Genetic and Physical Interactions Between Yeast RGR1 and SIN4 in Chromatin Organization and Transcriptional Regulation

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ABSTRACT

The SIN4 and RGR1 genes of Saccharomyces cerevisiae were identified by mutations in quite different genetic screens. We have shown that the SIN4 gene product is required for proper transcriptional regulation of many genes and that a sin4 mutation can affect either activation or repression of specific genes. We have suggested that this dual nature of SIN4 in transcriptional regulation is due to its involvement in chromatin organization. We now report that the role of RGR1 in gene regulation is similar to that of SIN4. SIN4 and RGR1 both function as negative transcriptional regulators of HO and IME1, and mutations in either gene lead to decreased expression of other genes including CTS1. Strains with sin4 or rgr1 mutations both have phenotypes similar to those caused by histone mutations, including suppression of δ insertion into promoters (Spt- phenotype), activation of promoters lacking UAS elements, and decreased superhelical density of plasmid DNA molecules. Overexpression of RGR1 suppresses the temperature sensitivity due to a sin4 mutation. Finally, we use yeast strains expressing GST fusion proteins to demonstrate that the Sin4p and Rgr1p proteins are physically associated in vivo. These results indicate that Sin4p and Rgr1p act together in vivo to organize chromatin structure and thus regulate transcription.

THE study of transcriptional regulation of HO gene has revealed its complex pattern and involvement of multiple regulators (HERSKOWITZ et al. 1992; NA-SMYTH 1993). SIN4 is a negative regulator of HO, since a sin4 mutation causes the expression of HO in the absence of transcriptional activators like SWI5 (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992). SIN4 is the same as TSF3 and is required for transcriptional repression of the GAL1-GAL10 promoter (CHEN et al. 1993). SIN4 is required for the transcriptional repression of the IME1 gene (COVITZ et al. 1994). In contrast to these results indicating that SIN4 functions as a negative transcriptional regulator, sin4 mutants are defective for the transcriptional activation of a number of yeast genes, including CTS1, HIS4, and MATa2 (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992, 1995).

We have suggested that SIN4 functions by organizing the structure of chromatin, and thus a sin4 mutation can have defects in either transcriptional activation or transcriptional repression, depending upon the promoter (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992). A sin4 mutant has phenotypes also seen in strains with mutations in histone genes, supporting the chromatin hypothesis. These phenotypes include expression of promoters that lack UAS elements, suppression of the promoter inactivation caused by insertion of a Ty δ transposable element (Spt- phenotype), and altered superhelical density of circular DNA molecules (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992). RGR1 was first identified by a mutation that allowed oversecretion of a mouse α -amylase protein expressed in yeast (SAKAI *et al.* 1988). The RGR1 gene encodes a 123-kD protein with no significant homology to proteins in the databases. The gene is essential, but the carboxyl-terminal one-third of the protein can be deleted, resulting in the viable $rgr1-\Delta 2::URA3$ truncation mutant (SAKAI *et al.* 1990). This mutant displayed a number of phenotypes, including resistance to glucose repression, sporulation deficiency, temperature sensitive lethality, and abnormal cellular morphology.

We have recently demonstrated that RGR1, like SIN4, functions as a negative regulator of HO gene expression (STILLMAN et al. 1994). Epistasis analysis of sin4 and rgr1 mutants indicate that SIN4 and RGR1 act in the same genetic pathway for HO regulation. COVITZ et al. (1994) recently demonstrated that transcriptional repression of the IME1 gene requires both SIN4 and RGR1. In this communication we report that sin4 and rgr1 mutants have the same spectrum of phenotypes. Both mutants have an Spt- phenotype, allow expression of UAS-less promoters, show an altered linking number of circular DNA molecules, and show defects in transcriptional regulation. Finally, we show that the Sin4p and Rgr1p proteins are physically associated *in vivo*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and media: Yeast strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Strain FY56 was obtained from FRED WINSTON and

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TABLE	1	
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Yeast strains

Strain	Genotype
DY150	MATa ade2 can1 his3 leu2 trp1 ura3
DY881	MATa ade2 his3 leu2 lys2 trp1 ura3
DY1717	MATa sin4::TRP1 ade2 his3 leu2 lys2 trp1 ura3
DY2010	MATa $rgr1-\Delta2::TRP1$ can leve $trp1$ ura 3
DY2081	ΜΑΤα his4-912δ lys2-128δ sin4::URA3 ura3
DY2273	MATa ade2 leu2 lys2 trp1 ura3
DY2278	MATa sin4::TRP1 ade2 leu2 lys2 trp1 ura3
DY2578	MATα rgr1-Δ2::URA3 his4-9126 lys2-1286 ura3
DY2610	MATa URA3::CTS1-lacZ ade2 his3 leu2 lys2 trp1 ura3
DY2643	MATa URA3::CTS1-lacZ sin4::LEU2 ade2 leu2 lys2 trp1 ura3
DY2645	MATa URA3::CTS1-lacZ rgr1- Δ 2::TRP1 ade2 his3 leu2 lys2 trp1 ura3
DY2699	MATa/MATα HO::lacZ HMRa HMLa +/swi5::URA3 ade2 ade6 can1 his3 leu2 trp1 ura3
DY2736	MATa/MAT α HO::lacZ HMRa HMLa +/swi5::URA3 +/rgr1- Δ 2::TRP1 ade2 ade6 can1 his3 leu2 trp1 ura3
FY56	MATα his4-9128 lys2-1288 ura3-52
A488	MATa aro7 can1 gal2 trp1 ura3
A479	MATa $rgr1-\Delta 2::URA3$ can1 leu2 trp1 ura3

strains A479 and A488 were obtained from A. SAKAI. All strains are in the S288C background except DY150, which is a W303 strain, and DY2699 and DY2736 that are in the K1107 background, which contains a chromosomal HO::lacZ reporter. Strains DY881, DY1717, DY2273, and DY2278 have been described previously (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992, 1995). Plasmids M1977 and M1978 digested with KpnI were used to replace the RGR1 gene with the rgr1- $\Delta 2$:: TRP1 and rgr1- $\Delta 2$:: URA3 truncation alleles, respectively, by the one step gene replacement method (ROTHSTEIN 1991). Gene replacements were confirmed by Southern blotting. Plasmid M1593 was cleaved with StuI and used to construct strains with CTS1-lacZ reporters integrated at the URA3 locus. Strains were derived using standard genetic techniques (SHERMAN et al. 1986). Media and cell cultivation conditions are indicated in the text or as described previously (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992, 1995).

Plasmids: Plasmids M1977 and M1978 were designed for gamma disruption (SIKORSKI and HIETER 1989) of *RGR1* and are derived from plasmids YIplac204 and YIplac211 (GIETZ and SUGINO 1988), with *TRP1* and *URA3* markers, respectively. These plasmids create *rgr1*- $\Delta 2$ truncation alleles by replacing the 1.3-kb C-terminal *XbaI* fragment of *RGR1* gene with the *TRP1* or *URA3* genetic markers. The YIp-*CTS1::lacZ*integrating reporter plasmid M1593 is derived from the YIp353 (MYERS *et al.* 1986) and contains 1.3 kb of the *CTS1* promoter-driving expression of the *lacZ* gene. Plasmid pLL53, containing a *HIS4:lacZ* gene fusion under control of the his4– 912d promoter (with a *Ty* δ insert), and plasmid pLG Δ -178, which has a UAS-less *CYC1* promoter driving *lacZ* expression, have been described (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992).

Plasmid pRD56, which is plasmid pRS316 (URA3 marker) containing a *GAL1* promoter-driving expression of glutathione-S-transferase (GST) followed by a polylinker (PARK *et al.* 1993), was obtained from RAY DESHAIES. Plasmid M1967, which expresses a GST-Rgr1p fusion protein from the GAL1 promoter, was constructed by inserting a 4.2-kb *Bam*HI-SaII *RGR1* fragment into pRD56. Similarly, plasmid M1968, which expresses a GST-Sin4p fusion protein from the GAL1 promoter, was constructed by inserting a 3.8-kb *Eco*RI-SaII *SIN4* fragment from clone M1389 into pRD56. The 5' end of clone M1389 was generated by ExoIII (for DNA sequencing), and the *Eco*RI and *XhoI* sites are from the plasmid polylinker. Plasmid M1391 (*LEU2* marker) that expresses an HA epitopetagged version of Sin4p from the *ADH1* promoter was con-

structed by inserting a Sall-Sacl fragment containing the SIN4 coding region into plasmid pAD5 (FIELD et al. 1988), obtained from MICHAEL WIGLER. Plasmid M1981 (HIS3 marker), which expresses a LexA-Rgr1p fusion protein from the GAL1 promoter, was constructed by inserting a 4.2-kb BamHI-Sall RGR1 fragment into a pSH2-1 (HANES and BRENT 1989) derivative where the polylinker had been modified to change the reading frame. Although the GST-Rgr1p and LexA-Rgr1p fusion proteins lack the first five amino acids of Rgr1p, each fusion protein can complement the rgr1 defect. The entire SIN4 coding region is expressed in the GST-Sin4p and HA epitope-Sin4p fusion proteins, and they complement a sin4 mutation.

Antisera to Sin4p: A GST-Sin4p fusion protein was expressed in *Escherichia coli* from plasmid M2309, which was constructed by inserting the region encoding the first 458 amino acids of Sin4p into the pGEX-3X vector (Pharmacia). Thus, the antisera recognizes Sin4p in addition to epitopes in GST. The fusion protein was purified by glutathione-agarose chromatography (SMITH and JOHNSON 1988), dialyzed against phosphate-buffered saline, and used to immunize rabbits (HRP Inc., Denver, PA).

GST copurifications: Strain DY150 (wild type) containing the indicated plasmids was used for this experiment. Cells were grown in 1 liter of synthetic complete media with 2% galactose as a carbon source; the media lacked either uracil and leucine or uracil and histidine for plasmid selection. Protein extracts were prepared as described (BRAZAS and STILLMAN 1993). Glutathione-agarose (1.5 ml bed volume, Sigma) was added to 20 mg of yeast protein, and the mixture was incubated at 4° with continual rotation. The slurry was poured into a column, the flow-through was collected by washing with 100 NaCl, 20 mM Tris pH 8.0, 10% glycerol, 0.5 mM EDTA, and 0.5 mM DTT; the bound proteins were eluted with 100 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris pH 8.0, 10% glycerol, 10 mM reduced glutathione. Fifty microliters each of the flowthrough and the bound fractions and 50 μ g of the total protein were electrophoresed on SDS-polyacrylamide gels and electroblotted. The Western blots were incubated either with the anti-GST-Sin4p sera, anti-LexA sera (obtained from ROGER BRENT), or anti-Spt2p (SPT2 = SIN1) sera (obtained from WARREN KRUGER and IRA HERSKOWITZ) and visualized with the ECL (Amersham) enhanced chemiluminescence kit.

Other methods: RNA blot hybridization was performed using CTS1 and Actin probes as described previously (DOHR-

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MANN *et al.* 1992). Transformation of yeast was carried out using the Hi Lithium transformation protocol (JIANG and STILLMAN 1995). Two-dimensional electrophoresis of DNA in the presence of chloroquine was performed as described previously (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992). Quantitative determinations of β -galactosidase activity were performed in triplicate as described (BREEDEN and NASMYTH 1987).

RESULTS

Effects of rgr1 and sin4 mutations in different strain **backgrounds:** The *sin4* mutation was first identified by its ability to permit expression of HO in the absence of the Swi5p transcriptional activator (NASMYTH et al. 1987; STERNBERG et al. 1987). We demonstrated previously that an rgr1 mutation also suppresses the swi5 defect for expression of HO (STILLMAN et al. 1994). Epistasis analysis indicated that SIN4 and RGR1 act in the same pathway for HO expression. In these experiments, however, the strains bearing a $rgr1-\Delta 2::URA3$ truncation allele were not isogenic with the parent strain and the sin4 single mutant. The rgr1- $\Delta 2$ truncation allele was originally constructed in an S288C strain (SAKAI et al. 1990). We therefore introduced a rgr1- $\Delta 2$ truncation mutation into the K1107 strain background that contains a chromosomal HO::lacZ reporter. When this diploid DY2699 containing the $rgr1-\Delta 2$:: TRP1 truncation mutation was sporulated, no viable Trp+ progeny were recovered, suggesting that K1107 strains bearing the rgr1- $\Delta 2$ truncation allele are not viable. Alternatively, the rgr1- $\Delta 2$ mutation may cause a germination defect in K1107 strains.

We investigated the phenotype of the $rgr1-\Delta 2$ truncation mutation in two other commonly used strain backgrounds, W303 and YPH499/YPH500 (S288C). The rgr1- $\Delta 2$ truncation mutation was introduced into diploids, and we were able to isolate haploid rgr1- $\Delta 2$ segregants that grow extremely slowly and are inviable at 37°. We also noted that the viability of rgr1 mutants drastically decreases when liquid cultures enter stationary phase. It has been previously noted that both sin4 and rgr1 mutants are clumpy, due to an apparent defect in cell separation (SAKAI et al. 1990; JIANG and STILLMAN 1992). Interestingly, we found that the sin4 mutation causes an additional phenotype in the S288C background. These strains are flocculent, in that liquid cultures cells aggregate in large clumps, and this flocculence can be reversed by addition of EDTA. The sin4 mutation does not cause a flocculent phenotype in W303 strains. All of the experiments reported here were conducted with S288C strains. The sin4 mutations used are null alleles with complete deletion of the SIN4 gene, and the *rgr1*- $\Delta 2$ allele used is a truncation allele expressing the first two-thirds of the Rgr1p protein.

Similar phenotypes in rgr1 and sin4 mutants: It has been shown that expression of the CTS1 gene is reduced in sin4 mutants (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992, 1995), and we therefore decided to determine whether

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Strain	Genotype	CTS1-lacZ	Percentage
DY2610	wildtype	2900 ± 290	100 %
DY2643	sin4	1000 ± 20	34 %
DY2645	rgr1	520 ± 30	18 %



FIGURE 1.— *CTS1* expression is decreased in an *rgr1* mutant. (A) Quantitative measurements of β -galactosidase activity were made from extracts prepared from strains DY2610 (wild type), DY2643 (*sin4*), and DY2645 (*rgr1*), which contain an integrated *CTS1-lacZ* reporter. Extracts for β -galactosidase assays were prepared from cells growing logarithmetically in YEPD media. (B) A Northern blot was probed with a *CTS1* probe and an Actin probe as an internal control. RNA was prepared from the following strains: lane 1, A488 (wild type); lane 2, A479 (*rgr1*). Cells were grown in YEPD media. Total RNA was prepared from cells growing logarithmetically in YEPD media.

RGR1 regulates CTS1 expression. Isogenic wild-type, sin4, and rgr1 mutants containing an integrated CTS1lacZ reporter were constructed and β -galactosidase activity was measured (Figure 1). CTS-lacZ expression is reduced more than fivefold by an rgr1 mutation. Northern blot analysis demonstrates that expression of the chromosomal CTS1 gene is similarly reduced. We have shown previously that expression of HIS4-lacZ, Ty1-lacZ, and MATaalpha2-lacZ reporters is reduced 5–20-fold in a sin4 mutant (JIANG and STILLMAN 1995), and an rgr1 mutation causes a similar reduction in expression of these genes (data not shown). We conclude that genes such as CTS1 that require SIN4 for full expression also require RGR1.

Expression of yeast genes normally requires both a UAS and a TATA element. It has been shown that a *sin4* mutation causes inappropriate expression of promoters

TABLE 2

sin4 and rgr1 mutations allow expression from promoters lacking a UAS element

Strain	Genotype	CYC1 (Δ UAS)-lacZ	Increase
DY2273	wild type	5.1 ± 0.2	1×
DY2278	sin4	84 ± 7	$16 \times$
DY2010	rgr1	290 ± 20	57×

Plasmid pLG Δ -178, which has a UAS-less CYC1 promoter driving *lacZ* expression, was used to measure UAS-independent expression.

lacking a UAS element (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992; CHEN et al. 1993). As shown in Table 2, an rgr1 mutation also permits activation of a UAS-less promoter. A variety of other mutations have been shown to cause UAS-less activation, including spt6/ssn20/cre2 (NEIGEBORN et al. 1987; PRELICH and WINSTON 1993), cre1/spt10 (DENIS 1990; PRELICH and WINSTON 1993), cdc68/spt16 (MA-LONE et al. 1991), mot1 (DAVIS et al. 1992), gal11/spt13 (CHEN et al. 1993), sud1 (YAMASHITA 1993), spt21, bur1/ sgv1, bur2, bur3, and bur6 (PRELICH and WINSTON 1993). It has been suggested that this inappropriate activation of UAS-less promoters results from these mutations affecting chromatin structure, since mutations in HHT1/ BUR5 (encoding histone H3) activate UAS-less promoters (PRELICH and WINSTON 1993), and a similar effect is seen when histone H4 levels are experimentally depleted (HAN and GRUNSTEIN 1988).

rgr1 is a weak Spt- mutation: Promoter inactivation may result from insertion of Ty transposon (WINSTON et al. 1984). The SPT genes were identified by mutations that suppress these Ty promoter insertions (WINSTON et al. 1984). Because sin4 has a weak Spt- phenotype (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992), we determined the effect of an rgr1 mutation on promoters containing Ty insertions. In plasmid his4912d-lacZ, expression of lacZ is driven by the HIS4 promoter interrupted by a Ty δ insertion element. This reporter plasmid was transformed into wild-type, sin4, and rgr1 mutants, and lacZ activity was measured. The sin4 and rgr1 mutations cause 20- and 90-fold increases, respectively, in expression of the his4-9128-lacZ reporter (Table 3A). To determine the ability of sin4 and rgr1 to confer an Sptphenotype, we constructed derivatives of strain FY56 (which contains the *his*4-912 δ and *lys*2-128 δ alleles) that contain the sin4 null and rgr1- $\Delta 2$ truncation mutations. Both the sin4 and rgr1 mutations are able to suppress the his4912d mutation, since these strains are phenotypically His+ (Table 3B). However, sin4 and rgr1 mutations are unable to suppress the *hys2-128* δ mutation. This result is not surprising for a weak spt mutation, since other spt mutations are known that suppress his4-912 δ but not *lys2*-128 δ (PRELICH and WINSTON 1993).

It has been shown that the SPT6, SPT11 (HTA1), and SPT12 (HTB1) genes, when present on a multicopy plasmid, can suppress the *his4*-912 δ and *lys2*-128 δ muta-

TABLE 3

sin4 and rgr1 mutants have a weak Spt phenotype

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Strain		Genotype	his4-9128-lacZ	Increase
	eporter ^a			
DY2273		Wild type	0.3 ± 0.1	$1 \times$
DY2278		sin4	13 ± 0.4	$22\times$
DY2010		rgr1	56 ± 3	93×
Strain		Genotype	His phenotype	Lys phenotype
	B.	Suppression	1 of <i>his4</i> -912 δ and <i>b</i>	ys2-128δ ^b
FY56		Wild type	-	_
DY2081		sin4	+	_
DV9578		ror 1	+	_

^a Strains DY2273 (wild type), DY2278 (sin4), and DY2010 (rgr1) were transformed with plasmid pLL53, which contains a his4-912 δ -lacZ reporter, and grown under uracil selection. Quantitative measurements of β -galactosidase activity were made.

^b Suppression of the $his4912\delta$ and $lys2\cdot128\delta$ alleles in strains FY56 (wild type), DY2081 (*sin4*), and DY2578 (*rgr1*), was scored after replica plating to SC plates lacking histidine or lysine, respectively.

tions (CLARK-ADAMS *et al.* 1988; FASSLER and WINSTON 1988). Thus, these genes can confer an Spt- phenotype either through loss of function or when overproduced. Neither *SIN4* nor *RGR1* are capable of conferring an Spt- phenotype when overproduced.

RGR1 is a multicopy suppressor of sin4: Although SIN4 and RGR1 appear to play similar roles in transcriptional activation, several observations suggest that RGR1 has a more important role. A strain with a sin4 gene deletion is viable and relatively healthy (at least at 30°), whereas deletion of RGR1 is lethal at all temperatures. A strain with the rgr1- $\Delta 2$ truncation allele is viable but extremely unhealthy. The sin4 rgr1- $\Delta 2$ double mutant grows as well as the rgr1- $\Delta 2$ single mutant, and thus rgr1 is epistatic to sin4.

A strain with a sin4 mutation shows temperature sensitive growth at 37° (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992; CHEN et al. 1993). However, this temperature sensitivity can be suppressed by overexpression of RGR1 from a multicopy plasmid. This result is consistent with the idea that SIN4 and RGR1 play similar roles but that RGR1 is more important. Interestingly, YEp-RGR1 cannot suppress the sin4 defect at the HO locus. We have identified another multicopy suppressor of the sin4 growth defect, and characterization of this gene is in progress (Y. YU, Y. W. JIANG and D. J. STILLMAN, unpublished results). An rgr1 mutation also confers temperature sensitive growth (SAKAI et al. 1988, 1990). However, SIN4 overexpression from a multicopy plasmid is not able to suppress the rgr1 temperature sensitivity. We have used a multicopy suppression screen to identify other genes capable of suppressing the 37° growth defect due to the rgr1- $\Delta 2$ mutation (L. LIAN, Y. W. JIANG and D. J. STILLMAN, unpublished results).



The sin4 and rgr1 mutations affect DNA linking number: Each nucleosome induces a single superhelical turn in closed circular DNA, and thus determination of superhelical density, or linking number, gives a measurement of nucleosome content. We demonstrated previously that a sin4 mutation leads to a change in the linking number of plasmid DNA using two-dimensional electrophoresis on agarose gels containing chloroquine (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992), and we therefore decided to determine if an rgr1 mutation has the same effect. As shown in Figure 2 the sin4 and rgr1 mutations each cause a substantial increase in the linking number of the YCp50 plasmid. In this figure the two-dimensional gel resolves topoisomers of DNA in a broad arc, from the lower left, up to the center, and then down to the right, with linking number increasing as one proceeds clockwise. In sin4 and rgr1 mutants the distribution of YCp50 topoisomers shows a clockwise shift on the twodimensional gel. The linking number of other plasmids is also altered in a sin4 mutant (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992), and thus the effect is not specific to YCp50. We suggest that the sin4 and rgr1 mutations cause a decrease in nucleosome density or stability, and that these changes in chromatin structure lead to the observed increase in linking number.

Sin4p and Rgr1p physically interact: The fact that the sin4 and rgr1 mutations cause similar phenotypes suggested that the Rgr1p and Sin4p proteins might physically interact. We decided to use a copurification assay to test this hypothesis. The first experiment used a yeast strain that expresses a Glutathione-S-Transferase-Rgr1p fusion protein. These cells also express Sin4p from the ADH1 promoter, since we have been unable to immunologically detect Sin4p expressed from its native promoter. Protein extracts were prepared and the GST-Rgr1p protein was purified by glutathione chromatog-

FIGURE 2.-Linking number of episomal DNA molecules is altered by sin4 or rgr1 mutations. DNA was isolated from logarithmically growing yeast cells, electrophoresed in two-dimensional chloroquine-agarose gels and subjected to Southern blot analysis with ³²P-labeled YCp50 DNA. Left, DY2273 (wild type); middle, DY2278 (sin4); right, DY2010 (rgr1). The directions of the first and second dimensions are indicated.

rgr1

raphy. The results shown in Figure 3 (lane 3) demonstrate that Sin4p copurified with GST-Rgr1p. Control experiments demonstrate the specificity of the Sin4p-Rgr1p copurification: SIN4p was not copurified from a yeast strain expressing GST instead of the GST-Sin4p fusion (Figure 3, lane 6).

The reciprocal experiment was performed, using a GST-Sin4p fusion protein, to further demonstrate the interaction. In this experiment, the yeast expressed Rgr1p fused to LexA, and antibody to lexA was used to detect the LexA-Rgr1p fusion protein. The results show that LexA-Rgr1p copurifies with GST-Sin4p (Figure 3, lane 9). LexA-Rgr1p does not bind to GST alone (Figure 3, lane 12), and thus GST-Sin4p is required for copurification of LexA-Rgr1p.

Although unlikely, it is possible that many proteins bind nonspecifically to the GST-Rgr1p and GST-Sin4p columns. To demonstrate specificity of the Rgr1p-Sin4p interaction, a Western blot containing the protein fractions from yeast expressing GST-Rgr1p or GST-Sin4p was probed with antisera to Spt2p (= Sin1p). The Spt2pprotein does not bind to GST-Rgr1p or GST-Sin4p (Figure 3, lanes 13-18). Additionally, silver staining of protein gels demonstrates that the flow through and bound fractions from the GST-Rgr1p and GST-Sin4p columns contain very different protein species (data not shown).

We conclude that Sin4p and Rgr1p physically interact, although we cannot determine whether these two proteins interact directly or via intermediate proteins. It is worth noting that the fusion proteins used in these assays are functional in vivo, since they complement sin4 or rgr1 mutations.

DISCUSSION

We have shown that *sin4* and *rgr1* mutants have many properties in common. Both mutants have a defect in



FIGURE 3.—Copurification of Sin4p and Rgr1p. Strain DY150 (wild type) contained the following plasmids: lanes 1-3, M1967 (GST-Rgr1p) and M1391 (ADH-Sin4p); lanes 4-6, pRD56 (GST vector) and M1391 (ADH-Sin4p); lanes 7-9, M1968 (GST-Sin4p) and M1981 (pLexA-Rgr1p); lanes 10-12, pRD56 (GST vector) and M1981 (pLexA-Rgr1p); lanes 13-15, M1967 (GST-Rgr1p) and M1391 (ADH-Sin4p); lanes 16-18, M1968 (GST-Sin4p) and M1981 (pLexA-Rgr1p). Protein extracts were prepared and fractionated by glutathioneagarose chromatography into flowthrough (F) and bound (B) fractions. The flowthrough and bound fractions (50 μ l of each), along with 50 μ g of the unfractionated total (T) protein mixture, were analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-GST-Sin4p antibody (lanes 1-6), anti-LexA antibody (lanes 10-12), or anti-Spt2p antibody (lanes 13-18). Some of the GST-Rgr1p (lane 2) and the GST (lane 5) protein remained in the supernatant, indicating that the GST proteins were not quantitatively absorbed by the glutathione-agarose beads.

cell separation, an abnormal morphology, and temperature sensitive lethality (SAKAI et al. 1990; JIANG and STILLMAN 1992). SIN4 and RGR1 both function as negative regulators of HO and IME1 expression, yet they are also required for the full transcriptional activation of other genes, such as HIS4 and CTS1. We have suggested that the effects of a sin4 mutation may be through alterations in chromatin structure, based on the expression of promoters containing δ element insertions, the inappropriate activation of UAS-less promoters, and the altered superhelical density of circular DNA molecules (JIANG and STILLMAN 1992). In this report we demonstrate that an rgr1 mutation also causes all of these phenotypes. Moreover, RGR1 overexpression from a multicopy plasmid suppresses the temperature sensitive growth defect of a sin4 mutant, although SIN4 overexpression does not suppress the rgr1 temperature sensitive lethality. Finally, we have demonstrated that the Sin4p and Rgr1p proteins are associated in vivo. Thus, each mutation leads to a similar spectrum of phenotypes, and we conclude that SIN4 and RGR1 function together in vivo.

Sin4p and Rgr1p apparently function in a multi-subunit protein complex *in vivo*. However, our data does not allow us to determine whether any other proteins are present in the complex. Sin4p and Rgr1p are both large proteins, at 111 and 123 kD, respectively. The predicted amino acid sequences derived from *SIN4* and *RGR1* do not provide clues as to function. Although there are no genes with significant homology to *SIN4* in the database, the *Caenorhabditis elegans* C38C10.5 and the *Aspergillus niger* and *A. nidulans* CreA genes show some homology to *RGR1* (SULSTON *et al.* 1992; DRYS-DALE *et al.* 1993).

SIN4 and RGR1 have been described as global transcriptional regulators because they affect many diverse yeast genes. There are several other examples of yeast global transcriptional regulators that are proposed to form multiprotein complexes. The SSN6 (CYC8) and TUP1 gene products, which repress the transcription of many genes, are present in a complex of apparent size of 1200 kD (WILLIAMS et al. 1991). Genetic criteria suggest that the SPT4, SPT5, and SPT6 genes function together in transcriptional regulation, possibly by affecting chromatin structure, and immune precipitation experiments demonstrate that at least the Spt5p and Spt6p proteins physically interact (SWANSON and WIN-STON 1992). The Ccr4p transcriptional regulator is in a complex with several other proteins (DRAPER et al. 1994).

The SWI1/ADR6, SWI2/SNF2, SWI3, SNF5, and SNF6 genes are required for the activation of a large number of yeast genes, and it has been suggested that they act by altering the local chromatin structure at promoters (WINSTON and CARLSON 1992). It has been recently demonstrated that these SWI/SNF gene products, along with four additional proteins, are associated in a large complex that has DNA-dependent ATPase activity (CAIRNS et al. 1994; PETERSON et al. 1994). Finally, COL-LART and STRUHL (1994) recently demonstrated that the NOT1/CDC39, NOT2/CDC36, NOT3 and NOT4 genes, which function as global negative regulators of transcription, form a multiprotein complex. Thus, large multiprotein complexes play important roles in transcriptional regulation. Interestingly, it appears that none of these proteins present in these complexes can bind to DNA directly.

SIN4 and RGR1 both function as negative regulators of some genes and positive regulators of other genes. We suggest that sin4 and rgr1 mutations affect the structure of chromatin. We note that HO and IME1 are under strong negative regulation, which may be mediated in part by chromatin structure, and that sin4 and rgr1 mutations disrupt this negative regulation (COVITZ et al. 1994; STILLMAN et al. 1994). In contrast, the chromatin structure at genes such as HIS4 makes it ready for rapid transcriptional activation, and sin4 or rgr1 mutations reduce the level of HIS4 expression (DEVLIN et al. 1991; JIANG and STILLMAN 1995). Although there are other explanations, we suggest that these different genes are affected differently by the sin4 and rgr1 mutations because their chromatin is organized in different ways.

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