Diversification of Transcriptional Regulation Determines Subfunctionalization of Paralogous Branched Chain Aminotransferases in the Yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae

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ABSTRACT *Saccharomyces cerevisia*e harbors *BAT1* and *BAT2* paralogous genes that encode branched chain aminotransferases and have opposed expression profiles and physiological roles . Accordingly, in primary nitrogen sources such as glutamine, *BAT1* expression is induced, supporting Bat1-dependent valine–isoleucine–leucine (VIL) biosynthesis, while *BAT2* expression is repressed. Conversely, in the presence of VIL as the sole nitrogen source, *BAT1* expression is hindered while that of *BAT2* is activated, resulting in Bat2-dependent VIL catabolism. The presented results confirm that *BAT1* expression is determined by transcriptional activation through the action of the Leu3– α -isopropylmalate (α -IPM) active isoform, and uncovers the existence of a novel α -IPM biosynthetic pathway operating in a *put3* Δ mutant grown on VIL, through Bat2-Leu2-Leu1 consecutive action. The classic α -IPM biosynthetic route operates in glutamine through the action of the leucine-sensitive α -IPM synthases. The presented results also show that *BAT2* repression in glutamine can be alleviated in a *ure2* Δ mutant or through Gcn4-dependent transcriptional activation. Thus, when *S. cerevisiae* is grown on glutamine, VIL biosynthesis is predominant and is preferentially achieved through *BAT1*; while on VIL as the sole nitrogen source, catabolism prevails and is mainly afforded by *BAT2*.

KEYWORDS functional diversification; expression regulation; aminotransferases; amino acid metabolism; paralogous genes

GENE duplication is a key evolutionary mechanism resulting in the emergence of diversified genes, with new or specialized functions (Ohno 1970; Zhang 2003; Conant and Wolfe 2008). Phylogenomic studies have indicated that the contemporaneous occurrence of interspecies hybridization and genome duplication has driven the organization of the genome, as is currently observed in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

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(Wolfe and Shields 1997; Marcet-Houben and Gabaldón 2015). After whole genome duplication, functional normal ploidy was recovered as a result of the loss of 90% of duplicated genes (Mewes *et al.* 1997). In addition, selective retention and subfunctionalization of gene pairs derived from ancestral bifunctional genes have led to the distribution of the ancestral function(s) between the paralogous copies (DeLuna *et al.* 2001; Quezada *et al.* 2008; López *et al.* 2015). Various modes of gene diversification have been described, which include modification of the oligomeric organization, kinetic properties, subcellular relocalization of the paralogous enzymes (DeLuna *et al.* 2001; Quezada *et al.* 2008; Colón *et al.* 2011; López *et al.* 2015), and diversification of the regulatory profile of paralogous genes (DeLuna *et al.* 2001; Avendaño *et al.* 2005). In *S. cerevisiae*, analysis of the expression patterns of duplicated genes has

doi: https://doi.org/10.1534/genetics.117.300290 Manuscript received June 5, 2017; accepted for publication September 5, 2017;

published Early Online September 14, 2017.

Supplemental material is available online at www.genetics.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10. 1534/genetics.117.300290/-/DC1.

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shown that transcriptional divergence occurs at a rapid rate in evolutionary time, and that differential or opposed expression among paralogous pairs could result from the acquisition of modified properties of both the *trans*-acting factors (TFs) and the *cis*-acting elements, which constitute promoter binding sites to which TFs are recruited. It is worth mentioning is the fact that it has also been proposed that modification of *cis*- and *trans*-acting elements does not by itself account for expression diversification and that additional factors, such as messenger RNA (mRNA) stability and local chromatin environment should also be considered (Makova and Li 2003; Gu *et al.* 2004, 2005; Zhang *et al.* 2004; Leach *et al.* 2007).

S. cerevisiae paralogous genes BAT1 and BAT2 encode Bat1 and Bat2 branched chain aminotransferases (BCATs), which catalyze the first step of the catabolism and the last step of the biosynthesis of branched chain amino acids (BCAAs), namely valine, isoleucine, and leucine (VIL) (Kispal et al. 1996; Eden et al. 2001) (Figure 1). BAT1 and BAT2 arose from the above-mentioned hybridization and whole genome duplication event (WGD), which occurred ~100–150 MYA (Kellis et al. 2004; Marcet-Houben and Gabaldón 2015). Previous work from our laboratory has shown that the ancestral-type yeasts Kluyveromyces lactis and Lachancea kluyveri, which descend from the pre-WGD ancestor (Kellis et al. 2004), each have a single BAT gene, KlBAT1 and LkBAT1, respectively, encoding bifunctional enzymes which are involved in both VIL biosynthesis and catabolism (Colón et al. 2011; Montalvo-Arredondo et al. 2015). This dual function has been partitioned among the Bat1 and Bat2 paralogous proteins of S. cerevisiae. It has been further proposed that functional specialization occurred through Bat1 and Bat2 differential subcellular localization and BAT1 and BAT2 expression divergence (Colón et al. 2011). Earlier studies from our group have indicated that BAT1 shows a biosynthetic expression profile: it is repressed when VIL is provided in the medium, and induced in the absence of VIL, on either primary nitrogen sources such as ammonium or glutamine or on secondary nitrogen sources such as y-aminobutiric acid (GABA) (Colón et al. 2011). Furthermore, it has been shown that BAT1-induced expression is primarily dependent on Leu3– α -isopropylmalate (α -IPM) transcriptional activation (Sze *et al.* 1992) as opposed to BAT2 regulation. Our group has also demonstrated that BAT2 shows a catabolic expression pattern, which resembles a classic nitrogen catabolite repression (NCR) profile (Courchesne and Magasanik 1988; Minehart and Magasanik 1991; Blinder and Magasanik 1995; Coffman et al. 1995), that is downregulated in the presence of primary nitrogen sources such as glutamine, and upregulated in secondary nitrogen sources such as GABA or VIL (Colón et al. 2011). Accordingly, in the presence of VIL as sole nitrogen source, BAT2 expression is induced, confirming its catabolic expression profile as opposed to the biosynthetic expression pattern displayed by BAT1.

Considering that *BAT1* and *BAT2* represent an interesting model to study the role of expression divergence on functional diversification, we have analyzed the mechanisms involved in *BAT1* and *BAT2* transcriptional regulation. Our results confirmed previous observations (Boer *et al.* 2005) indicating that *BAT1* expression under biosynthetic condi-

tions is mainly achieved through Leu3– α -IPM. The nucleosome scanning assay (NuSA) showed that the Leu3 binding site is located in the nucleosome-free region (NFR) of the BAT1 promoter, indicating that Leu3 has free accessibility to the promoter on either glutamine or VIL. The fact that BAT1 expression is repressed (according to the biosynthetic expression profile) on VIL as the sole nitrogen source suggests that, under this condition, the lack of α -IPM could be hindering Leu3-dependent transcriptional activation. Accordingly, our results show that a Put3-dependent negative mechanism, which is elicited in a put3 Δ mutant and suppressed in a put3 Δ leu3 Δ double mutant, exerts an indirect negative action, hindering the positive role of Leu3– α -IPM on *BAT1* transcription. Since α -IPM biosynthesis is inhibited in the presence of VIL (López et al. 2015), the existence of a VIL-insensitive α -IPM biosynthetic pathway could support α -IPM production and formation of the Leu3- α -IPM active isoform. The presented results show that in a put 3Δ mutant, the combined action of Bat2-Leu2-Leu1 constitutes an α -IPM leucine-insensitive biosynthetic pathway. In regard to the BAT2 expression profile, it was found that on glutamine as sole nitrogen source, BAT2 repression is determined by the indirect negative effect of Ure2, as has been reported for other catabolic genes (Courchesne and Magasanik 1988; Minehart and Magasanik 1991; Blinder and Magasanik 1995; Coffman et al. 1995). In addition, the presented results uncover the existence of a negative Leu3-dependent role, which suppresses BAT2 expression on glutamine. In a leu3 Δ mutant, amino acid deprivation is elicited, allowing BAT2-induced expression through Gcn4. Furthermore, NuSA analysis indicated that BAT2 transition from repressed (glutamine) to induced (VIL) expression is accompanied by chromatin remodeling.

Our results underscore the fact that the directly or indirectly opposed regulatory action of TFs, the location of *cis*-acting elements in *BAT1* and *BAT2* promoters, chromatin organization, and the metabolic status of the cell afford crucial pathways which have influenced the functional role of the paralogous BCATs in *S. cerevisiae*.

Materials and Methods

Growth conditions

Strains were grown on minimal medium (MM) containing salts, trace elements, and vitamins according to the formula for yeast nitrogen base (Difco, Detroit, MI). Glucose (2% w/v) was used as carbon source and Gln (7 mM), GABA (7 mM), or valine (150 mg/liter) plus leucine (100 mg/liter) plus isoleucine (30 mg/liter) were used as nitrogen sources. Uracil (20 mg/liter) and leucine (100 mg/liter) were added as auxotrophic requirements when needed. Cells were incubated at 30° with shaking (250 rpm).

In silico promoter analysis

We examined a 600-bp intergenic region upstream of the start codon of the BCAA transaminase genes of the *S. cerevisiae* genome. The 1500-bp sequences upstream of the predicted

start codon were subject to *in silico* promoter analysis (Supplemental Material, Figure S1 and Figure S2). All genomic sequences analyzed in this study were obtained from the Yeast Gene Order Browser database (Byrne and Wolfe 2005). Sequences were subject to motif scanning using the Matrix Scan program, a member of the Regulatory Sequence Analysis Tools package (Van Helden 2003; Thomas-Chollier *et al.* 2008, 2011; Turatsinze *et al.* 2008). The yeast transcription factor matrix motifs used for this analysis were downloaded from the Yeast Transcription Factor Specificity Compendium database (De Boer and Hughes 2012).

Strains

S. cerevisiae strains used in this work are described in Table 1. All S. cerevisiae strains are isogenic derivatives of the previously described CLA11-700 (MATa leu2::LEU2 ura3) (DeLuna et al. 2001). The isogenic $gcn4\Delta$ (CLA11-708), $leu3\Delta$ (CLA11-709), $gln3\Delta$ (CLA11-710), $put3\Delta$ (CLA11-711), $ure2\Delta$ (CLA11-712), $nrg1\Delta$ (CLA11-713), $gat1\Delta$ (CLA11-714), $hap2\Delta$ (CLA11-715), and $mot3\Delta$ (CLA11-716) were obtained from strain CLA11-700 by gene replacement. A PCR-generated kanMX4 module was prepared from plasmid pFA6a (Table S1 in File S1) following a previously described method (Longtine et al. 1998) using J1-J18 deoxyoligonucleotides (Table S2 in File S1). Double mutants were constructed as follows: The kanMX4 module from CLA11-709 leu3::kanMX4 was replaced by the natMX4 cassette, which confers resistance to the antibiotic nourseothricin (Goldstein and McCusker 1999). The natMX4 cassette used for transformation was obtained by digesting plasmid p4339 (Table S1 in File S1) with EcoRI. The leu3::natMX4 strain (CLA11-717) was transformed following a previously described method (Ito *et al.* 1983). Double $put3\Delta$ leu1 Δ (CLA11-719) and $put3\Delta$ bat2 Δ (CLA11-737) mutants were prepared by transforming *put3* Δ (CLA11-711) by inserting a PCR module containing the URA3 gene amplified from plasmid pKT175 (Sheff and Thorn 2004) in *LEU1*, or the *natMX4* module from plasmid p4339 (Table S1 in File S1) to delete BAT2 using J19-J20 or J20A-J20B deoxyoligonucleotides, respectively (Table S2 in File S1). The double gcn4 Δ leu3 Δ (CLA11-720), put3 Δ leu3 Δ (CLA11-721) mutants were prepared by transforming the $leu3\Delta$ (CLA11-717) with kanMX4 modules by replacing GCN4 or PUT3, respectively, using the deoxyoligonucleotides described in Table S2 in File S1 (J1-J2 or J7-J8, respectively). The double mutant gln3 Δ ure2 Δ (CLA11-722) was constructed by replacing GLN3 and URE2 with natMX4 and kanMX4 modules as described above. Transformants were selected for either G418 resistance (200 mg/liter; Life Technologies), or nourseothricin resistance (100 mg/liter; Werner Bio Agents), on yeast extract, peptone, dextrose medium (YPD). Single and double mutants were PCR verified. The triple $leu4\Delta$ $leu9\Delta$ $leu1\Delta$ (strain CLA11-736) mutant was obtained from strain CLA11-700 by gene replacement. Three PCR modules (kanMX4, natMX4, and URA3) were prepared from plasmids, pFA6a, p4339, and pKT175 (Table S1 in File S1) following a previously described method (Longtine et al. 1998) using J20C-J20D, J20E-J20F, and J19-J20 deoxyoligonucleotides (Table S2 in File S1). The LEU4, LEU9, and LEU1 loci were replaced by the kanMX4, natMX4, and URA3 modules, respectively. Transformants were simultaneously selected for both G418 resistance and nourseothricin resistance on YPD as described above. Transformants resistant to nourseothricin and G418 were selected on plates with MM plus glucose without uracil. The triple mutant was PCR verified. The strain CLA11-732 (MAT α P_{ENO2}LEU4 P_{ENO2}-LEU9 leu1::URA3 leu2::LEU2) was prepared from the isogenic strain CLA11-706 (MAT α ENO2pr-LEU4 ENO2pr-LEU9 leu2:: LEU2) (López et al. 2015) by inserting a PCR module containing the URA3 gene amplified from plasmid pKT175 (Sheff and Thorn 2004) in LEU1 using J19-J20 deoxyoligonucleotides (Table S2 in File S1). PUT3-tandem affinity purification (TAP) BY4741 ura3 leu2 his3 met5 was obtained from the TAP-tagged Saccharomyces strain collection.

Construction of myc-tagged strains

GCN4-myc13 (CLA11-723), GLN3-myc13 (CLA11-724), and LEU3-myc13 (CLA11-725) strains were tagged with the 13-myc-kanMX4 module obtained from plasmid pFA6amyc13-kanMX6 (Goldstein and McCusker 1999) (Table S3 in File S1) using J21–J26 deoxyoligonucleotides (Table S3 in File S1). The GCN4-myc¹³leu3 Δ (CLA11-734) strain was prepared from the GCN4-myc13 (CLA11-723) isogenic strain, and the LEU3 locus was replaced with the leu3::natMX4 module obtained from the leu3::natMX4 (CLA11-717) strain by homologous recombination, using the J26-A and J26-B deoxyoligonucleotides (Table S3 in File S1). The LEU3-myc¹³ leu3box (CLA11-735) strain was prepared from CLA11-730 $leu3_{box}$ (MAT α P_{BAT2} CCGCTTTCGG::CCGCTTTaaa ura3 leu2::LEU2), and LEU3 was tagged with the 13-myc-kanMX4 module obtained from plasmid pFA6a-myc¹³-kanMX6 using J25-J26 deoxyoligonucleotides (Table S3 in File S1). Transformants were selected for G418 resistance (200 mg/liter; Life Technologies) or nourseothricin resistance (100 mg/ liter; Werner Bio Agents) on YPD. Strains were PCR verified.

Northern blot analysis

Northern blot analysis was performed as previously described (Valenzuela *et al.* 1998). Total yeast RNA was extracted following the method of Struhl and Davis (1981). Cultures were grown to an OD₆₀₀ ~0.5 in MM with glutamine or VIL as sole nitrogen sources and 2% glucose as carbon source. Aliquots of 50 ml were used to obtain total RNA. PCR-specific products for *BAT1*, *BAT2*, *ACT1*, *SCR1*, *DAL5*, *HIS4*, *LEU1*, and *LEU2* were generated from genomic DNA using J27–J50 deoxyoligonucleotides (Table S4 in File S1) and radioactively labeled by α -³²P dCTP with the Random Primer Labeling Kit (catalog number 300385; Agilent). These were respectively used as hybridization probes for the mRNA of *BAT1*, *BAT2*, *ACT1*, *SCR1*, *DAL5*, *HIS4*, *LEU1*, and *LEU2*. Blots were scanned using the ImageQuant 5.2 (Molecular Dynamics) program. Representative results of three experiments are presented.

NuSA

Nucleosome scanning experiments were performed by adapting a previously described method (Biddick *et al.* 2008; Infante



Figure 1 Diagrammatic representation of the biosynthetic pathway of BCAAs of S. cerevisiae. The proteins that participate in the pathway are Leu4/Leu9 (α -IPMSs, which constitute the leucine-sensitive α -IPM biosynthetic pathway), Oac1 (mitochondrial inner membrane transporter), Leu1 (isopropyl malate isomerase), Leu2 (B-IPM dehydrogenase), Bat1 (mitochondrial BCAT), Bat2 (cytoplasmic BCAT), threonine deaminase (IIv1), acetolactate synthase (IIv2), acetohydroxiacid reductoisomerase (IIv5), dihydroxiacid dehydratase (IIv3), α-ketoisocaproate (KIC), β-IPM, α-IPM, pyruvate (PYR), acetolactate (AL), α . β -dehydroxyisovalerate (DHIV), α-ketoisovalerate (KIV), α-ketobutanoate (KB), α -keto-2-hydroxybutyrate (AHB), dihydroxymetylvalerate (DHMV), α-ketomethylvalerate (KMV), threonine (THR). Dotted lines represent negative allosteric feedback loops. Filled circles represent presumed transporters. The expression of the genes (LEU4, ILV2, ILV5, LEU1, LEU2, BAT1, and GDH1) proceeded by an arrow are positively regulated by Leu3 (green arrow depicts transcriptional activation). The leucine-sensitive α -IPM pathway is depicted with a purple arrow, while the arrows pertaining the leucine resistant pathway are shaded in blue.

et al. 2012). Wild-type S. cerevisiae strain was grown in 50 ml MM with 2% glucose with 7 mM glutamine or valine (150 mg/liter) plus isoleucine (30 mg/liter) plus leucine (100 mg/liter) to an \sim 0.5 OD₆₀₀ A final formaldehyde concentration of 1% was added for 20 min at 37°, after which 125 mM glycine was supplied for 5 min at 37°. Formaldehyde-treated cells were harvested by centrifugation, washed with Tris-buffered saline, and then incubated in Buffer Z2 (1 M sorbitol, 50 mM Tris-Cl at pH 7.4, 10 mM β-mercaptoethanol) containing 2.5 mg of zymolyase 20T for 20 min at 30° on a shaker. Spheroplasts were pelleted by centrifugation at $3000 \times g$, and resuspended in 1.5 ml of NPS buffer (0.5 mM spermidine, 0.075% NP-40, 50 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 5 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 mM β -mercaptoethanol). Samples were divided in three 500-µl aliquots which were then digested with 22.5 unit of MNase (Nuclease S7 from Roche) at 50 min at 37°. Digestions were interrupted with 12 µl of stop buffer (50 mM EDTA and 1% SDS) and treated with 100 µg of proteinase K at 65° overnight. DNA was extracted twice with phenol/chloroform and precipitated with 20 µl of 5 M NaCl and an equal volume of isopropanol for 30 min at -20° . Precipitates were then resuspended in 40 μ l of TE buffer and incubated with 20 μ g RNase A for 1 hr at 37°. DNA digestions were performed as previously reported (Infante et al. 2012). Monosomal bands were cut and purified using the Wizard SV Gel Clean-Up System Kit (reference A9282; Promega, Madison, WI). DNA samples were diluted 1:30 and used for quantitative PCR (qPCR) to independently determine the relative MNase protection of BAT1 (YHR208W) and BAT2 (YJR148W) templates. qPCR analysis was performed using a Corbett Life Science Rotor Gene 6000 machine. SYBR Green was used as detection dye (2× KAPA SYBR FASTq Bioline

and Platinum SYBR Green; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). qPCR was carried out as follows: 94° for 5 min (one cycle), 94° for 15 sec, 58° for 20 sec, and 72° for 20 sec (35 cycles). The relative protection of *BAT1* and *BAT2* was calculated as a ratio considering the amplification of a region of *VCX1* with the following deoxyoligonucletide pairs: forward, 5'-TGC GTG TGC ATC CCT ACT GA-3'; and reverse, 5'-AAG TGG TCT TCC TTG CCA TGA-3'. PCR deoxyoligonucleotides are described in Tables S5 and S6 in File S1, which amplify from around -600 to +250 bp of *BAT1* or *BAT2* loci whose coordinates are given relative to the ATG +1. All presented NuSAs represent the mean values and SE of at least three independent biological replicates.

Metabolite extraction and analysis

Cell extracts were prepared from exponentially growing cultures (OD_{600} 0.3 and 0.6). Samples used for intracellular amino acid determination were treated as previously described (Quezada *et al.* 2008).

Quantitative chromatin immunoprecipitation

Formaldehyde cross-linking and immunoprecipitations were carried out by adapting a previously described procedure (Hernández *et al.* 2011). Yeast cells (200 ml of OD_{600} 0.5) were cross-linked with 1% formaldehyde for 20 min at room temperature. Afterward, 125 mM glycine was added and incubated for 5 min. Cells were then harvested and washed with PBS buffer. Pelleted cells were suspended in lysis buffer (140 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 50 mM HEPES/KOH, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1% sodium deoxycholate) with a protease inhibitor cocktail (Complete Mini, Roche). Cells were lysed with glass

Table 1 Yeast strains used in this study

Strain	Genotype	Source
CLA11-700	S. cerevisiae MATα ura3 leu2::LEU2	DeLuna <i>et al.</i> (2001)
BY4741 <i>PUT3-</i> TAP	S. cerevisiae ura3 leu2 his3 met5 PUT3-TAP	TAP collection
CLA11-706	MATα ENO2pr-LEU4 ENO2-prLEU9 leu2::LEU2	López <i>et al.</i> (2015)
CLA11-708 gcn4 Δ	MATα gcn4::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
C1LA1-709 leu3Δ	MATα leu3::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-710 gln3Δ	MATα gln3::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-711 $put3\Delta$	MATα put3::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-712 $ure2\Delta$	MATα ure2::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-713 $nrg1\Delta$	MATα nrg1::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-714 gat1 Δ	MATα gat1::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-715 hap 2Δ	MATα hap2::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-716 mot3Δ	MATα mot3::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-717 <i>leu3</i> Δ	MATα leu3::natMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-719 $put3\Delta leu1\Delta$	MATα put3::kanMX4 leu1::URA3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-720 gcn4 Δ leu3 Δ	MATα gcn4::kanMX4 leu3::natMX4 ure3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-721 $put3\Delta leu3\Delta$	MATα put3::kanMX4 leu3::natMX4 ure3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-722 ure2 Δ gln3 Δ	MATα ure2::kanMX4 gln3::natMX4 ura3 leu2	This study
CLA11-723 GCN4-myc ¹³	MATα GCN4-myc ¹³ ::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-724 GLN3-myc13	MATα GLN3-myc ¹³ ::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-725 LEU3-myc ¹³	MATα LEU3-myc ¹³ ::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-726 gata _{boxes}	MAT α P _{BAT1} GATAAT::GcaAAT, GATAAA::GcaAAA, GATAAT::	This study
	GcaAAT, GATAAG::GcaAAG ura3 leu2::LEU2	-
CLA11-727 <i>leu3_{box}</i>	MAT α P _{BAT1} GCCGGTACCGGC::aaaGGTACCaaa ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-728 put3box	$MAT_{\alpha} P_{BAT1}$ CGCTGGATAAGTACCG::aaaTGGATAAGTAaaa ura3 leu2::LEU2	
CLA11-729 gata _{box}	MATα P _{BAT2} GTTATC::GTTtgC ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-730 <i>leu3_{box}</i>	MATα P _{BAT2} CCGCTTTCGG::CCGCTTTaaa ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-731 put3box	MATα P _{BAT2} CGGCGTTCTTTTCGG::aaaCGTTCTTTTCGG ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-732	MATα P _{ENO2} LEU4 P _{ENO2} LEU9 leu1::URA3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-733 leu4 Δ leu9 Δ	MATα leu4::URA3 leu9::kanMX4 leu2::LEU2	López <i>et al.</i> (2015)
CLA11-734 GCN4-myc ¹³ leu3 Δ	MATα GCN4-myc ¹³ ::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-735 <i>LEU3-myc¹³leu3_{box}</i>	MAT α P _{BAT2} CCGCTTTCGG::CCGCTTTaaa	This study
-	LEU3-myc ¹³ ::kanMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	-
CLA11-736 leu4 Δ leu9 Δ leu1 Δ	MATα leu4::kanMX4 leu9::natMX4 leu1::URA3 leu2::LEU2	This study
CLA11-737 put3 Δ bat2 Δ	MATα put3::kanMX4 bat2::natMX4 ura3 leu2::LEU2	This study

beads and collected by centrifugation. Extracts were sonicated with a Diagenode Bioruptor to produce chromatin fragments with an average size of 300 bp. Immunoprecipitation reactions were carried out with 1 mg anti-c-Myc antibody (9E11, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) and protein A beads for 3 hr, washed, suspended in TE buffer/1% SDS, and incubated overnight at 65° to reverse the formaldehyde cross-linking. Immunoprecipitates were then incubated with proteinase K (Roche), followed by phenol/chloroform/isoamyl alcohol extraction, precipitation, and suspension in 30 µl TE buffer. Dilutions of input DNA (1:100) and immunoprecipitated DNA (1:2) were analyzed by qPCR. Real-time PCR-based DNA amplification was performed using specific primers that were initially screened for dimer absence or cross-hybridization. Only primer pairs with similar amplification efficiencies were used (Table S7 in File S1). Quantitative chromatin immunoprecipitation (qChIP) analysis was performed using a Corbett Life Science Rotor Gene 6000 machine. The fold difference between immunoprecipitated material (IP) and total input sample for each qPCR-amplified region was calculated following the formula IP/input = (2^{InputCt - IPCt}) (Litt et al. 2001). The results presented represent the mean values and SE of at least three independent, crosslinked samples with each sample being immunoprecipitated twice with the antibody.

Construction of site-specific DNA mutations

Mutants altered in *cis*-acting elements were constructed by transforming wild-type strain CLA11-700 with a 3.2-kb fragment obtained by PCR amplification of the pCORE plasmid harboring the kanMX4 and URA3 CORE modules (Storci and Resnick 2003). Transformations were carried out following the previously described protocol (Ito et al. 1983). Colonies were isolated on YPD-G418 (200 mg/liter). Correct insertion was verified by PCR amplification. The transformants were retransformed with integrative recombinant oligonucleotides harboring mutagenized modules (Figure S3 and Table S8 in File S1). The strains generated were CLA11-726 (GATA boxes at positions -424, -415, -374, and -324 in the BAT1 promoter, from GATAAT, GATAAA, GATAAT, and GATAAG to GcaAAT, GcaAAA, GcaTAAT, and GcaAAG), CLA11-727 (LEU3 binding site at positions -150 and -141 in the BAT1 promoter, from GCCGGTACCGGC to aaaGGTACCaaa), CLA11-728 (PUT3 binding site at positions -163 and -150 in the BAT1 promoter, from CGCTGGATAAGTACCG to aaaTGGATAAGTAaaa), CLA11-729 (GATA box at position -282 in the BAT2 promoter, from GTTATC to GTTtgC), CLA11-730 (*LEU3* binding site at position -327 in the BAT2 promoter, from CCGCTTTCGG to CCGCTTTaaa), and CLA11-731 (PUT3 binding site at position -347 in the BAT2 promoter, from **CGG**CGTTCTTTTCGG to **aaa**CGTTCTTTTCGG). After transformation, 5-FOA-resistant colonies were analyzed by PCR. The correct insertion was confirmed by sequencing with an Applied Biosystems (Foster City, CA) 3100 Genetic Analyzer.

Data availability

The 32 strains listed in Table 1 and plasmids described in Table S1 in File S1 are available upon request. Sequences performed to confirm *cis*-element mutants are described in Figure S3. Data concerning sequence analysis of TF binding sites and mutant phenotypes are presented in Figure S1, Figure S2, Figure S4, Figure S5, and Figure S6.

Results

Identification of the presumed cis-acting elements located on the BAT1 and BAT2 promoters and assessment of their accessibility by NuSA

To identify the presumed *cis*-acting factors that could influence *BAT1* and *BAT2* expression, DNA sequence of both promoter regions was analyzed with the pertinent bioinformatic tools (*Materials and Methods*). The occupancy of the *cis*-acting sequences was assessed by analyzing the chromatin organization profile determined by NuSA. As a positive control, gene expression was monitored by Northern blot analysis in samples obtained from the same cultures, from which chromatin organization assays of *BAT1* and *BAT2* promoters were performed (OD₆₀₀ 0.5), as described in *Materials and Methods*. As expected, expression analysis confirmed the previously reported *BAT1* biosynthetic profile (VIL repressed) and *BAT2* catabolic profile (VIL induced), since expression is only observed in the presence of VIL (Colón *et al.* 2011) (Figure 2A).

NuSAs were carried out to determine nucleosome positioning and occupancy of presumed cis-acting elements across the BAT1 and BAT2 promoters in wild-type cells grown on glutamine or VIL as sole nitrogen sources. qPCR was carried out with 30 or 29 primer pairs, respectively, for BAT1 or BAT2 (Tables S5 and S6 in File S1) to independently amplify overlapping regions of both promoters (Figure 2, B and C). Peaks of relative protection indicated that in either glutamine or VIL, four nucleosomes were similarly positioned around the BAT1 transcriptional starting point (-2, -1, +1, and +2) (Figure 2B). Nucleosome -1and +1 constitute the border of the 150-bp, MNase-sensitive NFR, which spans from around -200 to -100 with respect to the BAT1 +1 ATG (Figure 2B). This indicates that BAT1 differential expression on glutamine or VIL does not require chromatin remodeling. The presumed cis-acting elements present in the BAT1 and BAT2 promoters were identified through a comparative in silico analysis of their location (Figure 3, A and B). For BAT1, the HAP2, MOT3, GCN4, and LEU3 presumed binding sites were located within the NFR (Figure 2B and Figure 3A). NuSA analysis of the BAT2 promoter revealed that, in glutamine, at least four nucleosomes designated -2, -1, +1, and +2 were firmly positioned (Figure 2C), indicating occupation of the TATABOX in accordance with glutamine-repressed expression pattern (Figure 2A). The NuSA profile observed on VIL for the *BAT2* promoter showed that the region from -150 to -50, harboring the *TATA_{BOX}*, was nucleosome free, suggesting higher expression as compared to that observed on glutamine. It was also found that *NRG*, *HAP2*, *LEU3*, and *PUT3* sites would be nucleosome protected in either glutamine or VIL, whereas the *GLN3-GAT1 cis*-acting elements would be exposed under both conditions and *GCN4* only uncovered on VIL (Figure 2C and Figure 3B). It can thus be proposed that *BAT2* differential regulation on glutamine or VIL could be affected by chromatin remodeling.

Gln3, Gcn4, Leu3, and Put3 TFs, determine BAT1 and/or BAT2 expression profile

To analyze whether the trans-acting elements that should bind the above-described *cis*-acting factors had a role in BAT1 and BAT2 expression, deletion mutants were constructed in the corresponding coding genes: GLN3-GAT1 (Blinder and Magasanik 1995), NRG1 (Zhou and Winston 2001), LEU3 (Friden and Schimmel 1988; Kohlhaw 2003), PUT3 (Siddiqui and Brandriss 1989), MOT3 (Martínez-Montañés et al. 2013), GCN4 (Hinnebusch and Fink 1983; Hinnebusch 1984), and HAP2 (Guarente et al. 1984). As shown in Figure S4, $nrg1\Delta$, $gat1\Delta$, $hap2\Delta$, and $mot3\Delta$ mutant strains showed BAT1 and BAT2 wild-type expression profiles; indicating that, under the conditions tested, the encoded regulators played no role in BAT1 or BAT2 transcriptional regulation. Northern blot analysis was carried out on samples obtained from cultures in which Gln, GABA, or VIL were used as sole nitrogen sources, confirming the previously observed effect of both the quality of the nitrogen source and the peculiar effect of VIL on BAT1 and BAT2 expression (Colón et al. 2011). As opposed to that found for NRG1, GAT1, HAP2, and MOT3 mutants; $gcn4\Delta$, $leu3\Delta$, $gln3\Delta$, and $put3\Delta$ displayed a distinct phenotype when Northern blot analysis was carried out on total RNA samples (Figure 4A and Figure 5A).

Role of Gcn4 and Gln3 TFs on BAT1 and/or BAT2 expression profile

When total RNA was prepared from glutamine-grown cells (biosynthetic conditions), it was found that Gcn4 and Gln3 displayed a positive effect on *BAT1* transcriptional activation, showing no adverse effects on that of *BAT2* (Figure 4A). On VIL-grown (catabolic conditions) yeasts, Gln3 played a positive role on *BAT1* expression but showed no adverse effects on that of *BAT2*, while Gcn4 showed no effect on either *BAT1* or *BAT2* expression on this condition (Figure 4A).

To analyze whether Gln3 and Gcn4 were acting by direct binding on *BAT1* and *BAT2* promoters, qChIP experiments were carried out as described in *Materials and Methods*. To this end, Gcn4-myc¹³ and Gln3-myc¹³ derivatives were constructed (*Materials and Methods*) and their capacity to sustain wild-type transcriptional regulation was assessed (Figure S5). Amplification of three different regions of *BAT1* (Figure 4B, R1–R3) or *BAT2* (Figure 4B, R1'–R3') promoters was analyzed by qChIP analysis. Gcn4-myc¹³ readily bound the *BAT1* promoter, but not the



Figure 2 Northern blot analysis and NuSA indicate that opposed *BAT1* and *BAT2* transcriptional regulation is partially determined by chromatin organization. (A) Northern blot analysis was carried out on total RNA obtained from *S. cerevisiae* wild-type (WT) strain CLA11-700. Yeast cultures were grown on 2% glucose with either glutamine (7 mM) or valine (150 mg/liter) plus isoleucine (30 mg/liter) plus leucine (100 mg/liter) (VIL) as sole nitrogen sources, to an OD₆₀₀ 0.5. Filters were sequentially probed with *BAT1*- or *BAT2*-specific PCR products as described in *Materials and Methods*. A 1500-bp *ACT1* DNA PCR fragment was used as loading control, numbers represent means of *BAT1/BAT2* signals normalized to those of *ACT1*. SD

BAT2 promoter (Figure 4C); this is in agreement with the $gcn4\Delta$ mutant expression analysis, which showed that Gcn4 did not regulate BAT2 expression (Figure 4A). It could also be considered that Gcn4 has a weak binding site on the BAT2 promoter since, as will be shown further on, increased Gcn4 concentration evoked in a *leu3* Δ mutant allows the binding of Gcn4-*myc*¹³ to the *BAT2* promoter on glutamine (Figure 7B). As positive control, binding of Gcn4-myc13 to HIS4 was monitored. It was observed that although Gcn4-mvc¹³ clearly bound the HIS4 promoter on samples prepared from glutamineand GABA-grown cultures, binding on VIL-obtained samples was scarce as compared to that found on either glutamine or GABA. It has been shown that Gcn4 concentration is tightly regulated through the combined action of a complex translational control mechanism, which induces Gcn4 synthesis in starved cells, and a phosphorylation and ubiquitylation pathway that mediates its rapid degradation by the proteasome (Hinnebusch 2005; Rawal et al. 2014). However, Gcn4 abundance has not been determined in cultures grown on VIL as sole nitrogen source, and there is no evidence suggesting the preferential degradation of Gcn4 under this condition. Thus, the observation reported here could be attributed to the fact that, in the presence of leucine, target of rapamycin complex 1 (TORC1)-dependent mGCN4 translation is impaired (Valenzuela et al. 2001; Kingsbury et al. 2015). However, our results indicate that Gcn4-myc¹³ is bound to BAT1 and HIS4 promoters on glutamine and GABA, confirming that BAT1 is a direct Gcn4 target.

As expected, Gln3- myc^{13} bound the *BAT2* promoter in the presence of VIL or GABA secondary nonrepressive nitrogen sources, but not on glutamine, which is a primary repressive nitrogen source (Figure 4D) (Courchesne and Magasanik 1988); in agreement with the observed *BAT2* expression in a $gln3\Delta$ mutant (Figure 4A). Gln3 did not bind the *BAT1* promoter under any of the conditions tested, although it showed a positive regulatory input on *BAT1* expression on glutamine and VIL (Figure 4, A and D). As this effect is rather mild and Gln3 cannot be detected at the *BAT1* promoter through qChIP analysis, the observed deregulation is most

was calculated and corresponds to ±0.12. (B and C) For NuSA, mononucleosomes were prepared from wild-type strain cultures grown on Gln (black line) or VIL (gray line), as described in Materials and Methods. NuSA examined nucleosome occupancy at the BAT1 and BAT2 locus, including the 5' \pm 600 bp of the intergenic region and the 3' \pm 200 bp of *BAT1* (B) and BAT2 (C). MNase-treated chromatin and purified DNA samples and mononucleosome-sized (140-160) fragments were prepared as described in Materials and Methods. The resulting material was analyzed with a set of overlapping primer pairs covering the BAT1 and BAT2 locus (Tables S5 and S6 in File S1). Relative BAT1 and BAT2 MNase protection was calculated as the ratio of template present in MNase-digested DNA over the amount of MNase protection observed for the VCX1 locus, which was used as control. Data are presented as the average of three independent experiments along with the SEM. The diagram of the BAT1 or BAT2 promoters was extrapolated from the MNase protection data and depicts nucleosome positioning. Gray ovals indicate firmly positioned nucleosomes, while white ovals with dotted border depict relative occupancy. Black arrows indicate activation of transcription. Black boxes correspond to the LEU3 binding site and $TATA_{BOX}$.



Figure 3 *BAT1* and *BAT2* promoters contain predicted *HAP2*, *GLN3*-*GAT1*, *GCN4*, *LEU3*, and *PUT3* binding sites. In addition to *HAP2*, *GLN3-GAT1*, *GCN4*, *LEU3*, and *PUT3*; *BAT1* harbors a *MOT3* binding site (A) and *BAT2* an *NRG1* binding sequence (B). TF binding sites are indicated as vertical color-coded rectangles, as shown in the bottom part of the figure. Ovals indicate fixed positioned nucleosomes for each analyzed promoter under Gln or VIL conditions. Double headed arrow points to either closed (Gln) or open (VIL) chromatin structure in the *BAT2* promoter region.

likely to be afforded by an indirect effect. However, to further analyze whether Gln3 acted through its direct action on the promoters, we used the "delitto perfetto" strategy to complement our results with cis-acting, site-specific mutations on Gln3 consensus and/or conserved elements in BAT1 and BAT2 promoters. A mutation of the presumed Gln3 consensus binding site (GATAAG) (Bysani et al. 1991) located at the BAT2 promoter (GLN3-GAT1) resulted in decreased BAT2 expression (Figure 4F). For BAT1, a simultaneous cis-mutation in each one of a cluster of four presumed GLN3-GAT1 binding sites did not affect expression (Figure 4E), confirming the observation that although BAT1 expression on glutamine and VIL is partially activated through Gln3 (Figure 4A), the mechanism does not involve direct Gln3-promoter interaction. Consequently, the positive Gln3-dependent BAT1 effect is indirect, while the positive BAT2 regulation through Gln3 is direct.

Put3 and Leu3 TFs play a crucial role in the BAT1 and BAT2 regulatory subfunctionalization that determines the opposed BAT1/BAT2 expression profile

To analyze the role of Put3 and Leu3 on *BAT1* and *BAT2* expression, total RNA was prepared from glutamine-grown cells (biosynthetic conditions). It was found that, as was previously observed (Boer *et al.* 2005), *BAT1* expression activation was achieved through Leu3 (Figure 5A). However, a previously unidentified negative role for Leu3 on *BAT2* expression was detected (Figure 5A), indicating that Leu3 played a role in glutamine-dependent, *BAT2*-repressed expression and consequently that

Leu3 had opposing effects on the expression of *BAT1* and *BAT2*. Under this condition, Put3 did not play a role on the expression profiles of either *BAT1* or *BAT2* (Figure 5A).

Northern blot analysis, which was carried out on total RNA prepared from cells grown on VIL as the sole nitrogen source, showed that *BAT1* expression was repressed. However, in a $put3\Delta$ mutant, expression was fourfold derepressed as compared to that observed in a wild-type *PUT3* strain; indicating that this modulator played a negative role on *BAT1* transcriptional activation in media supplemented with VIL as the sole nitrogen source (Figure 5A). Contrastingly, *BAT2* expression was activated by Put3 (Figure 5A), indicating that Put3 exerted opposing effects on transcriptional activation of *BAT1* and *BAT2* on VIL-grown yeast. Under this condition, Leu3 only played a positive role on *BAT1* expression, and no role on that of *BAT2*.

To analyze whether Leu3 was acting by direct binding on BAT1 and BAT2 promoters, qChIP experiments were carried out as described in Materials and Methods. To this end, Leu3-myc13 derivatives were constructed (Materials and Methods) and the Put3-TAP mutant strain was obtained from the S. cerevisiae collection (Table 1). The capacity to sustain wild-type transcriptional regulation by the myc¹³ or TAPtagged derivatives was confirmed for both Leu3-myc13 and Put3-TAP (Figure S5). As presented for Gln3 and Gcn4 binding assays, three different regions of the BAT1 (Figure 5B, R1–R3) or BAT2 (Figure 5B, R1'-R3') promoters were selected to analyze Put3 and Leu3 binding through qChIP analysis. Put3-TAP was found to bind BAT2 (Figure 5C), indicating that the observed BAT2 transcriptional activation was dependent on the direct action of Put3 on the BAT2 promoter. However, Put3 did not bind the BAT1 promoter (Figure 5C), indicating that the negative role exerted by this TF was indirect. As positive control, the binding of Put3 to the PUT1 promoter was monitored (Siddiqui and Brandriss 1989). Binding to the GRS1 promoter was used as negative control. Leu3 was bound to both BAT1 and BAT2 promoters in either nitrogen repressive or nonrepressing conditions (Figure 5D). As positive control, the binding of Leu3 to ILV5 (Friden and Schimmel 1988) was monitored and GRS1 was used as negative control.

To further analyze whether TFs acted through direct action on the promoters, we used the *delitto perfetto* strategy to obtain mutants affected in *cis*-acting, specific consensus and/or conserved sequences in *BAT1* and *BAT2* promoters. Accordingly, the mutation of the *LEU3 cis*-acting element present in the *BAT1* promoter displayed an identical phenotype to that of the *leu3* mutant, decreasing *BAT1* expression on glutamine and VIL (Figure 5, A and E). Conversely, for *BAT2*, the mutation on the *LEU3 cis*-acting element did not result in derepressed expression on glutamine as that found in the *leu3* mutant, suggesting an indirect effect (Figure 5, A and F). Mutation of the presumed *PUT3 cis*-acting element present in *BAT1* did not result in derepression on VIL, indicating an indirect effect (Figure 5, A and E), in agreement with the fact that Put3 did not bind the *BAT1* promoter. A



Figure 4 Role of Gcn4 and Gln3 in BAT1 or BAT2 expression. (A) Northern blot analysis was carried out on total RNA obtained from the wild-type (WT) strain and its isogenic $gcn4\Delta$ and $gln3\Delta$ derivatives (Table 1). Strains were grown to \mbox{OD}_{600} 0.5 on MM 2% glucose with either glutamine (7 mM) or valine (150 mg/liter) plus isoleucine (30 mg/liter) plus leucine (100 mg/liter) (VIL) as sole nitrogen sources. Filters were sequentially probed with BAT1 and BAT2 PCR products described in Materials and Methods. A 1500-bp ACT1 PCR fragment was used as loading control. Numbers represent means of BAT1/BAT2 signals normalized to those of ACT1, and the resulting ratios in the mutants normalized to those in the WT under derepressing conditions for each gene. SD was found to be ±0.10–0.12. (B) BAT1 and BAT2 promoter regions used to carry out qChIP assays. The three regions which were amplified for each promoter after gChIP assays (R1-R3 for BAT1 promoter and R1'-R3' for BAT2 promoter) are depicted. (C and D) qChIP assays were performed using anti-Myc antibody (9E11, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) on WT strains containing myc¹³ epitope-tagged GCN4-myc¹³ and GLN3-myc¹³ (Table 1). Strains were grown on MM with 2% glucose and either glutamine (7 mM; solid bars), GABA (7 mM; open bars), or valine (150 mg/liter) plus isoleucine (30 mg/liter) plus leucine (100 mg/liter) (VIL; shaded bars) as sole nitrogen sources to an OD₆₀₀ 0.5. Gcn4 (C) and Gln3 (D) binding was analyzed by gChIP, as described in Materials

and Methods. IP/input ratios were normalized with the *GRS1* promoter as negative control (glycyl-tRNA synthase), and *HIS4* and *DAL5* promoters were respectively used as positive controls. Data are presented as the average of three independent experiments along with the SEM. (E and F) Schematic representation of *cis*-acting elements (*GLN3-GAT1*) present in *BAT1* and *BAT2* promoters, and the sequence mutations which were prepared, as described in *Materials and Methods*. Northern blot analysis was carried out on total RNA obtained from each mutant. Meaning of numbers is as described previously in this figure (see A). Strains were grown on Gln (solid line) or adding VIL (shaded line) as described previously in this figure (see A).

similar *cis*-acting mutation for the *BAT2* promoter resulted in decreased transcriptional activation, generating a phenotype equivalent to that found in a $put3\Delta$ mutant (Figure 5, A and F), which is in agreement with the fact that Put3 bound the *BAT2* promoter. It can thus be concluded that the negative regulation of *BAT1* and *BAT2* provided by the action of Put3 or Leu3, respectively, is indirect; while the positive regulation of *BAT1* and *BAT2* determined by Leu3 and Put3, respectively, is direct.

Under biosynthetic conditions (glutamine) Leu3 activates BAT1 expression while that of BAT2 is hindered through the negative and indirect action of Leu3 and Ure2 transcriptional regulation

The above results pose an interesting paradox in regard to the role of Leu3 on transcriptional regulation, because we show that in the presence of glutamine as nitrogen source Leu3 can either activate or repress gene expression (Figure 5A). These



Figure 5 Put3 and Leu3 oppositely regulate BAT1 and BAT2 expression. (A) Northern blot analysis was carried out on total RNA obtained from the wild-type (WT) strain and its isogenic $put3\Delta$ and *leu3* Δ derivatives (Table 1). Strains were grown to OD₆₀₀ 0.5 on MM with 2% glucose with either glutamine (7 mM) or valine (150 mg/liter) plus isoleucine (30 mg/liter) plus leucine (100 mg/liter) (VIL) as sole nitrogen sources. Filters were sequentially probed with BAT1 and BAT2 PCR products described in Materials and Methods. Numbers represent means of BAT1/BAT2 signals normalized to those of ACT1, and the resulting ratios in the mutants normalized to those in the WT under derepressing conditions for each gene. SD was found to be $\pm 0.10-0.12$. A 1500-bp ACT1 PCR fragment was used as loading control. (B) BAT1 and BAT2 promoter regions used to carry out qChIP assays. The three regions which were amplified for each promoter after qChIP assays (R1-R3 for BAT1 promoter and R1'-R3' for BAT2 promoter) are depicted. (C and D) qChIP assays were performed using anti-Myc antibody (9E11, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) on WT strains containing myc¹³ epitope-tagged LEU3-myc¹³ (Table 1). For Put3 qChIP, the PUT3-TAP mutant from the Saccharomyces yeast collection was used (Table 1). Strains were grown on MM with 2% glucose and either glutamine (7 mM; solid bars), GABA (7 mM; open bars) or valine (150 mg/liter) plus isoleucine (30 ma/liter) plus leucine (100 mg/liter) (VIL; shaded bars) as sole nitrogen sources to an OD₆₀₀ 0.5. Put3 (C) and Leu3 (D)

binding was analyzed by qChIP, as described in *Materials and Methods*. IP/input ratios were normalized with the *GRS1* promoter as negative control, and *PUT1* and *ILV5* promoters were respectively used as positive controls. Data are presented as the average of three independent experiments along with the SEM. (E and F) Schematic representation of *cis*-acting elements (*PUT3* or *LEU3*) present in *BAT1* and *BAT2* promoters and the sequence mutations which were prepared, as described in *Materials and Methods*. Northern blot analysis was carried out on total RNA obtained from each mutant as described previously. Meaning of numbers is as that described in (A). SD was found to be $\pm 0.10-0.12$. Strains were grown on Gln (solid line) or adding VIL (shaded line) as described previously in this figure (see A).

results apparently contradict the proposed mode of action for Leu3 as a transcriptional regulator (Sze *et al.* 1992). The suggested model considers that in a given physiological condition, the intracellular α -IPM concentration should either allow the constitution of the Leu3 dimer, which would act as negative regulator, preventing induction; or the Leu3– α -IPM dimer activator complex, which would determine induction of target genes. However, our results show that on glutamine as sole nitrogen source, Leu3 is able to support

opposite expression responses: *BAT1* induction and *BAT2* repression (Figure 5A). To further analyze this matter, we constructed a double mutant in which the two genes (*LEU4* and *LEU9*) encoding α -IPM synthase (α -IPMS) were expressed from the *ENO2* promoter, resulting in α -IPM overproduction (López *et al.* 2015). Furthermore, to avoid α -IPM catabolism to β -isopropylmalate (β -IPM), the *LEU1* gene, which encodes the sole enzyme performing this function in *S. cerevisiae*, was deleted in the *P*_{ENO2}*LEU4 P*_{ENO2}*LEU9* mutant. The generated



Figure 6 Leu3 determines *BAT2* expression through an α -IPM-independent mechanism. (A) Diagrammatic representation of the effect of P_{ENO2} *LEU4* P_{ENO2} *LEU9* $leu1\Delta$, a $leu4\Delta$ $leu9\Delta$ double mutant, and a $leu4\Delta$ $leu9\Delta$ $leu1\Delta$ triple mutant on α -IPM biosynthesis. (B) Northern blot analysis was carried out on total RNA samples obtained from wild-type (WT) strain and its isogenic derivatives P_{ENO2} *LEU4* P_{ENO2} $leu1\Delta$ triple mutant, and a $leu4\Delta$ $leu9\Delta$ $leu9\Delta$ double mutant, and a $leu4\Delta$ $leu9\Delta$ triple mutant, $leu4\Delta$ $leu9\Delta$ double mutant, and a $leu4\Delta$ $leu9\Delta$ leu1\Delta triple mutant (Table 1). Strains were grown to OD₆₀₀ 0.5 on MM with 2% glucose with either glutamine (7 mM) or valine (150 mg/liter) plus isoleucine (30 mg/liter) plus leucine (100 mg/liter) (VIL) as sole nitrogen sources. Filters were sequentially probed with *BAT1* and *BAT2* PCR products described in *Materials and Methods*. A 1500-bp *ACT1* PCR fragment was used as loading control. Numbers represent means of *BAT1/BAT2* signals normalized to those of *ACT1*, and the resulting ratios in the mutants normalized to those in the WT under derepressing conditions for each gene. SD was found to be \pm 0.10–0.12.

strain $P_{ENO2}LEU4 P_{ENO2}LEU9 leu1\Delta$ should feature increased α-IPM biosynthesis and null catabolism. A second mutant was constructed harboring $leu4\Delta$ and $leu9\Delta$ deletions, thus constituting a leucine auxotroph unable to synthesize α -IPM (Figure 6A), and the triple mutant $leu4\Delta leu9\Delta leu1\Delta$, which would not be able to synthesize α -IPM through the leucinesensitive pathway nor through the Bat2-Leu2-Leu1 leucineresistant pathway. BAT1 and BAT2 expression was analyzed in these engineered strains (Figure 6B). BAT1 expression was increased in the $P_{ENO2}LEU4 P_{ENO2}LEU9 leu1\Delta$ triple mutant, as compared to that found in the wild-type strain, when grown on glutamine. The most important observation was that, in this triple mutant, BAT1 was overexpressed even in the presence of VIL (Figure 6B), circumventing α -IPMS leucine sensitivity. As expected for a gene whose transcriptional activation is dependent on Leu3– α -IPM, increased α -IPM biosynthesis enhanced its transcriptional activation, overcoming VIL-mediated repression due to inhibition of α-IPM biosyn-

thesis and the consequent lack of Leu3– α -IPM. The fact that, in a leu4 Δ leu9 Δ double mutant and leu4 Δ leu9 Δ leu1 Δ triple mutant unable to synthesize α -IPM, BAT1 expression was prevented (Figure 6B) further confirmed that the BAT1 expression determined by Leu3 is a-IPM dependent. Conversely, BAT2 expression was very low on glutamine in the wild-type, $P_{ENO2}LEU4 P_{ENO2}LEU9 leu1\Delta$ -overexpressing, leu4- Δ leu9 Δ , and leu4 Δ leu9 Δ leu1 Δ triple mutant strains. In VIL, BAT2 expression was similarly induced in the α -IPM overproducing strain and in the null mutant affected in α -IPM biosynthesis. These results indicate that Leu3-dependent BAT2 transcriptional regulation does not follow the canonical model proposed for the action of Leu3 as a transcriptional modulator (Sze et al. 1992) since BAT2 expression on glutamine or VIL does not respond to increased or null levels of α -IPM. These results suggest that for *BAT1*, Leu3– α -IPM abundance directly determines induced expression; while for BAT2, Leu3-dependent transcriptional modulation could be indirect, eliciting the action of a positive regulator whose function is only evident in a leu3 Δ null mutant. This proposition is supported by the fact that, as presented above, although Leu3 can bind both BAT1 and BAT2 promoters (Figure 5D), a *leu3* Δ *cis*-mutant in the *BAT2* promoter does not mimic the phenotype of a *leu3* Δ mutant and *BAT2* expression is not derepressed on glutamine (Figure 5F). Furthermore, we performed a qChIP assay using anti-Myc antibody (described in Materials and Methods) on extracts prepared from cultures of the CLA11-735 LEU3-myc¹³ leu3_{box} strain. As expected, no Leu3-myc13 immunoprecipitation was observed, confirming the indirect action of Leu3 on BAT2 expression (Figure 7A).

To analyze the presumed indirect role of Leu3 on BAT2 glutamine-dependent repression, the $gcn4\Delta \ leu3\Delta$ mutant was constructed as described in Materials and Methods. Northern blot analysis of BAT2 expression on total RNA samples prepared from cells grown on glutamine as the sole nitrogen source showed that Leu3-dependent BAT2 derepression in a leu3 Δ mutant was not observed in a double mutant $gcn4\Delta leu3\Delta$ (Figure 7C). Thus, the Leu3-dependent BAT2 "repression" pattern was the result of the lack of GCN4 expression, whose action is elicited in a *leu3* Δ mutant. Considering that Leu3-a-IPM positively regulates several biosynthetic genes such as GDH1 (Hu et al. 1995), BAT1, LEU1, LEU2, LEU4, and ILV5 (Boer et al. 2005); in a leu3 Δ mutant, an amino acid deprivation could be evoked. In fact, as Table 2 shows, valine, leucine, glutamic acid, alanine, and histidine pools are decreased in a $leu3\Delta$ mutant on glutamine as the sole nitrogen source during the early exponential growth phase (OD_{600} 0.3), as compared with those observed in a wild-type strain. At exponential phase (OD₆₀₀ 0.6), $leu3\Delta$ amino acid pools recover wild-type concentrations. As shown in Figure 7C, *HIS4* expression is increased in *leu3* Δ , but not in $gcn4\Delta leu3\Delta$. It can be thus concluded that Leu3-dependent *BAT2* expression on glutamine in a *leu3* Δ mutant is triggered through GCN4-dependent transcriptional activation, due to increased biosynthesis of Gcn4 provoked by amino acid



Figure 7 BAT2 expression is indirectly determined by Leu3 and Ure2. (A and B) gChIP assays were performed using anti-Myc antibody (9E11, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) on wild-type (WT) strains containing myc13 epitope-tagged LEU3 myc^{13} , LEU3- myc^{13} P_{BAT2} leu3cis Δ (A), or GCN4 myc^{13} and GCN4- myc^{13} $leu3\Delta$ (B) (Table 1). Strains were grown on MM with 2% glucose with glutamine (7 mM) as sole nitrogen sources to an OD₆₀₀ 0.5. Binding of WT (solid bars) and mutants (shaded bars) was analyzed by qChIP as described in Materials and Methods. IP/input ratios were normalized with the GRS1 promoter as negative control, and ILV5 or HIS4 promoter was used as positive control. Data are presented as the average of three independent experiments along with the SEM. (C and D) Northern blot analysis was carried out on total RNA samples obtained from WT strain and its isogeneic derivatives leu3 Δ , gcn4 Δ , and gcn4 Δ leu3 Δ double mutant (C), or $ure2\Delta$ and $gln3\Delta$ $ure2\Delta$ double mutant (D) (Table 1). Strains were grown to OD_{600} 0.5 on MM with 2% glucose with glutamine (7 mM) as sole nitrogen sources. Filters were sequentially probed with BAT2 and HIS4 or DAL5 PCR products described in Materials and Methods. A 1500-bp ACT1 PCR fragment was used as loading control. Numbers represent means of BAT1/BAT2 signals normalized to those of ACT1, and the resulting ratios in the mutants normalized to those in the WT under derepressing conditions for each gene. SD was found to be $\pm 0.10-0.12$.

deprivation (Hinnebusch and Fink 1983). To further support this proposition, the Gcn4-myc13 strain was constructed and Gcn4 immunoprecipitation was analyzed in a wild-type strain and in a *leu3* Δ mutant (Figure 7B). Gcn4 immunoprecipitation was increased sevenfold in a $leu3\Delta$ mutant background, indicating a higher Gcn4 content. The fact that, in both the $leu4\Delta$ leu9 Δ double mutant and the leu4 Δ leu9 Δ leu1 Δ triple mutant (Figure 6A), decreased or null α -IPM biosynthesis did not result in *BAT2* derepression as it occurs in a $leu3\Delta$ mutant (Figure 5A and Figure 6B) can be explained, since both the double and triple mutants are leucine auxotrophs and have to be grown in the presence of leucine. In all organisms from yeasts to mammals, the TORC1 pathway controls growth in response to nutrients such as leucine. This amino acid is capable of activating TORC1 kinase, resulting in GCN4 repression and prevention of TOR-dependent mGCN4 translation (Valenzuela et al. 2001; Kingsbury et al. 2015; Kerkhoven et al. 2017). This contention is also supported by the herein

presented observation that, in the presence of VIL, Gcn4*myc*¹³ is poorly immunoprecipitated to the *BAT1* and *HIS4* promoters (Figure 4C) as compared to that observed on glutamine or GABA, suggesting a low Gcn4 concentration when cells are grown on VIL.

The fact that *BAT2* expression was repressed on glutamine and induced on VIL suggested it could be an NCR-regulated gene (Courchesne and Magasanik 1988; Minehart and Magasanik 1991; Blinder and Magasanik 1995; Coffman *et al.* 1995). Considering that genes subjected to NCR control are negatively regulated by Ure2, we analyzed whether this factor played a role in *BAT2* expression. As Figure 7D shows, *BAT2* glutamine-dependent repression was alleviated in an *ure2* Δ mutant. In a double *gln3* Δ *ure2* Δ mutant, derepression was not observed, indicating that Ure2-mediated expression is dependent on Gln3, corresponding to an NCR transcriptional regulation profile (Figure 7D). As control, we measured *DAL5* expression, which is a classical NCR-regulated

Table 2 Amino acid deprivation is observed in a $leu3\Delta$ mutant grown on glutamine as sole nitrogen source

	Amino acid pool (nmol \times 10 ⁸ cells)				
	OD ₆₀₀ 0.3		OD ₆₀₀ 0.6		
	Wild type	leu3∆	Wild type	leu3∆	
Valine	1.4	0.64	0.71	0.97	
Isoleucine	0.62	0.51	0.41	0.57	
Leucine	1.07	0.73	0.69	0.72	
Glutamic acid	30.63	8.89	16.26	15.25	
Alanine	25.08	5.99	13.58	6.39	
Histidine	8.21	4.09	4.23	5.74	
Asparagine	0.39	0.43	0.25	0.43	
Arginine	1.91	2.44	1.37	2.62	
Lysine	1.77	4.5	1.22	9	
Tryptophan	0.23	0.23	0.19	0.17	

gene. As expected, *DAL5* glutamine-dependent repression was prevented in an $ure2\Delta$ mutant and hampered in a $gln3\Delta$ $ure2\Delta$ double mutant (Figure 7D).

Under catabolic conditions (VIL) Put3 hinders BAT1 expression through a negative indirect effect and activates BAT2 expression

The results presented above (Figure 5A) indicate that Put3 can act as either a positive (*BAT2*) or negative (*BAT1*) regulatory factor, adding a previously unknown function for Put3 as a transcriptional activator (Brandriss 1987). Put3 regulates genes involved in proline utilization, it is constitutively bound to the *PUT1* and *PUT2* promoters, independently of the nitrogen source (Brandriss 1987). However, it only upregulates those genes in the presence of proline or other secondary nitrogen sources, eliciting conformational changes which influence the activation role of Put3 (Axelrod *et al.* 1991). In addition, Put3 regulates transcription by undergoing differential phosphorylation as a function of the nitrogen source quality, improving its ability to activate its target

genes (Huang and Brandriss 2000). Our results indicate that the negative action of Put3 on BAT1 is indirect, since it does not bind the BAT1 promoter (Figure 5C) and a mutant affecting the Put3binding, cis-acting elements do not result in BAT1 derepression (Figure 5E). It could thus be considered that while Put3 directly activates BAT2 expression, its role as a negative modulator of BAT1 is exerted indirectly. Considering that since Leu3– α -IPM is the main BAT1 transcriptional activator under biosynthetic conditions and that it could constitute the positive signal activating BAT1 in a put3 Δ strain, a put3 Δ leu3 Δ double mutant was constructed as described in Materials and Methods. Northern blot analysis of BAT1 on total RNA samples prepared from cells grown on VIL as sole nitrogen source showed that Put3-dependent BAT1 derepression was not observed in the double $put3\Delta leu3\Delta$ mutant (Figure 8A). Thus, the Put3-dependent BAT1 repression pattern is the result of a lack of Leu3– α -IPM. This indicates that, in a put 3Δ single mutant, an α -IPM biosynthetic pathway should be operating to allow formation of the Leu3-a-IPM activator. As Figure 8A shows, in a *put3* Δ mutant, *LEU1* and *LEU2* are also derepressed and, as for BAT1, this derepression is Leu3 dependent. These data suggest that in a *put3* Δ mutant, in the presence of VIL, leucine could be metabolized to α -IPM through the consecutive action of Bat2-Leu2-Leu1 (Figure 1), enabling Leu3- α -IPM formation and thus recovering the role of Leu3 as a transcriptional activator.

To address the question of the mechanism determining the negative role of Put3 on VIL, it could be considered that since *LEU1* bears a canonical Put3-binding, *cis*-acting element (Figure S6), its expression could be negatively regulated by Put3, and thus in a *put3* Δ mutant, *LEU1* expression would be enhanced. It has been shown that the *LEU1*-encoded IPM isomerase can reversibly determine α -IPM biosynthesis (Kohlhaw 1988). This could allow the formation of Leu3– α -IPM, influencing *LEU2* activation and promoting leucine-dependent Bat2-Leu2-Leu1



Figure 8 BAT1 expression is indirectly determined by Put3. (A, B, and C) Northern blot analysis was carried out on total RNA samples obtained from wild-type (WT) strain and its isogeneic derivatives $put3\Delta$, $leu3\Delta$, $put3\Delta$ leu3 Δ , put3 Δ leu1 Δ , or put3 Δ $bat2\Delta$ double mutant (Table 1). Strains were grown to OD₆₀₀ 0.5 on MM with 2% glucose with valine (150 mg/liter) plus isoleucine (30 mg/liter) plus leucine (100 mg/liter) (VIL) as sole nitrogen sources. Filters were sequentially probed with BAT1. LEU1. and LEU2 PCR products as described in Materials and Methods. A 1500-bp ACT1 DNA PCR fragment was used as loading control. Numbers represent means of BAT1/BAT2 signals nor-

malized to those of ACT1, and the resulting ratios in the mutants normalized to those in the WT under derepressing conditions for each gene. SD was found to be $\pm 0.10-0.12$.



Figure 9 Schematic representation of the *BAT1* and *BAT2* regulatory expression profile depicting TFs acting directly or indirectly on biosynthetic and catabolic conditions. (A) Transcriptional factors with direct regulation on *BAT1/BAT2* expression in glutamine (Gln) or VIL as nitrogen sources. Green arrow on *BAT1* and *BAT2* loci (rectangles) indicates transcriptional activation. (B) Different scenarios for the biosynthesis or catabolism of BCAAs in the wild type (WT) and various mutants when grown on biosynthetic (Gln) or catabolic (VIL) conditions. Green arrows pointing down indicate target gene activation through action of transcription factors. Horizontal black or gray arrows indicate VIL biosynthesis or catabolism. This figure highlights the fact that, in a *put3* Δ mutant in the presence of VIL, leucine is preferentially catabolized to α -IPM and not to α -ketoisocaproate (KIC) through the Bat2-Leu2-Leu1 pathway, while valine and isoleucine are catabolized to α -ketoisovalerate (KIV) or α -ketomethylvalerate (KIV) (see Figure 1).

 α -IPM biosynthesis. To test this possibility, $put3\Delta leu1\Delta$ and $put3\Delta$ $bat2\Delta$ double mutants were constructed as described in *Materials* and *Methods*. As Figure 8, B and C, shows, in these double mutants neither *BAT1* nor *LEU2* were derepressed, indicating that Leu1 and Bat2 activities are required for the functioning of the VIL-insensitive, α -IPM biosynthetic pathway. It is worth mentioning the fact that the results presented above indicate that, on VIL, Put3 can act as either a positive (*BAT2*) or negative (*LEU1*) modulator; however, the mechanisms underlying this Put3 dual role remain to be addressed.

In conclusion, when VIL is present as sole nitrogen source, Put3 determines transcriptional activation of *BAT2*; while it exerts an indirect, negative effect on *BAT1* expression by preventing Leu3-dependent, *BAT1*-induced expression.

Taken together, the results presented above indicate that *BAT1* and *BAT2* have functionally diverged through subfunctionalization

of transcriptional regulation, under biosynthetic and catabolic conditions.

Discussion

Aminotransferases constitute an interesting model for studying diversification of paralogous genes carrying out two functions, both of which are needed to warrant metabolite provision, and which cannot be differentially improved to carry out either biosynthesis or catabolism, since aminotransferases constitute biosynthetic and catabolic pathways whose opposed action relies on a single catalytic site (Kohlhaw 1988, 2003). After duplication, *S. cerevisiae* retained the *BAT1* and *BAT2* paralogous pair encoding BCATs, and functional diversification was achieved through differential expression of the paralogous gene pair (Colón *et al.* 2011).

The results presented in this article indicate that *BAT1* and *BAT2* retention and regulatory diversification has promoted the acquisition of two independent systems, which respond to the metabolic status of the cell: the activation of *BAT1* expression through Leu3– α -IPM is indirectly determined by a leucine-sensitive and leucine-independent pathway for α -IPM biosynthesis, while *BAT2* expression is determined by the quality of the nitrogen source (Gln3) and amino acid availability (Gcn4) (Figure 9).

This study analyzes the roles of *cis*- and *trans*-acting elements generating the *BAT1*-biosynthetic and *BAT2*-catabolic expression profiles, the influence of chromatin organization on the expression profiles of *BAT1* and *BAT2*, and the impact of the cell metabolic status triggering expression.

Leucine-sensitive and leucine-resistant independent α -IPM biosynthetic pathways determine the role of Leu3 as an activator or repressor and the biosynthetic expression profile of BAT1

The role of Leu3 on BAT1 transcriptional activation depends on the biosynthesis and intracellular concentration of α -IPM, which determines whether Leu3 would function as a repressor (Leu3) or an activator (Leu3– α -IPM) (Wang *et al.* 1999; Chin *et al.* 2008). To this end, two α -IPM biosynthetic pathways contribute to the building up of an α -IPM pool. In the absence of VIL, Leu4 and Leu9 play the major role, while in the presence of VIL and in a *put3* Δ genetic background, the consecutive action of Bat2-Leu2-Leu1 determines α -IPM biosynthesis (Figure 1). When VIL is provided, α -IPM biosynthesis through Leu4-Leu4 or Leu4-Leu9 α -IPMS is precluded, limiting the activation capacity of Leu3 (Wang et al. 1999; Chin et al. 2008; López et al. 2015). BAT1 VIL-dependent repression could be regarded as a determinant mechanism regulating leucine biosynthesis. To further enhance the Leu3– α -IPM-dependent transcriptional activation of *BAT1*, chromatin configuration favors the localization of the Leu3binding cis-acting element on the NFR in this promoter.

Results presented in this article show that in *S. cerevisiae*, an alternative α -IPM biosynthetic pathway can operate through the concerted action of Bat2-Leu2-Leu1, which constitutes a

leucine catabolic pathway and results in VIL-insensitive, α -IPM biosynthesis (Figure 1). Functioning of this pathway occurs only in a *put3* Δ mutant in which repression of *LEU1* is removed, since in this genetic background the *LEU1*-encoded reversible enzyme can catalyze α -IPM biosynthesis from β -IPM (Figure 1) (Kohlhaw 1988; Yang *et al.* 2005). Consequently, the formation of the Leu3– α -IPM complex activates *LEU2* and *BAT1* expression. Accordingly, the expression of *BAT1*, *LEU1*, and *LEU2* is not derepressed in the double *put3* Δ leu3 Δ mutant (Figure 8A) nor in the *put3* Δ bat2 Δ double mutants (Figure 8C).

Quality of the nitrogen source and amino acid availability determine the biosynthetic or catabolic expression profile of BAT2

In the BAT2 promoter, the LEU3 binding site is occluded by the nucleosome when the strain is grown on either VIL or glutamine as nitrogen sources; however, the GLN3 and GCN4 binding sites are accessible on VIL, and protected on glutamine (Figure 3B). BAT2 is regulated through a glutamine-dependent negative regulatory control, which can be relieved in the presence of secondary nitrogen sources such as VIL. Under these conditions, Gln3 is located in the nucleus and thus able to activate the expression of genes whose products have a compelling role in the catabolism of secondary nitrogen sources such as VIL (Courchesne and Magasanik 1988; Minehart and Magasanik 1991; Blinder and Magasanik 1995; Coffman et al. 1995). Additionally, a NCR controlindependent mechanism also contributes to BAT2 repression under biosynthetic conditions (glutamine as sole nitrogen source). In a *leu3* Δ mutant strain, amino acid deprivation is elicited, resulting in Gcn4-enhanced translation thus inducing BAT2 expression under biosynthetic conditions (Figure 9). Accordingly, in a $gcn4\Delta leu3\Delta$ double mutant, neither BAT2 nor HIS4 derepression was observed (Figure 7C). Thus, the BAT2-restricted transcriptional activation on primary nitrogen sources limits the biosynthetic role of Bat2. However, the independent action of the Gln3 (catabolic) and Gcn4 (biosynthetic) regulators can activate BAT2, indicating that the quality of the nitrogen sources and the intrinsic variation of amino acid availability trigger BAT2 expression and Bat2dependent VIL biosynthesis (Figure 9). Bat1 and Bat2 could redundantly determine VIL biosynthesis through either Leu3 and/or Gln3/Gcn4 transcriptional activation, since in the presence of secondary nitrogen sources the concurrent action of Gln3 and Gcn4 would increase expression of BAT2. The most important fact is that Bat2 can play a role on either VIL biosynthesis or degradation and the only constraint would be BAT2 mRNA synthesis and translation.

In the presence of a secondary nitrogen source, VIL biosynthesis could be triggered through the concerted action of Bat1 and Bat2, which represents a gene dosage advantage allowing higher biosynthetic capacity. Thus, the acquisition of regulatory systems which allow *BAT1* and *BAT2* expression under biosynthetic and catabolic conditions offers the possibility that Bat1 and Bat2 can play a biosynthetic or catabolic role, depending on the reactant intracellular concentration.

Acknowledgments

We thank Harald Berger and Christoph Schüller for sharing valuable knowledge; Javier Montalvo-Arredondo, Beatriz Aguirre-López, Juan Carlos Martínez Morales, and Eva Klopf for helpful technical assistance; and Rocio Romualdo Martínez for secretarial support. This study was performed in partial fulfillment of the requirements for J.G.'s Ph.D. degree in Biochemical Sciences at the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, which wascarried with a Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología doctoral fellowship. This project was supported by Dirección de Asuntos del Personal Académico grant/award number IN201015 and by Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología grant/award number CB-2014-239492-B.

Author contributions: J.G. and A.G. conceived and designed the experiments; J.G., G.L., S.A., M.e.H., and C.C.-B. conducted experiments; J.G., X.E.-F., J.S., L.R.-R., and A.G. analyzed the data; L.R.-R. and J.S. contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools; J.G. and A.G. wrote the manuscript.

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Communicating editor: A. Hinnebusch