ADRI-Mediated Regulation of ADH2 Requires an Inverted Repeat Sequence

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DNA sequence analysis of wild-type and mutant *ADH2* loci suggested that two unusual features 5' of the promoter, a 22-base-pair perfect dyad sequence and a $(dA)_{20}$ tract, were important for regulation of this gene (D. W. Russell, M. Smith, D. Cox, V. M. Williamson, and E. T. Young, Nature [London] 304:652-654, 1983). Oligonucleotide-directed mutaganesis was used to construct ADH2 genes lacking the 22-base-pair dyad or the $(dA)_{20}$ tract (V.-L. Chan and M. Smith, Nucleic Acids Res. 12:2407-2419, 1984). These mutant genes and other ADH2 deletions constructed by BAL ³¹ endonuclease digestion were studied after replacing the wild-type chromosomal locus with the altered alleles by the technique of gene transplacement (T. L. Orr-Weaver, J. W. Szostak, and R. S. Rothstein, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 78:6354-6358, 1981), using canavanine resistance as the selectable marker. Deletions lacking the dyad failed to derepress normally and did not respond to mutations at the ADRI locus, which encodes a protein necessary to activate ADH2. Deletions of the $(dA)_{20}$ tract did not have a detectable phenotype. A small deletion located just 3' to the $(dA)_{20}$ tract (between positions -164 and -146) had a low amount of ADRI-dependent transcription during repressed growth conditions, indicating that the regulatory protein encoded by \overline{APRI} is present in a potentially active form during repression and that alterations of ^a DNA sequence in the promoter region can unmask its latent activity.

Studies of genes which are coordinately controlled in response to a single physiological event have revealed a striking variety of regulatory mechanisms in procaryotes. The mechanisms of coordinate gene control in eucaryotes have not been elucidated in as fine detail. One model system for the study of coordinate gene expression in eucaryotes is glucose catabolite repression in yeasts. The synthesis of many enzymes in yeasts is repressed when the cells are grown in a glucose-based medium and derepressed when the cells are grown in medium containing a nonfermentable carbon source such as ethanol or pyruvate (36). It was originally believed that cyclic AMP was involved in this effect (30), but later data suggested that this was not the case (33).

The glucose-repressible genes encoding iso-1-cytochrome c (50), invertase (6), alcohol dehydrogenase II (17), maltase (20), and the enzymes involved in galactose metabolism (23, 26) are regulated at the transcriptional or posttranscriptional level. The DNA sequences located ⁵' to the structural genes have been shown to be involved in mediating the glucose repression-derepression response (reviewed in reference 22). One hypothesis is that genes under coordinate regulation will have DNA sequences in common which respond to the same effector molecules (14). Many amino acid biosynthetic enzymes in yeasts are regulated coordinately (28), and several of the genes encoding these enzymes have a 6-base-pair (bp) sequence in common (19).

The alcohol dehydrogenase II enzyme (ADH II) of Saccharomyces cerevisiae is absent when cells are grown in medium containing glucose as the carbon source and derepressed over 100-fold when cells are shifted to a nonferment-

able carbon source (9, 10, 29; see reference 49 for a review). The gene which codes for ADH II, ADH2, has been shown to be transcriptionally regulated (48; H. Blumberg, personal communication).

Genetic analysis of ADH II regulation revealed that derepression of ADH II activity and mRNA accumulation requires the product of an unlinked regulatory locus ADRI, which appears to be specific for *ADH2* (11, 13, 17); in the absence of ^a functional ADRI gene product ADH II activity is not significantly derepressed. Full derepression also requires the activity of at least three other genes which are involved in pleiotropic carbon catabolite repression (12). A gene corresponding to ^a classical repressor locus for ADH2 has not been identified (13, 16).

Two classes of *cis*-acting mutations which allow *ADH2* to escape glucose repression have been isolated and characterized (13, 37, 47, 48). The first class is due to the insertion of a 5.6-kilobase (kb) yeast transposon, Ty, into the ⁵' nontranscribed region of ADH2 (48). Ty insertion places the adjacent ADH2 locus under the regulatory system of the transposon so that normal glucose repression and ADRImediated activation are replaced by mating-type control (45). The other class of cis-acting mutations is represented by an extension of and alterations adjacent to a poly(dA) tract located 168 bp upstream of the transcription start site of the ADH2 gene (37). This increase, from ²⁰ to ⁵⁴ or ⁵⁵ dA residues, and adjacent nucleotide changes result in hyperderepression of ADH II activity when cells are grown in ethanol-base media and in partial loss of glucose repression. These mutations still respond to alterations at the ADRI regulatory locus (13).

Since Ty insertions are the most frequently recovered cis-acting mutations which alter regulation of ADH2, it was necessary to perform in vitro mutagenesis of the 5'-flanking region of ADH2 to localize sites essential for regulation of the gene. Previous work showed that a 1-kb region contain-

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ing the flanking sequences of ADH2 ⁵' to the promoter was sufficient for conferring glucose repression on the related yeast ADHI promoter and structural gene (2). Deletion analysis of this region suggested that glucose repression was due to the absence of positive activation mediated by ADR1 (1). Derepression of ^a hybrid ADH2-ADHI gene required DNA sequences located between the TATA box $(-110 \text{ with}$ respect to the transcription start site which is designated $+1$ [38]) and position -260 , probably within the interval -220 to -260. This region contains several unusual nucleotide sequences: a 22-bp perfect dyad; seven repeats with the consensus AGGAGA, which is present in the dyad and as part of other direct and indirect repeats; and a tract of $(dA)_{20}$ whose amplification alters *ADH2* regulation (37). To study the consequences of removing these sequences from the normal ADH2 allele, we made deletions within this region by BAL ³¹ treatment or by oligonucleotide mutagenesis (8), and the expression from the mutant ADH2 alleles was analyzed after replacement of the wild-type chromosomal ADH2 locus by the mutated genes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and medium. S. cerevisiae strains used are listed in Table 1. Escherichia coli RR1 was used for all E. coli transformations (31). Basic yeast medium was as described by Hartwell (24) and Johnston et al. (27), and yeast transformation was performed as described by Hinnen et al. (25). Antimycin A was obtained from Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals (Indianapolis, Ind.) and used at $1 \mu g/ml$.

Growth of strains and ADH assays. Cells were grown overnight at 30°C in complete (YPD) medium (24) containing 3% glucose. One portion of the culture was diluted into fresh medium also containing glucose. Another portion was centrifuged, washed with sterile water, and suspended in complete medium containing 3% ethanol. The cells were then grown for an additional ²⁴ h. Cell extracts and ADH assays were performed as described previously (18). All ADH assays were performed at 25°C.

Construction of deletions within ADH2 ⁵'-flanking sequences by BAL ³¹ digestion. DNA fragments containing variable amounts of the 5'-flanking sequence adjacent to the ADH2 structural gene were constructed as follows. Plasmid YCpDXX was constructed from plasmid pBC3T1 (2) by partial digestion of 10 μ g of DNA with XbaI, creation of blunt-ended DNA with the Klenow enzyme, and the addition of phosphorylated XhoI linkers (31). The YCpDXX plasmid contains a single XhoI site located at the position of a small deletion between the two XbaI sites in the 5'-flanking region of $ADH2$ located at -1017 and -1055 . Supercoiled YCpDXX plasmid (45 μ g) was cut with XhoI and treated with 5 U of BAL 31 (200- μ l volume) in a medium containing 600 mM NaCl, 12 mM CaCl₂, 13 mM MgCl₂, and 20 mM Tris hydrochloride (pH 8.0) for 40 min at 30°C, which resulted in an average digestion of approximately 400 bp per end. XhoI linkers were added by ligation, and the resultant plasmids were used to transform E. coli RR1.

DNA fragments containing different amounts of ⁵' flanking sequence, all commencing at a site located at position -1146 relative to the transcription start site and increasing in length toward the transcription initiation site, were created from plasmid pBC3T1. A 20 - μ g sample of the plasmid was cut with $EcoRV$, which cuts within the coding region of ADH2 ⁶⁷ bp from the initiation codon, and treated with 2.5 U of BAL 31 in 200 μ l of BAL 31 buffer (31) for 20 min at 30°C. XhoI linkers were ligated to the BAL 31-treated DNA (31), and the plasmids were introduced into E. coli RR1 by transformation to ampicillin resistance.

Plasmids containing internal deletions located in the 5' nontranscribed ADH2 sequences were constructed by combining the appropriate ⁵' piece with the appropriate 3'-piece. The reconstructed plasmids differ from the pBC3T1 plasmid only by the deletions in the ADH2 flanking sequence and the insertion of the XhoI octamer linker 5'-CCTCGAGG at the site of the deletion.

Oligonucleotide mutagenesis. The construction of ADH2 alleles with a deletion of the dyad or with deletions and alterations of the $(dA)_{20}$ tract has been described previously (8). These deletions were characterized by DNA sequence analysis. Restriction enzyme fragments containing the mutation were ligated into yeast-E. coli shuttle plasmids containing the ADH2 gene lacking the same restriction enzyme fragment.

DNA sequencing. The locations of XhoI linkers in the plasmids were determined by the technique of Maxam and Gilbert (34). Plasmid DNA (20 to 50 μ g) was cut with XhoI, ethanol precipitated, and suspended in 20 μ l of buffer consisting of 6.7 mM Tris hydrochloride (pH 7.5), 6.7 mM MgCl₂, 6.7 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 0.05 mM dTTP, 10 to 30 μ Ci of [α -³²P]dCTP, and 2 U of Klenow enzyme. Fragments labeled at a single end were created by cutting the plasmid at another restriction enzyme site $(BamHI)$ and purified by agarose gel electrophoresis. After the sequencing reactions,

FIG. 1. Schematic diagram and nucleotide sequence of ⁵'-flanking region of ADH2 wild-type and mutant genes. The positions of the nucleotides shown above are relative to the transcription start site. The major transcription initiation sites are located 54 and 56 nucleotides from the A of the initiator methionine codon, and ^a eucaryotic promotor consensus sequence is located at position -115 (TATA). The position of the 22-bp dyad is indicated by the double-headed arrow. The nucleotides enclosed in brackets are discussed in the text. B, BamHI; S, SphI. The ADH activities are given in milliunits per milligram of protein in extracts prepared as described in Materials and Methods.

the DNA was denatured and run on 15% acrylamide gels for 1.5 h at 65 W. The position of the XhoI linker was determined by comparison with the known ADH2 sequence (38).

S1 nuclease mapping. The determination of the 5' ends of the ADH2 mRNA was performed by the S1 mapping technique described by Berk and Sharp (3) as modified by Taguchi et al. (45). Single-stranded DNA probe labeled at the $EcoRV$ site at position +66 in the $ADH2$ gene was hybridized to 25 μ g of total yeast RNA (isolated by the method of Schultz [41]) for glucose-grown cultures of 5 μ g of total yeast RNA from ethanol-grown cultures. After hybridization, single-stranded nucleic acid was digested with ⁴⁰⁰ U of S1 nuclease in the presence of 4 μ g of single-stranded salmon sperm DNA for ³⁰ min at 37°C. The remaining double-stranded nucleic acid was denatured in 90% formamide and run on ^a 6% acrylamide-7 M urea sequencing gel.

Gene replacement. An integrating vector, YIpTC', containing TRP1 from YRp7 (44), most of CAN^sI (4), and all of pBR322 was constructed. The TRPI gene was obtained as an EcoRI-BglII DNA fragment of 0.8 kb; the EcoRI site was filled in with Klenow polymerase. CAN^s1 was on a 1.7-kb BamHI-ClaI fragment lacking its ³' terminus and probably part of its promoter (obtained from J. Broach, personal communication). These two fragments were ligated in the presence of pBR322 which had been digested with EcoRI and ClaI and filled in with Klenow polymerase to eliminate the EcoRI site. A 3.4-kb BamHI fragment containing ADH2 was isolated from a plasmid containing the appropriate ADH2 allele and ligated with BamHI-digested YIpTC' to obtain YIpTC'-ADH2. These plasmids have a unique Sacl site upstream of the ADH2 structural gene which can be used to target integration to the *ADH2* locus (38). A trpl can^rl

adhl adh3 strain (900-17-1A can^r1 is shown) was trans--formed to Trp^{+} with the SacI-digested plasmid, the Trp^{+} Can^s transformants were grown up in YPD, and 10^4 to 10^5 cells were plated on plates lacking arginine and containing 2 mg of canavanine sulfate in a well in the center of the plate. Resistant colonies that grew up were picked and tested for Trp auxotrophy and those that had become Trp^- were tested further by Southern hybridization analysis and ADH assays.

RESULTS

Construction of deletions in ⁵' regulatory region of ADH2. Deletions were constructed in the region of -150 to -1100 by BAL ³¹ digestion (previous studies [1] showed that this region of ADH2 was sufficient to confer ADRI-mediated glucose control on a different promoter). Internal deletions of variable length in the region -300 to -1100 had no detectable effect on ADH2 expression from ^a centromerecontaining plasmid (data not shown). Two plasmids containing $ADH2$ alleles with deletions between positions -244 and -199 (ADH2-9) and -164 and -146 (ADH2-10) were associated with altered ADH2 expression in transformants. BamHI DNA fragments containing these two alleles were ligated with an integrating vector, YIpTC', containing TRP1 and CANI yeast DNA fragments. A third DNA fragment containing ADH-7 was ligated with the same vector to serve as ^a control. This ADH2 allele (deleted between positions -367 and -276) was normally regulated when present on a plasmid containing CEN3 (data not shown). Each of these ADH2 alleles contains an 8-bp XhoI linker in place of the deleted sequences. Four other ADH2 alleles were constructed by oligonucleotide mutagenesis (8). ADH2-11a lacks the 22-bp dyad (-215 to -236); ADH2-17a lacks the

FIG. 2. Gene replacement. The integrating plasmid YIpTC'-ADH2-lla is shown during Sacl targeting of integration at the ADH2-601 locus of strain 900-17-1A can^rl. The Trp and Can phenotypes that are associated with the original strain, the integrant, and the strain arising by looping-out of the plasmid DNA and recombination downstream of the targeting site are shown on the left of the figure. B, BamHI; S, SacI; Xh, XhoI; Bg, BglII; E, EcoRI; C, ClaI. Sites in parentheses have been destroyed by filling-in before ligation.

 $(dA)_{20}$ tract (-167 to -188); *ADH2-40a* retains 10 of the 20 dA residues originally present and has a ³' duplication of the 9 bp 5' to the $(dA)_{10}$; ADH2-8a lacks the $(dA)_{20}$ tract and has a tandem duplication of the 9 bp 5' to the original $(dA)_{20}$ tract (positions -187 to -195). These latter two alterations arose by mispairing during oligonucleotide mutagenesis (8). Figure ¹ shows ^a schematic diagram of the ADH2 wild-type and mutant loci and the wild-type DNA sequence from -140 to $-275.$

Gene replacement. Yeast strains containing a single copy of the mutant allele at the ADH2 locus were isolated by gene replacement (5, 40). A vector, YIpTC', containing the wildtype or mutant ADH2 allele, the yeast TRPI gene (lacking ARSI activity), the arginine permease locus (CAN^sI) , and pBR322 sequences was constructed (Fig. 2). A can'l trpl yeast strain (521-6 can^r) lacking ADH I and ADH III activity was transformed to Trp^{+} with each of the plasmids. These transformants are sensitive to canavanine due to the CAN^sI gene on the plasmid. Transformants containing a single plasmid integrated at the ADH2 locus were subjected to canavanine selection to isolate recombinants which had lost the plasmid and one ADH2 allele. DNA isolated from Trp⁻ Can^r isolates was screened by Southern hybridization analysis to identify strains in which the mutant ADH2 allele had replaced the original ADH2 allele. Strains containing ADH2 alleles 7, 9, and 10 could be readily identified because they introduced a new $XhoI$ restriction site 5' to the wild-type ADH2 locus. The other mutant alleles did not introduce ^a new restriction site. To show that the resident ADH2 locus had been replaced by these mutant alleles, we used strain 900-17-1A can^r for the replacement. The ADH2 locus in strain 900-17-1A can^r has an $XhoI$ site in a delta sequence derived from Ty6^c at position -106 (48) which would be lost together with the delta sequence after gene replacement as shown in Figure 2. To confirm that the loss of the delta sequence was accompanied by the replacement of the wildtype dyad sequence with the mutant $ADH2-11a$ allele, which lacks the dyad, a Southern transfer experiment was performed with the mutagenic 23-bp oligonucleotide as a probe. The 23-mer probe contains sequences flanking the dyad but lacks the dyad itself and thus forms more stable hybrids with the mutant ADH2-JJa allele with the ADH2 allele (8). The expected restriction enzyme fragments were observed (Fig. 3), and the stability of the hybrids formed with DNA isolated from strain RC11a was greater than the stability of the hybrids formed with the wild-type ADH2 DNA.

FIG. 3. Southern hybridization analysis. DNA was extracted from yeast strains by detergent lysis after conversion of the cells to spheroplasts (15). Purified DNA was digested with restriction enzymes (BamHI and XhoI double digests are shown) that would allow ADH2 to be distinguished from ADH2-9 and ADH2-10 or ADH2-601 to be distinguished from ADH2-11a. The digested DNA (usually 2 μ g) was analyzed on 1% agarose gels, transferred to nitrocellulose, and hybridized with either a nick-translated probe (a 1-kb BamHI-XhoI fragment derived from positions -1100 to -199 5' of ADH2-9) or the kinase-labeled oligonucleotide that was used to generate ADH2-11a (8). The 23-mer oligonucleotide lacks the dyad sequence at positions -215 to -236 in $ADH2$ but has the sequences flanking it on both sides; hence, it forms more stable hybrids with the ADH2-11a allele than with ADH2. (A) Thermal stability of hybrids formed between the dyad-mutagenic oligonucleotide and ADH2 or ADH2-11a. Strain 11-1 is the original Trp⁺ Can^s transformant containing both ADH2 alleles, and RC11A is the Trp⁻ Can^r strain which retains only the ADH2-11a allele. The plasmid DNAs were derived from YIpTc'-ADH2 and YIpTC'-ADH2-11a (Fig. 1) which had been digested with BamHI. Lanes: a, strain 11-1; b, strain RCllA; c, YIpTC'-ADH2; d, YIpTC'-ADH2-lla. (B) Identification of ADH2-9, ADH2-10, and ADH2-11a in recombinants containing various ADR1 alleles. The ADH activity of segregants in the resulting tetrads was determined, and then appropriate tetrads were chosen for DNA analysis to confirm the genotype that was predicted on the basis of the Leu phenotype and the ADH assays. DNA was isolated from segregants of crosses between strains JSIX (ADH2-9 ADRI), JSX $(ADH2-10\,ADRI)$, or RC11A $(ADH2-11a\,ADRI)$ and 521-6 Δ 1 $(ADH2\,adr1\Delta1::LEU2)$ or R234.1-7A $(ADH\,ADRI-5^c)$. The ADRI genotype was confirmed by Southern hybridization for $adr1\Delta 1$::LEU2 and by backcrosses for ADR1-5°. The results with one representative segregant are shown for ADH2-9 ADRI-5^c (lane 1) and ADH2-10 adrl Δl ::LEU2 (lane 2) and ADH2 ADRI (lane 3). The probe was a BamHI-XhoI fragment from ADH2-9 (Fig. 1) that contains only 5'-flanking sequences. The genomic DNA was digested with BamHI and XhoI. Both ADH2-9 and ADH2-10 produced a band of approximately ¹ kb and ADH2 produced ^a 3.4-kb band, all as predicted. The 9-kb band in lane ¹ is apparently a partial digestion product.

ADH II activities in strains with altered ADH2 5'-flanking region. The ADH II activity in strains containing the mutant ADH2 alleles was determined after growth in medium containing a repressing (glucose) or derepressing (ethanol) carbon source (Fig. 1). Strains JSIX and JSX, which contain mutant alleles ADH2-9 and ADH2-10, respectively, showed ^a modestly elevated level of glucose-insensitive ADH II expression: the glucose-insensitive ADH II activity was about 10-fold higher than in an isogenic ADH2 strain but was only 3 to 10% of the fully derepressed enzyme activity in the isogenic ADH2 strain (Fig. ¹ and 4). ADH II activity in the other strains was as strongly repressed as in a strain with a control wild-type ADH2 locus.

After depression, strains JSVII, JSX, RC17a, RC8a, and RC40a (see Fig. ¹ for the ADH2 alleles present in these strains) had as much ADH II activity as the isogenic wildtype control, strain DCB1E. Strains JSIX and RC11a, which lack the dyad sequence $(-215$ to $-236)$, derepressed to about ¹⁰ to 20% of the wild-type level of ADH II activity. Since the ADH II activity of strains JSIX and RC11a after depression was very similar, it seems likely that the poor derepression of strain JSIX is caused by the loss of the dyad. The low-level constitutive expression in strain JSIX must not be a consequence of losing this sequence since strain RC11a is fully repressed. The $(dA)_{20}$ is not required for either repression or full derepression, but an alteration adjacent to it, as in ADH2-10, can affect repression.

The kinetics of derepression in strains RC11a, JSIX, and DCB1E were compared to assess more accurately the effect of the dyad deletion on ADH2 derepression (Fig. 4). ADH II activity began to increase at 60 min in all three strains, but the rate of increase in enzyme activity in strains RC11a and JSIX was about 20-fold lower than the rate of increase in enzyme activity in the isogenic strain DCB1E. As expected from the previous results, RC11a had essentially no activity before derepression, and JSIX had a low but significant amount, about ²⁵ mU/mg of protein. The ADH II activity continued to increase slowly for 24 h in strains JSIX and RC11a. Thus, loss of the dyad affects both the rate of derepression of ADH II activity and the ultimate enzyme level.

Transcription mapping. The glucose-insensitive ADH II activity of JSIX and JSX mutant strains could be a result of either an increase in transcription from the normal transcription initiation site or an increase in transcription from an alternative site. To determine which of these possibilities

FIG. 4. Kinetics of ADH II derepression. Strains DCBIE $(ADH2)$ JSIX (ADH2-9), and RC11a $(ADH2-11a)$ were grown in YPD medium to about 5×10^6 cells per ml at 30°C. The cells were pelleted by centrifugation, washed once with 1% yeast extract-2% peptone, and suspended in 1% yeast extract-2% peptone-2% ethanol at the original cell concentration. The cultures were shaken vigorously at 30°C, and 10-ml samples were withdrawn at the times indicated for ADH assays as described in the text. At 5, 11, and ²⁰ h the cells were diluted into fresh YPE to maintain the cells in the exponential phase of growth. Symbols: \bigcirc , DCB1E (ADH2); \blacktriangle , JSIX (*ADH*2-9); ∆, RC11a (*ADH2-11*).

was occurring, we determined the 5' ends of ADH2 mRNAs from strains JSVII (ADH2-7), JSIX (ADH2-9), and JSX (ADH2-10) (Fig. 1) by S1 mapping (see Materials and Methods). The results (Fig. 5A) showed that the increase in glucose-insensitive ADH II activity of mutants JSIX and JSX mutants is due to a corresponding increase in ADH2 mRNA concentration and that these mRNAs initiate in the same place as the ADH2 mRNA of wild-type cells. No ADH2 mRNA was detected in either the ADH2 control strain, 521-6, or the JSVII mutant, as expected since ADH II activity in these strains was strongly repressed by growth in glucose-based medium (Fig. 1). Since the ADH2 mRNAs made in strains JSIX, JSX, and 521-6 have the same ⁵' ends, it seems unlikely that increased stability could account for the increased ADH2 message levels in strains JSIX and JSX.

ADH2 mRNA levels and ⁵' end mapping after derepression were also determined in strains containing mutant alleles $ADH2-7$, -9, and -10. An S1 nuclease protection experiment was performed with mRNA isolated from yeasts grown in medium containing ethanol as a carbon source (Fig. SB). Strains JSVII (ADH2-7) and JSX (ADH2-10) produced ADH2 mRNA having the same ⁵' ends and in approximately the same amounts as the wild-type control. This is consistent with the observation that both strains were capable of derepressing ADH II to approximately wild-type levels after a shift from glucose- to ethanol-based medium (Fig. 1). No ADH2 mRNA was detected for the ethanol-grown JSIX (ADH2-9) strain, but less RNA isolated from derepressed cells was loaded onto the gel than when RNA isolated from glucose-grown cells was analyzed. The low level of RNA in strain JSIX is consistent with the observation that this strain showed only ^a small increase in ADH II activity after ^a shift from glucose- to ethanol-based medium (Fig. 4).

Response of mutant ADH2 alleles to mutations at the ADRI locus. ADRI is a *trans*-acting regulatory locus, apparently specific for *ADH2* derepression (13). Both recessive *adr1* and semidominant $ADRI^c$ alleles have been isolated that prevent ADH2 derepression or allow some glucoseinsensitive ADH2 expression and hyperderepression, respectively (13). Deletion of the ADRI locus results in a repressed, but nonderepressible ADH II phenotype, indicating that ADRI is required for positive activation of ADH2 but does not encode a repressor function (Blumberg, personal communication). ADRI acts at the transcriptional or posttranscriptional level (2, 17).

The response of four of the mutant *ADH2* alleles to the absence of ADRI function or the presence of a constitutive $ADRI-5^c$ allele was assessed by measuring ADH II activity in strains containing wild-type and mutant ADRI alleles. The defective ADRI allele, $adr1\Delta1$, is a deletion of most of the gene, including its promoter region and 2 kb of coding sequence, which has been replaced by the yeast LEU2 gene (Blumberg, personal communication).

Appropriate genetic crosses were performed, and strains with the desired genotype were isolated. The ADH2 and $adr1\Delta1$ genotypes were confirmed by Southern hybridization analysis since the mutant and wild-type alleles can be distinguished by restriction enzyme site differences and by hybridization to different probes. Figure 3 shows representative examples of Southern blots of DNA from strains containing or lacking just the dyad (ADH2 and ADH2-11a,

FIG. 5. Mapping the ⁵' ends of ADH2 mRNA. The ⁵' ends of ADH2 mRNA were determined by S1 protection (see the text) for ADH2 strain 521-6 and the strains carrying deletions in the ADH2 5'-flanking regions JSVII (deletion from -367 to -276), JSIX (deletion from -244 to -199), and JSX (deletion from -164 to -146). (A) There is 25 μ g of total RNA per lane. Lanes 1, no RNA control; 2, strain 521-6 grown in ethanol; 3, strain 521-6 grown in glucose; 4, strain JSVII grown in glucose; 5, strain JSIX grown in glucose; 6, strain JSX grown in glucose. (B) There is 5μ g of total RNA per lane as follows: 1, strain 521-6 grown on ethanol; 2, strain JSVII grown on ethanol; 3, strain JSIX grown on ethanol; 4, strain JSX grown on ethanol. In this experiment no RNA was detected in nucleic acid isolated from JSIX even though the cells contained significant ADH II enzyme activity. In other experiments ADH2 RNA was detectable at ^a low level in this strain.

^a ADH II activities are in milliunits per milligram of protein in cell extract. The values shown are the average from different experiments using at least four different segregants with the same genotype; the numbers in parentheses represent the range of values obtained.

respectively) and strains containing alleles ADH2-9 and ADH2-10 (Fig. 1). The ADR1-5 c allele was shown to be present by appropriate backcrosses, sporulation, and tetrad analysis.

Strains lacking the dyad sequence did not respond to different ADRI alleles (Table 2). The ADH II activity after derepression of strains with ADH2-9 and ADH2-11a was approximately the same in strains with either ADRI, ADRI- 5^c , or *adrl* Δl alleles, indicating that the sequences necessary for ADRJ-mediated activation are absent. In addition, ADH2-9 and ADH2-11a did not respond to ADR1-5 \degree during growth on glucose-containing medium.

Strains with the ADH2-10 allele showed a response to the $ADRI-5^c$ allele that was similar to the response shown by wild-type *ADH2*. Its activity was increased to the same extent as $ADH2$ by $ADRI-5^c$ during growth on both repressing and derepressing carbon sources. Expression of ADH2-10 showed two important differences from ADH2 that allowed its regulation by $ADRI$ to be distinguished from that of the wild-type allele: its constitutive activity on glucosecontaining medium was dependent on ADRI function, and it derepressed 20% as well in the $adrl\Delta I$ strain as in the ADRI strain, whereas ADH2 showed no significant derepression in the $adr1\Delta1$ strain. The former property of ADH2-10 was surprising since there was no previous indication that the ADRI allele encoded a product that was functional during growth on glucose-containing medium.

That the enzyme activities measured in vitro were representative of the enzyme activity in vivo was shown by testing the strains listed in Table 2 for growth on complete medium containing glucose and antimycin A. Antimycin A is a respiratory inhibitor that prevents the growth of cells that do not contain at least ⁵⁰ mU of ADH activity per mg. In all cases the antimycin A phenotype was consistent with the amount of ADH activity measured in extracts. In particular, the strain with the genotype $ADH2-10$ adr $1\Delta1$ did not grow in the presence of antimycin A, whereas strain ADH2-10 ADRI did grow, confirming the ADRI dependence of ADH-10 during repressing growth conditions.

DISCUSSION

Catabolite repression and derepression of ADH2 expression require specific sequences ⁵' to the TATA box as well as the function of several trans-acting regulatory loci. Other studies of an ADH2-ADHI hybrid gene suggested that catabolite repression and derepression of ADH2 was mediated primarily by positive activation acting through sequences located between -150 and -250 . Of the two most

unusual features of this region, a $(dA)_{20}$ tract and a 22-bp dyad, only loss of the dyad had ^a discernible effect on ADH2 expression. Extension of the $(dA)_{20}$ tract to $(dA)_{54}$ or $(dA)_{55}$ and associated adjacent nucleotide changes are associated with partial loss of glucose repression and a strong promoterup effect (13, 37), suggesting that loss of the $(dA)_{20}$ tract might have a promoter-down phenotype. The results presented here indicate that loss of the $(dA)_{20}$ has no effect on ADH2 expression. Although more complicated explanations are possible, this suggests that the $(dA)_{20}$ tract is not an important component of the ADH2 promoter or regulatory region.

Loss of the dyad was associated with a poorly derepressed phenotype; both the rate of derepression and the ultimate level of ADH2 RNA and enzymatic activity were 20-fold lower in the two strains lacking the dyad sequence (Fig. 4). The defect in these strains could be attributable to either the loss of the dyad which acts positively or to an upstream inhibitory sequence which, having been brought closer to the gene, inhibits its expression. Since strains JSX and RC17a had *ADH2* deletions almost identical in size to the deletion in strain RC11a but had normal ADH2 derepression, it seems more likely that loss of the dyad rather than an upstream inhibitory sequence caused the poorly derepressed ADH2 phenotype. Moreover, strains lacking the dyad sequence also failed to respond normally to mutations in the regulatory gene $ADRI$. $ADRI^c$ alleles allow expression of $ADH2$ in glucose-containing media. Strains lacking the dyad sequence showed essentially no response to the $ADRI-5^c$ allele, as was also observed for deletions of the dyad sequence when the mutant allele was on a plasmid (2). The phenotype of the $ADRI-5^c$ allele can be mimicked by the presence of multiple copies of ADRI, and deletion of the dyad results in loss of the ability to respond to this copy number effect (Blumberg, personal communication). Loss of the dyad sequence also prevents the ⁵'-flanking region of ADH2 on ^a multicopy plasmid from competing effectively in vivo with derepression of ^a wild-type chromosomal ADH2 gene, whereas the intact ⁵'-flanking region of ADH2 on ^a multicopy plasmid lowers the rate and ultimate level of derepression of ADH2 (M. Irani, personal communication).

Taken together, these results provide strong evidence, albeit indirect, that ADRI mediates ADH2 activation through the dyad sequence. An inverted repeat sequence has been implicated in regulating other yeast genes (21, 32). The results do not distinguish between the two obvious possibilities for the role these sequences play: structural or sequence specific. There is some evidence that the dyad confers a different structure on both plasmid and chromosomal DNA: purified plasmid DNA containing the dyad is cleaved by nuclease S1 very near or within the dyad (7; A. Sledziewski, personal communication), and the 5'-flanking region of ADH2 chromosomal DNA contains ^a DNase I- and S1 hypersensitive site very near the dyad sequence (42; unpublished data).

The importance of the sequences within the dyad, rather than ^a DNA structure created by this inverted repeat, is suggested by two observations: loss of the dyad still allows derepression to about 5% of the wild-type level, suggesting that other sequences play a minor role in redepression, independent of the dyad; and sequences present at the end of the dyad are present seven times in the region implicated in ADH2 control (Fig. 1). This sequence, with the consensus (A/T)GGAGA, is present twice in the dyad as part of the 22-bp inverted repeat (1 and ¹'), as part of another 22-bp indirect repeat separated by 87 bp (2 and ²'), and as part of a 7-bp direct repeat (3). Loss of three of these conserved sequences by deletion between the dyad and the TATA box did not effect ADH2-ADH1 derepression on a plasmid (1), whereas loss of five GGAGA sequences, including the dyad region, between -256 and the TATA box led to poor derepression of ADH2-ADHI. These results suggest a major role for the consensus sequence in the dyad and a minor role for this sequence located elsewhere. However, the GGAGA repeats not in the dyad do not respond to either the $ADRI-5^c$ allele or multiple copies of ADR1. A role for repeated sequences of six to eight nucleotides in control of other eucaryotic genes has been demonstrated directly for several genes (19). A synthetic oligonucleotide containing the sequence GGAGA, which is also present at each end of the dyad upstream of ADH2, allowed galactose induction of a hybrid GAL1-lacZ gene in yeasts (21).

Two mutant loci, ADH2-9 and ADH2-10, were partially active on glucose and showed different responses to mutant alleles of ADRI. The low, constitutive ADH II expression was due to transcription initiating at the normal start site, indicating that new promoters had not been created by the deletions. The constitutive expression of ADH2-10, but not ADH2-9, was dependent on ADRI: in strain JSX1122 (adri) the ADH2-10 allele was inactive on glucose. This was the first indication that the ADRI gene product is active, or at least partially so, during glucose-repressed growth conditions. Surprisingly, the ADH2-10 allele derepressed to about 20% of the wild-type level in the same strain. These results showed that ADH2-10 behaved aberrantly in two ways. First, it was able to respond to ADRI on glucose whereas the wild-type gene could not; and second, it showed a decreased dependence on ADRI for derepression. On the other hand, $ADH2-10$ responded normally to $ADRI-5^c$ presumably because it has the intact dyad region. The ADH2-9 allele, although having some glucose-insensitive expression, did not respond to mutations at the ADRI locus (Table 2) or to multiple copies of ADRI (Blumberg, personal communication). Like the ADH2 allele lacking just the dyad (ADH2 lla), ADH2-9 derepressed slowly to about 5% of the wildtype level for ADH II activity (Fig. 4), and its derepression was independent of *ADRI* (Table 2). Deletion analysis of the 5'-flanking region in carbon catabolite-repressed genes $GALI$ (46) and $SUC2$ (39) has shown that removal of upstream sequences can result in 10 to 30% of the derepressed level of expression under glucose growth conditions. The deletion analysis of ADH2 indicates that similar sequences may exist in the ADH2 ⁵'-flanking region, as shown by alleles ADH2-9 and ADH2-10. Struhl (43) has proposed that glucose repression may occur by a negative control mechanism involving a repressor protein. Such a mechanism may contribute to the glucose repression of ADH2, but our deletion analyses suggest that it can account for only a minor amount of repression.

We imagine that glucose repression of *ADH2* is primarily due to a lack of positive activation rather than a true negative mechanism acting through DNA-binding repressor proteins. This conclusion is based on several observations: the inability to derepress ADH2 in an adrl strain (13) (Table 2); the failure to identify deletions resulting in high-level constitutive expression (1; this work); the absence of genes which have the property of efficiently relieving glucose repression of $ADH2$ (13, 16); and the ability to titrate a positive activator but not a putative repressor in vivo (Irani, personal communication). The absence of ^a fully functional ADRI gene product presumably accounts for the lack of positive activation of ADH2 during glucose repression. However, glucose repression of ADH2 may also be influenced secondarily by ^a negative control mechanism as indicated by ADH2 deletions which have a weak constitutive phenotype and the isolation of mutants which allow some glucose-insensitive ADH2 expression (13, 16). Thus, glucose repression of ADH2 may involve multiple regulatory controls.

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