# The Saccharomyces cerevisiae SPT13/GAL11 Gene Has Both Positive and Negative Regulatory Roles in Transcription

JAN S. FASSLER<sup>1\*</sup> AND FRED WINSTON<sup>2</sup>

Department of Biology, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa 52242,<sup>1</sup> and Department of Genetics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts 02115<sup>2</sup>

Received 6 July 1989/Accepted 1 September 1989

To understand the function of SPT13, a gene encoding a *trans*-acting factor involved in regulation of Ty-mediated gene expression, we have cloned and sequenced the gene. Our analysis revealed that SPT13 is the same gene as GAL11, a gene in which mutations cause reduced expression of some GAL4-regulated genes. Further analysis of spt13/gal11 mutants suggested that the SPT13 gene also affects transcription of genes involved in mating-type specialization. We show here that SPT13 has both positive and negative regulatory roles in transcription.

Ty insertion mutations have provided a convenient selection for the identification of genes encoding *trans*-acting factors involved in transcription. Ty elements are retrotransposons found in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae that consist of 5.3 kilobase pairs (kb) of unique sequence flanked by 330-base-pair direct repeats called  $\delta$  sequences. In addition to approximately 35 Ty elements, there are roughly 100 solo  $\delta$  elements per haploid genome (7, 15). Insertion mutations caused by full Ty elements and by solo  $\delta$  sequences in the 5' noncoding regions of yeast genes can interfere with normal transcription of those genes (13, 17, 50, 60, 66). Ty element insertion mutations often reduce adjacent-gene transcription, whereas solo  $\delta$  insertion mutations often alter adjacent-gene transcription qualitatively by providing an alternate and preferred site for transcription initiation (29, 59, 69). In both cases, the change in the pattern of transcription of the adjacent gene can lead to a mutant phenotype. For example, Ty and  $\delta$  insertion mutations at the HIS4 and LYS2 genes frequently cause His<sup>-</sup> and Lys<sup>-</sup> phenotypes, respectively (50, 59, 60, 67). By selection for unlinked suppressors of Ty and  $\delta$  insertion mutations, we have identified 15 different SPT (suppressor of Ty insertion mutation) genes, each of which is likely to encode a protein involved in the regulation of Ty-mediated transcription and possibly in the transcription of other yeast genes (19, 67, 68).

The upstream activation site, TATA, and initiation site sequences for Ty transcription are located in the  $\delta$  sequences (14, 40). However, control of Ty and adjacent-gene transcription is also mediated by sequences located within the Ty transcription unit (18, 51). At the nucleotide sequence level, the internal regulatory sequences in Ty elements show similarity to the simian virus 40 enhancer core sequence (18, 51). Functional studies also suggest an enhancerlike activity, since these sequences, located downstream of the Ty promoter, contribute to activation of Ty transcription (12, 18, 24, 40, 51). Mutations in genes encoding factors regulating or interacting with these internal signals rather than with the upstream activation site, TATA, or initiation site present in the  $\delta$  were predicted to suppress Ty but not  $\delta$  insertion mutations. Mutations in the SPT13 gene were identified in a search for this specific suppression pattern (19).

In this paper, we present further molecular and genetic analysis of SPT13. Our results demonstrate that SPT13 is the same as the previously identified GAL11 gene (45, 64), that spt13 mutations cause pleiotropic effects, and that SPT13 has both positive and negative regulatory roles in transcription.

### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Yeast strains. All yeast strains are shown in Table 1. All strains are from our strain collection or were constructed for this study unless otherwise indicated. The spt13 mutations used were a spontaneous mutation, spt13-1, and two different Tn10-LUK insertion mutations, spt13-100 and spt13-101.

Media. The media used were as described by Sherman et al. (55) and included minimal medium (SD) with amino acids added, synthetic complete medium lacking a specific amino acid, and rich medium (YPD). Unless otherwise specified, all yeast strains were grown at 30°C.

Genetic methods. Procedures for yeast crosses, sporulation, and tetrad analysis were as described by Mortimer and Hawthorne (42) and Sherman et al. (55). Yeast transformation using either intact plasmids or DNA fragments was done using the method of Ito et al. (32). For genetic mapping of the SPT13 gene, 95 tetrads from a cross of strains JF781 (spt13-100 his4-519 trp1 $\Delta 1$  leu2-3 ura3-52) and LM882-13d (his4-519 SUF17 leu2-3 ura3-52 arg1) were dissected and analyzed. The spt13-100 allele was scored by the Ura<sup>+</sup> phenotype conferred by the presence of the Tn10-LUK insertion in the SPT13 gene, and SUF17 was scored by suppression of the his4-519 mutation. Linkage was calculated using the formula centimorgans = 50[TT+6(NPD)]/(PD+NPD+TT), where TT is tetratype, NPD is nonparental ditype, and PD is parental ditype.

**Plasmids.** Plasmids used as probes in Northern (RNA) hybridization analysis were as follows: FB72, a YIp5 derivative carrying an *Eco*RI-*ClaI* fragment from the *LYS2* gene, from which an internal *BgIII-XhoI* fragment was isolated; pMC1871, a pBR322 derivative carrying most of the *Escherichia coli lacZ* coding region (9); pSM39, a pUC18 derivative carrying an internal *Eco*RI-*XbaI* fragment from the *MFA1* gene (41); pHK2, a pBR328 derivative carrying an internal fragment from the *MFA1* gene (38); and CSH238, a pBR322 derivative carrying an *Eco*RI-*Hind*III fragment from the *MATa* strain provided by J. Thorner. This probe hybridizes to all *MAT* transcripts as well as to transcripts from the *HML* and *HMR* loci. The amount of RNA in Northern

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author.

Name	Genotype	Source or reference
JF781	MATa spt13-100 his4-519 trp1∆1 leu2-3 ura3-52	
LM882-13d	MATa his4-519 SUF17 leu2-3 ura3-52 arg1	M. Culbertson
RC634	MATa sst1-3 ade2 his6 met1 ura1 rme1	R. Chan
JF15	MATα lys2-128δ his4-917 ura3-52 leu2	
JF15T1	MATa lys2-1286 his4-917 ura3-52 leu2 spt13-101	
JF28	MATa lys2-1288 his4-917 trp1∆1 leu2	
JF576	MATα spt13-101 lys2-Δ201 leu2 trp1Δ1 his4-917	
JF577	MATa spt13-101 lys2-Δ201 leu2 trp1Δ1 his4-917	
JF94	MATa spt3-101 lys2-1288 ura3-52 leu2	
MCY1345	MATα ssn6-Δ6::URA3 his4-539 lys2-801 ura3-52 SUC2	8
JF393	MATα spt13-1 lys2-Δ201 ura3-52 trp1Δ1 leu2	
FW979	MATa lys2- $\Delta 201$ ura3-52	
JF822	MATa spt13-101 his4-917 lys2 leu2 ura3-52 GAL2	
JF906	MATa spt13-101 his4-917 lys2 leu2 ura3-52 GAL2 gal4::LEU2	

TABLE 1. Yeast strains

hybridization analysis was standardized by hybridization to plasmid pFR2, which carries the yeast *PYK1* gene.

The plasmid used for generating deletions of the SPT13 clone for sequencing was pAA3.7× (1, 2). The GAL4 disruption plasmid used in constructing the gal4 spt13 derivative was provided by C. Hardy and D. Shore. It consists of a 3.3-kb BamHI-HindIII fragment from the GAL4 gene, disrupted by an insertion of a 2.2-kb XhoI-SalI fragment from the LEU2 gene into the GAL4 SalI and SphI sites.

YCplys2-61-Z was constructed from pGS5 (60), a YIp vector carrying the lys2-61 allele, as follows. A 2-kb EcoRI-BamHI fragment carrying ARS1 and CEN3 was isolated from pYECEN3-41 (10), treated with Klenow fragment to fill in the ends, and ligated into the unique SmaI site of pGS5 to construct the autonomously replicating derivative, YCplys2-61. After partial digestion with ClaI, which cuts once in Ty sequences and once in LYS2, linearized full-length YCplys2-61 molecules were gel purified, treated with calf intestinal phosphatase, and ligated with a TaqI digest of a PstI fragment carrying the E. coli lacZ gene from plasmid pMC1871 (9). lacZ-containing derivatives were identified by colony hybridization, using the PstI lacZ fragment as a hybridization probe, and characterized by restriction analysis. Several different TaqI inserts were isolated. Two different isolates, YCplys2-61-Z1 and YCplys2-61-Z2, were

used in the experiment shown in Fig. 1. Sequence analysis. Nested 5' and 3' deletions of an 8-kb SphI fragment containing SPT13 were generated in vivo by using the deletion strategy described by Ahmed (1, 2). Sequencing was accomplished by using the chain termination method (53), [ $^{35}$ S]dATP (Amersham Corp.), and the Sequencing was performed by using double-stranded templates and a primer, 5'-d(GCCACTGGAGCACCTC) (prepared by Paul Tempst with an Applied Biosystems 380B DNA synthesizer), complementary to IS1 sequences 44 nucleotides before the deletion junction.

Mating-factor and barrier assays. The mating-factor assay was performed as described by Julius et al. (34), with minor modifications. Approximately  $6 \times 10^7$  tester cells (RC634) were spread onto a YPD plate that was immediately replica plated to a second YPD plate. Strains to be tested were patched onto the replica plate. Plates containing the patches and the RC634 lawn were incubated at 30°C for 3 days. The production of barrier was also assayed on replica-plated lawns of RC634 by using a modification of the method of Sprague and Herskowitz (62). The strains to be assayed were streaked immediately adjacent to circular patches of strain JF15 (*MAT* $\alpha$ ) cells. The plate was incubated at 30°C for 3 days. The production of barrier by the strains being tested was assayed by whether they allowed the lawn to grow in the presence of the  $\alpha$ -factor produced by JF15.

**RNA isolation and Northern hybridization analysis.** Cells were grown to a concentration of  $1 \times 10^7$  to  $2 \times 10^7$ /ml in YPD or in SD medium supplemented with amino acids. RNA was prepared by the method of Carlson and Botstein (8). Electrophoresis, blotting, and hybridization were performed as previously described (19). <sup>32</sup>P-labeled probes were prepared by nick translation (49) or by using random primers according to the method of Feinberg and Vogelstein (20, 21).

#### RESULTS

Molecular and genetic analyses of the SPT13 gene. To further investigate the role of SPT13 in transcription, we cloned, genetically mapped, and began to sequence the SPT13 gene. To clone the SPT13 gene, an spt13 his4-917 mutant strain (JF393; His<sup>+</sup>phenotype) was transformed with a veast genomic library in the vector YCp50 (52). Ura<sup>+</sup> transformants were screened for those that had acquired a His<sup>-</sup> phenotype. One candidate was obtained out of the 11,000 transformants screened. The identity of the cloned gene was confirmed by showing that it directs integration of a plasmid to the SPT13 locus. Localization and disruption of the plasmid-born gene were accomplished by Tn10-LUK transposon mutagenesis (31). The null phenotype conferred by the disrupted gene (Spt<sup>-</sup>) confirmed that the spt13mediated suppression pattern was due to loss of SPT13 function (19). Five different Tn10-LUK insertions that disrupted SPT13 function (failed to rescue the His<sup>+</sup> phenotype of an spt13 mutant) and two that partially disrupted function (resulted in a His<sup>+/-</sup> phenotype) were obtained. On the basis of the map positions of these insertion mutations, the gene was estimated to be a maximum of 3.8 kb in size.

To determine its genetic map position, the SPT13 gene was first physically mapped to chromosome XV by hybridization of an SPT13 probe to a blot of separated yeast chromosomes generated by field inversion gel electrophoresis of total yeast DNA. Tetrad analysis from a three-factor cross placed the gene 3 centimorgans (cM) centromere proximal to ARG1 on the left arm of chromosome XV (Table 2). The distance calculated for the SUF17-to-ARG1 interval (2 cM) is in reasonable agreement with the previously reported value of 3 cM (25).

SPT13 is the same gene as GAL11. Our sequence analysis revealed that SPT13 is identical to the previously identified GAL11 gene, mutations in which cause a moderate decrease in expression of some but not all GAL4-regulated genes (45, 64). Although our SPT13 sequence was incomplete at the time of the publication of the GAL11 sequence, the SPT13 sequence we obtained matches bases -834 through -660,

 
 TABLE 2. Determination of the SPT13 map position by tetrad analysis

Test markers	Tetrad analysis			Map distance
rest markers	PD	NPD	TT	(cM)
spt13, SUF17	93	0	2	1.1
spt13, arg1	89	0	6	3.2
SUF17, arg1	91	0	4	2.1

-31 through 993, 1180 through 1550, and 1730 through 2630 (coordinates of Suzuki et al. [64]) in addition to 1,400 bases of 5'- and 3'-flanking sequence. In addition, the null mutation, *spt13-101*, confers the same weak Gal<sup>-</sup> phenotype described for *gal11* mutants (45, 64).

Effect of spt13 mutations on Ty transcription. Although the precise role of SPT13 in expression of GAL4-regulated genes is not known, this additional *spt13/gal11* phenotype suggests that SPT13 is a positive regulator of gene expression. In contrast, previous Northern hybridization analysis of Ty insertion alleles demonstrated that suppression of Ty insertion mutations in spt13 mutants is due to elevated levels of adjacent gene transcription, suggesting that, in that case, SPT13 is a negative regulator of gene expression (19). Given these apparently opposite effects on gene expression, we considered the possibility that the spt13 effect on Ty-mediated gene expression is an indirect result of a reduction in Ty transcription. By this model, a decrease in Ty transcription in spt13 mutants would allow the increase in adjacent-gene transcription. Although previous work had demonstrated that spt13 mutations had no significant effect on total Ty transcription, transcription of the particular Ty element in the insertion mutation in question was not specifically examined. Therefore, an effect on that specific Ty element could not be ruled out.

To establish conclusively that *spt13*-mediated activation of adjacent-gene transcription is not accompanied by reduction in Ty transcription, we examined the effect of an spt13 mutation on a single Ty element at the LYS2 locus rather than on total Ty transcription. The lys2-61 Ty insertion, which is located between the LYS2 transcription initiation site and the start of translation (23, 60; J. S. Fassler and F. Winston, unpublished results), is suppressed by spt13 mutations. To analyze transcription of this particular Ty element, fragments from the E. coli lacZ gene were inserted into the ClaI site at position 3582 in the Ty element of lys2-61 on plasmid YCplys2-61 (Fig. 1A; see Materials and Methods). The Lys<sup>-</sup> phenotype of SPT13<sup>+</sup> lys2Δ201(YCplys2-61-Z) and the Lys<sup>+</sup> phenotype of spt13 lys2 $\Delta$ 201(YCplys2-61-Z) strains showed that the lacZ inserts did not interfere with the phenotype of the lys2-61 mutation or with the ability of spt13 mutations to suppress the lys2-61 insertion allele.

Northern hybridization analysis using LYS2 and lacZ probes showed that spt13-mediated activation of adjacentgene transcription was accompanied by a high level of transcription of the adjacent Ty element (Fig. 1B). In fact, transcription of the Ty element was also somewhat elevated in the spt13 mutant, although much less so than transcription of LYS2. This result is consistent with the data of Coney and Roeder (12) showing that the Ty activator region has a strong effect on adjacent-gene expression and a modest effect on Ty expression. This transcription pattern suggests that SPT13 is a negative regulator of both Ty and Ty-mediated transcription.

On the basis of the model of Suzuki et al. (64), which suggests that SPT13/GAL11 may interact with GAL4 to

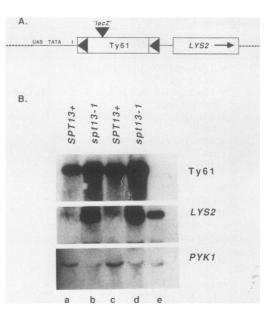


FIG. 1. Effect of an spt13 mutation on Ty and adjacent-gene transcription. (A) Structure of the modified lys2-61 allele in plasmids YCplys2-61-Z1 and YCplys2-61-Z2. UAS, Upstream activation sequence. (B) Hybridization analysis of wild-type (FW979) and spt13 mutant (JF393) strains deleted for the genomic LYS2 gene (lys2 $\Delta$ 201) and carrying either YCplys2-61-Z1 (lanes a and b) or YCplys2-61-Z2 (lanes c and d) (see Materials and Methods). RNA from an SPT13<sup>+</sup>LYS2<sup>+</sup> control strain carrying no plasmid was probed in lane e. Cells were grown at 20°C in minimal medium lacking uracil to select for the continued presence of the plasmid. The 20°C growth temperature was used because lys2-61 is a cold-sensitive mutation; in an SPT13<sup>+</sup> background, the phenotype was Lys<sup>+</sup> at 37°C, Lys<sup>+</sup> at 30°C, and Lys<sup>-</sup> at 20°C. The filter was hybridized individually with gel-isolated <sup>32</sup>P-labeled LYS2, *lacZ*, and *PYK1* (pyruvate kinase) probes. The lacZ probe hybridizes to Ty61 transcripts; the LYS2 probe hybridizes to the LYS2 transcript; and PYK1 hybridization was used to normalize amounts of RNA loaded in each lane. Probes were removed from the filter between hybridizations. Exposure times differed for each analysis.

activate transcription of the GAL genes, we considered the unlikely possibility that spt13-mediated suppression of Ty insertion mutations also required GAL4. However, we found that gal4 spt13 (JF906) and GAL4 spt13 (JF822) strains were indistinguishable in suppression of the Ty insertion mutation, his4-917 (data not shown). This result strongly suggests that SPT13 regulates or interacts with other factors in addition to GAL4.

**Regulation of mating-type gene expression.** The pleiotropic phenotype of spt13 mutants suggests that SPT13 may also be involved in regulation of additional genes. In addition to suppression of Ty insertion mutations and reduced GAL4-regulated gene expression, spt13 mutant phenotypes include mating and sporulation defects (19). We therefore tested whether the spt13-associated mating defect reflects a role for SPT13 in transcriptional regulation of mating-type genes.

In mating-type tests,  $MAT\alpha$  spt13 but not MATa spt13 strains mated poorly. To determine the reason for this apparent  $\alpha$ -specific mating defect, we first examined SPT13 transcription in MATa and  $MAT\alpha$  cells. Although suppression of Ty insertion mutations is not specific to  $MAT\alpha$  spt13 mutants, we considered the possibility that  $MAT\alpha$  cells require higher concentrations of SPT13 product to successfully execute an SPT13-mediated mating function. In North-

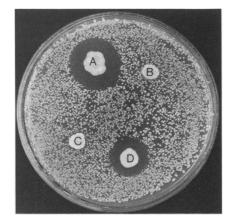


FIG. 2. Effect of an *spt13* mutation on  $\alpha$ -factor production. (A) Wild type (JF15); (B) *spt13-101* (JF15T1); (C) *ssn6-\Delta 6::URA3* (MCY1345) (54); (D) *spt3-101* (JF94). All strains are *MAT* $\alpha$  and were spotted onto a lawn of *MAT* $\alpha$  cells that are supersensitive to growth inhibition by the opposite mating factors because of a mutation in the *SST1* gene. The zone of growth inhibition around the spotted strains is a measure of the amount of mating factor produced. The tester lawn is RC634 (*MAT* $\alpha$  *sst1-3*) (34).

ern hybridization experiments comparing RNAs from *MATa* and *MAT* $\alpha$  SPT13<sup>+</sup> strains, we detected no difference in the levels of SPT13 transcripts (data not shown).

Levels of the mating pheromone  $\alpha$ -factor were examined in MAT<sub> $\alpha$ </sub> SPT13<sup>+</sup> and spt13 strains (Fig. 2). Since mating pheromones arrest growth of cells of the opposite mating type, it is possible to assess relative pheromone levels in different mutants by comparing the extent to which cells of one mating type inhibit growth of cells of the other mating type. In this halo (inhibition of growth) assay, the spt13 mutant, like the  $\alpha$ -specific sterile mutant ssn6 (54), produced no  $\alpha$ -factor halo, in contrast to a 5- to 6-mm halo formed by the SPT13<sup>+</sup> strain. Like spt13 mutants, spt3 mutants are also mating defective and produce less  $\alpha$ -factor (28); however, the spt3  $\alpha$ -factor defect appears to be leakier than that of spt13 mutants. Northern hybridization analysis showed that transcription of  $MF\alpha I$ , the gene encoding the majority of the  $\alpha$ -factor in the cell (5, 38, 61), was substantially reduced in spt13 mutants (Fig. 3A, lanes a and c). Therefore, the reduction in  $\alpha$ -factor in *spt13* mutants was at least partially caused by a reduction in  $MF\alpha l$  transcript levels.

Since  $MF\alpha l$  transcription is positively regulated by  $MAT\alpha l$  (16, 63),  $MAT\alpha l$  transcription was also examined. The  $MAT\alpha l$  and  $MAT\alpha 2$  genes are transcribed divergently from a common promoter (27, 36, 43, 44, 58) and are likely to be coordinately regulated in haploids. *spt13* mutants produced reduced levels of  $MAT\alpha l$  or  $MAT\alpha 2$  RNA (or both) (Fig. 3C). (Since we were unable to separate the  $MAT\alpha l$  and  $MAT\alpha 2$  mRNAs, we could not definitively conclude whether one or both mRNA levels were reduced.) Therefore, we propose that *SPT13* has a positive regulatory role in expression of genes at the  $MAT\alpha$  locus. The effect of *spt13* on  $MF\alpha l$  transcription, therefore, may be partially indirect, via the effect on  $MAT\alpha l$  transcription accounts for the entire *spt13* effect on  $MF\alpha l$  expression.

Since  $MAT\alpha 2$  is responsible for repression of MATaspecific genes in  $MAT\alpha$  cells (33), the observation that  $MAT\alpha 2$  RNA levels may be reduced in *spt13* mutants suggests that  $MAT\alpha$  *spt13* mutants might exhibit some a-specific gene expression. To test this prediction, we exam-

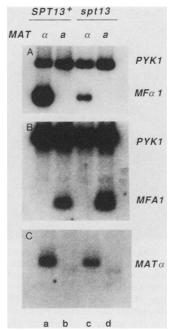


FIG. 3. Effect of an spt13 mutation on transcription of genes involved in mating-type specification. Transcription of MFA1,  $MF\alpha1$ , and  $MAT\alpha$  genes is shown in  $SPT13^+$  and spt13 strains of both mating types. Approximately 10 µg of total RNA was loaded in each lane. RNA levels were normalized by using hybridization to the PYK1 message. The filter shown in panel A was stripped and rehybridized with the  $MAT\alpha$  probe for panel C. Electrophoresis, blotting, and hybridization conditions were as described previously (19) except that the gels were 1.5% agarose. The probes were as follows: (A) MFa1, pHK2 (38); (B) MFA1, pSM39 (41); and (C) MATa, pCSH283. Since the MATa and MATa loci share extensive homology (36), the MATa probe hybridized to MATa transcripts (lanes a and c) as well as to MATa transcripts (seen faintly in lanes b and d). In this experiment, the MAT $\alpha I$  and MAT $\alpha 2$  transcripts comigrated; therefore, the transcript designated  $MAT\alpha$  is actually a composite transcript consisting of both  $MAT\alpha 1$  and  $MAT\alpha 2$  transcripts. Lanes: a, MATa SPT13+ (JF15); b, MATa SPT13+ (JF28); c, MATa spt13-101 (JF576); d, MATa spt13-101 (JF577).

ined transcription of the a-specific gene, MFA1, one of the two genes that encode a-factor (4). Transcription of the MFA1 gene was not detectable in  $MAT\alpha$  spt13 mutants (Fig. 3B, lane c). However, the spt13 mutation caused a small increase in transcript levels of MFA1 in MATa cells. The significance of the small increase in expression of this gene in the MATa spt13 strain is not clear.

We also examined expression of the a-specific gene BAR1, a gene that, like MFA1, is expressed specifically in MATa cells (37). BAR1 is involved in the extracellular degradation of  $\alpha$ -factor in MATa cells (37). In a standard plate assay for BAR1 activity, MAT $\alpha$  spt13 mutants were compared with MAT $\alpha$  SPT13<sup>+</sup>, spt3, and ssn6 mutants. MAT $\alpha$  spt13 mutants could be clearly shown to express barrier activity (Fig. 4), just as has been shown previously for ssn6 mutants (54). The effect of the spt13 mutation on BAR1 expression in MAT $\alpha$  cells is consistent with a reduction in MAT $\alpha$ 2 RNA levels in spt13 mutants. In addition, the aberrant expression of BAR1 must contribute to the reduction in the  $\alpha$ -factor halo size seen in spt13 mutants.

#### DISCUSSION

In this work, we show that the S. cerevisiae SPT13 gene participates in the regulation of a diverse set of genes

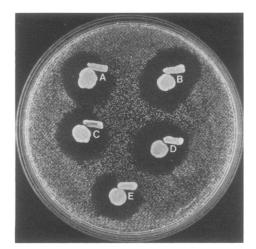


FIG. 4. Barrier assay. Spots of the  $\alpha$ -factor-producing strain JF15 were patched onto a YPD plate that had been freshly spread with roughly 10<sup>6</sup> cells of strain RC634 (*MATa sst1-3*). Each strain to be assayed for barrier production was gridded in a small streak by the upper right edge of a round JF15 patch. The production of barrier by the strains tested was assayed by whether they allowed the lawn to grow in the presence of  $\alpha$ -factor. For example, the barrier-producing control strain in streak E allowed growth of the lawn near the streak; the barrier-nonproducing control strain in streak B had a large clear zone around the streak. Strains tested were as follows: (A) *MATa spt13-101* (JF15T1); (B) *MATa spt3-101* (JF94); and (E) *MATa SPT13<sup>+</sup>* (JF28).

(summarized in Table 3). Analysis of the mating-defective phenotype of spt13 mutants shows that in addition to regulation of Ty, Ty-mediated, and GAL gene expression, SPT13 also has a role in regulation of genes involved in specifying mating type. The major effect of spt13 mutations on matingtype gene expression that we observed is the reduction in the level of  $MF\alpha l$  transcripts. A smaller effect on  $MAT\alpha l$  and  $MAT\alpha 2$  gene transcripts was also observed. Although we were unable to distinguish the individual  $MAT\alpha$  transcripts, we found that the activities of both  $MAT\alpha I$ - and  $MAT\alpha 2$ regulated genes were affected in a way that suggests a reduction in expression of both genes (a-factor production was lowered and barrier production was not fully repressed in MAT<sub> $\alpha$ </sub> cells). The conclusion that MAT<sub> $\alpha$ </sub>2 expression is decreased in spt13 mutants, although supported by the presence of BAR1 activity in  $MAT\alpha$  cells, is not supported by the absence of detectable MFA1 expression in  $MAT\alpha$ cells. Possibly, BAR1 expression and MFA1 expression are differentially sensitive to the reduced  $MAT\alpha 2$  levels.

From the analysis of spt13 mutant phenotypes, we conclude that SPT13 can participate in both positive and negative regulation. The transcriptional role of SPT13 appears to vary with the gene being regulated. The data do not allow discrimination among at least three distinct possibilities: (i)

TABLE 3. Summary of SPT13-regulated genes

Affected gene(s)	Role of SPT13	Reference(s)	
Ty	Negative regulator	19; this work	
Ty adjacent	Negative regulator	19; this work	
GAL4 regulated	Positive regulator	45, 64	
MFal	Positive regulator	This work	
$MAT\alpha l$ and $MAT\alpha 2$	Positive regulator	This work	

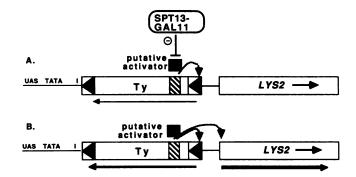


FIG. 5. Model for SPT13-mediated regulation of Ty and adjacent-gene transcription. Activation of Ty and adjacent-gene transcription is mediated by a positive regulatory factor of unknown identity whose activity is negatively regulated by SPT13. (A) SPT13<sup>+</sup> represses activation of adjacent-gene transcription while permitting activation of Ty transcription; (B) in an *spt13* mutant, both Ty transcription and adjacent-gene transcription are increased. UAS, Upstream activation sequence.

SPT13 is a DNA-binding protein with both positive and negative regulatory activities, (ii) SPT13 regulates the expression of other transcription factors, or (iii) SPT13 interacts with other regulatory factors to achieve positive or negative regulation.

Although the SPT13 sequence includes a weak helixturn-helix domain (64), there is currently no experimental support for the SPT13 gene product binding directly to DNA. Computer-assisted searches for sequence similarity between Ty1 and the GAL1-GAL10 promoter reveal no significant matches. Furthermore, in gel retardation experiments involving Ty enhancer fragments, the absence of SPT13 from the protein extract had no effect on the mobility of the shifted bands (J. Fassler, unpublished results).

We therefore favor a model in which SPT13 interacts with additional proteins to carry out its effects. By this model, the nature of the effect at a given gene would depend on the other proteins involved. For example, SPT13 might interact with GAL4 to help activate transcription at some GAL4regulated genes. With respect to Ty transcription and Tymediated gene expression, SPT13 could interact with proteins that bind to the Ty enhancerlike region, resulting in inhibition of adjacent-gene expression (Fig. 5). Several Ty DNA-binding activities that are potential targets for SPT13 action have been identified (11, 26). We cannot, of course, rule out the possibility that the negative effect on Tymediated gene expression by SPT13 is indirect and occurs by positive regulation of a negative regulator.

The observation that the SPT13 gene product is involved in both positive and negative regulation is reminiscent of the dual regulatory activities of the regulatory factor RAP1 (6, 30, 56, 57). RAP1 was identified as a DNA-binding protein likely to be involved in repressing expression of mating-type genes at the silent mating-type loci (57). In contrast to its presumed role as a repressor at the silent mating-type locus, RAP1 is believed to activate transcription at a variety of other loci, including genes for ribosomal protein, translation elongation factors, *TEF1* and *TEF2*, and the *MAT* $\alpha$  locus (6, 30, 57). The RAP1 protein has been shown to bind to the *MAT* $\alpha$  upstream activation sequence (56).

Although *RAP1* is an essential gene and *SPT13* is not, we examined the possibility that *SPT13* regulates expression of *RAP1*. In preliminary experiments, we detected no change in levels of *RAP1* transcripts in *MAT* $\alpha$  *SPT13*<sup>+</sup> and *spt13* 

strains. The  $MAT\alpha$  genes are therefore apparently under the control of both *RAP1* and *SPT13*. The possibility that SPT13 interacts with RAP1 or regulates its activity is currently under investigation.

A strong parallel between the activities of SPT13 and the transcription factor PRTF (3, 35, 46) can also be made. PRTF, also called GRM (35) and *MCM1* (46), though present in all cell types, interacts with cell-type-specific factors, turning on  $\alpha$ -specific gene expression in  $\alpha$  cells (3) and turning off **a**-specific gene expression in  $\alpha$  cells (3). Thus, PRTF is both a positive and a negative regulator that functions at the level of protein-protein rather than DNA-protein interaction. This is similar to the role we envision for SPT13.

One noteworthy feature of the predicted SPT13 protein is the prevalence of glutamine: 170 of 965 amino acid residues are glutamine (64). As noted by Suzuki et al. (64), many of the glutamine residues occur within two tracts of poly (glutamine) and one of poly(glutamine-alanine). Although the significance of poly(glutamine) tracts is unknown, this sequence feature has been noted in several other S. cerevisiae genes of diverse function, including SSN6 (54), HAP2 (47), and MCM1 (46), as well as several Drosophila homeotic genes such as notch (65), engrailed (22, 48), and antennapedia (39).

In addition to this and other similarities between SSN6 and GAL11/SPT13 noted by Suzuki et al. (64), we show that spt13 mutants, like ssn6 mutants, have an  $\alpha$ -specific sterile phenotype. In both mutants, the **a**-specific gene, BAR1, is aberrantly expressed in MAT $\alpha$  cells. However, the spt13 mating defect differs from that of ssn6 in that spt13 mutants show a substantial reduction in MF $\alpha$ 1 transcription, whereas the ssn6 mutation has no effect on MF $\alpha$ 1 expression. Interestingly, mutations in the MCM1 gene, which encodes the poly(glutamine)-containing transcription factor PRTF, also result in an  $\alpha$ -specific sterile phenotype (46).

In conclusion, SPT13 is both a positive and a negative regulatory factor that affects transcription of a diverse set of genes. The mechanism of SPT13 participation in these regulatory systems and the identification of other roles for SPT13 will hopefully be elucidated by further genetic and molecular analyses.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank J. Schultz and M. Carlson for strains MCY1345, MCY1346, RC634, and XBH8-2C; M. Culbertson for strain LM882-13d; S. Michaelis (pSM39), J. Kurjan (pHK2), J. Thorner (CSH238), and S. Kurtz and D. Shore (D943) for probes; D. Shore and M. Johnston for the *GAL4* disruption plasmid; and A. Ahmed for the sequencing vector pAA3.7x. We also thank D. Weeks, R. Deschenes, G. Gussin, and J. Hirschman for valuable discussions and critical review of the manuscript and G. Gingerich and C. Dollard for excellent technical assistance.

This research was supported by Public Health Service grants from the National Institutes of Health to J.S.F. (GM40306) and to F.W. (GM32967). F.W. was also supported by National Science Foundation grant DCB8451649 and grants from the Stroh Brewery Co. and the Lucille P. Markey Charitable Trust.

#### LITERATURE CITED

- Ahmed, A. 1985. A rapid procedure for DNA sequencing using transposon-promoted deletions in *Escherichia coli*. Gene 39: 305-310.
- Ahmed, A. 1987. Use of transposon-promoted deletions in DNA sequence analysis. Methods Enzymol. 155:177–204.
- 3. Bender, A., and G. F. Sprague. 1987.  $MAT\alpha 1$  protein, a yeast transcription activator, binds synergistically with a second

protein to a set of cell type specific genes. Cell 50:681-691.

- 4. Brake, A. J., C. Brenner, R. Najarian, P. Laybourne, and J. Merryweather. 1985. The structure of genes encoding precursors of the yeast peptide mating pheromone, a-factor. *In* Transport and secretion of proteins. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- Brake, A. J., D. J. Julius, and J. Thorner. 1983. A functional prepro-α-factor gene in Saccharomyces yeasts can contain three, four, or five repeats of the mature pheromone sequence. Mol. Cell. Biol. 3:1440–1450.
- 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.
- Cameron, J. R., E. Y. Loh, and R. W. Davis. 1979. Evidence for transposition of dispersed repetitive DNA families in yeast. Cell 16:739–751.
- Carlson, M., and D. Botstein. 1982. Two differentially regulated mRNAs with different 5' ends encode secreted and intracellular forms of yeast invertase. Cell 28:145–154.
- Casadaban, M. J., A. Martinez-Arias, S. K. Sharira, and J. Chou. 1983. β-Galactosidase gene fusions for analyzing gene expression in *Escherichia coli* and yeast. Methods Enzymol. 100:293-308.
- Clark, L., and J. Carbon. 1980. Isolation of a yeast centromere and construction of functional small circular chromosomes. Nature (London) 287:504-509.
- 11. Company, M., and B. Errede. 1988. A Ty1 cell-type-specific regulatory sequence is a recognition element for a constitutive binding factor. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:5299–5309.
- 12. Coney, L. R., and S. Roeder. 1988. Control of yeast gene expression by transposable elements: maximum expression requires a functional Ty activator sequence and defective Ty promoter. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:4009-4017.
- 13. Eibel, H., and P. Philippsen. 1984. Preferential integration of yeast transposable element Ty into a promoter region. Nature (London) 307:386–388.
- Elder, R. T., E. Y. Loh, and R. W. Davis. 1983. RNA from the yeast transposable element Ty1 has both ends in the direct repeats, a structure similar to retrovirus RNA. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80:2432-2436.
- Elder, R. T., T. P. St. John, D. T. Stinchcomb, and R. W. Davis. 1981. Studies on the transposable element Ty1 of yeast. I. RNA homologous to Ty1. Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. 45:581-584.
- Emr, S. D., R. Schekman, M. C. Flessel, and J. Thorner. 1983. An MFα1-SUC2 (α-factor-invertase) gene fusion for study of protein localization and gene expression in yeast. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80:7080-7084.
- Errede, B., T. S. Cardillo, F. Sherman, E. Dubois, J. Deschamps, and J. M. Wiame. 1980. Mating signals control expression of mutations resulting from insertion of a transposable repetitive element adjacent to diverse yeast genes. Cell 22:427-436.
- Errede, B., M. Company, J. D. Ferschak, C. A. Hutchison, and W. S. Yarnell. 1985. Activation regions in a yeast transposon have homology to mating type control sequences and to mammalian enhancers. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82:5423-5427.
- Fassler, J. S., and F. Winston. 1988. Isolation and analysis of a novel class of suppressor of Ty insertion mutations in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics 118:203-212.
- 20. Feinberg, A. P., and B. Vogelstein. 1983. A technique for radiolabelling DNA restriction fragments to high specific activity. Anal. Biochem. 132:6–13.
- Feinberg, A. P., and B. Vogelstein. 1984. A technique for radiolabelling DNA restriction endonuclease fragments to high specific activity (addendum). Anal. Biochem. 137:266–267.
- Fjose, A., W. J. McGinnis, and W. J. Gehring. 1985. Isolation of a homeo box-containing gene from the *engrailed* region of *Drosophila* and the spatial distribution of its transcripts. Nature (London) 313:284–289.
- 23. Fleig, U. N., R. D. Pridmore, and P. Philippsen. 1986. Construction of LYS2 cartridges for use in genetic manipulations of

Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Gene 46:237-245.

- 24. Fulton, A. M., P. D. Rathjen, S. M. Kingsman, and A. J. Kingsman. 1988. Upstream and downstream transcriptional control signals in the yeast retrotransposon, Ty. Nucleic Acids Res. 16:5439–5459.
- Gaber, R. F., L. Mathison, I. Edelman, and M. R. Culbertson. 1984. Frameshift suppression in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. VI. Complete genetic map of twenty five suppressor genes. Genetics 103:389-407.
- Goel, A., and R. E. Pearlman. 1988. Transposable elementmediated enhancement of gene expression in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* involves sequence-specific binding of a *trans*-acting factor. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:2572–2580.
- Hicks, J. B., J. N. Strathern, and A. J. S. Klar. 1979. Transposable mating type gene in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Nature (London) 282:478–483.
- Hirschhorn, J. N., and F. Winston. 1988. SPT3 is required for normal levels of a-factor and α-factor expression in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:822-827.
- Hirschman, J. E., K. J. Durbin, and F. Winston. 1988. Genetic evidence for promoter competition in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:4608–4615.
- Huet, J., P. Cottrelle, M. Cool, M.-L. Vignais, D. Thiele, C. Merck, J.-M. Buhler, A. Sentenac, and P. Fromageot. 1985. A general upstream binding factor for genes of the yeast translation apparatus. EMBO J. 4:3539–3547.
- Huisman, O., W. Raymond, K.-U. Froehlich, P. Errada, N. Kleckner, D. Botstein, and M. A. Hoyt. 1987. A Tn10-lacZ-kanR-URA3 gene fusion transposon for insertion mutagenesis and fusion analysis of yeast and bacterial genes. Genetics 116:191-199.
- Ito, H., Y. Fukuda, K. Murata, and A. Kimura. 1983. Transformation of intact yeast cells treated with alkali cations. J. Bacteriol. 153:163–168.
- 33. Johnson, A. D., and I. Herskowitz. 1985. A repressor (MATα2 product) and its operator control expression of a set of cell type specific genes in yeast. Cell 42:237-247.
- 34. Julius, D. L., L. Blair, A. Brake, G. Sprague, and J. Thorner. 1983. Yeast  $\alpha$ -factor is processed from a larger precursor polypeptide: the essential role of a membrane-bound dipeptidyl aminopeptidase. Cell **32**:839–852.
- 35. Keleher, C. A., C. Goutte, and A. D. Johnson. 1988. The yeast cell-type specific repressor  $\alpha 2$  acts cooperatively with a non-cell-type-specific protein. Cell 53:927-936.
- Klar, A., J. N. Strathern, J. R. Broach, and J. B. Hicks. 1981. Regulation of transcription in expressed and unexpressed mating type cassettes of yeast. Nature (London) 289:239-244.
- Kronstadt, J. W., J. A. Holly, and V. L. MacKay. 1987. A yeast operator overlaps an upstream activation site. Cell 50:369–377.
- 38. Kurjan, J., and I. Herskowitz. 1982. Structure of a yeast pheromone gene (MFα): a putative α-factor precursor contains four tandem copies of mature α-factor. Cell 30:933-943.
- 39. Laughon, A., A. M. Boulet, J. R. Bermingham, R. A. Laymon, and M. P. Scott. 1986. Structure of transcripts from the homeotic Antennapedia gene of *Drosophila melanogaster*: two promoters control the major protein-coding region. Mol. Cell. Biol. 6:4676–4689.
- 40. Liao, X., J. J. Clare, and P. J. Farabaugh. 1987. The upstream activation site of a Ty2 element of yeast is necessary but not sufficient to promote maximal transcription of the element. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 84:8520-8524.
- 41. Michaelis, S., and I. Herskowitz. 1988. The a-factor pheromone of Saccharomyces cerevisiae is essential for mating. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:1309–1318.
- Mortimer, R. K., and D. C. Hawthorne. 1969. Yeast genetics, p. 385–460. In A. H. Rose and J. S. Harrison (ed.), The yeasts. Academic Press, Inc., New York.
- Nasmyth, K. A., and K. Tatchell. 1980. The structure of transposable yeast mating type loci. Cell 19:753-764.
- Nasmyth, K. A., K. Tatchell, B. C. Hall, C. Astell, and M. Smith. 1981. A position effect in the control of transcription at yeast mating type loci. Nature (London) 289:244-250.
- 45. Nogi, Y., and T. Fukasawa. 1980. A novel mutation that affects

utilization of galactose in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Curr. Genet, 2:115-120.

- 46. Passmore, S., G. T. Maine, R. Elble, C. Christ, and B. Tye. 1988. Saccharomyces cerevisiae protein involved in plasmid maintenance is necessary for mating of  $MAT\alpha$  cells. J. Mol. Biol. 204:593-606.
- Pinkham, J. L., J. T. Olesen, and L. P. Guarente. 1987. Sequence and nuclear localization of the Saccharomyces cerevisiae HAP2 protein, a transcriptional activator. Mol. Cell. Biol. 7:578-585.
- Poole, S. J., L. M. Kauvar, B. Drees, and T. Kornberg. 1985. The *engrailed* locus of Drosophila: structural analysis of an embryonic transcript. Cell 40:37–43.
- Rigby, P. W., M. Dieckmann, C. Rhodes, and P. Berg. 1977. Labelling deoxyribonucleic acid to high specific activity *in vitro* by nick translation with DNA polymerase I. J. Mol. Biol. 113:237-251.
- Roeder, G. S., P. J. Farabaugh, D. T. Chaleff, and G. R. Fink. 1980. The origins of gene instability in yeast. Science 209: 1375-1380.
- Roeder, G. S., A. B. Rose, and R. E. Pearlman. 1985. Transposable element sequences involved in the enhancement of yeast gene expression. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82:5428-5432.
- Rose, M. D., P. Novick, J. H. Thomas, D. Botstein, and G. R. Fink. 1986. A Saccharomyces cerevisiae genomic plasmid bank based on a centromere-containing shuttle vector. Gene 60: 237-243.
- Sanger, F., S. Nicklen, and A. R. Coulson. 1977. DNA sequencing with chain-terminating inhibitors. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74:5463-5467.
- Schultz, J., and M. Carlson. 1987. Molecular analysis of SSN6, a gene functionally related to SNF1 protein kinase of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 7:3637-3645.
- 55. Sherman, F., G. R. Fink, and C. W. Lawrence. 1978. Methods in yeast genetics. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- 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.
- 57. 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.
- 58. Siciliano, P. G., and K. Tatchell. 1986. Identification of the DNA sequences controlling the expression of the  $MAT_{\alpha}$  locus of yeast. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 83:2320-2324.
- Silverman, S. J., and G. R. Fink. 1984. Effects of Ty insertions on *HIS4* transcription in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Mol. Cell. Biol. 4:1246–1251.
- 60. Simchen, G., F. Winston, C. A. Styles, and G. R. Fink. 1984. Ty-mediated expression of the LYS2 and HIS4 genes of Saccharomyces cerevisiae is controlled by the same SPT genes. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 81:2431-2434.
- 61. Singh, A., E. Y. Chen, J. M. Lugovoy, C. N. Chang, R. A. Hitzman, and P. H. Seeburg. 1983. Saccharomyces cerevisiae contains two discrete genes coding for the  $\alpha$ -factor pheromone. Nucleic Acids Res. 11:4049–4063.
- Sprague, G. F., and I. Herskowitz. 1981. Control of yeast cell type by the mating locus. 1. Identification and control of expression of the a-specific gene BARI. J. Mol. Biol. 153: 305-321.
- 63. Strathern, J., J. Hicks, and I. Herskowitz. 1981. Control of cell type in yeast by the mating type locus. The  $\alpha 1-\alpha 2$  hypothesis. J. Mol. Biol. 147:357-372.
- 64. Suzuki, Y., Y. Nogi, A. Abe, and T. Fukasawa. 1988. GAL11 protein, an auxiliary transcription activator for genes encoding galactose-metabolizing enzymes in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:4991-4999.
- 65. Wharton, K. A., B. Yedvobnick, B. G. Finnerty, and S. Artavanis-Tsakonas. 1985. opa: a novel family of transcribed repeats shared by the notch locus and other developmentally regulated loci in D. melanogaster. Cell 40:55–62.
- 66. Williamson, V. M., E. T. Young, and M. Ciriacy. 1981. Trans-

posable elements associated with constitutive expression of yeast alcohol dehydrogenase II. Cell 23:605-614. 67. Winston, F., D. T. Chaleff, B. Valent, and G. R. Fink. 1984.

- Mutations affecting Ty-mediated expression of the HIS4 gene of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics 197:179–197.
  68. Winston, F., C. Dollard, E. A. Malone, J. Clare, J. Kapakos,

P. Farabaugh, and P. Minehart. 1987. Three genes are required for trans-activation of Ty transcription in yeast. Genetics 115: 649-656.

69. Winston, F., K. J. Durbin, and G. R. Fink. 1984. The SPT3 gene is required for normal transcription of Ty elements in S. cerevisiae. Cell 39:675-682.