Evidence That the Transcriptional Regulators SIN3 and RPD3, and a Novel Gene (SDS3) with Similar Functions, Are Involved in Transcriptional Silencing in S. cerevisiae

David Vannier,* Dina Balderes* and David Shore*^{,†}

*Department of Microbiology, College of Physicians and Surgeons of Columbia University, New York, New York 10032 and [†]Départment de Biologie Moléculaire, Université de Genève, CH-1211 Genève 4, Switzerland

> Manuscript received June 21, 1996 Accepted for publication September 4, 1996

ABSTRACT

In a screen for extragenic suppressors of a silencing defective $rap1^{s} hmr\Delta A$ strain, recessive mutations in 21 different genes were found that restored repression to *HMR*. We describe the characterization of three of these *SDS* (suppressors of defective silencing) genes. *SDS16* and *SDS6* are known transcriptional modifiers, *SIN3(RPD1/UME4/SDI1/GAM2)* and *RPD3(SD12)*, respectively, while the third is a novel gene, *SDS3*. *SDS3* shares the meiotic functions of *SIN3* and *RPD3* in that it represses *IME2* in haploid cells and is necessary for sporulation in diploid cells. However, *sds3* mutations differ from *sin3* and *rpd3* mutations in that they do not derepress *TRK2*. These *sds* mutations suppress a variety of *cis*- and *trans*-defects, which impair the establishment of silencing at *HMR*. Any one of the *sds* mutations slightly increases telomere position effect while a striking synergistic increase in repression is observed in a *rap1^s* background. Epistasis studies suggest that *SDS3* works in a different pathway from *RPD3* and *SIN3* to affect silencing at *HMR*. Together these results show that defects in certain general transcriptional modifiers can have a pronounced influence on position-effect gene silencing in yeast. Mechanisms for this increase in postion effect are discussed.

LTHOUGH most studies of gene expression in eu- ${f A}$ karyotes have focused on the activation of tissuespecific genes, it is clear that both general and specific mechanisms of stable gene repression play a critical role in the development and maintenance of differentiated cell types. Heterochromatin, the densely staining regions of eukaryotic chromosomes that replicate late in S phase and contain few active genes, may provide a model to understand many specific forms of gene regulation. Heterochromatin can influence the expression of nearby genes resulting in their repression in sub populations of cells in an organism, a phenomenon called position-effect variegation (PEV) (reviewed in HENIKOFF 1990). Recent studies indicate that PEV may be related to the inheritance of stable patterns of homeotic gene expression in Drosophila (ORLANDO and PARO 1995). These studies in Drosophila have raised intriguing parallels to other "epigenetic" regulatory phenomena observed in mammals, such as gene imprinting (SURANI 1994) and X-chromosome inactivation (RIGGs and PFEIFFER 1992). Such examples of heritable gene regulation are well documented but their underlying mechanisms are still obscure.

In the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, position effects on gene expression occur at telomeres and the silent mating-type loci (HM) and may be analogous to the

formation of heterochromatin in more complex eukaryotes. Repression of the silent mating-type loci is vital for the proper regulation of the yeast life cycle since it permits haploid cells to exhibit a unique mating phenotype (**a** or α) by expression from the MAT locus. Identical mating-type genes are present at the HM loci (usually **a** information at *HMR* and α information at *HML*), but they are transcriptionally silent and thus do not influence the cell type. The silent loci serve a positive function by acting as donors of information in a matingtype switching event that allows haploid cells to rapidly reach the diploid state (reviewed in LAURENSON and RINE 1992). Chromatin at the HM loci and telomeres appears to be in an altered conformation, which results in transcriptional silencing, reduced DNA repair, and protection of the DNA from nucleases or other enzymes (NASMYTH 1982; KLAR et al. 1984; GOTTSCHLING 1992; SINGH and KLAR 1992; CHEN-CLELAND et al. 1993; LOO and RINE 1994).

Cis elements on either side of *HML* and *HMR*, called silencers, are necessary for the transcriptional inactivation of these loci (BRAND *et al.* 1985; MAHONEY and BROACH 1989). Silencers consist of an autonomously replicating sequence (ARS) consensus site (ACS), which is a binding site for the origin recognition complex (ORC) (BELL and STILLMAN 1992), and binding sites for either or both of two multifunctional regulatory proteins, Rap1p and Abf1p (SHORE and NASMYTH 1987; SHORE *et al.* 1987; BUCHMAN *et al.* 1988). The telomere distal *HMR-E* silencer is comprised of binding sites for

Corresponding author: David Shore, Départment de Biologie Moléculaire, Université de Genève, CH-1211 Genève 4, Switzerland. E-mail: david.shore@molbio.unige.ch

the ORC, Rap1p, and Abf1p, which are often referred to as the A, E, and B sites, respectively (BRAND et al. 1987). Telomere-proximal to the a1 and a2 genes of HMR lies the HMR-I silencer, which is composed of an A site and a B site (BUCHMAN et al. 1988). In the presence of this HMR-I silencer, the three sites of HMR-E are redundant as any two are sufficient for the establishment of silencing. The ORC, Rap1p, and Abf1p have now all been shown to play a role in establishing silencing at either HMR or HML (KURTZ and SHORE 1991; SUSSEL and SHORE 1991; BELL et al. 1993; Foss et al. 1993; KYRION et al. 1993; MICKLEM et al. 1993; LOO et al. 1995). Rap1p, which binds to multiple sites within the poly($C_{1-3}A$) repeats at telomeres, is essential for telomere position effect and telomere length control (CONRAD et al. 1990; LUSTIG et al. 1990; KYRION et al. 1992, 1993; MORETTI et al. 1994). In addition to the silencer- and telomere-binding proteins, Sir2p, Sir3p, Sir4p (RINE and HERSKOWITZ 1987) and the N termini of histones H3 and H4 (KAYNE et al. 1988; THOMPSON et al. 1994) play an important or essential role in repression. Recent data suggests that in the proper context (e.g., at HMR or at telomeres) Rap1p targets Sir3p and Sir4p to the chromosome through direct protein-protein interactions (MORETTI et al. 1994). Sir3p and Sir4p are in turn capable of interacting with the N-terminal tails of histones H3 and H4, and this is believed to underlie the formation of repressed chromatin (heterochromatin) in yeast (HECHT et al. 1995).

RAP1 is an essential gene, whose protein product appears to function as a transcriptional activator in most cases (SHORE 1994). Rap1p binding sites are found upstream of a number of glycolytic and ribosomal protein genes, where the protein is believed to play an important role in the activation of these genes. The essential function of Rap1p can be genetically separated from at least one of its silencing functions as evidenced by $rap1^s$ mutations that are defective in silencing at *HMR* (when the A site at the *HMR-E* silencer is deleted) yet have no detectable activation or growth defects (SUSSEL and SHORE 1991). In addition, two of the strongest $rap1^s$ alleles, rap1-12 and rap1-13, show an increase in telomere length.

In order to identify factors that might be involved in Rap1p-mediated silencing, extragenic suppressors were identified that restore silencing at HMR in $rap1^s$ $hmr\Delta A$ strains (LAMAN *et al.* 1995; SUSSEL *et al.* 1993, 1995). Fifty-seven extragenic mutations were identified that defined 21 different <u>suppressor</u> of <u>defective silencing</u> (SDS) complementation groups. Here we describe the cloning and further characterization of three of these SDS genes: SDS3, SDS6, and SDS16. Initial characterization of sds3, sds6 and sds16 mutants showed that, in addition to suppressing the $rap1^s$ silencing defect, they were able to partially reverse the telomere lengthening phenotype of the stronger $rap1^s$ alleles (SUSSEL *et al.* 1995). We now show that null alleles of all three genes

share the property of being able to bypass the normal requirements for HMR-E silencer function. In addition, we found that mutations in each of these three genes result in an increase in telomere position effect. SDS6 and SDS16 are identical to RPD3(SDI2) and SIN3(RPD1/ UME4/SDI1/GAM2), respectively. Both of these genes encode global transcriptional modulators that have been shown to affect the expression of a variety of genes such as HO (NASMYTH et al. 1987; STERNBERG et al. 1987), TRK2 (VIDAL and GABER 1991; VIDAL et al. 1991), SP013 (STRICH et al. 1989), ADR6/GAM3 (YOSHIMOTO et al. 1992) and IME2 (BOWDISH and MITCHELL 1993). Targeting experiments with a LexA-Sin3p fusion protein suggest that Sin3p functions as a transcriptional repressor (WANG and STILLMAN 1993), and a recent study has found Rpd3p to be 60% identical to a mammalian histone deactylase (TAUNTON et al. 1996). Epistasis analysis suggests that SIN3 and RPD3 work in the same pathway to affect the transcription of their target genes (VIDAL and GABER 1991; STILLMAN et al. 1994). SDS3 is a novel gene that shares many of the same properties as RPD3 and SIN3. However, sds3 does not appear to act in the same pathway as rpd3 and sin3 to restore silencing at HMR. Possible mechanisms for the action of suppression by these genes are discussed.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Yeast strains and methods: Yeast strains used in this study are all isogenic to W303-1A or -1B (THOMAS and ROTHSTEIN 1989). SDS and RAPI mutations were introduced either by the one-step gene replacement method (ROTHSTEIN 1983) or by genetic crosses using standard procedures (ROSE et al. 1990). The HMR::TRPI, his3::TRPI and HMR::ADE2 reporter genes have been described previously (SUSSEL and SHORE 1991; SUSSEL et al. 1993). Yeast were grown in rich medium (YPD) or synthetic minimal media (SC) as described (ROSE et al. 1990). Expression of the TRP1 gene fragment at the HMR and HIS3 loci was assayed by examining 10-fold serial dilutions of overnight cultures on SC and SC-Trp media as previously described (SUSSEL and SHORE 1991). Telomeric silencing was measured in strains in which the URA3 gene was targeted to the telomere-proximal ADH4 locus on chromosome VII-L using plasmid pVII-L URA3-TEL (provided by D. GOTTSCHLING) as previously described (GOTTSCHLING et al. 1990). Expression of this telomeric URA3 reporter was monitored by plating serial dilutions of overnight cultures grown in rich medium onto SC, SC-Ura and SC+5-FOA plates. Sporulation assays were performed by growing diploids in 2% potassium acetate with supplementing amino acids and then visually monitoring cultures for the appearance of tetrads at the indicated times (24, 48 and 120 hr). A W303 \mathbf{a}/α diploid was used as a positive control for this assay.

Cloning of SDS genes: The *SDS* genes were cloned by screening a centromere-based (YCp50) yeast genomic library (ROSE *et al.* 1987) for plasmids that were able to complement the recessive *sds3-1*, *sds6-2* or *sds16-1* alleles (as described in SUSSEL *et al.* 1995). Six clones (representing four overlapping genomic fragments) were isolated, which complemented the *sds3-1* allele. Further subcloning localized the *sds3-1* complementing region to a 2.3-kb *Eco*RI-Sall genomic fragment. Two identical *sds6-2* complementing plasmids were isolated. This plasmid was also able to complement the *sds6-1*, *-6-3* and *-6*-

4 alleles (data not shown). Subcloning and sequence analysis revealed this genomic fragment to contain the *RPD3* gene. Twelve plasmids containing overlapping regions were isolated by their ability to complement the sds16-1 allele. Sequence analysis of one of these clones showed that the common region contained the *SIN3* gene.

SDS linkage analysis: To confirm that the 2.3-kb genomic fragment that complemented the sds3-1 mutation contained the SDS3 gene, we performed a genetic linkage analysis. The 2.3-kb fragment was cloned into a URA3-marked integrating vector pRS306 (SIKORSKI and HIETER 1989). This plasmid (DV34) was linearized with BgIII, a unique site at nucleotide 1248 of the insert, and targeted to the chromosome via homologous recombination in a rap1-12 hmr ΔA :: TRP1 MATa strain (YLS238). The proper integration was confirmed by Southern blotting. The resulting strain, YDV21 (Ura⁺, Trp⁺), was crossed to a sds3-1 rap1-12 $hmr\Delta A$:TRP1 strain, YRS38 (Ura⁻, Trp⁻), and the diploid was sporulated. All 19 tetrads examined were of the parental ditype, i.e., there were no Ura+ segregants in which the $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 reporter was silenced (Trp⁻ phenotype). This result shows that the cloned DNA is tightly linked to the SDS3 locus. A similar approach was used to show that DNA that complemented the sds6-2 mutation is tightly linked to the SDS6(RPD3) locus. In this case, the cloned DNA was marked with the HIS3 gene and targeted to the chromosome by homologous recombination. No recombination events were observed between HIS3 and sds6-2 in the 28 tetrads examined. Similarly, the HIS3 gene was used to tag the cloned DNA that complemented the sds16-1 mutation. In the manner described above, subsequent tetrad analysis showed this DNA to be tightly linked to the SDS16(SIN3) locus (no recombinants in over 20 tetrads analyzed).

SDS3 sequence analysis: The complete *SDS3* nucleotide and Sds3p peptide sequences (GenBank accession no. U62525) were used to search National Institutes of Health, European Molecular Biology Laboratory, and SwissProt sequence databases using the Blastn and Blastp programs (ALT-SHUL *et al.* 1990). This search matched Sds3p to a hypothetical 37.6-kD protein in the *SGA1-THS1* intergenic region of chromosome *IX*, accession no. sp[p40505], and the *SDS3* sequence to an unidentified open reading frame (ORF) YIL084C(I9910.12). Comparison of the *SDS3* sequence with known sequences failed to identify any functional motifs or homologies with any other known proteins.

SDS gene disruptions: The SDS3 gene was mutated by inserting a BamHI fragment containing the HIS3 gene into a unique BgIII site at position 218 of the predicted 933 bp SDS3 ORF, creating plasmid DV66. The resulting sds3::HIS3 allele was removed as a EcoRI-SalI fragment from DV66 and used to replace the endogenous SDS3 locus in a rap1-12/rap1-13 $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1/hmr\Delta A:: TRP1 diploid by one-step gene replacement (ROTHSTEIN 1983). The SDS3 deletion allele, $sds3\Delta$:: URA3, was constructed by first cloning the ClaI to SacI upstream SDS3 region into the ClaI to SacI sites of LSD24 (a HindIII URA3 fragment inserted into pIC19R) resulting in the plasmid DV267. A Nst to Sal fragment containing the 3' region of SDS3 including the last 199 bp of the ORF was cloned into pIC19R to produce DV268. The final $sds3\Delta$:: URA3 construct, DV269, was made by excising the 3' SDS3 region from DV268 using XhoI and BamHI and inserting it into the Sall and BamHI sites of DV267. The disruption construct deletes SDS3 from -29 to +781 bp. This $sds 3\Delta$:: URA3 fragment was then released from the pIC19R vector using EcoRI and used to replace the SDS3 locus in a $rap1-12 hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 strain. The resulting $sds3\Delta$:: URA3 allele was unable to complement the sds3-1 sporulation defect as measured in an $sds3-1/sds3\Delta$:: URA3diploid.

A $rpd3\Delta$:: HIS3 plasmid (provided by R. GABER) and a sin3-

 Δ ::LEU2 plasmid (provided by D. STILLMAN) were used to disrupt the RPD3 locus and the SIN3 locus, respectively, in rap1-12/rap1-13 hmr Δ A::TRP1 diploids in the manner described above. Southern blotting was performed to confirm the mutations. These sds3::HIS, rpd3 Δ ::HIS3, or sin3- Δ ::LEU2 alleles were subsequently introduced into all other strains by standard genetic crosses.

Analysis of mRNA levels: Northern analysis was performed as previously described (SUSSEL *et al.* 1995). The *a1* probe was made using the *Xhol-Bg*II fragment from the *HMR Xhol* linker clone no. 238 (ABRAHAM *et al.* 1984). The $\alpha 1$ probe was labeled from a PCR product of the entire $\alpha 1$ gene. The *PYK1* probe was made from a 1.9-kb *Eco*RI fragment containing the *PYK1* gene (BURKE *et al.* 1983). The *BCY1* probe was labeled from a 4.2-kb *Bam*HI fragment containing the *BCY1* gene (provided by M. WIGLER). As an internal loading control, we used either *PC4* (gift of A. MITCHELL) or actin (gift of M. A. OSLEY) probes. All probes were labeled using random priming with α -³²P dATP. Blots were scanned and quantified using a PhosphorImager (Molecular Dynamics).

lacZ reporter assays: Expression of the *TRK2* gene was monitored by using a 2- μ *URA3* plasmid (pAB137) containing a *TRK2-lacZ* fusion (VIDAL *et al.* 1991). Control of the *IME2* gene was assayed by using a *CYC-lacZ* plasmid (pKB1001) in which a large fragment of the *IME2* upstream control region replaces the UAS of the *CYC1-lacZ* fusion (BOWDISH and MITCHELL 1993). Strains with various *SDS* and *RAP1* alleles were then transformed with either pAB137 or pKB1001, colonies were grown in selective SC medium and assayed for β galactosidase activity as previously described (MORETTI *et al.* 1994). The units given are the average from at least five different transformants. The standard deviations for these values were $\pm 25\%$.

RESULTS

SDS3 is a novel gene: The SDS3 gene was cloned by complementation of the recessive sds3-1 allele. We isolated a 2.3-kb genomic fragment that complemented the sds3-1 mutation and was tightly linked to the SDS locus (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). Sequence analysis of the 2.3-kb genomic fragment identified a 933-bp open reading frame (ORF) encoding a protein with a predicted molecular weight of 37.6 kD (GenBank accession no. U62525). A search of the Swiss-Prot database using the Blastp program showed Sds3p to be identical to an unknown ORF, YIL084C (accession no. P40505) (ALTSHUL et al. 1990). In order to produce an SDS3 allele suitable for genetic manipulation, the HIS3 gene was inserted into a unique BgII site at nucleotide +218 of the predicted ORF. This sds3::HIS3 plasmid (DV66) was unable to complement the sds3-1 mutation as determined in a rap1-12 $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 background, providing further evidence that the cloned gene is SDS3 (data not shown).

The sds3::HIS3 allele was used to replace the endogenous SDS3 locus and the resulting sds3::HIS3 rap1-12 $hmr\Delta A::TRP1$ strain was viable and unable to grow on medium lacking tryptophan (Figure 1), indicating that the sds3::HIS3 mutation suppresses the silencing defect in this strain. Northern analysis of an isogenic strain containing the endogenous a1 gene at HMR confirmed that this suppression occurs at the transcriptional level

1346



FIGURE 1.—Mutant alleles of *SDS3*, *RPD3*(*SDS6*) and *SIN3*(*SDS16*) suppress the silencing defect of a *rap1^s* hmr ΔA ::*TRP1* strain. This assay measures the ability of strains containing an hmr ΔA ::*TRP1* reporter and the indicated *SDS* and *RAP1* alleles to grow in the presence and absence of tryptophan. Tenfold serial dilutions of overnight cultures were plated onto media lacking tryptophan (SC-Trp) and complete media (SC) and then incubated at 30° for ~2 days.

(SUSSEL *et al.* 1995). In subsequent experiments, the sds3::HIS3 disruption was used instead of the sds3-1 mutation. Additionally, a sds3 deletion allele was made by replacing sequences from -29 to +781 with the URA3 gene, deleting all but the last 199 bp of the SDS3 ORF. The $sds3\Delta::URA3$ allele completely suppressed the silencing defect in a $rap1^{\text{s}}$ $hmr\DeltaA::TRP1$ strain, as do the sds3::HIS3 and sds3-1 alleles (data not shown).

SDS6 and SDS16 are known transcriptional modifiers, RPD3 and SIN3, respectively: The genes encoding SDS6 and SDS16 were isolated from a yeast genomic library by their ability to complement the sds6-2 and sds16-1 mutations, respectively. Partial sequence analysis of the sds16-1 complementing clone showed that it contains the SIN3 gene, which encodes a transcriptional regulator (WANG et al. 1990). Consistent with the notion that sds16-1 is an allele of SIN3, segregation analysis confirmed that the two are tightly linked (see MATERI-ALS AND METHODS). Furthermore, a $sin3\Delta$::LEU2 disruption also has the ability to suppress the $rap1^s$ $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 mutation (Figure 1). Restriction mapping and DNA sequence analysis showed the sds6-2 complementing clone to contain RPD3, a transcriptional modifier that is reported to function together with SIN3(RPD1) (VIDAL and GABER 1991; STILLMAN et al. 1994). The RPD3 locus and sds6-2 are tightly linked (see MATERIALS AND METHODS), and a genomic deletion of RPD3, $rpd3\Delta$::HIS3, showed the same $rap1^s$ $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 suppression phenotype as the original sds6-2 mutation (Figure 1). In subsequent experiments, the $sin3\Delta$:: *LEU2* and $rpd3\Delta$:: *HIS3* alleles were used in place of the sds16-1 and sds6-2 mutations, respectively, to facilitate genetic manipulations. The $rpd3\Delta$::HIS3 and $sin3\Delta$:: LEU alleles were found to suppress the $rap1^{s} hmr\Delta A$ silencing defect as measured by expression of several different reporters (ADE2, TRP1 and the endogenous al gene) at $hmr\Delta A$. Northern blot analysis of steady state a1 mRNA levels in $rpd3\Delta$::HIS3 rap1^s $hmr\Delta A$ MAT α and $sin3\Delta$:: LEU $rap1^s$ $hmr\Delta A$ MAT α strains showed that this suppression was at the level of transcription (SUSSEL et al. 1995).

Suppression of cis- and trans-silencing mutations: Inital experiments with sds3:: HIS3, $rpd3\Delta$:: HIS3, and sin3- Δ :: *LEU2* showed that they are able to suppress both the $hmr\Delta A$ defect and the $rap1^s$ silencing defect to restore repression in a $rap1^s$ $hmr\Delta A$ strain (data not shown). As this suggests a general role for these sds mutants in modulating silencing, we examined their ability to suppress a variety of other silencing defects. Disruption of the RIF1 gene, encoding a Rap1p-interacting factor, leads to derepression of an $hmr\Delta A$ silencer (HARDY et al. 1992). Introduction of sds3::HIS3, $rpd3\Delta::HIS3$, or $sin3\Delta$:: LEU2 was able to suppress a RIF1 deletion and restore silencing to a $rif1\Delta$ $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 strain as assayed by growth on SC-Trp plates (Figure 2A). In addition, each of the sds mutants was able to suppress the silencing defect of a $rap1^s$ rifl Δ double mutant in a $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 strain (data not shown).

We also tested the ability of each of the sds mutations to restore silencing in sir1 and sir4 strains. Previous studies have implicated Sir1p in the establishment of silencing at the HM loci and Sir2p, Sir3p and Sir4p with the maintenance of the repressed state (PILLUS and RINE 1989). Any one of the sds mutations partially restored silencing to a $sir1\Delta$:: LEU2 hmr Δ A:: TRP1 strain as indicated by a reduced ability of sds $sir1\Delta$::LEU2 $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 strains to grow on SC-Trp medium (Figure 2B). A 10^2 - to 10^3 -fold decrease in colony formation on SC-Trp was seen when these strains contained a *rap1^s* allele (data not shown). However, in a $sir4\Delta$::LEU2 $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 strain the sds mutations did not affect growth on SC-Trp medium, indicating that they were unable to suppress the silencing defect of a SIR4 deletion (Figure 2B). Addition of the rap1s allele had no effect on the tryptophan prototrophy of these strains (data not shown).

We previously found that two of the three *sds* mutations, *sds6-2* and *sds16-1*, were able to suppress *HMR-E* silencer double-mutations ($hmr\Delta E\Delta B$::*TRP1* and $hmr\Delta A\Delta E$::*ADE2*) (SUSSEL *et al.* 1995). Although the *sds3-1* allele (the first *SDS3* allele examined) did not

Position-Effect Repression in Yeast



FIGURE 2.— sds3:: HIS3, $rpd3\Delta$:: HIS3 and $sin3-\Delta$:: LEU2 suppress both cis- and transsilencing mutations at HMR. (A) Each sds mutant is able to restore silencing to a $rif1\Delta$ - $:: URA3 hmr \Delta A :: RP1$ strain as measured by growth on SC-Trp and SC media. This panel compares isogenic strains containing the $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 reporter and the indicated RIF1 and SDS alleles. (B) sds mutants restore silencing at hmr in a $sirl\Delta$::LEU2 background but not in a sir4 Δ ::LEU2 background. Isogenic strains containing the $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 reporter and the indicated SDS, SIR1 and SIR4 alleles were examined for their ability to grow in the absence of tryptophan. (C) A silencing defective hmr double mutant is suppressed by each of the sds mutants. Each strain contains the $hmr\Delta E\Delta B$:: TRP1 reporter in addition to the SDS and RAP1 alleles indicated. Serial dilutions assaying for growth in the absence of tryptophan were performed as described in Figure 1.

have this phenotype, we observed that the sds3::HIS3 mutation was able to suppress the $hmr\Delta E\Delta B$:: TRP1 reporter (Figure 2C). Furthermore, we found that introduction of $sin3\Delta$:: LEU2, $rpd3\Delta$:: HIS3 or, to a lesser extent, sds3::HIS3 partially suppressed a rap1-12 strain with the $hmr\Delta E\Delta B$:: TRP1 reporter (Figure 2C). However, the sds insertion/deletion mutations were unable to affect an $hmr\Delta A\Delta E$:: TRP1 reporter as determined by monitoring growth of 10-fold serial dilutions on SC and SC-Trp plates (data not shown). This discrepancy between the TRP1 and ADE2 reporters is probably due to the fact that the ADE2 colony color assay readily detects a small fraction of cells in the repressed state whereas the TRP1 growth assay does not (SUSSEL et al. 1993). The presence of the *rap1-12* mutation in these sds $hmr\Delta A\Delta E$:: TRP1 strains had no effect on growth on SC-Trp plates. These results suggest that the sds mutations are able to suppress defects in the establishment of silencing but not defects in factors required for maintenance of the repressed state.

Mutations in SDS3, RPD3, and SIN3 restore a position effect: One possible explanation for the ability of the sds3, rpd3, and sin3 mutants to suppress a variety of silencing defects is that they merely reduce the transcriptional activation of the reporter genes we have examined, rather than restoring silencing at HMR. Although none of the mutations restore silencing at HMR in a sir4 strain (see above), we tested this model more directly by asking whether suppression is position-dependent. We moved the TRP1 reporter from HMR to a new site not associated with transcriptional silencing, the HIS3 locus, and tested the ability of the sds mutations to affect its expression at this locus. None of the three sds mutations had any effect on the ability of these strains to grow on medium lacking tryptophan (Figure 3A). Thus it appears that the ability of the sds mutations

1348

D. Vannier, D. Balderes and D. Shore



to decrease transcription is dependent on the context of the reporter, and in this case, to residual silencer function at *HMR* in the suppressible mutant strains.

As a second control, we examined steady-state mRNA levels of the endogenous a1 gene in both SDS and sds cells, comparing strains in which the only copy of a1 is either at HMR (hmr ΔA MAT α) or at the active MAT locus (MATa hmr ΔA \therefore TRP1). We observed no significant decreases in the levels of a1 mRNA from the MAT locus (Figure 3B). As observed previously (SUSSEL et al. 1995), each of the sds mutations resulted in a complete loss of detectable a1 mRNA from the HMR locus in a rap1^s hmr ΔA background. Again it appears that the ability of the sds mutations to suppress reporter expression is context dependent, since only genes at HMR become transcriptionally silent.

Comparison of sds3 and rpd3/sin3 phenotypes: In the assays described above, the sds3, rpd3, and sin3 mutants have very similar phenotypes. Because SDS3 is a novel gene, we examined other phenotypes characteristic of rpd3 and sin3 mutations to determine whether SDS3 shares other properties of these two global regulatory genes. Diploid cells with homozygous null mutations of SIN3 or RPD3 are unable to undergo sporulation (VIDAL and GABER 1991; VIDAL et al. 1991). We constructed diploid strains homozygous for the sds3::HIS3 disruption and assayed them for their ability to sporulate. After 5 days under starvation conditions, <0.5% of the homozygous sds3::HIS3 diploids examined formed tetrads compared with 73.9% for wild-type W303 diploids (Table 1).

SIN3 and RPD3 act as repressors of certain meiosisspecific genes, such as IME2 (BOWDISH and MITCHELL 1993). To test the effect of SDS3 on IME2 expression, we used a CYC1-lacZ reporter gene containing the

FIGURE 3. — sds mutants do not affect expression of TRP1 and a1 genes at non-HMR loci. (A) Expression of a his3::TRP1 reporter is unaffected by sds or rap1^s alleles. Strains containing a his3::TRP1 reporter (the same reporter previously used at *hmr*) and the indicated sds and RAP1 alleles were assayed for the ability to grow on media lacking tryptophan. (B) Northern blot analysis of steady state a1 mRNA levels shows the sds mutations affect expression at HMR but not MAT. RNA isolated from MATa $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 strains or MATa $hmr\Delta A$ strains along with the indicated genotypes were transferred to a nylon membrane and hybridized with an α -³²P-labeled al fragment. PC4 mRNA message was used as a loading control.

IME2 upstream regulatory region in place of the CYC1 UAS element (pKB1001). When this reporter is transformed into haploid cells, little or no transcriptional activity is seen in vegetatively growing cells. The addition of a sin3 or an rpd3 mutation to this background alleviates the repression of the IME2-upstream region and lacZ expression is seen (Table 1), as expected (BOWDISH and MITCHELL 1993). We found that addition of the sds3::HIS3 disruption also alleviates repression of the IME2 UAS and yields β -galactosidase values comparable to those seen with either the sin3 or rpd3 mutations.

The rpd3 and sin3/rpd1 mutations also lead to the upregulation (*i.e.*, derepression) of a gene encoding a low-affinity K⁺ pump, *TRK2*, thereby allowing strains lacking the high-affinity K⁺ pump Trk1p to grow on media with low levels of potassium (VIDAL and GABER 1991; VIDAL *et al.* 1991). To determine if sds3 might share this same phenotype, we used a *TRK2-lacZ* fusion to assay for levels of *TRK2* expression. Both the rpd3 and sin3 mutations cause an increase in expression of the *TRK2-lacZ* reporter, as expected (Table 1). However, sds3 mutation is unable to derepress the *TRK2-lacZ* reporter as the level of *lacZ* expression is similar to that seen in wild-type cells. Thus sds3 appears to share some, but not all, of the phenotypes seen with rpd3 and sin3 mutations.

SDS3 acts in a different pathway from SIN3/RPD3 to affect silencing: Earlier studies have indicated that RPD3 and SIN3 work together, either in the same pathway or as a complex (VIDAL and GABER 1991; STILLMAN *et al.* 1994). To determine if SDS3 might also be in this SIN3/ RPD3 group, we constructed strains with an $hmr\Delta A$ - $\Delta E::TRP1$ reporter and combinations of the sds3::HIS3, $rpd3\Delta::HIS3$ and $sin3\Delta::LEU2$ alleles. In order to get a

	-		
SDS allele	Sporulation (%) ^a	IME2-lacZ units ^b	TRK2-lacZ units ^b
wt	73.9	5.5	26.7
sds3::HIS3	< 0.5	79	14.0
rpd 3 Δ ::HIS3	< 0.5	91	137.4
$sin3\Delta$::LEU2	< 0.5	51	122.9

TABLE	1
-------	---

Comparison of sds3, rpd3 and sin3 phenotypes

^{*a*} The ability to sporulate was visually measured in homozygous diploid strains after 5 days in starvation media. The numbers represent the percent of tetrads found upon examination of >2000 diploids for each strain.

^b These values represent lacZ expression levels from a 2μ -borne *IME2-lacZ* reporter (pKB1001) or a 2μ -borne *TRK2-lacZ* reporter (pAB137) in vegetatively growing haploid strains of the indicated genotype. Details of these plasmids are found in the MATERIALS AND METHODS. Values are the average Miller units of at least four different transformants.

more accurate measure of repression, we counted colonies on SC and SC-Trp plates. Due to the sensitive nature of this assay, we were able to see that any one of the sds mutations suppressed the $hmr\Delta A\Delta E$ silencing defect by 30-38% (Table 2). As expected for genes acting in the same pathway, $sin3\Delta$:: LEU2 rpd3 Δ :: HIS3 double mutant strains showed a comparable extent of repression as strains with either single mutation (a 40% decrease in Trp⁺ colonies). However, both sds3::HIS3 rpd3 Δ ::HIS3 and $sds3::HIS3 sin3\Delta::LEU2$ double mutants showed a reduction of >60% in the number of Trp⁺ colonies. A strain containing all three mutations showed approximately the same level of TRP1 repression, 66%, as the sds3:: HIS3 $rpd3\Delta$:: HIS3 and sds3:: HIS3 $sin3\Delta$:: LEU2 double mutant strains (67 and 64%, respectively). This additive increase in suppression implies that SDS3 works in a different pathway than SIN3 and RPD3 to affect silencing at the HMR locus.

Effects on telomeric silencing: Transcriptional silencing similar to that seen at the *HM* loci is also observed for genes placed near telomeres in yeast (APARI-

	TABLE	2		
1				

sas	aouble	and	triple	mutant	analysis	

SDS alleles	$hmr\Delta A\Delta E::TRP1$ expression (%)
wt	95 ± 2
sds3	70 ± 2
rpd 3	62 ± 5
sin3	70 ± 6
rpd 3 sin3	60 ± 10
sds3 rpd3	33 ± 8
sds3 sin3	36 ± 3
sds3 rpd3 sin3	34 ± 6

The values above represent the ability of various combinations of sds mutants to suppress the silencing defective $hmr\Delta A\Delta E::TRP1$ reporter. Percentages were determined by plating dilutions of identical cultures and then dividing the number of colonies on SC-Trp plates by the number seen on SC plates. sds3, rpd3 and sin3 represent the sds3::HIS3, rpd3\Delta::HIS3, and sin3\Delta::LEU2 alleles, respectively.

CIO et al. 1991; GOTTSCHLING et al. 1990). We therefore examined the effect of sds mutations on telomeric silencing (telomere position effect, or TPE) using a strain in which the URA3 gene is placed immediately adjacent to a telomere created at the ADH4 locus (GOTTSCHLING et al. 1990). The expression of this telomeric URA3 reporter is influenced by TPE and results in two distinct populations of cells: Ura⁺, in which the URA3 gene is expressed and Ura⁻, in which the URA3 gene is repressed. Ura⁺ cells are able to grow on SC-Ura plates and Ura⁻ cells are able to grow on SC plates containing 5-fluoroorotic acid (5-FOA). Strains that have this telomere reporter and any one of the three sds mutations showed a slight decrease in Ura⁺ colonies compared with the parental wild-type strain (Figure 4). Growth was seen on all three types of plates (SC, SC-Ura, and SC+5-FOA), indicating that there were separate populations of repressed and derepressed cells within these cultures. Previous studies which quantified viability on SC vs. SC+5-FOA media have shown that the $rap1^{s}$ allele rap1-12 also slightly increases telomeric silencing of URA3 (BUCK and SHORE 1995), though this effect is too small to be seen with 10-fold serial dilutions on either SC+5-FOA media or SC-Ura plates. However, when any one of the sds mutations was included in this rap1-12 background, the state of repression of URA3 at the telomere was greatly increased as evidenced by a lack of Ura⁺ colonies (Figure 4). In this assay for TPE, the rap1^s mutation and sds mutation had a striking synergistic effect in repressing a telomere proximal URA3 reporter.

Effect of sds mutations on Rap1p-mediated activation: One possible mechanism for the suppression of the rap1s silencing defect by the sds mutations is that they impair the ability of Rap1p to activate transcription such that its silencing function is favored. To examine this possibility, we examined the effects of the sds mutations on the expression of three native Rap1p-driven genes (MAT α 1, PYK1, and BCY1) at their endogenous loci (NISHIZAWA et al. 1989; GIESMAN et al. 1991; KURTZ and SHORE 1991). Using Northern blot analysis and



FIGURE 4.—Telomere position effect is increased by each *sds* mutant and is synergystically increased with the addition of a *rap1-12* allele. Each of the above strains contains a telomere proximal *URA3* reporter and the indicated genotype. Expression of the *URA3* reporter is measured by growth of 10-fold serial dilutions on media lacking uracil (SC-Ura). SC media supplemented with 5-fluoroorotic acid (SC+5-FOA) selects for growth of Ura⁻ colonies, while SC serves as a control for total growth.

quantitating mRNA signals on a PhospohorImager, we failed to detect any significant changes in the level of $MAT\alpha 1$, PYK1, or BCY1 mRNA in the presence of any of the *sds* mutations (data not shown). Addition of the *rap1-12* allele had no effect on the expression of the above genes in any of these strains. These experiments suggest that the *sds* mutations do not specifically impair the ability of Rap1p to activate transcription of its normal target genes.

Silencing factor dosage and sds mutations: Another possible mechanism for the suppression seen with these sds mutations is that they are upregulating the expression or activity of silencing factors and thus enhancing repression (see LAMAN et al. 1995). SUSSEL et al. (1993) showed that reduction of SIR4 dosage by one half was able to derepress a $hmr\Delta A$:: ADE2 reporter. An $hmr\Delta A$:: ADE2 strain has pink/white sectored colonies. In diploid cells with only a single wild-type copy of SIR4 (SIR4/sir4 Δ :: LEU2), this reporter is completely derepressed and the cells are uniformly white. The addition of homozygous $rpd3\Delta$::HIS3 or $sin3\Delta$::LEU2 mutations to this diploid strain results in cells which are white with pink sectors (Table 3). However, cells with an sds3::HIS3/sds3HIS3 $SIR4/sir4\Delta$:: LEU2 hmr Δ A:: ADE2/hmr Δ A:: ADE2 genotype are mostly white with relatively few white/pink sectored cells. This indicates that the rpd3 and sin3 mutations are more efficient at suppressing a $0.5 \times$ reduction in SIR4 dosage than the sds3::HIS3 allele. These experiments suggest that the sds alleles, especially sin3 and rpd3, could be upregulating the expression or activity of silencing factor(s) (at least SIR4), which might account for their ability to suppress a number of defects in the establishment of transcriptional silencing. These results also agree with our epistasis experiments in suggesting that Sds3p is working in a different manner to influence transcriptional silencing than Rpd3p and Sin3p.

DISCUSSION

We have described the cloning and characterization of three genes identified in a screen for mutations which restore silencing to a $rap1^{s} hmr\Delta A$ strain. Two of the genes identified, RPD3 and SIN3, have been previously described as modulators of transcription that appear to work together to allow maximal levels of transcriptional activation or repression (VIDAL and GABER 1991; STILLMAN et al. 1994). The third gene, SDS3, encodes a novel 327 amino acid protein, mutations in which cause some of the same phenotypes as sin3 and rpd3 mutants. Results in this paper suggest that SDS3 also acts to modulate levels of transcription. However, SDS3 differs from RPD3 and SIN3 in that it does not appear to be involved in repression of TRK2. Furthermore, epistasis studies suggest that RPD3 and SIN3 work in the same pathway to affect silencing while SDS3 does not. Disruptions of any one of these global transcriptional modulators are able to increase position effect at the silent mating locus HMR and at a telomere.

Mutations in SDS3, RPD3, and SIN3 improve the establishment of silencing: Although originally isolated in a screen to find suppressors of a $rap1^s$ silencing de-

TABLE 3

Suppression of $0.5 \times SIR4$ in hmr ΔA ::ADE2 diploids

Genotype	Colony color	
wt	pink/white sectored	
$0.5 \times SIR4$	white	
0.5× SIR4 sds3	white and few white/light pink sectored	
$0.5 \times SIR4 \ rpd3$	white/pink sectored	
$0.5 \times SIR4 \sin 3$	white/pink sectored	

The sds mutations suppress a $0.5 \times$ reduction in SIR4 dosage. All strains are diploid $hmr\Delta A$::ADE2 cells with the indicated SIR4 and SDS alleles. $0.5 \times$ SIR4 denotes heterozygous alleles of SIR4 (SIR4/sir4 Δ ::LEU2), while sds3, rpd3 and sin3 represent homozygous alleles of sds3::HIS3, rpd3 Δ ::HIS3, or sin3 Δ ::LEU2, respectively. Pink sectors represent populations with repressed $hmr\Delta A$::ADE2 loci, while white colonies or sectors are populations with derepressed $hmr\Delta A$::ADE2 loci. All strains were plated onto YPD, grown 3 days at 30°, stored for at least 3 days at 4° and then visually examined for colony color. fect, none of the sds mutations described here show specificity for any one of the rap1^s alleles. Instead these suppressor mutations appear to act in a general manner to improve the establishment of silencing. To begin with, these mutations can restore silencing in strains with various cis-acting mutations at HMR-E, such as $hmr\Delta A$ and $hmr\Delta E\Delta B$, and partially at $hmr\Delta A\Delta E$. The sds mutations are also able to suppress a deletion of the HMR-I silencer but are unable to reverse the effect of mutations in both the E and I silencers, such as a deletion of the Rap1p binding site at HMR-E combined with a deletion of the HMR-I silencer (data not shown). This suggests that some minimal cis elements are needed in order for these three sds mutations to enhance the establishment of silencing. Consistent with this idea, the ability of the sds mutations to reduce transcription appears to be position dependent, since they reduce the expression of the a1 and TRP1 genes only when they are located at HMR and not at other chromosomal loci where silencing does not normally occur. Furthermore, these sds mutations suppress defects in trans-acting factors thought to be specifically involved in establishment of repression at HMR (Sir1p and Rap1p) (PILLUS and RINE 1989; CHIEN et al. 1993; SUSSEL et al. 1993). However, they fail to suppress a deletion of SIR4, which is believed to be a structural component required to maintain repression at HM loci and telomeres (HECHT et al. 1995). These results suggest that the sds mutations improve the establishment of silencing at HMR and telomeres (and hence the stability of the repressed state) but do not bypass the requirement for silencer elements or proteins (such as Sir4p) that are needed for maintenance of the repressed state.

A general role for SDS3 in transcriptional regulation: Previous studies suggest that RPD3 and SIN3 are required for the proper range of transcriptional regulation because mutations in these genes either reduce activated levels of expression or increase (*i.e.*, derepress) basal expression of a number of different genes. Using the well-characterized RPD3 and SIN3 genes as a paradigm, we have shown that SDS3 shares many, but not all of their regulatory functions. SIN3(SDI1) and RPD3(SDI2) were first identified in a screen for mutants that would allow expression of the HO gene in a swi5 background (NASMYTH et al. 1987; STERNBERG et al. 1987), a phenotype shared with the sds3::HIS3 mutation (D. STILLMAN, personal communication). In addition, sds3 mutants exhibit two meiosis-related phenotypes of rpd3 and sin3 mutants: failure to sporulate as homozygous diploids and derepression of the meiosis-specific regulator IME2 in vegetatively growing haploid cells. However, SDS3 does not share all of the RPD3/SIN3 phenotypes since an sds3 mutation is unable to relieve the repression of a TRK2lacZ reporter in $TRK1^+$ cells. We also found that the sds3::HIS3 allele decreases the expression of activated lacZ reporter genes, TEF2-lacZ (a Rap1p-driven reporter) and CYC1-lacZ, but does not affect a CYC1-lacZ reporter

lacking its UAS element (D. VANNIER and D. SHORE, unpublished data). Taken together, these results suggest that *SDS3* encodes a factor necessary for either positive or negative expression of certain genes, and that its function is similar, but not identical to that of *RPD3* and *SIN3*. Further studies are currently underway to elucidate the mode of action of Sds3p.

Possible mechanisms for suppression by SDS3, RPD3, and SIN3 mutants: Several studies have demonstrated an inverse correlation between promoter strength and susceptibility to silencing. APARICIO and GOTTSCHLING (1994) have shown that mutation of the URA3 activator Ppr1p greatly enhances silencing of a telomere proximal URA3 reporter, whereas overexpression of PPR1 weakens silencing. Gall1p and Sin4p have been identified as components of the RNA polymerase II holoenzyme complex, which is required for activated transcription in vitro (KIM et al. 1994; LI et al. 1995). A deletion of GAL11 suppresses the rap1s $hmr\Delta A$ silencing defect (SUSSEL et al. 1995), while a deletion of SIN4 partially suppresses the rap1^s $hmr\Delta A$ defect (data not shown). One possibility is that the sds mutations described here are decreasing the efficiency of activated transcription and thus favoring the silenced state at HMR and telomeres. Given that Sin3p are Rpd3p do not appear to be associated with the transcriptional activation machinery, their effect is likely to be indirect. Studies are currently underway to assess Sds3p's role in transcriptional activation. It should be emphasized that the effects of the sds mutations on activated transcription may be very subtle and thus only detectable at loci that are subjected to silencing. This may also explain why others had not previously identified SDS3 in any of the genetic screens which resulted in alleles of SIN3 and RPD3.

Another mechanism for the sds suppression relates to the observation that *rap1^s* mutations are suppressed by increased gene dosage of either SIR1 or SIR4 (SUSSEL and SHORE 1991). Under certain circumstances, the HMR locus has been found to be very sensitive to the concentration of Sir4p. A twofold increase in SIR4 dosage can restore silencing in defective hmr strains (hmr $\Delta E \Delta B$ for example), while a twofold reduction in Sir4p concentration can result in total derepression of $hmr\Delta A$ (SUSSEL et al. 1993). Given the fact that mutations in SDS3, RPD3, or SIN3 can increase the expression of some genes, it is possible that they improve silencing by increasing the expression or activity of SIR genes or other genes that influence silencing. As these mutants suppress a SIR1 deletion, it is unlikely that they act (only) by increasing SIR1 expression. SUSSEL et al. (1995) failed to see any increases in SIR4 mRNA levels due to the sds mutations. However, experiments presented here show that rpd3 and sin3 mutations strongly suppress a $0.5 \times$ reduction in SIR4 dosage, while sds3 does so to a much lesser extent. This suggests that the sds mutants, especially rpd3 and sin3, could in principle work by increasing the expression or activity of SIR4 or, perhaps, other factors involved in the

establishment of silencing. Since Sin3p has been shown to be a transcriptional repressor (WANG and STILLMAN 1993), this raises the possibility that a *SIN3* deletion increases the expression of genes which promote silencing. Finally, it should be noted that all three of the *sds* mutants described here suppress the telomere lengthening phenotype of $rap1^s$ mutants, which could itself lead to an effective increase of Sir protein concentrations at *HMR* (BUCK and SHORE 1995). However, this mechanism would not explain the effects of *sds* mutants in *RAP1*⁺ strains, where no telomere length changes are seen, nor would it explain the dramatic increase in TPE in $rap1^s$ *sds* double mutants.

A recent study has assigned a putative function to Rpd3p. TAUNTON et al. (1996) identified a mammalian histone deacetylase (HD1) that has 60% sequence identity to Rpd3p. This strongly suggests that Rpd3p is also a deacetylase, although this has yet to be shown directly. Transcriptionally active regions are associated with hyperacetylated nucleosomes while transcriptionally silent loci are associated with histone hypoacetylation (HEB-BES et al. 1988; BRAUNSTEIN et al. 1993). Histone H4 isolated from regions of silenced chromatin was found to be preferentially acetylated at the position 12 lysine and unacetylated at other lysine residues (BRAUNSTEIN et al. 1996). The authors in this study went on to suggest that a specific pattern of histone acetylation is required for efficient transcriptional silencing. This raises the possibility that Rpd3p is directly involved in the deacetylation of histone H4 at position 12 and that by deleting RPD3 we are increasing the availability of "silencingcompetent'' histone H4.

In conclusion, we have shown that mutations in two previously characterized transcriptional modifiers, SIN3 and RPD3, are able to increase position-effect repression at HMR and at a telomere. In addition, we have identified a novel gene, SDS3, with similar functions. Mutations in any one of these three genes have rather subtle effects, either slightly decreasing levels of activated transcription or relieving repression of other genes. Given the epistasis analysis results and the $0.5 \times$ SIR4 suppression data it is likely that Sds3p acts in a different manner than Rpd3p and Sin3p to influence transcriptional silencing. Various mechanisms have been suggested above. Nonetheless, our results show that these mutations can have relatively dramatic effects on the expression of genes that are subjected to transcriptional silencing. These results highlight the delicate balance between transcriptional activation and silencing which exists at the silent HM mating-type loci and telomeres in yeast.

We thank R. ROTHSTEIN and members of his lab for the use of the dissecting microscopes; D. GOTTSCHLING, M. ROSE, R. GABER, D. STILLMAN, M. WIGLER, A. MITCHELL, and M. A. OSLEY for plasmid DNAs. We also thank A. MITCHELL, D. FIGURSKI, M. CARLSON and members of the SHORE lab for useful discussions and critical reading of the manuscript. This work was supported by grants from the National Institutes of Health (GM-40094), the American Cancer Society (JFRA-231, MV-534, and VM-62A), the Searle Scholars Fund/Chicago Community Trust, and the Irma T. Hirschl Charitable Trust to D.S., and by an American Cancer Society Institutional Research Grant (IRG-177A) to the Comprehensive Cancer Center at Columbia University. D.V. was a predoctoral trainee on a National Institutes of Health Cancer Biology grant (CA-09503-0).

LITERATURE CITED

- ABRAHAM, J., K. A. NASMYTH, J. N. STRATHERN, A. J. S. KLAR and J. B. HICKS, 1984 Regulation of mating-type information in yeast. J. Mol. Biol. 176: 307–331.
- ALTSHUL, S. F., W. GISH, W. MILLER, E. W. MYERS and D. J. LIPMAN, 1990 Basic local alignment search tool. J. Mol. Biol. 215: 403-410.
- APARICIO, O. M., and D. E. GOTTSCHLING, 1994 Overcoming telomeric silencing: a trans-activator competes to establish gene expression in a cell cycle-dependent way. Genes Dev. 8: 1844–1849.
- APARICIO, O. M., B. L. BILLINGTON and D. E. GOTTSCHLING, 1991 Modifiers of position effect are shared between telomeric and silent mating-type loci in S. cerevisiae. Cell 66: 1279–1287.
- BELL, S. P., R. KOBAYASHI and B. STILLMAN, 1993 Yeast origin recognition complex functions in transcription silencing and DNA replication. Science 262: 1844–1849.
- BELL, S. P., and B. STILLMAN, 1992 ATP-dependent recognition of eukaryotic origins of DNA replication by a multiprotein complex. Nature 357: 128–134.
- BOWDISH, K. S., and A. P. MITCHELL, 1993 Bipartite structure of an early meiotic upstream activation sequence from Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 13: 2172-2181.
- BRAND, A. H., L. BREEDEN, J. ABRAHAM, R. STERNGLANZ and K. NA-SMYTH, 1985 Characterization of a "silencer" in yeast: a DNA sequence with properties opposite to those of a transcriptional enhancer. Cell 41: 41–48.
- BRAND, A. H., G. MICKLEM and K. NASMYTH, 1987 A yeast silencer contains sequences that can promote autonomous plasmid replication and transcriptional activation. Cell 51: 709-719.
- BRAUNSTEIN, M., A. B. ROSE, S. G. HOLMES and J. R. BROACH, 1993 Transcriptional silencing in yeast is associated with reduced nucleosome acetylation. Genes Dev. 7: 592-604.
- BRAUNSTEIN, M., R. É. SOBEL, C. D. ALLIS, B. M. TURNER and J. R. BROACH, 1996 Efficient transcriptional silencing in Saccharomyces cerevisiae requires a heterochromatin histone acetylation pattern. Mol. Cell. Biol. 16: 4349-4356.
- BUCHMAN, A. R., W. J. KIMMERLY, J. RINE and R. D. KORNBERG, 1988 Two DNA-binding factors recognize specific sequences at silencers, upstream activating sequences, autonomously replicating sequences, and telomeres in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8: 210–225.
- BUCK, S. W., and D. SHORE, 1995 Action of a RAP1 C-terminal silencing domain reveals an underlying competition between HMR and telomeres in yeast. Genes Dev. 9: 370–384.
- BURKE, R. L., P. TEKAMP-OLSON and R. NAJARIN, 1983 The isolation, characterization and sequence of the pyruvate kinase gene of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. J. Biol. Chem. 258: 2193–2201.
 CHEN-CLELAND, T. A., M. M. SMITH, S. LE, R. STERNGLANZ and V. G.
- CHEN-CLELAND, T. A., M. M. SMITH, S. LE, R. STERNGLANZ and V. G. ALLFREY, 1993 Nucleosome structural changes during derepression of silent mating-type loci in yeast. J. Biol. Chem. 268: 1118–1124.
- CHIEN, C.-T., S. BUCK, R. STERNGLANZ and D. SHORE, 1993 Targeting of SIR1 protein establishes transcriptional silencing at HM loci and telomeres in yeast. Cell 75: 531–541.
- CONRAD, M. N., J. H. WRIGHT, A. J. WOLF and V. A. ZAKIAN, 1990 RAP1 protein interacts with yeast telomeres *in vivo*: overproduction alters telomere structure and decreases chromosome stability. Cell 63: 739-750.
- Foss, M., F. J. MCNALLY, P. LAURENSON and J. RINE, 1993 Origin recognition complex (ORC) in transcriptional silencing and DNA replication in *S. cerevisiae*. Science **262**: 1838–1844.
- GIESMAN, D., L. BEST and K. TATCHELL, 1991 The role of RAP1 in the regulation of the *MAT*alpha locus. Mol. Cell. Biol. 11: 1069–1079.
- GOTTSCHLING, D. E., 1992 Telomere-proximal DNA in Saccharomyces cerevisiae is refractory to methyltransferase activity in vivo. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 89: 4062-4065.
- GOTTSCHLING, D. E., O. M. APARICIO, B. L. BILLINGTON and V. A. ZAK-IAN, 1990 Position effect at S. cerevisiae telomeres: reversible repression of pol II transcription. Cell 63: 751-762.

- HARDY, C. F. J., L. SUSSEL and D. SHORE, 1992 A RAP1-interacting protein involved in silencing and telomere length regulation. Genes Dev. 6: 801-814.
- HEBBES, T. R., A. W. THORNE, and C. CRANE-ROBINSON, 1988 A direct link between core histone acetylation and transcriptionally active chromatin. EMBO J. 7: 1395-1402.
- HECHT, A., T. LAROCHE, S. STRAHL-BOLSINGER, S. M. GASSER and M. GRUNSTEIN, 1995 Histone H3 and H4 N termini interact with SIR3 and SIR4 proteins: a molecular model for the formation of heterochromatin in yeast. Cell 80: 583-592.
- HENIKOFF, S., 1990 Position-effect variegation after 60 years. Trends Genet. 6: 422-426.
- KAYNE, P. S., U. J. KIM, M. HAN, J. R. MULLEN, F. YOSHIZAKI et al., 1988 Extremely conserved histone H4 N terminus is dispensable for growth but essential for repressing the silent mating loci in yeast. Cell 55: 27–39.
- KIM, Y.-J., S. BJORKLUND, Y. LI, M. H. SAYRE and R. D. KORNBERG, 1994 A multiprotein mediator of transcriptional activation and its interaction with the C-terminal repeat domain of RNA polymerase II. Cell 77: 599–608.
- KLAR, A. J. S., J. N. STRATHERN and J. B. HICKS, 1984 A position-effect control for gene transposition: state of expression of yeast matingtype genes affects their ability to switch. Cell 25: 517–524.
- KURTZ, S., and D. SHORE, 1991 The RAP1 protein activates and silences transcription of mating-type genes in yeast. Genes Dev. 5: 616-628.
- KYRION, G., K. A. BOAKYE and A. J. LUSTIG, 1992 C-terminal truncation of RAP1 results in the deregulation of telomere size, stability, and function in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Mol. Cell. Biol. 12: 5159–5173.
- KYRION, G., K. LIU, C. LIU and A. J. LUSTIG, 1993 RAP1 and telomere structure regulate telomere position effects in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genes Dev. 7: 1146-1159.
- LAMAN, H., D. BALDERES and D. SHORE, 1995 Disturbance of normal cell cycle progression enhances the establishment of transcriptional silencing in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Mol. Cell. Biol. 15: 3608-3617.
- LAURENSON, P., and J. RINE, 1992 Silencers, silencing, and heritable transcriptional states. Microbiol. Rev. 56: 543–560.
- LI, Y., S. BJORKLUND, Y. W. JIANG, Y.-J. KIM, W. S. LANE *et al.*, 1995 Yeast global transcriptional regulators Sin4 and Rgr1 are components of mediator complex/RNA polymerase II holoenzyme. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA **92**: 10864–10868.
- LOO, S., P. LAURENSON, M. FOSS, A. DILLIN and J. RINE, 1995 Roles of ABF1, NPL3, and YCL54 in silencing in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics 141: 889-902.
- LOO, S., and J. RINE, 1994 Silencers and domains of generalized repression. Science 264: 1768-1771.
- LUSTIG, A. J., S. KURTZ, and D. SHORE, 1990 Involvement of the silencer and UAS binding protein RAP1 in regulation of telomere length. Science 250: 549-553.
- MAHONEY, D. J., and J. R. BROACH, 1989 The HML mating-type cassette of Saccharomyces cerevisiae is regulated by two separate but functionally equivalent silencers. Mol. Cell. Biol. 9: 4621-4630.
- MICKLEM, G., A. ROWLEY, J. HARWOOD, K. NASMYTH and J. F. X. DIF-FLEY, 1993 Yeast origin recognition complex is involved in DNA replication and transcriptional silencing. Nature 366: 87–89.
- MORETTI, P., K. FREEMAN, L. COODLEY and D. SHORE, 1994 Evidence that a complex of SIR proteins interacts with the silencer and telomere-binding protein RAP1. Genes Dev. 8: 2257–2269.
- NASMYTH, K. A., 1982 The regulation of yeast mating-type chromosome structure by *SIR*: an action at a distance affecting both transcription and transposition. Cell **30**: 567–578.
- NASMYTH, K., D. STILLMAN and D. KIPLING, 1987 Both positive and negative regulators of HO transcription are required for mothercell-specific mating-type switching in yeast. Cell 48: 579–587.
- NISHIZAWA, M., R. ARAKI and Y. TERANISHI, 1989 Identification of an upstream activating sequence and an upstream repressible sequence of the pyruvate kinase gene of the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 9: 442-451.
- ORLANDO, V., and R. PARO, 1995 Chromatin multiprotein complexes involved in the maintenance of transcription patterns. Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev. 5: 174–179.
- PILLUS, L., and J. RINE, 1989 Epigenetic inheritance of transcriptional states in S. cerevisiae. Cell 59: 637-647.

- RIGGS, A. D., and G. D. PFEIFFER, 1992 X-chromosome inactivation and cell memory. Trends Genet. 8: 169-174.
- RINE, J., and I. HERSKOWITZ, 1987 Four genes responsible for a position effect on expression from *HML* and *HMR* in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics 116: 9–22.
- ROSE, M. D., P. NOVICK, J. H. THOMAS, D. BOTSTEIN and G. R. FINK, 1987 A Saccharomyces cerevisiae genomic plasmid bank based on a centromere-containing shuttle vector. Gene 60: 237-243.
- ROSE, M. D., F. WINSTON, F. and P. HIETER, 1990 Methods in Yeast Genetics: A Laboratory Course Manual. Cold Spring Harbor Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY.
- ROTHSTEIN, R., 1983 One-step gene disruption in yeast. Methods Enzymol. 101: 202-211.
- SHORE, D., 1994 RAP1: a protean regulator in yeast. Trends Genet. 10: 408-412.
- SHORE, D., and K. NASMYTH, 1987 Purification and cloning of a DNA binding protein from yeast that binds to both silencer and activator elements. Cell 51: 721-732.
- SHORE, D., D. J. STILLMAN, A. H. BRAND and K. A. NASMYTH, 1987 Identification of silencer binding proteins from yeast: possible roles in SIR control and DNA replication. EMBO J. 6: 461-467.
- SIKORSKI, R., and P. HIETER, 1989 A system of shuttle vectors and yeast host strains designed for efficient manipulation of DNA in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics 122: 19-27.
- SINGH, J., and A. J. S. KLAR, 1992 Active genes in budding yeast display enhanced *in vivo* accessibility to foreign DNA methylases: a novel *in vivo* probe for chromatin structure of yeast. Genes Dev. 6: 186-196.
- STERNBERG, P. W., M. J. STERN, I. CLARK and I. HERSKOWITZ, 1987 Activation of the yeast HO gene by release from multiple negative controls. Cell 48: 567–577.
- STILLMAN, D. J., S. DORLAND and Y. YU, 1994 Epistasis analysis of suppressor mutations that allow HO expression in the absence of the yeast SWI5 transcriptional activator. Genetics 136: 781–788.
- STRICH, R., M. R. SLATER and R. E. ESPOSITO, 1989 Identification of negative regulatory genes that govern the expression of early meiotic genes in yeast. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 86: 10018–10022.
- SURANI, M. A., 1994 Genomic imprinting: control of gene expression by epigenetic inheritance. Curr. Opin. Cell Biol. 6: 390–395.
- SUSSEL, L., and D. SHORE, 1991 Separation of transcriptional activation and silencing functions of the *RAP1*-encoded repressor/ activator protein 1: Isolation of viable mutants affecting both silencing and telomere length. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 88: 7749-7753.
- SUSSEL, L., D. VANNIER and D. SHORE, 1993 Epigenetic switching of transcriptional states: *cis* and *trans-*acting factors affecting establishment of silencing at the *HMR* locus in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Mol. Cell. Biol. 13: 3919–3928.
- SUSSEL, L., D. VANNIER and D. SHORE, 1995 Suppressors of defective silencing in yeast: effects on transcriptional repression at the HMR locus, cell growth, and telomere structure. Genetics 141: 873-888.
- TAUNTON, J., C. A. HASSIG and S. L. SCHREIBER, 1996 A mammalian histone deacetylase related to the yeast transcriptional regulator Rpd3p. Science 272: 408-411.
- THOMAS, B.J., and R. ROTHSTEIN, 1989 Elevated recombination rates in transcriptionally active DNA. Cell 56: 619-630.
- THOMPSON, J. S., X. LING and M. GRUNSTEIN, 1994 Histone H3 amino terminus is required for telomeric and silent mating locus repression in yeast. Nature 369: 245-247.
- VIDAL, M., and R. F. GABER, 1991 RPD3 encodes a second factor required to achieve maximum positive and negative transcriptional states in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 11: 6317-6327.
- VIDAL, M., R. STRICH, R. E. ESPOSITO and R. F. GABER, 1991 RPD1(SIN3/UME4) is required for maximal activation and repression of diverse yeast genes. Mol. Cell. Biol. 11: 6306-6317.
- sion of diverse yeast genes. Mol. Cell. Biol. 11: 6306-6317.
 WANG, H., I. CLARK, P. R. NICHOLSON, I. HERSKOWITZ and D. J. STILLMAN, 1990 The Saccharomyces cerevisiae SIN3 gene, a negative regulator of HO, contains four paired amphipathic helix motifs. Mol. Cell. Biol. 10: 5927-5936.
- WANG, H., and D. J. STILLMAN, 1993 Transcriptional repression in Saccharomyces cerevisiae by a SIN3-LexA fusion protein. Mol. Cell. Biol. 13: 1805-1814.
- YOSHIMOTO, H., M. OHMAE and I. YAMASHITA, 1992 The Saccharomyces cerevisiae GAM2/SIN3 protein plays a role in both activation and repression of transcription. Mol. Gen. Genet. 233: 327-330.

Communicating editor: M. JOHNSTON