY 1505; *yku70* Δ *dun1* Δ : DLY 1553; *ddc1* Δ : DLY883; *yku70* Δ *ddc1* Δ : DLY1220; *chk1* Δ : DLY1095; *yku70* Δ *chk1* Δ : DLY1215; *sml1* Δ : DLY1248; *mec1* Δ : DLY1249; *yku70* Δ *mec1* Δ *rad24* Δ : DLY1327; and *yku70* Δ *mec1* Δ : DLY1325.

damage becomes more extensive. If true, this could explain why cdc13-1 mutants cultured at 36°C, 10°C higher than their maximum permissive temperature, depend on both RAD9 and RAD24 for cell cycle arrest (Lydall and Weinert 1995), whereas $yku70\Delta$ mutants, cultured at 37°C, 2°C higher than their maximum permissive temperature, depend on RAD9, but not on RAD24. Wild-type yeast strains do not form colonies above 38°C, and so it was not possible to test whether arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants at higher temperatures depends on RAD24 as well as RAD9. However, it was possible to test whether arrest of cdc13-1 mutants at marginally permissive temperatures depended more on RAD9 than RAD24. We used the microcolony assay to test whether RAD9 was required for the primary checkpoint pathways in cdc13-1strains cultured at the moderately restrictive temperature of 28°C. At this temperature, cdc13-1 cells formed colonies in the range of 2 to 20 cells, compared with 2–6 cells at 36°C (Lydall and Weinert 1997); $cdc13-1 rad9\Delta$ cells formed medium-sized colonies (20–200 cells), whereas $cdc13-1 rad24\Delta$ and cdc13-1 cells formed large-sized colonies (1000–3000 cells) (Fig. 3e–h). Therefore, at both moderately (28°C) and strongly (36°C) restrictive temperatures, $cdc13-1 rad9\Delta$ mutants form smaller colonies than $cdc13-1 rad24\Delta$ mutants. In contrast, $yku70 rad9\Delta$ mutants form larger colonies than $yku70\Delta$ $rad24\Delta$ mutants at 37°C. Therefore, we conclude that RAD9- and RAD24-dependent checkpoint pathways play different roles in responding to $yku70\Delta$ or cdc13-1-induced DNA damage.

MAD2 contributes to the arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants and BUB2 to the arrest of cdc13-1 mutants

Despite their initial checkpoint-defective phenotype, $yku70\Delta$ mec1 Δ and $yku70\Delta$ chk1 Δ mutants began to

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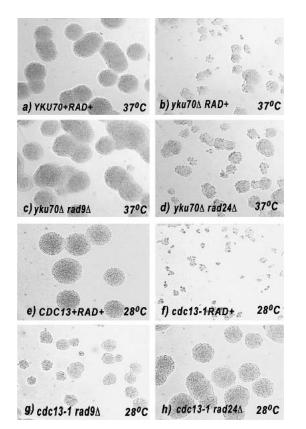


Figure 3. *RAD9* and *RAD24* have different effects on the growth of $yku70\Delta$ and cdc13-1 colonies. Single G1-arrested cells were spread on YEPD (ade) plates and photographed after 20-h growth. The yeast strains were (*a*) DLY640, (*b*) DLY1412, (*c*) DLY1271, (*d*) DLY1364, (*e*) DLY640, (*f*) DLY1230, (*g*) DLY1255, and (*h*) DLY1257.

slow cell division, and started to accumulate at medial nuclear division, after long periods (8 h) at 37°C (Fig. 2g,h). The MAD2-dependent spindle checkpoint arrests cells at a stage of cell division similar to the RAD9dependent DNA damage checkpoint, just prior to the metaphase/anaphase transition, when the APC (anaphase promoting complex) is activated. The MAD2-dependent checkpoint inhibits APC activation by inhibiting Cdc20p, an essential factor for APC activation (Hwang et al. 1998). To determine whether spindle checkpoint pathways might be responsible for the residual cell cycle arrest observed in $yku70\Delta chk1\Delta$ mutants, we examined the effect of $mad2\Delta$ and $bub2\Delta$ mutations on the growth of $yku70\Delta$ strains at 37°C (MAD2) and BUB2 belong to different arms of the spindle checkpoint pathways (Gardner and Burke 2000). Whereas a mad2 Δ mutation increased the growth of yku70 Δ mutants (Fig. 4a–c), a $bub2\Delta$ mutation had no effect on the growth of $yku70\Delta$ mutants (Fig. 4d–f). Interestingly, simultaneous disruption of both RAD24 and MAD2 increased the growth of $yku70\Delta$ mutants more than either single mutation (Fig. 4b,c), suggesting that perhaps RAD24 plays a small role in the arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants, a role that can be unmasked by deletion of *MAD2*. A *yku70* Δ *chk1* Δ *mad2* Δ triple mutant grew nearly as well as *YKU70*⁺ cells (Fig. 4c).

To determine whether the *MAD2* spindle checkpoint also contributes to inhibiting the growth of *cdc13-1* mutants, we combined *mad2* Δ and *bub2* Δ mutations with *cdc13-1*. Curiously, and once again, *cdc13-1* and *yku70* Δ mutants showed different, almost opposite interactions with checkpoint pathways. A *bub2* Δ deletion had a moderate effect on the growth of *cdc13-1* mutants (Fig. 4j–l), whereas a *mad2* Δ deletion had less effect (Fig. 4g–l). The effect of the *bub2* Δ mutation was not as strong as a *rad9* Δ DNA damage checkpoint mutation, and the *rad9* Δ bub2 Δ double mutant behaved like the single *rad9* Δ mutant (Fig. 4j–l). Similarly, the *cdc13-1 rad9* Δ mad2 Δ triple mutants formed colonies with efficiency similar to that of the *cdc13-1 rad9* Δ double mutants.

To confirm that MAD2 was responsible partially for arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants and to produce evidence that it contributed to the residual arrest observed in $yku70\Delta$ $chk1\Delta$ mutants at 37°C, we performed liquid culture experiments. Figure 4m shows that the decrease in growth observed in $yku70\Delta chk1\Delta$ mutants after several hours at 37°C (vs. YKU70⁺ cells) could be overcome by a $mad2\Delta$ deletion, because $yku70\Delta$ $chk1\Delta$ $mad2\Delta$ triple mutants grew almost as well as the YKU70⁺ strain. Figure 4n shows that the increase of $yku70\Delta chk1\Delta$ muants at medial nuclear division, during 9-18 h of incubaion at 37°C, did not occur in the $yku70\Delta$ chk1 Δ $mad2\Delta$ triple mutants. The growth of $yku70\Delta$ $bub2\Delta$ mutants is most similar to $yku70\Delta$ cells, indicating that BUB2 does not play a role in the arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants at 37°C. Consistent with the hypothesis that $yku70\Delta$ damage induces a MAD2-dependent arrest, $yku70\Delta$ mad2 Δ mutants reached an approximately fivefold higher cell density than $yku70\Delta$ cells over an 18-h period (Fig. 4m). In addition, a maximum of 75% of $yku70\Delta$ mad2 Δ mutants arrested at medial nuclear division, whereas about 95% of $yku70\Delta$ cells arrested (Fig. 4n).

We have shown that arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants at 37°C is due to CHK1- and MAD2-dependent pathways; Figure 4n allows us to estimate their respective contributions. A CHK1-dependent pathway is responsible for 75% of arrest (determined from the percentage of $yku70\Delta$ $mad2\Delta$ mutants arrested at the time point of maximum arrest, 12 h), whereas a MAD2-dependent pathway is responsible for 20% of the arrest (determined from the percentage of $yku70\Delta$ mutants arrested minus the percentage of $yku70\Delta$ mad2 Δ cells arrested at 12 h). In the case of $yku70\Delta chk1\Delta$ cells, the percentage of cells arrested by MAD2 only noticeably increased at later time points (over 15 h), consistent with the idea that at early times arrested cells were diluted by the large mass of dividing cells. Thus, the effects of the CHK1dependent DNA damage and MAD2-dependent spindle checkpoint pathways are additive and together they contribute to all (95%) of the arrest observed in $yku70\Delta$ mutants.

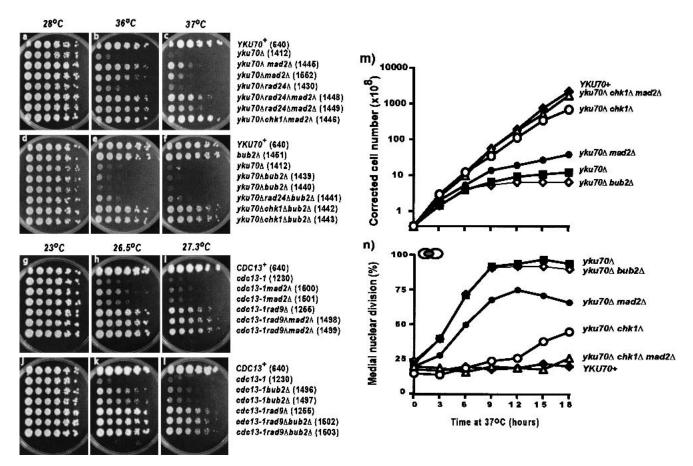


Figure 4. *MAD2* inhibits the growth of *yku70* Δ mutants, while *BUB2* inhibits growth of *cdc13-1* mutants. (*a–l*) Small aliquots of fivefold dilution series of several yeast strains were transferred to plates and incubated for 2 d (*a–f*) or 3 d (*g–l*) before being photographed. The relevant genotypes of the strains are indicated on the *left* and the strain numbers shown in parentheses. (*m,n*) A series of yeast strains dividing exponentially at 23°C was placed at 37°C and their growth and cell cycle distribution were monitored. At indicated time points, cell density was determined by hemocytometer and cell cycle distribution was determined by staining with DAPI. The yeast stains used were *YKU*⁺ *RAD*⁺: DLY640; *yku70* Δ *chk1* Δ *mad2* Δ : DLY1446; *yku70* Δ *chk1* Δ : DLY1215; *yku70* Δ *mad2* Δ : DLY1445; *yku70* Δ : DLY1412; and *yku70* Δ *bub2* Δ : DLY1440.

yku70∆ mutants accumulate ssDNA in subtelomeric Y' sequences at 37°C

There is much evidence that single-stranded DNA is an important stimulus for DNA damage checkpoint pathways. For example, *cdc13-1* mutants accumulate ssDNA up to 20kb from their telomeres, when cultured at restrictive temperatures (Garvik et al. 1995). If ssDNA is an important component of the signal that activates checkpoint pathways in $yku70\Delta$ mutants at 37°C, then increased levels should be observed at restrictive temperatures. It was known that $yku70\Delta$ and $yku80\Delta$ mutants contain more ssDNA in their repetitive TG telomeric sequences than do YKU⁺ cells (Gravel et al. 1998; Polotnianka et al. 1998; Teo and Jackson 2001). However, $yku80\Delta$ mutants appear to contain as much singlestranded TG DNA at their permissive temperatures of 23°C and 30°C as at their restrictive temperature of 37°C (Gravel et al. 1998; Teo and Jackson 2001), suggesting that ssDNA at telomeric sequences is not necessarily an important stimulus for cell cycle arrest (Teo and Jackson 2001). We reasoned that the ssDNA in $yku70\Delta$ mutants might extend beyond the telomeres, as it does in cdc13-1 mutants, and that there may be a better correlation between the appearance of ssDNA in subtelomeric repeats and cell cycle arrest.

Quantitative amplification of ssDNA (QAOS) (Booth et al. 2001) was used to examine the appearance of ssDNA in telomere proximal sequences of $yku70\Delta$ mutants at 37°C (Fig. 5). This quantitative PCR-based method can be used to measure ssDNA levels in the range 0.2% to 100% at single-copy loci in the genome. We found that $yku70\Delta$ mutants cultured at the restrictive temperature of 37°C generated increasing amounts of ssDNA at subtelomeric loci. We measured ssDNA at a locus situated 600 bp from the telomeric end of the Y' subtelomeric repeat. In telomeres that contain Y' repeats, this locus is about 900-1000 bp from the very end of the chromosome (Fig. 5a). At these positions, the amount of ssDNA in $yku70\Delta$ mutants increased from 1.6% at the beginning of the experiment to values between 5% and 8%, after 6-10 h of incubation at 37°C

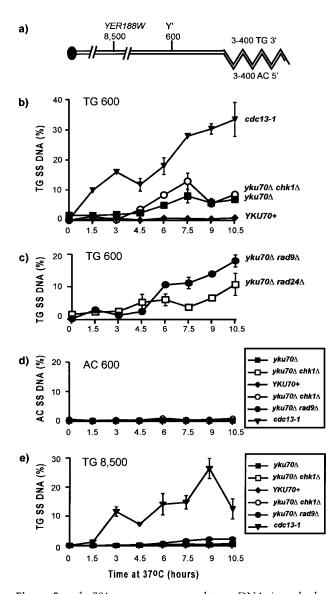


Figure 5. yku70A mutants accumulate ssDNA in subtelomeric sequences. A series of yeast strains was cultured at 37°C, and the amount of ssDNA at their telomeres was measured by quantitative amplification of ssDNA (QAOS). The yeast stains used were *cdc13-1*: DLY1230; *yku70*Δ *chk1*Δ: DLY1215; yku70 Δ : DLY1412; YKU70⁺: DLY640; and yku70 Δ rad9 Δ : DLY1271. The results shown for $yku70\Delta rad24\Delta$ are the average amount of ssDNA observed in two independent strains DLY1364 and DLY1430. The error bars indicate the standard error of the mean derived from three independent measurements of the amount of ssDNA in a sample, except for the $yku70\Delta rad24\Delta$, where they indicate the difference in the amount of ssDNA in the two strains. (a) A schematic model of the telomere of chromosome V in budding yeast. (b,c) Detection of ssDNA on the TG strand 600 bases from the telomeric end of the Y' sequence. (d) Detection of ssDNA on the AC strand, 600bases from the telomeric end of the Y' sequence. (e) Detection of ssDNA on the TG strand at YER188W, 8500 bases from the right end of chromosome V.

(Fig. 5b). The increase in ssDNA is less rapid and less extensive than that observed in *cdc13-1* mutants during

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the same experiment, but the amount of ssDNA is significantly higher than that observed in control YKU70⁺ cells (Fig. 5b). No ssDNA was detected on the AC strand in any strains (Fig. 5d). Therefore, the ssDNA observed in $yku70\Delta$ mutants is on the TG (3') strand of (sub) telomeres and is presumably caused by loss of the AC (5') strand, as in *cdc13-1* mutants. The increase in the levels of ssDNA in Y' sequences with time at 37°C is consistent with the hypothesis that the subtelomeric ssDNA in $yku70\Delta$ mutants contributes to activation of the RAD9, CHK1, and MEC1-dependent checkpoint pathway. There is a clear correlation between the accumulation of ssDNA at the Y' 600 locus, after a 6-h incubation at 37°C (Fig. 5b) and the accumulation of cells at medial nuclear division in checkpoint-proficient $yku70\Delta$ cells (Figs. 2 and 4n).

Despite the fact that $yku70\Delta rad9\Delta$ and $yku70\Delta chk1\Delta$ mutants grow at 37°C, whereas $yku70\Delta$ and $yku70\Delta$ $rad24\Delta$ did not, all of these mutants accumulated comparable amounts of ssDNA, arguing that their different growth phenotypes are not due to differences in the amount of DNA damage among these strains. Interestingly, the strains that did not grow at 37°C, the $yku70\Delta$ and $yku70\Delta rad24\Delta$ strains, had marginally less ssDNA than the strains that grew ($yku70\Delta rad9\Delta$ and $yku70\Delta$ $chk1\Delta$; Fig. 5b,c). This observation, together with the cell cycle distribution results (Fig. 2) argues that checkpoint genes differ in their ability to induce arrest, rather than in their ability to affect the production of ssDNA in Y' sequences of $yku70\Delta$ mutants.

The effect of checkpoint genes on the production of ssDNA in *cdc13-1* mutants is easily detected at a locus 12 kbp from the telomere, $cdc13-1 rad9\Delta$ mutants generate ssDNA more rapidly than cdc13-1 cells, which in turn generate ssDNA more rapidly than cdc13-1 $rad24\Delta$ cells (Lydall and Weinert 1995). To investigate whether $yku70\Delta$ mutants generate ssDNA beyond the Y' sequences, we examined ssDNA production at the YER188W locus, 8,500 bp from the telomere. This is the first unique gene close to the right telomere of chromosome V. Figure 5e shows that $yku70\Delta$ mutants generate considerably less ssDNA at this locus compared to cdc13-1 mutants, and compared to the amount of ssDNA they generate at their Y' sequences. Interestingly, $yku70\Delta rad9\Delta$ mutants generated some ssDNA at YER188W, which suggests that RAD9 may inhibit ssDNA production in $yku70\Delta$ mutants, as it does in cdc13-1 mutants (Lydall and Weinert 1995).

In summary, we find that $yku70\Delta$ mutants contain significantly more subtelomeric ssDNA at restrictive temperatures than at permissive temperatures. This suggests that the subtelomeric ssDNA is an important stimulus for activation of checkpoint control pathways in $yku70\Delta$ mutants.

EXO1 is required for ssDNA generation and arrest of yku70 Δ mutants

If ssDNA contributes to the signal that arrests cell division of $yku70\Delta$ mutants, then mutations that reduce the

amount of ssDNA should alleviate arrest. To test this hypothesis, we examined the effect of an $exo1\Delta$ mutation on arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants. EXO1 encodes an exonuclease that is normally recruited to DNA by the mismatch repair machinery (Tishkoff et al. 1997) and is involved in the resection of meiotic DSBs (Tsubouchi and Ogawa 2000), but does not appear to affect telomere length (Tsubouchi and Ogawa 2000). The resection of meiotic DSBs by 5' to 3' exonucleases, to generate 3' ssDNA tails, is in many ways similar to the processes that occur at damaged telomeres, which also produce 3' ssDNA tails. Figure 6a shows that an $exo1\Delta$ mutation strongly increases the ability of $yku70\Delta$ mutants to form colonies at 36°C and 37°C. The effect is as strong as that seen with a *chk1* Δ mutation (cf. Figs. 6 and 1). To determine whether the strong growth is due to alleviation of checkpoint control, we examined the cell cycle distribution of $yku70\Delta exo1\Delta$ double mutants in liquid cultures and found that $yku70\Delta exo1\Delta$ mutants do not accumulate in medial nuclear division (Fig. 6b).

To determine whether EXO1 was required for the production of ssDNA in $yku70\Delta$ mutants, we used QAOS to measure ssDNA production in Y' sequences during growth at 37°C (Fig. 6c). It is clear that $yku70\Delta exo1\Delta$ mutants contain extremely low levels of ssDNA at subtelomeric sequences at both 20°C and 37°C. The levels are indistinguishable from the levels in $YKU70^+$ cells. No ssDNA was detected on the AC strand at telomeres (Fig. 6d). Thus, it appears that EXO1 plays an important role in the accumulation of ssDNA in $yku70\Delta$ mutants and that in the absence of this EXO1-dependent ssDNA, $yku70\Delta$ mutants do not arrest cell division at 37°C.

EXO1 contributes to ssDNA production in cdc13-1 mutants

Since EXO1 is required to generate ssDNA at the telomeres of $yku70\Delta$ mutants, we asked whether EXO1 is also required to generate ssDNA and induce cell cycle arrest in cdc13-1 mutants. Figure 7a shows that cdc13-1 $exo1\Delta$ double mutants arrest at medial nuclear division, as do *cdc13-1* mutants, when cultured at 37°C, but with slower kinetics. Therefore, EXO1 contributes to, but is not completely required for, the arrest of cdc13-1 mutants grown at 37°C. When we examined the effect of *EXO1* on the appearance of ssDNA at the Y' 600 locus in cdc13-1 mutants, we found that ssDNA did appear in $cdc13-1 exo1\Delta$ mutants, reaching a level of about 6% after 1.5 h at 37°C and largely staying at this level for the rest of the experiment. This level of ssDNA was considerably less than the 30% level of ssDNA observed in cdc13-1 EXO1 strains (Fig. 7b). We conclude that EXO1 contributes to ssDNA generation in cdc13-1 mutants, but that another exonuclease (ExoX) must also contribute to the production of ssDNA in cdc13-1 mutants.

MRE11 protects telomeres in yku70 Δ mutants

EXO1 functions redundantly with *MRE11* to process DSBs to create 3' ssDNA tails (Tsubouchi and Ogawa

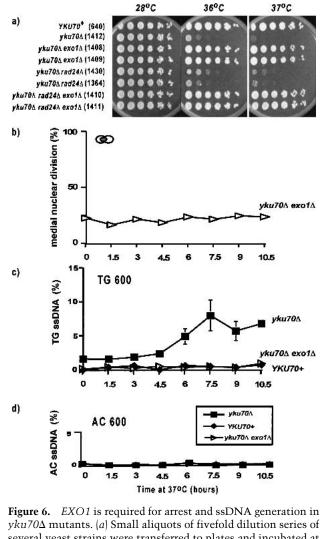


Figure 6. *EXOT* is required for arrest and ssDNA generation in $yku70\Delta$ mutants. (*a*) Small aliquots of fivefold dilution series of several yeast strains were transferred to plates and incubated at 28°C, 36°C, or 37°C for 2 d before being photographed. The relevant genotypes of the strains are indicated on the *left*, and the strain numbers shown in parentheses. (*b*) A $yku70\Delta exo1\Delta$ (DLY1408) yeast strain dividing exponentially at 20°C was placed at 37°C, and its cell cycle distribution was monitored by staining with DAPI (see Figs. 2 and 4n for the behavior of control strains). (*c*) Detection of ssDNA on the TG strand 600 bases from the telomeric end of the Y' sequence. The yeast strains were $yku70\Delta$: DLY1412; $yku70\Delta exo1\Delta$: DLY1408; and $YKU77^{\circ}$: DLY640. (*d*) Detection of ssDNA on the AC strand 600 bases from the telomeric end of the Y' sequence. The yeast strains are as in *c*.

2000) and in other aspects of DNA damage metabolism (Moreau et al. 2001; Lewis et al. 2002). Therefore, it was possible that *MRE11* also played a role in generating ssDNA in *yku70* Δ mutants. It was shown previously that *yku80* Δ *mre11* Δ double mutants display a synthetic poor growth phenotype (Nugent et al. 1998), which is opposite to the phenotype observed in *yku70* Δ *exo1* Δ strains (Fig. 6a), suggesting that *MRE11* does not have *EXO1*-type properties when combined with a *yku70* Δ , defect. To test this directly, we combined *yku70* Δ ,

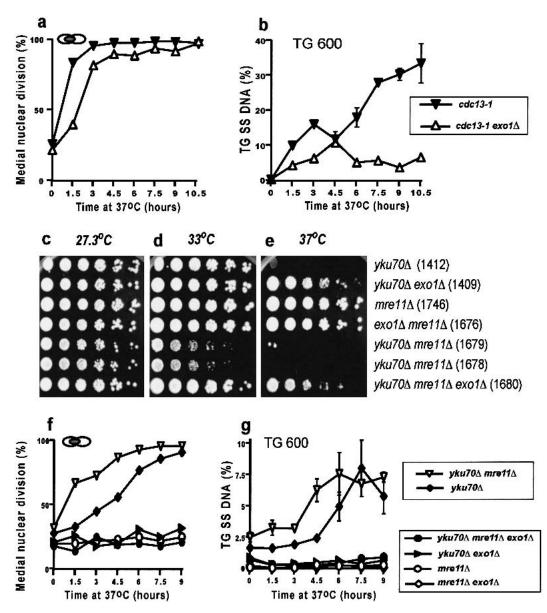


Figure 7. *EXO1* contributes to cell cycle arrest and ssDNA production in cdc13-1 and $yku70\Delta$ $mre11\Delta$ mutants. (*a*) Yeast strains 1230 (cdc13-1) and 1296 (cdc13-1 $exo1\Delta$) dividing exponentially at 20°C were placed at 37°C, and the fraction of cells in medial nuclear division was monitored by staining with DAPI. (*b*) Detection of ssDNA on the TG strand 600 bases from the telomeric end of the Y' sequence. The yeast strains were as in *a*. (c,d,e) Small aliquots of fivefold dilution series of several yeast strains were transferred to plates and incubated for 2 d before being photographed. The relevant genotypes of the strains are indicated on the *right*, and the strain numbers are shown in parentheses. (*f*) Yeast strains dividing exponentially at 20°C were placed at 37°C, and their cell cycle distribution was monitored. The strains were $yku70\Delta$: DLY1412; $yku70\Delta$ $mre11\Delta$: DLY1679; $yku70\Delta$ $mre11\Delta$ exo1 Δ : DLY1680; $yku70\Delta$ exo1 Δ : DLY1680; $yku70\Delta$ exo1 Δ : DLY1408; Δ $mre11\Delta$: DLY1746; and $mre11\Delta$ exo1 Δ : DLY1676. (*g*) Detection of ssDNA on the TG strand 600 bases from the telomeric end of the Y' sequence. The yeast strains were as in *f*.

 $exo1\Delta$, and $mre11\Delta$ mutations and examined their effects on growth, cell cycle arrest, and ssDNA production. Figure 7c–e shows that $yku70\Delta$ $mre11\Delta$ double mutants are more temperature-sensitive than $yku70\Delta$ mutants. Interestingly, this temperature-sensitive growth phenotype is dependent on EXO1 (Fig. 7e). Liquid culture experiments demonstrated that $yku70\Delta$ $mre11\Delta$ double mutants arrested at medial nuclear division more rapidly than $yku70\Delta$ single mutants, arguing that MRE11 functions to maintain telomere structure in $yku70\Delta$ mutants, rather than to degrade telomere structure, as *EXO1* does. The *mre11* Δ *yku70* Δ *exo1* Δ triple mutant did not arrest cell division at 37°C over a 9-h time course, suggesting that *EXO1*-dependent ssDNA is required for the cell cycle arrest of *yku70* Δ *mre11* Δ mutants cultured at 37°C.

Accumulation of telomeric ssDNA in $yku70\Delta$ mre11 Δ mutants provides an explanation for their rapid arrest at

medial nuclear division at 37°C. Even at 20°C (at the beginning of the experiment), $yku70\Delta$ $mre11\Delta$ double mutants contain more ssDNA than $yku70\Delta$ mutants in their Y' sequences (Fig. 7g). Furthermore, the amount of ssDNA increases more rapidly in $yku70\Delta$ $mre11\Delta$ double mutants than in $yku70\Delta$ mutants, which is consistent with the more rapid arrest observed in these strains. Finally, all of the ssDNA in $yku70\Delta$ $mre11\Delta$ double mutants appears to be dependent on *EXO1*.

Discussion

In this study, we examined the interactions of checkpoint pathways with the damaged telomeres that are present in *yku70* Δ mutant cells. We found that *yku70* Δ mutants, like *cdc13-1* mutants cultured at 37°C, contain increased levels of ssDNA in subtelomeric sequences. However, the amount of ssDNA observed in *yku70* Δ mutants is considerably less than in *cdc13-1* mutants. We demonstrated that *EXO1* but not *MRE11* is required for the production of this ssDNA and for cell cycle arrest. The correlation between the amount of ssDNA and cell cycle arrest in *yku70* Δ mutant cells is in many ways analogous to the situation observed with DSBs, when strains with more ssDNA arrest cell division for longer (Lee et al. 1998).

Interestingly, the damage induced in $yku70\Delta$ mutants activates a *RAD9*, *CHK1*, and *MEC1*-dependent checkpoint pathway, but is independent of *RAD17*, *RAD24*, *MEC3*, *DDC1*, and *DUN1*, whereas arrest of *cdc13-1* mutants is dependent on all eight genes. $yku70\Delta$ -induced damage is the first type of DNA damage demonstrated to have these properties. A complementary pathway appears to exist in meiosis, because prophase arrest of $dmc1\Delta$ mutants, which cannot complete meiotic recombination, depends on *RAD24* but is independent of *RAD9* and *CHK1* (Bishop et al. 1992; Lydall et al. 1996; Roeder and Bailis 2000).

We propose a model to explain the functions of checkpoint proteins in responding to (sub) telomere defects in cdc13-1 and $yku70\Delta$ mutants (Fig. 8). According to this model, in cdc13-1 mutants, unprotected telomeres are perceived as DSBs with a short 3' overhang. The Rad24p/ Rfc2-5p clamp loader complex (Green et al. 2000) recognizes this structure and loads the Ddc1p, Mec3p, Rad17p sliding clamp (Venclovas and Thelen 2000). The sliding clamp tethers an unknown protein, "P" (e.g., a helicase), which processes the telomeric termini to generate the "1st processed DNA damage". The "1st processed DNA damage" is the substrate that activates a Mec1p/Rad53p/ Dun1p-dependent checkpoint pathway. Rad9p might also participate in Rad53p activation (Gilbert et al. 2001). Rad53p and Dun1p are known to be responsible for 50% of the arrest observed in cdc13-1 mutants (Gardner et al. 1999). We suggest that protein "P" is then replaced by Exo1p and by another 5' to 3' exonuclease ExoXp, which have affinity for the "1st processed DNA damage." The ssDNA generated by Exolp and ExoXp activates a Rad9p/Mec1p/Chk1p- and Pds1p-dependent pathway. Chk1p/Pds1p are required for 50% of the arrest observed in *cdc13-1* mutants. Thus, together Rad53p/Dun1p and Chk1p/Pds1p pathways are responsible for 100% arrest of *cdc13-1* cells (Gardner et al. 1999; Sanchez et al. 1999). In *yku70* Δ mutants, unprotected telomeres are also perceived as DSBs with a short 3' overhang. But in cells lacking Yku70p, Exo1p can be recruited independently of Rad24p and the Rad17p, Mec3p, Ddc1p sliding clamp. Exo1p generates ssDNA that activates the Rad9p/Mec1p/Chk1p- and Pds1p-dependent checkpoint pathway. In *yku70* Δ mutants, this checkpoint pathway is responsible for the arrest of 75% of cells, and together with a *MAD2*-dependent pathway, results in arrest of 95% of cells (see Fig. 4n).

Rad24p, the sliding clamp, and protein P might play a minor role in responding to $yku70\Delta$ -induced DNA damage, but the "1st processed DNA damage" does not form to a sufficient extent to activate Rad53p and Dun1p. Teo and Jackson (2001) showed that Rad53p kinase is activated at 37°C in $yku80\Delta$ mutants, but at very low levels. Pellicioli et al. (1999) showed that cells released from hydroxyurea arrest contain residual Rad53 kinase activity, even when the cell cycle has restarted. Therefore, a threshold of Rad53p kinase activity may be necessary to cause cell cycle arrest, and this threshold may not be reached in $yku70\Delta$ mutants.

This model raises many questions, most importantly: Why do *DDC1*, *MEC3*, *RAD17*, *RAD24*, and *DUN1* play insignificant roles in the arrest of *yku70* Δ mutants? We suggest the following, not mutually exclusive, hypotheses: (1) Rad24p cannot bind to telomeres in *yku70* Δ mutants; (2) The "1st processed DNA damage" is not generated in *yku70* Δ mutants; (3) "ExoXp" is not recruited to telomeres in *yku70* Δ mutants; and (4) Exo1p competes with "ExoXp" for substrates and is preferentially recruited to telomeres in *yku70* Δ mutants.

Our experiments reveal for the first time the role of the spindle checkpoint in arresting $yku70\Delta$ mutants at 37°C. MAD2 contributes to the arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants, whereas BUB2 has no significant effect. Other studies have also shown interactions between mitotic spindle checkpoint pathways and cells that contain DNA damage. For example, all of the thymic lymphomas that developed in Brca2 knockout mice, defective in a protein thought to be involved in DNA repair (Venkitaraman 2002), had generated mutations in spindle checkpoint pathways Bub1 and Mad3 (Lee et al. 1999). Drosophila double parked mutants, defective in a homolog of CDT1, a gene whose product is required for DNA replication in fission yeast and Xenopus, depend on both DNA damage and spindle checkpoint genes to block cell division (Garner et al. 2001). bub2 mutations, but not mad2 mutations, allow cdc13-1 mutants to rebud and reduplicate their DNA, without completing anaphase (Wang et al. 2000). Finally, recent experiments demonstrated that Rad53p is required to modify Bfa1p, the partner of Bub2p in response to cdc13-1-induced DNA damage (Hu et al. 2001).

In our present experiments, the fraction or cells arrested by the *MAD2*-spindle checkpoint pathway was about fourfold lower than that arrested by the DNA dam-

EXO1-dependent ssDNA and yku70Δ checkpoints

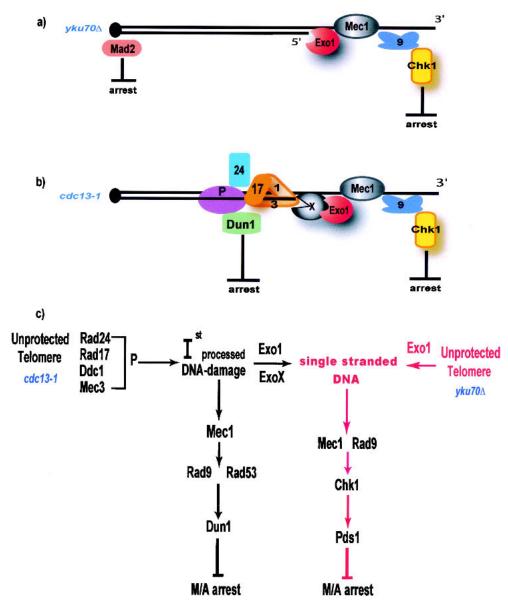


Figure 8. A model for the roles of checkpoint proteins in responding to cdc13-1 and $yku70\Delta$ -induced DNA damage. (a) A representation of the proteins that are responsible for the arrest of $yku70\Delta$ mutants. (b) A representation of proteins that are responsible for the arrest of cdc13-1 mutants. (c) A schematic model of the DNA damage checkpoint pathways responsible for metaphase/anaphase arrest of cdc13-1 and $yku70\Delta$ mutants.

age checkpoint (Fig. 4n). In a culture of $yku70\Delta chk1\Delta$ cells, missing DNA damage checkpoint control, the fraction of cells arrested at the spindle checkpoint increased to about 20% after 18 h. This shows that the spindle checkpoint can substitute for the DNA damage checkpoint and stop cells with damaged telomeres from dividing. In a culture of $yku70\Delta mad2\Delta$ cells, missing a spindle checkpoint pathway, the fraction of cells arrested at the DNA damage checkpoint reached a maximum of 75% (after 12 h; Fig. 4n). Why did the remaining 25% of cells fail to arrest? Presumably these cells were not arrested by the DNA damage. Instead, they appear to have generated another defect that triggers arrest by

the *MAD2*-dependent spindle checkpoint pathway. It is interesting that during the time course of our experiment the fraction of dividing cells did not significantly increase, suggesting that the cells that are not arrested at medial nuclear division carry lesions (perhaps chromosome losses?) that limit cell division. Consistent with this interpretation, only 18% of *yku70* Δ *mad2* Δ cells were able to form colonies after 18 h at 37°C (data not shown).

Why should cells with damaged telomeres activate spindle checkpoint pathways? One explanation is that cells with damaged telomeres generate telomere fusions and dicentric chromosomes at high rates. Indeed, it is known that mammalian cells lacking Ku suffer from

Table 1.Yeast strains

DLY	Genotype	Origin
640	Mata ade2-1 trp1-1 can1-100 leu2-3,112 his3-11,15 ura3 GAL+ psi+ ssd1-d2 RAD5	R. Rothstein
641	MATalpha ada2-1 trp1-1 can1-100 leu2-3,112 his3-11,15 ura3 GAL+ psi+ ssd1-d2 RAD5	R. Rothstein
883	MATa ddc1::KanMX4 rad5-535	M.P. Longhese
974	MATa yku70::HIS3 RAD5 rDNA::ADE2	L. Guarente
1028	MATalpha yku70::LEU2 rad5-535	S. Jackson
1095	MATa chk1::HIS3 RAD5	640 transformation
1199	MATa yku70::HIS3 rad17::LEU2 rad5-535	974×607
1208	MATalpha yku70::LEU2 mec3::TRP1 rad5-535	886 × 1028
1209	MATa yku70::LEU2 mec3::TRP1 rad5-535	886 × 1028
1210	MATa ddc1::KanMX4 yku70::LEU2 rad5-535	886 × 1028
1211	MAT alpha ddc1::KanMX4 yku70::LEU2 rad5-535	886 × 1028
1214	MATalpha yku70::LEU2 rad9::HIS3 rad24::TRP1 rad5-535	1028×261
1215	MATa yku70::LEU2 chk1::HIS3 RAD5	1028 × 1096
1230	Mata cdc13-1int RAD5	1108 transformation
1248	MATa rad5-535 sml1:KANMX4	M.P. Longhese
1249	MATa rad5-535 sml1del::KANMX4 mec1::HIS3	M.P. Longhese
1255	MATa cdc13-1int rad9::HIS3 RAD5	662×1218
1257	MATa cdc13-1int rad24::TRP1 RAD5	662 × 1218
1264	MATalpha yku70::LEU2 rad9::HIS3 RAD5	1218×1214
1266	MAT a yku70::LEU2 chk1::HIS3 RAD5	1028×1096
1271	MATa yku70::LEU2 rad9::HIS3 RAD5	1264×1285
1284	MATa rad24::TRP1 yku70::HIS3 RAD5	974 × 1258
1296	MATa exo1::LEU2 cdc13-1int RAD5	1272×1230
1312	MATalpha yku70::LEU2 mec1::HIS3 rad5-535 sml1::KANMX4	1028×1249
1325	MATa yku70::LEU2 mec1::HIS3 rad5-535 sml1::KANMX4	1028×1249
1327	MATa yku70::LEU2 mec1::HIS3 rad24::TRP1 sml1del::KANMX4	1312×1285
1337	MATA yku70::LEU2 rad9::HIS3 rad24::TRP1 rad5-535	1028×261
1347	MATalpha yku70::HIS3 rad17::LEU2 RAD5	1308×1284
1364	MATa rad24::TRP1yku70::HIS3 RAD5 MATalpha yku70::HIS3 RAD5	1308×1284
1366 1408	MATaipha yku70::HIS3 KAD3 MATa yku70::HIS3 exo1::LEU2 RAD5	1308×1284 1273×1364
1408	MATalpha yku70::HIS3 exo1::LEU2 RAD5 MATalpha yku70::HIS3 exo1::LEU2 RAD5	1273×1364 1273 × 1364
1409	MATalpha yku70::HIS3 exo1::LEU2 rad24::TRP1 RAD5	1273×1364 1273 × 1364
1410	MATa yku70::HIS3 exo1::LEU2 rad24::TRP1 RAD5 MATa yku70::HIS3 exo1::LEU2 rad24::TRP1 RAD5	1273×1364 1273 × 1364
1412	MATa yku70::HIS3 RAD5	1273×1364 1273 × 1364
1430	MATa yku70::HIS3 rad24::TRP1 RAD5	1399×1364
1439	MATalpha bub2::URA3 yku70::LEU2 rad5-535	1429×1371
1440	MATalpha bub2::URA3 yku70::LEU2 RAD5	1429×1371
1441	MATalpha bub2::URA3 yku70::LEU2 rad24::TRP1 RAD5	1429×1371
1442	MATa bub2::URA3 yku70::LEU2 chk1::HIS3 rad5-535	1429×1371
1443	MATa bub2::URA3 yku70::LEU2 chk1::HIS3 rad24::TRP1 RAD5	1429×1371
1445	MATa mad2::URA3 yku70::LEU2 rad5-535	1429×1372
1446	MATa mad2::URA3 yku70::LEU2 chk1::HIS3 RAD5	1429×1372
1448	MATa mad2::URA3 yku70::LEU2 rad24::TRP1 RAD5	1429×1372
1449	MATalpha mad2::URA3 yku70::LEU2 rad24::TRP1RAD5	1429×1372
1451	MATalpha bub2::URA3 RAD5	1429×1371
1496	MATalpha cdc13-1int bub2::URA3 RAD5	1451×1255
1497	MATalpha cdc13-1int bub2::URA3 RAD5	1451×1255
1498	MATa cdc13-1int mad2::URA3 rad9::HIS3 RAD5	1452×1255
1499	MATalpha cdc13-1int mad2::URA3 rad9::HIS3 RAD5	1452×1255
1500	MATalpha cdc13-1int mad2::URA3 RAD5	1452×1255
1501	MATa cdc13-1int mad2::URA3 RAD5	1452×1255
1502	MATa cdc13-1int bub2::URA3 RAD5 rad9::HIS3	1451×1255
1503	MATalpha cdc13-1int bub2::URA3 RAD5 rad9::HIS3	1451×1255
1505	MATalpha yku70::LEU2 rad24::TRP1 RAD5	1429×1371
1552	MATa mad2::URA3 yku70::LEU2	1400×1449
1553	MATa dun1::HIS3 yku70::LEU2	1400×1449
1554	MATalpha dun1::HIS3 yku70::LEU2	1400×1449
1676	MATalpha mre11::hisG::URA3 exo1::LEU2 RAD5	1330×1409
1678	MATalpha yku70::HIS3 mre11::hisG::URA3 RAD5	1330×1409
1679	MATalpha yku70::HIS3 mre11::hisG::URA3 RAD5	1330×1409
1680	MATa yku70::HIS3 mre11::his G::URA3 exo1::LEU2 RAD5	1330×1409
1746	MATalpha mre11::hisG::URA3 RAD5	1330×1409

The strains are in the W303 background and relevant genotypes are shown. Where strains are the products of a genetic cross, the numbers of parent strains are also indicated.

EXO1-dependent ssDNA and yku70Δ checkpoints

high levels of telomere fusions (Bailey et al. 1999; Hsu et al. 2000; Samper et al. 2000; d'Adda di Fagagna et al. 2001). In yeast, it has been shown that dicentric chromosomes, a product of telomere fusion, are activators of both spindle and DNA damage checkpoint pathways (Neff and Burke 1992).

5' to 3' exonucleases are thought to play a physiological role in the replication and stability of telomeres, but the nature of the exonuclease(s) responsible for telomere replication remains unclear (Wellinger et al. 1996; Diede and Gottschling 2001; Tsukamoto et al. 2001). We have shown that *EXO1* but not *MRE11* is required to generate ssDNA at the telomeres of *yku70* mutants, and so it is conceivable that *EXO1* also plays a role in physiological metabolism of telomeres. *MRE11*, in contrast to *EXO1*, stablizes telomeres of *yku70* mutants. If Exo1p does play a role in the physiology of telomeres, then other exonucleases must function redundantly with Exo1p because the telomeres of *exo1* mutants appear normal (Tsubouchi and Ogawa 2000).

Defects in mismatch repair are associated with checkpoint defects in mammalian cells (Bellacosa 2001; Yan et al. 2001) and enhanced cellular proliferation of yeast cells that lack telomerase (Rizki and Lundblad 2001). Our demonstration that the mismatch repair-associated exonuclease, Exo1p, affects the metabolism of damaged telomeres, and checkpoint responses, suggests a mechanism by which mismatch repair affects checkpoint control and tolerance of damaged telomeres.

Materials and methods

Yeast strains

All strains used in this study are isogenic and in the W303 background; in most cases we used RAD5 rather than rad5-535 strains (Fan et al. 1996), but we observed no effect of the rad5-535 mutation in any experiments. To construct strains, standard genetic procedures of transformation and tetrad analysis were followed (Adams et al. 1997). Since W303 strains contain an ade2-1 mutation YEPD (yeast extract, peptone, and dextrose), the medium was routinely supplemented with adenine at 50 mg/L. The $yku70\Delta$ deletion strains were obtained from L. Guarente (Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA) and S. Jackson (University of Arizona, Tuscon, AZ). A chk1::HIS3 deletion was created using pYS51 (Sanchez et al. 1999). The mec1 Δ and sml1 Δ deletion strains were obtained from M.P. Longhese (Paciotti et al. 2000). An exo1::LEU2 disruption was constructed using pHT246 and an mre::hisg::URA3 deletion with pHT16 (Tsubouchi and Ogawa 2000). $mad2\Delta$ and $bub2\Delta$ deletion strains were obtained from L Dirick. Dun1 Δ strains were obtained from T. Weinert. Other deletions have been described elsewhere (Lydall and Weinert 1997). cdc13-1int strains contain a *cdc13-1* integrated allele rather than one that was introduced by backcrossing from the A364a genetic background.

We have observed that other $yku70\Delta mre11\Delta$ ($exo1\Delta$) mutants enter crisis after several generations, and therefore we assume the strains analysed in Figure 7 have escaped or avoided crisis.

Serial dilution and growth on plates

Colony-purified yeast strains were inoculated into 1mL YEPD (ade), and grown overnight with aeration. In the morning, cultures were diluted 1:10, grown for about 4 h, sonicated, counted by hemocytometer, and diluted to 1.5×10^7 cells/mL. Fivefold dilution series were set up in 96-well plates, and small aliquots of the dilution series were transferred to YEPD (ade) plates using metal prongs. Plates were incubated for 2 d before being photographed.

Liquid culture, medial nuclear division, and viability assays

Single purified colonies were inoculated directly into 50 mL of YEPD (ade) and cultured overnight, with aeration, at 23°C. In the morning, cell densities were determined by hemocytometer, and cultures were diluted to 2×10^6 cells/mL (1×10^8 cells in 50 mL, or 0.4×10^8 cells in 20 mL). The cultures were placed at the restrictive temperature of 37°C, and samples were taken at the times indicated. Cultures were maintained at a concentration that allowed exponential growth, diluting when necessary with prewarmed (37°C) medium. Cell densities were determined by hemocytometer, and the corrected cell number was calculated as a product of cell density and cumulative dilution factor. To score checkpoint arrest, samples were taken at the indicated time points and fixed in 70% EtOH, then washed twice with water. To visualize the DNA, cells were resuspended in 0.2µg/mL 4'6'-diamidino-2 phenylindole (DAPI), sonicated, and examined by fluorescent microscopy. At least 200 cells were counted using the multicounter, and classified as described previously (Gardner et al. 1999) as: (1) unbudded, single DAPI-stained body; (2) small budded, single DAPI-stained body, the bud <50% of the diameter of the mother cell; (3) medial nuclear division, single DAPI-stained body, bud >50% diameter of mother cell; and (4) late nuclear division, two buds, and two DAPI-stained bodies, and (5) none of these types.

Microcolony assays

Colony-purified yeast strains were inoculated into 1 mL YEPD (ade), grown overnight with aeration, at the appropriate temperature (20°C for *cdc13-1* strains and 23°C for *yku70* Δ cells), until they reached a concentration of about 8 × 10⁶ cells/mL. Cells were arrested in G1 with alpha-factor for about 2.5 h, and arrest was monitored microscopically. Arrested cells were washed twice with YEPD (ade), sonicated briefly, and spread on plates. The plates were incubated at the indicated temperature. After an appropriate length of time the colonies were photographed.

Single-stranded DNA measurements

Single-stranded DNA was measured as described (Booth et al. 2001) except that we calculated ssDNA levels by comparison with a *PDA1* "loading control." *PDA1* is 30 kbp from the telomere and does not become single-stranded in *yku70* Δ mutants. The *PDA1* and *YER188W* primers are as described (Booth et al. 2001). The sequences of the primers used to detect ssDNA in the Y' sequence are available on request.

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EXO1-dependent single-stranded DNA at telomeres activates subsets of DNA damage and spindle checkpoint pathways in budding yeast *yku70* Δ mutants

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