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Although key genetic regulators of early meiotic transcription in Saccharomyces cerevisiae have been well characterized, the activation of meiotic genes is still poorly understood in terms of cis-acting DNA elements and their associated factors. I report here that induction of HSP82 is regulated by the early meiotic IME1-IME2 transcriptional cascade. Vegetative repression and meiotic induction depend on interactions of the promoterproximal heat shock element (HSE) with a nearby bipartite repression element, composed of the ubiquitous early meiotic motif, URS1 (upstream repression sequence 1), and a novel ancillary repression element. The ancillary repression element is required for efficient vegetative repression, is spatially separable from URS1, and continues to facilitate repression during sporulation. In contrast, URS1 also functions as a vegetative repression element but is converted early in meiosis into an HSE-dependent activation element. An early step in this transformation may be the antagonism of URS1-mediated repression by IME1. The HSE also nonspecifically supports a second major mode of meiotic activation that does not require URS1 but does require expression of IME2 and concurrent starvation. Interestingly, increased rather than decreased URS1-mediated vegetative transcription can be artificially achieved by introducing rare point mutations into URS1 or by deleting the UME6 gene. These lesions offer insight into mechanisms of URS-dependent repression and activation. Experiments suggest that URS1-bound factors functionally modulate heat shock factor during vegetative transcription and early meiotic induction but not during heat shock. The loss of repression and activation observed when the IME2 activation element,  $T_4C$ , is substituted for the HSE suggests specific requirements for URS1-upstream activation sequence interactions.

When starved for nitrogen, diploid  $\mathbf{a}/\alpha$  cells of the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae can cease their usual budding mode of growth and either begin pseudohyphal growth or undergo meiosis to eventually produce ascospores. The choice of differentiation pathway is operationally determined by the available carbon source. In low-nitrogen medium containing glucose, fermenting cells continue to proliferate as pseudohyphae, whereas in acetate medium depleted of nitrogen and glucose, respiring cells enter meiosis and sporulate. Both pathways entail an initial arrest at the late G1 cell cycle regulatory checkpoint known as Start, followed by the newly differentiated cell cycle. The single meiotic cell cycle is characterized by the appearance after completion of the premeiotic S phase of a B cyclin, Clb1 (15). Commitment to meiosis occurs at about the time of Clb1 appearance; cells returned to growth medium prior to this time can resume the mitotic cycle (24, 25).

Regulation of entry into the meiotic pathway has been intensively studied and is complex (reviewed in references 43 and 47). Normally only  $\mathbf{a}/\alpha$  cells can enter meiosis because this mating genotype permits the increased transcription of a master transcriptional regulatory gene, *IME1* (inducer of meiosis), in response to nutritional signals transduced by poorly understood mechanisms. *IME1* is not strictly a meiotic gene because its transcription is also stimulated under conditions that do not lead to sporulation, such as in stationary phase or heat-shocked cultures (28, 58). Environmental signals may additionally activate IME1 protein (Ime1p) by posttranslational modification (58). Ime1p has no obvious sequence similarities to known transcriptional regulators and has not been shown to bind to DNA, but it possesses a domain capable of stimulating transcription (44, 61). The carboxyl region of Ime1p is not essential for transcriptional activation but is required for induction by starvation (61) and for the initiation of meiosis (44).

*IME1* expression is absolutely required for the transcription of a second transcriptional regulator, *IME2. IME2* is normally transcribed only under sporulation conditions (28, 63) and may be a primary target of glucose repression (28). *IME2* encodes a protein that has homology to the yeast *CDC2* and *CDC28* cell cycle kinases and the signal transduction-associated mitogenactivated protein kinase, but Ime2p also closely resembles the rat mak1 kinase, which is specifically expressed in testis germ cells during meiosis (27, 45). A major function of *IME2* is to stimulate the transcriptional induction of about 20 early meiotic genes, including itself, that encode proteins used for early meiotic functions (reviewed in reference 47). The transcription of all early meiotic genes analyzed to date (*SPO13, SPO11*, and *HOP1*) is stimulated by *IME2*, but these genes are also significantly induced by *IME1* in *ime2*\Delta cells (48, 63).

The upstream regions of all early meiotic genes contain good sequence matches to the regulatory element URS1 (upstream repression sequence 1), which is also found in many nonmeiotic genes and was first identified as a repression element in an arginine catabolic gene, *CAR1* (42, 70). Deletion of URS1 in *SPO13* and *HOP1* causes inappropriate expression during the mitotic cell cycle (10, 75). *UME6* (*CAR80*) is a regulatory gene essential for maintaining the mitotic repression of early meiotic and other genes (7, 66, 67). In *SPO13*, *IME2*, *CAR1*, *INO1*, and *FOX3*, URS1 has been shown to be a target of Ume6p action because URS1 repression function is compromised in *ume6* disruptants. (7, 13, 39, 52, 67).

Although these URS1-associated regulatory components have been identified, it is not yet well understood how *cis*acting DNA elements specifically confer early meiotic induc-

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TABLE 1. Yeast strains used in this study

Strain	Genotype <sup>a</sup>				
CSGy12α					
CSGy29a	arg4::URA3				
CSGy279 <b>a</b>	<u>LEU2</u> trp1::hisG				
α	leu2::hisG TRP1				
CSGy34	YIpCSG11-LEU2::HSP82				
CSGy86 <u>a</u>	<u>HSP82</u> arg4::URA3				
α	YIpCSG11-LEU2::HSP82 ARG4				
CSGy84	YIpCSG11-LEU2::HSP82 ime1-12::TRP1 trp1::hisG arg4::URA3 SMO1 CYH2 <sup>s</sup>				
CSGy87 <u>a</u>	HSP82 ime1-12::TRP1 trp1::hisG arg4::URA3 SMO1 CYH2 <sup>S</sup>				
α	YIpCSG11-LEU2::HSP82 ime1-12::TRP1 trp1::hisG ARG4 SMO1 CYH2 <sup>S</sup>				
CSGy55 <sup>b</sup> α	YIpCSG20-LEU2::HSP82				
CSGy85 <sup>b</sup> <u>a</u>	<u>HSP82</u> arg4::URA3				
α	YIpCSG20-LEU2::HSP82 ARG4				
CSGy194 <sup>b</sup> α	YIpCSG20-LEU2::HSP82 ume6::URA3				
CSGy267 <sup>b</sup>	YIpCSG20-LEU2::HSP82 ime1-12::TRP1 trp1::hisG				
CSGy182 <sup>b</sup> α	YIpCSG20-LEU2::HSP82 pRS P <sub>ACTI</sub> -IME1				
CSGy238 <sup>b</sup> α	YIpCSG20-LEU2::HSP82 ime2-2::LEU2				
CSGy242 <sup>b</sup>	YIpCSG20-LEU2::HSP82 ime2-2::LEU2 pRS P <sub>ACT1</sub> -IME1				

<sup>a</sup> Unless noted, all strains have the additional markers ura3 leu2::hisG lys2 ho::LYS2 smo1 cyh2<sup>R</sup>-z.

<sup>b</sup> YIpCSG20 is the host for mutations that are shown in Fig. 2 but are not listed here.

tion. Deletion analysis of the promoters of HOP1 and SPO13 has revealed that meiotically responsive sequences reside close to the start site of transcription, but no element that is capable of meiosis-specific function when placed upstream of a CYC1lacZ promoter fusion has been isolated (10, 75). HOP1 contains an element (UAS<sub>H</sub> [upstream activation sequence of HOP1]) about 20 bp upstream of URS1 that can drive unregulated expression of CYC1-lacZ in nonmeiotic cells; similar but untested motifs are found 20 to 200 bp upstream of URS1 in nearly half of all early meiotic genes (47). A situation distinct from that for other early meiotic genes prevails for IME2: relatively far upstream sequences (-584 to -537) encompass a composite IME1-inducible UAS that retains IME1 regulation in the CYC1-lacZ context (7). This UAS also contains an element, T<sub>4</sub>C (also with sequence similarities in several early meiotic genes), that nonspecifically stimulates transcription; for IME1-mediated activation, T<sub>4</sub>C requires the URS1 element that resides 20 bp further downstream within the UAS (7).

*HSP82* belongs to a two-member family of yeast heat shock genes, at least one of which is induced transcriptionally in sporulation (32). *HSP82* is an intensively studied heat shock gene that relies primarily on a single heat shock element (HSE) adjacent to the promoter to drive vegetative and heat-induced transcription (18, 19, 35, 46, 72). It is likely that Hsp82p has a phylogenetically conserved function during meiosis or early oogenesis because its homologs are similarly expressed in other fungi (9), the fruit fly (12), and mammals (22, 36).

The experiments described here explore how two entirely different regulatory pathways induce *HSP82* transcription by stimulating a single classical activation element, a nonspecific HSE. Induction of *HSP82* during sporulation is initiated by the early meiotic *IME1-IME2* transcriptional cascade; the initial step may be the antagonism by *IME1* of vegetative repression that is mediated by URS1. In the case of *HSP82*, efficient repression also requires a second novel element. Meiotic stimulation of the HSE is distinct from that of heat shock and utilizes two resolvable mechanisms. (i) The combined action of URS1 and a nonspecific HSE elicits increased transcription; URS1 alone cannot support induction. (ii) *IME2* kinase transmits a starvation signal able to stimulate a generic isolated HSE.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Strains.** All yeast strains are derivatives of SK1. Parent strains into which *HSP82-lacZ* reporter constructs were integrated are listed in Table 1. The progenitor of all CSGy parent strains is Nky274 (1), modified by the inclusion of two additional Mendelian alleles, *smo1* and *cyh2<sup>R</sup>-z*. *smo1* was identified as an allele resulting in a spontaneous smooth-colony isolate distinct from the usual rough SK1 strain. This uncharacterized recessive allele reduces the flocculation that makes handling of SK1 strains difficult. *smo1* does not confer cold-sensitive growth as do several smooth-colony *rim* mutations (69) and does not affect the timing or extent of sporulation. *cyh2<sup>R</sup>-z* was selected on the basis of resistance to cycloheximide by using a batch procedure described elsewhere (71a). Nky290 and Nky291 were crossed with this progenitor to provide *trp1::hisG* and *leu2::hisG* markers (1).

The *ume6::URA3* disruptant was created by chromosomal integration of plasmid pPL5923, provided by Randy Strich (67). Transformation with plasmids pAM12 (48) and pHS113B (62), from Aaron Mitchell, created *ime2-2::LEU2* and *ime1-12::TRP1* chromosomal disruptants. Constitutively expressed Ime1p was transcribed from a Yep24 plasmid bearing the *ACT1* promoter fused to the *IME1* coding sequences (pRS P<sub>ACT1</sub>-*IME1*, gift of Aaron Mitchell) (69). To allow selection for diploids, the congenic **a** mating partner of CSGy12 was modified by integrating an *arg4::URA3* disruptant plasmid, pMJ92 (gift of M. Lichten).

Plasmid construction. Maps of integrating plasmids that were host to oligonucleotide-directed mutations are shown in Fig. 1A. The plasmids were adapted from pCM81 (gift of C. Moehle) (49), which contained the indicated segments from pRS305 (59) and pLG669Z (20); a short oligonucleotide had been inserted into the CYC1 XhoI site of pLG669Z to create a Bg/II-XhoI polylinker in pCM81. This CYC1 polylinker was further modified by inclusion of another oligonucleotide to give a PstI-BglII-SalI-XhoI polylinker. PCR amplification of pUTX20 (14) produced HSP82 DNA mapping from the EcoRI site at -1301 to an oligonucleotide-templated BamHI site immediately 3' to the second codon, designed to give an in-frame fusion at the pLG669Z BamHI site. This EcoRI-BamHI fragment was ligated into the polylinker of a modified pBluescript II KS+ (Stratagene, La Jolla, Calif.), deleted of its NaeI-SmaI fragment. Additional upstream HSP82 DNA was cloned by chromosomal walking using inverse PCR (51), checked for correspondence to the native locus by indirect end-label mapping (80) of restriction enzyme-digested genomic DNA, and ligated to the pUTX20-derived DNA. The pBluescript HSP82 insert, spanning 2,200 bp of contiguous upstream sequence, was transferred on a Scal-BamHI fragment to pCM81 to produce YIpCSG11. YIpCSG20 was created by replacing the 1,550-bp ApaI-BamHI HSP82 fragment with the 650-bp ApaI-BamHI CYC1 fragment from the modified pCM81 and then replacing the 260-bp SalI-BamHI CYC1 sequence with 339 bp of HindIII-BamHI HSP82 DNA.

**Construction of mutated HSP82 plasmids.** For each mutation, a synthetic oligonucleotide carrying the mutation was used to prime an amplification PCR, using YIpCSG20 as a template and a second primer either 5' to the *Hind*III site or 3' to the *Bam*HI site. The amplified DNA was isolated on an agarose gel and used as a megaprimer for a second amplification on the YIpCSG20 template (33). DNA from the second amplification was gel purified and restricted with *Hind*III and *Bam*HI; the insert was ligated back into YIpCSG20 and transformed into *Escherichia coli* XL1-Blue (Stratagene). After screening on an agarose gel for an insert of the expected size, plasmids from two transformants were linear-



FIG. 1. (A) Design of integrating HSP82-lacZ reporter plasmids. Initial deletion experiments used YIpCSG11 as the parental construct. YIpCSG20, the host for the oligonucleotide-directed mutations that are schematicized in Fig. 4, was derived from YIpCSG11 by replacing the HSP82 sequence between -277 and -1500 with a CYC1 upstream sequence that has no UAS activity (-700 to -1100). Known HSP82 regulatory elements within the 339-bp HindIII-BamHI fragment are shown beneath it; positions are relative to the HSP82 transcription start (12). The HSP82 sequence between -1500 and -2150 was retained to target integration of SpeI-linearized plasmid to the corresponding region upstream of the chromosomal HSP82 gene. The key identifies plasmid and gene fragments used to construct HSP82-lacZ reporters (see Materials and Methods). Restriction enzyme sites relevant to construction of the plasmids are shown: X, XbaI; S, SpeI; A, ApaI; H, HindIII; B, BamHI; N, NheI; Sc, ScaI. (B) Structure of the HSP82 locus in chromosome (chrom.) XVI after integration of YIpCSG20.

ized with *Spe*I and introduced into yeast cells by electroporation (2). Three chromosomal integrants from each yeast transformation were grown in rich acetate medium and assayed for vegetative  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity. Generally four to six transformatis gave a single level of activity characteristic of each mutation (3). Genomic DNA corresponding to the integrated construct was PCR amplified by using the secondary primers and sequenced by the dideoxy method. Over 90% of the integrants screened by this technique contained only the desired mutations. Complex mutations targeted to separable sequences or transfer of mutations into a single HSE background was obtained by repeating the mega-primer mutagenesis procedure by using mutated YIPCSG20 as the template.

Sequence analysis. A loose URS1 functional consensus (TNVGCGRCS) used initially to scan *HSP82* was derived from a mutagenesis study of URS1 (42) by scoring all single base pair substitutions that gave 30 or less U of  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity as being members of the functional URS1 set. An 8-of-9-bp match to the functional consensus located the URS82 element. A T nucleotide was noted to frequently occur immediately 5' to aligned URS1 sequences from nonmeiotic genes (42). When this residue was added to the canonical URS1 motif used to search compiled early meiotic genes, the 5' T was found in all identified URS1 elements (47) (see Fig. 10). Genes listed in Fig. 10 include all early meiotic genes compiled in reference 47 except *IME4*, *REC102*, and *RIM4*, which were not in the database.

Growth and handling of yeast cells. All media contained 0.001% polypropylene glycol 2000 as an anticlumping agent. For sporulation experiments, yeast cells were grown in filter-sterilized rich potassium acetate (KAc) medium (2% KAc, 0.6% yeast nitrogen base, 0.5% Bacto Peptone, 0.5% yeast extract, 50 mM phthalic acid [pH 5.5]) to an  $A_{600}$  of ~0.4 in small (<50 ml) vigorously aerated cultures at 300 rpm and 30°C in a shaking incubator. To induce sporulation, cells were harvested by filtration, washed with H<sub>2</sub>O, resuspended at the same density in 2% KAc plus auxotrophic supplements (pH 7.0), and incubated as described above. For β-galactosidase assays, 6-ml samples were removed from cultures at designated times and immediately made 20 mM in NaN<sub>3</sub> to disrupt energy metabolism (34, 72). For experiments comparing vegetative expression, yeast cells were grown in filtered complete synthetic dropout medium (56) plus 2% KAc or glucose and 50 mM phthalic acid (pH 5.5).

**β-Galactosidase assays.** Quantitative β-galactosidase assays using *o*-nitrophenyl-β-D-galactoside (ONPG) as the substrate were performed on permeabilized cells essentially as described previously (60). In the sporulation experiments shown in Fig. 3 and 5, typical activities of wild-type (WT) – 188 *HSP82* constructs ranged from 8 to 10 U in growing rich KAc cultures, were unchanged after 2 h of starvation in 2% KAc, but increased to 80 to 120 U after 10 h of starvation in KAc. Ten hours was chosen as the time to assay induced expression on the basis of initial experiments using centromeric HSP82-lacZ reporter plasmids, in which cells grown under selection took 2 h longer to sporulate. To simplify handling of cells, assays performed after 2 h in 2% KAc were taken to represent preinduction expression, and the  $A_{600}$  of the 2-h culture, which by this time had ceased proliferation (15), was used to adjust the  $A_{420}$  values of ONPG assays from both 2- and 10-h cultures. The sporulation time courses shown in Fig. 7, in which each sample point activity is adjusted with its own  $A_{600}$  as described previously (60), confirm the validity of both simplifications.

Within a given experiment, vegetative and induced activities of all reporter constructs varied in concert. To compare activities between independent experiments, all vegetative and induced activities from a given experiment were normalized to the vegetative expression of an appropriate construct that served as an internal standard. When induction was monitored, induced activity values were secondarily scaled to the induced activity value of the internal standard. Normalized expression values are the averages (±2 standard deviation) of two (Fig. 3, 5, and 9) or three (Fig. 6 and 8) separate determinations. All graphs also include a calibrated in Miller units based on the average activity (the induced activity where relevant) of the internal standard.

# RESULTS

Utility of chromosomal HSP82-lacZ reporter constructs. Pilot studies showed that vegetative and meiotic HSP82 expression levels are high enough to support analysis using HSP82lacZ reporter constructs on centromeric plasmids; these levels of expression are respectively at least 100- and 10-fold greater than those seen for other studied early sporulation genes (7, 10). A set of 5' deletions spanning sequences from -2200 to the transcription start showed that 277 bp of 5' sequence was sufficient to fully support sporulation-associated induction (data not shown). However, because of inherent plasmid copy number variability and because presporulation growth in media that maintain selection for plasmids may compromise analyses of nutritional requirements, single-copy HSP82-lacZ constructs were subsequently integrated into chromosome XVI immediately upstream of the native HSP82 gene (Fig. 1B).



FIG. 2. Accumulation of *HSP82* mRNA during sporulation. Total RNAs from equal numbers of cells were fractionated by agarose gel electrophoresis. The amount of RNA loaded on the gel was monitored by visualizing 18S rRNA with ethidium bromide. The *HSP82* transcript was detected by Northern hybridization as described previously (34). Steady-state mRNA levels after the indicated number of hours in sporulation medium are shown.

Data obtained from integrants paralleled those obtained from plasmids and are in addition highly reproducible; all experiments described here used these chromosomal reporters. The robustness of the assay, in combination with high levels of *HSP82* expression, allows the reliable analysis of relatively small changes in expression.

**Sporulation induction requires the minimal heat shock promoter.** *HSP82* mRNA accumulation during sporulation was monitored by Northern (RNA) analysis using a probe that does not cross-hybridize to the closely related *HSC82* transcript (34, 72). Message accumulation was significant 3 h after starvation and peaked after 5 h at about 12-fold the level seen at 1 h (Fig. 2). *SPO13*, *SPO11*, and *IME2* mRNAs also attain maximal levels at about this time in strain SK1 (48, 63). These kinetics of accumulation are very similar to that of the B cyclins and their associated kinase activities in sporulating SK1 cells (15).

Integrants containing 2,200 or 277 bp of upstream sequence gave roughly the same levels of vegetative  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity, which were induced more than 10-fold after 10 h in sporulation medium (Fig. 3; compare rows 2 and 5). A further 5' deletion, which removed two of the three HSEs present in the -277 construct (Fig. 1), reduced vegetative expression twofold but did not alter the extent of induction (Fig. 3, row 4). Deletion of the entire proximal HSE, centered at -167 (Fig. 4), completely abolished both vegetative and induced expression (Fig. 3, row 1).

Maximal  $\beta$ -galactosidase levels for cells grown in rich presporulation medium were generally attained after 8 h of starvation; thus, true maximal activity is about 30% greater than seen at 10 h (see Fig. 7 and Materials and Methods). No significant induction was observed before 4 h. Increased  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity thus lags about 3 h behind the induction of native transcript, similar to the delay observed for an *IME2-lacZ* promoter fusion (7, 63).

HSP82 is an early meiotic gene rather than a starvation response gene. Previous work has suggested that that HSP82 induction during sporulation is the direct consequence of starvation and is independent of the  $\mathbf{a}/\alpha$  genotype required for entry into meiosis (32). Surprisingly, in starved haploid  $\alpha$  cells, no induction was observed for a wide variety of constructs (Fig. 3, rows 4 to 13). This apparent contradiction could be due to the presence of the closely related cognate gene, HSC82, whose expression was not resolved from that of HSP82 in the earlier study (6). HSC82 has a much higher vegetative level of expression than does HSP82 (6); preliminary experiments indicate that a modest HSC82-lacZ induction begins at about 8 h poststarvation (data not shown). The diploid-specific induction of HSP82 suggested that expression might be regulated by components of the meiotic pathway. I therefore tested whether induction of HSP82 was dependent on IME1 function. In an

*IME1* null mutant, no *HSP82* induction was seen in either diploids or haploids (Fig. 3, row 3). This result, in combination with the known timing of transcript induction of *SPO11* and *SPO13* in SK1 diploids (48), suggests that *HSP82* is a member of the early meiotic gene cohort.

HSE and TATA mutations preferentially reduce vegetative expression. In a first attempt to characterize elements that might be required for induction, the putative functional cores of the HSE and TATA box were replaced by random sequences. The 6-bp substitution within the HSE ( $H_6$  in Fig. 4) disrupts two of the three intact nGAAn modules of the 20-bp element and would be expected to severely compromise heat shock inducibility (54, 81). Vegetative expression is about 14fold lower, whereas sporulation-induced expression is diminished about 4-fold (Fig. 3, row 14). Another directed mutation within these HSE modules (H<sub>P2</sub> in Fig. 4) also preferentially reduces vegetative transcription (Fig. 5, row 3). The ability of mutated HSEs to retain substantial inductive capability may indicate that other sequences within this region provide a similar function during sporulation or that the meiotic machinery is able to stabilize binding to the mutated element. Such stabilization of binding may occur during heat shock because the  $H_{P2}$  mutation also greatly diminishes the in vitro binding of heat shock factor (HSF) but only moderately reduces heat shock transcription (46).

When the 6-bp core of the TATA element is replaced, the corresponding reductions in vegetative and meiotic levels are 50- and 5-fold (Fig. 3, row 15). Nucleotides immediately upstream of the TATA box are especially important for maintaining vegetative expression in haploids after prolonged starvation but have comparatively little effect on sporulation expression in diploids (row 13). A perfect match to a yeast thermal response element (29) 7 to 11 bp upstream of the TATA box appears to play no role in early meiosis (row 16). It has been suggested that in *SPO13* and *HOP1*, the meiotic transcription machinery does not utilize a distinct TATA element (10, 47, 75). In the case of *HSP82*, vegetative transcription utilizes basal machinery bound to the TATA box and flanking upstream nucleotides, but meiotic transcription may instead largely rely on alternative or modified basal machinery.

HSP82 contains a element that represses vegetative expression. Sequences that might confer specific meiotic regulation were initially sought by constructing four 20-bp substitution mutations spanning sequences between the HSE and TATA box (Fig. 4, Ø I to IV; Fig. 3, rows 6 to 9). A 2.7-fold increase in vegetative expression in both diploids and haploids was noted for  $\emptyset$  II, which replaced sequences between -122 and -141 (Fig. 3, row 7). An analysis using three overlapping 35-bp deletions spanning this region confirmed these results (data not shown). Partial derepression of vegetative transcription can occur in mitotically cycling haploid and diploid cells when the URS1 motif is replaced or deleted (47). A loose functional consensus of the URS1 element (42) (see Materials and Methods) was therefore used to scan the 188-bp upstream region that supports meiotic induction, and an URS1-like sequence was located within the region replaced by the  $\emptyset$  II mutation. Although this sequence (termed URS82) matches the prototypal CAR1 URS1 element in only 6 of 9 bp, it does contain an 8-of-10-bp match to an extended URS1 motif (URS1<sub>E</sub> in Fig. 4) derived by comparing URS1 elements found in early meiotic genes (see Fig. 10). Interestingly, URS82 is embedded in a 25-bp sequence (Fig. 4) that is a good match to a region upstream of SPO13 (-88 to -113) (10). The SPO13 sequence is in reverse orientation to that of HSP82 and contains a perfect CAR1 URS1 motif (9). The sequence adjacent to URS82 (sequence A) bears a 6-of-7-bp identity to the SPO13 counter-



FIG. 3. *HSP82* contains a bipartite element that represses vegetative expression and stimulates early meiotic induction. Normalized  $\beta$ -galactosidase activities of integrated reporter constructs in diploid a/ $\alpha$  or haploid  $\alpha$  cells are graphed, and the corresponding numerical values are displayed.  $\beta$ -Galactosidase activities of uninduced (2 h) and induced (10 h) cultures in sporulation medium were independently normalized for diploid and haploid cells to the uninduced expression levels of a control construct carrying *HSP82* DNA that spans three putative HSEs (-277 to +1; row 5, dark construct). For clarity, the respective reference activities are also represented by dotted lines. Rows 5 to 24 show data from mutations introduced into the 277-bp 5' sequence; rows 1 to 4 show data from constructs carrying other 5' deletions of *HSP82* as indicated. All rows show data from WT SK1 cells except for row 3, which shows data from nonsporulating *ime1-12* SK1 cells. In this bar graph and those in Fig. 5, 6, and 9, WT regulatory elements are represented by gray boxes, and specific mutations placed within these elements are named in open boxes that wholly or partially fall outside these regulatory elements are shown as dotted outline boxes and are named according to the key in Fig. 4.

part; a second sequence (sequence B) has a 7-of-8-bp identity to a sequence found 3 bp upstream of the *SPO13* URS1 motif.

On the basis of this analysis, sequences corresponding to URS82, and to the entire homology to *SPO13*, were mutated.

Replacement of URS82 with random sequence led to a 60% increase in vegetative activity (Fig. 3; compare rows 5 and 18), whereas replacement of the entire homology tripled the vegetative level (row 17). The repressive capability of URS82 is



FIG. 4. Functional *HSP82* regulatory elements and mutations used in their characterization. Functional elements are represented by boxes; positions are relative to the initiation of transcription (12). For HSE 1, the consensus GAA modules essential to heat shock function are emphasized in shaded columns. The bipartite repression element, composed of URS82 and the ARE (sequence A), is shown beneath an alignment of the corresponding sequences from *HSP82* and *SP013*. Immediately above is an extended URS1 consensus GAA modules referrived from early meiotic genes; underlined letters mark nucleotides especially important to repression function (42). Sequence B corresponds to an analyzed 7-of-8-bp identity between *HSP82* and *SP013* with little apparent function. Altered or inserted nucleotides are shown in lowercase letters. Specific mutations within elements are designated by subscripts. Sequences replaced by random nucleotides are preceded by  $\emptyset$ , and insertions are represented by numbers (of inserted nucleotides) between dashes. Additional complex mutations created by combining the displayed mutated motifs are not shown. In the case of URS variants (U, URS82; U1, URS1), the mutations indicated by subscripts are numbered from 1 to 10 according to their positions within the motif; for brevity, point mutations are displayed only in the URS82 background. Mutations of HSE 1 include replacements with HSEs from other yeast genes (*UB14, SSA3,* and *SSA1*) and with a meiotic activation element (T<sub>4</sub>C) from *IME2*.

obscured in these constructs because of the unregulated contribution of HSEs 2 and 3 to vegetative expression. When assayed in a construct that contains only HSE 1, URS82 repressed vegetative transcription about threefold (Fig. 6, rows 2 and 6).

URS82 behaves like URS1 in repression and activation. HSP82 constructs containing either URS82 or URS1 behave similarly relative to constructs in which the URS is replaced by a random sequence. URS1 is a stronger repression element than URS82 (ninefold versus threefold; Fig. 6, rows 2, 3, and 6). URS1 is also a less-than-twofold-stronger meiotic activation element than URS82, increasing early meiotic expression by about 55%, compared with 35% for URS82 (Fig. 3; compare rows 5 and 21 with row 18; Fig. 7A and C). The absolute increase in  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity mediated by URS82 (~25 Miller units) during sporulation is about about threefold greater than the total meiotic expression of IME2 (7) and about sevenfold greater than that of SPO13 (10). Despite mediating large absolute increases in transcription, URS82 and URS1 contribute only about a third of the total increase in meiotic expression, as a result of the existence of a separate URS1-independent IME2-dependent activation pathway that stimulates the HSE (see below). The URS1 element when placed into the HSP82 context behaves like URS82 (1.55-fold meiotic stimulation, compared with 1.35-fold for URS82) rather than retaining the behavior seen in SPO13 (~6-fold

stimulation [10]). This difference in behavior is especially striking given the identity between the nucleotides that flank URS82 and the *SPO13* URS1 and further argues that URS1 and URS82 are homologous meiotic activation elements of roughly comparable strength. The repressive capability of URS1 is also attenuated by the *HSP82* context because HSE 1 supports relatively high levels of *HSP82* vegetative transcription despite the presence of URS1 (~20-fold greater than in *SPO13* [10]; Fig. 5, row 1).

To further ascertain whether URS82 behaves like URS1, a point mutation characterized in the SPO13 URS1 was introduced into URS82. In HSP82, a C $\rightarrow$ T transition at -132 gives 1.7-fold-greater vegetative expression (2.4-fold when corrected for contribution of HSEs 2 and 3) but reduces meiotic expression by about 35% relative to that of WT URS82 (Fig. 3, row 11). The corresponding mutation at position -92 of SPO13 leads to about twofold-greater vegetative activity and a reduction in meiotic activity of about sixfold (10). A second mutation, characterized in an IME2 URS1 element (7), was also placed into URS82. The G $\rightarrow$ C transversion at -131 increased vegetative activity 2.4-fold (3.8-fold, corrected) but lowered meiotic expression by about 20% (Fig. 3, row 10). In IME2, this transversion at -548 increases vegetative activity 16-fold in an *ime1* $\Delta$  background and decreases induced activity 12-fold when IME1 is overexpressed. The separate IME2-dependent mode of activation is relatively weak for SPO13 (48)



FIG. 5. A generic HSE can by itself confer meiotic induction, but other sequences are also required for efficient meiotic expression.  $\beta$ -Galactosidase activities of reporters in sporulating  $\mathbf{a}/\alpha$  diploid cells were normalized to the activity of a 5' *HSP82* deletion containing the minimal region that supports meiotic induction (-188 to +1; row 2, dark construct). All integrated reporter constructs contain only a single UAS. Rows 1 to 8, 10, and 13 represent mutations described in Fig. 4. Row 9 shows data from a construct in which all *HSP82* sequence downstream of -66 has been replaced with sequences from downstream of the *CYC1* TATA elements (-105 to +1, including a 3' *Xho*I site [37]). The mutation shown in row 11 was created by replacing HSE 1 with the 450-bp *Xho*I fragment that carries the *CYC1* UAS (20). Row 12 is a *CYC1-lacZ* construct with the the *CYC1* UAS in its native position at -258; rows 14 to 17 are *CYC1-lacZ* fusions in which the *CYC1* UAS has been replaced by segments of upstream *HSP82* DNA extending from -188 to the indicated 3' terminus.

and absent for the  $T_4$ C-URS1 UAS (7), which likely explains why these URS1 point mutations confer larger changes in induced transcription than are conferred by the analogous mutations in URS82.

A hallmark of *UME6* is its tight linkage to a functional URS1 element: in all tested cases, the deletion of *UME6* relieves URS1-mediated repression (7, 13, 39, 52, 67). Deletion of *UME6* increases vegetative expression of a native URS82-containing construct more than fourfold but has no effect when the URS has been ablated (Fig. 6, rows 2 and 6). If the canonical URS1 is present instead, expression is elevated more than

25-fold to an absolute level twice that supported by URS82 (row 3). The magnitude of the *UME6* phenotype thus correlates with the repressive capability of the element. These data also argue that URS82 is a functional variant of URS1.

The UAS and minimal promoter do not contain simple early meiotic determinants. Since early meiotic expression was only partially reduced by removal of the repression element, it was necessary to more rigorously examine other functional elements for the presence of sequences that might be specific regulatory determinants. For this purpose, all mutations were evaluated in constructs containing only a single proximal UAS



FIG. 6. Loss of *UME6* or rare point mutations enable URS1 to support HSE-dependent activation during vegetative growth. Reporter constructs were integrated into *ume6::URA3* (67) or WT  $\alpha$  haploid cells.  $\beta$ -Galactosidase activities were assayed for log-phase cultures grown in synthetic acetate medium. To better display the ability of the URS1 element to support either repression or activation, activities from *ume6* or WT cells were separately normalized to those for operatorless reporters (row 4, dark construct). All constructs contain a single or no HSE; mutations are as shown in Fig. 4.

at the position of HSE 1 (Fig. 5). In this background, native HSP82 displayed a 22-fold early meiotic induction (row 2); replacement of URS82 with URS1 produced slightly higher induced levels and a relative induction of 65-fold (row 1). In yeast HSEs, there are preferred sequences in the 2-bp spacers that separate the GAA modules vital to heat shock induction (4). Conversion of all three of the HSE 1 spacers to rarely found sequences lowered both vegetative and induced expression 3-fold (row 4), whereas point mutations in two of the GAA modules preferentially reduced vegetative expression (10-fold compared with 2.4-fold) (row 3). Combining these mutations gave the spacer mutation phenotype (row 5). The HSE was also replaced by HSEs capable of independent heatinducible UAS function from three yeast heat shock genes reported to show no (SSA1), early (UBI4), or middle (SSA3) sporulation-associated induction (74, 77). Constructs bearing the transplanted HSEs displayed 68-fold (SSA1), 13-fold (UBI4), and 10-fold (SSA3) early meiotic induction (rows 6 to 8). Low levels of SSA3 HSE-driven expression reflect the absence of a stimulatory cyclic AMP-responsive element (5). These chimeras induced with the same kinetics (Fig. 7E). The relative levels of early meiotic induction supported by these transplanted HSEs correspond to the relative levels of induction seen during heat shock (data not shown). It is thus unlikely that specific meiotic regulatory elements are interdigitated within these HSEs.

Experiments that replaced HSP82 promoter sequences with those of the corresponding CYC1 regulatory region were also conducted. CYC1 was chosen because it is a standard heterologous environment for evaluating yeast UAS function. Replacement with CYC1 sequence mapping between its proximal TATA element and the translation start (-105 to -1) (37) or replacement with an extended CYC1 TATA element (-123 to -102) (37) did not significantly change the magnitude of the meiotic response (Fig. 5, rows 9 and 10). Meiotic induction thus does not require specific sequences downstream of the TATA box. When HSE 1 was replaced by the entire CYC1 UAS, a high level of constitutive expression was observed (row 11). In its native context, the CYC1 UAS initially drove expression at a similar level, but upon prolonged starvation, expression declined (row 12). This result may reflect the absence of the HSP82 sequence that maintains expression in starved haploids.

An HSE can by itself confer meiotic induction, but additional promoter sequences are required for efficient function. The nonspecific requirement for an HSE and the absence of a clear meiotic determinant suggested that an isolated HSE might be capable of conferring meiotic induction. This was tested by replacing the *CYC1* UAS with *HSP82* DNA containing the HSE and adjacent downstream nucleotides (Fig. 5, row 14). The HSE conferred about a 10-fold induction during sporulation, but the induced level was only about 12% of the



FIG. 7. Interactions of the URS1-ARE and the HSE during sporulation and heat shock. Panels A to D depict data from a single representative experiment; a separate experiment generated the data shown in panel E. Diploid  $a_{\alpha}$  SK1 cells were grown in rich acetate medium at 30°C and then either heat shocked at 39°C in the same medium or transferred to 30°C sporulation medium. All reporter constructs are integrants containing a single HSE or no HSE. Mutations are as described in Fig. 4. To emphasize the activating or repressing nature of URS1 variants,  $\beta$ -galactosidase activities are normalized to the vegetative expression of the operatorless *HSP82-lacZ* fusion (0 h;  $\emptyset$  UAB in panel C). The reference activity level is shown by the horizontal dotted lines.

absolute activity seen for the native promoter (row 2). The induction is specific to meiosis because it is not observed in haploids (row 14, inset), and it is not dependent on the nucleotides that flank the HSE (Fig. 3, row 6). These data clearly suggest that a factor binding HSE 1 can be directly or indirectly stimulated during early meiosis. The relative magnitude of induction conferred by the HSE is slightly greater in the CYC1 context than in an operatorless HSP82 promoter (Fig. 5, rows 13 and 14 and inset). The higher absolute levels of expression seen in the native HSP82 context require sequences between URS82 and the TATA box that support both vegetative and meiotic modes of transcription (Fig. 3, row 9). These sequences downstream of URS82 do not support the high native levels of expression when transferred into the CYC1 reporter (Fig. 5, row 17). However, the operator retains the ability to decrease both vegetative and induced expression about fourfold relative to the solo HSE (rows 15 and 16).

A generic HSE thus appears able to independently confer early meiotic induction, but efficient transcription during sporulation also apparently requires uncharacterized factors that bind 10 to 30 bp upstream of the TATA box. The low overall efficiency of expression in the *CYC1*-promoter *lacZ* reporter, together with the demonstration that the *CYC1* TATA box and sequences further downstream can effectively substitute for their *HSP82* counterparts, suggests that these uncharacterized factors may require a close proximity to TATA-bound basal machinery in order to function.

**URS1 utilizes an ARE.** The observation that replacement of all 25 bp of the extended homology to *SPO13* derepressed vegetative expression to twice the level seen for a replacement of URS82 alone suggested that the sequences flanking URS82 are functionally important. Mutation of all 15 bp of DNA flanking URS82 (Fig. 3, row 12) gave vegetative expression similar to that resulting from the extended replacement (row 17) and somewhat higher than did mutation of only the core URS element (row 18). To further dissect the flank, replacements were constructed in the context of URS1 because it confers stronger repression. Mutation of sequence A (row 23)

indeed led to nearly the same vegetative expression as did the 25-bp replacement. Replacement of sequence B (row 24) led to a small increase in expression, suggesting that sequence A roughly delimits the flanking sequence important for repression. To better quantitate the relative contributions of URS1 and sequence A to vegetative repression, replacement mutations were evaluated in constructs containing only HSE 1, eliminating the contribution of the distal HSEs. Replacement of either URS1 or sequence A increased vegetative activity about ninefold, to 70 to 75% of the level observed for the 25-bp substitution (Fig. 6, rows 3 to 6). To determine whether URS82 and sequence A together comprise the binding site of a single complex, random spacers of 5 and 10 bp were inserted between the two motifs. Neither insertion derepressed vegetative expression (Fig. 3, rows 19 and 20). A 5-bp insertion between URS1 and sequence A in the context of only HSE 1 gave essentially similar results (Fig. 6, rows 3 and 7). The 7-bp segment contiguous to URS82 thus appears to constitute a separable ancillary repression element (ARE) that binds a factor which cooperates with factors binding URS82 and URS1 to efficiently repress vegetative transcription. If factors binding these sites physically interact as a single functional complex, it must be a flexible association to withstand binding on opposite faces of the DNA helix.

UME6 deletion converts URS1 from a repression element to an HSE-dependent activation element. UME6 has been genetically linked to URS1 function in IME2, SPO13, and three metabolic genes (7, 13, 39, 52, 67). In haploid cells, a disruption of UME6 markedly increased the vegetative transcription levels of all HSP82-lacZ fusions that carried an intact URS (Fig. 6, rows 1 to 7). Increased expression required the presence of HSE 1 (row 10). The *ume6* $\Delta$  mutation elicited the highest levels of expression from those constructs that carried the consensus repression element (rows 3, 5, and 7). Strikingly, the elevated and nearly equal activities conferred by these URS1 promoters were considerably greater than those seen in the control constructs, in which URS1 alone or the entire URS-ARE motif were eliminated (rows 4 and 6). Thus, in a formal sense, the  $ume6\Delta$  allele has converted the URS1-bound factor from a repressor to an activator. The factor binding URS1 is a dependent activator because in order to support increased transcription, it requires an activator that binds the HSE and cannot by itself confer independent UAS activity. The URS1 element itself is crucial to activation function because ablation of the motif eliminates the response (row 6). In contrast, a mutation of the ARE that compromises overall repression function has no effect on activation (row 5). It is noteworthy that in the *ume6* $\Delta$  background, the stronger core repression element (URS1) supports higher expression than does the weaker element (URS82) (rows 2 and 3).

Factors bound to URS1 variants can serve dual vegetative roles as independent or HSE-dependent activators. When adjacent to the CYC1 UAS in a CYC1-lacZ reporter, the  $G \rightarrow C$ transversion (Fig. 4, U<sub>C6</sub>) elevates constitutive expression about 7-fold more than any other of the 52 evaluated URS1 point mutations (42), but it is also unique in that it is able to impart a 14-fold increase in constitutive activity in the absence of the UAS (41). In HSP82, this transversion in URS1 increases vegetative activity to 10 times that of URS82 and 30 times that of intact URS1 (Fig. 6; compare row 8 with rows 2 and 3). HSP82 remains inducible to the same level supported by the intact URS1 (Fig. 3, rows 21 and 22; Fig. 7A). In the absence of the HSE,  $\text{URS1}_{G \rightarrow C}$  is able to support significant vegetative expression (Fig. 6, row 11) but is no longer able to support induction (Fig. 7A). In these CYC1 experiments, the  $URS1_{G \rightarrow C}$  element has been interpreted to be an artificially

generated independent UAS (41). This is clearly also true for *HSP82*, yet it is equally evident that the URS1<sub>G→C</sub> element in collaboration with a neighboring UAS (HSE 1) retains the ability to greatly elevate vegetative expression and not alter meiotic induction. In the course of generating mutations, a T→C transition in URS1 (Fig. 4, U<sub>C9</sub>) with similar properties was discovered (Fig. 6, rows 9 and 12; Fig. 7A). The transition maps near the junction of the URS and the adjacent ARE. I conclude that certain URS1 variants can function as an independent UAS but that these variants can also interact with the HSE to support greatly increased vegetative transcription.

Upregulation of URS1 by point mutation or *ume6* deletion may share a common mechanism. To test whether the two independent means of achieving URS1-associated increases in vegetative transcription are mechanistically related, point mutations that strongly elevated vegetative transcription were evaluated in *ume6* $\Delta$  cells. In the mutant background, both URS1<sub>G→C</sub> and URS1<sub>T→C</sub> variants displayed slightly decreased vegetative expression in the presence of HSE 1 (Fig. 6, rows 8 and 9). The point mutations are therefore epistatic to *ume6* $\Delta$ , which argues that both classes of mutation affect the same regulatory components. Since the *ume6* $\Delta$  phenotype arises from the loss of a factor linked to URS1 repression function, the activating point mutations may interfere directly or indirectly with Ume6p actions that target the URS1-bound repressor complex.

**URS1 and the ARE have different effects during early meiotic induction.** As described, meiotic expression of *HSP82* is about 55% higher in the presence of an intact URS1 element than in its absence. In contrast, an intact ARE adjacent to URS1 decreases levels of meiotic expression by as much as 45% (Fig. 3; compare rows 21 and 23; Fig. 7A and C). These data indicate that an intact ARE plays a continuing repressive role throughout early meiosis and offer further evidence that factors bound to the ARE and URS1 may not function as an integral complex. The opposing roles of URS1 and the ARE appear to be specific to meiosis, in distinction to heat shock, in which case URS1 or ARE replacements have equivalent small effects (Fig. 7C and D).

**URS1 and the HSE interact during sporulation but not during heat shock.** Induction of *HSP82* under the two very different physiological conditions of early meiosis and heat shock requires a generalized HSE. To explore whether the role of an HSE in the developmental response is distinguishable from its role during heat shock, I compared the patterns of induction during sporulation and heat shock for various mutations of the HSE and the URS-ARE operator.

In sporulating cells, *HSP82* was induced with similar kinetics and attained a constant maximal level of transcription for all URS1 variants that either strongly repressed or activated vegetative expression (Fig. 7A). In marked contrast, heat shock of the same URS1 constructs led to widely varying levels of induced transcription that roughly correlated with vegetative expression (Fig. 7B). The increase in expression during sporulation is inversely related to the vegetative transcription level, whereas the level of transcription during heat shock increases in a roughly additive manner. In the case of heat shock, the straightforward interpretation is that constitutively bound HSF is directly stimulated by heat shock through a pathway independent of the URS-ARE repression-activation motif (21, 46).

The pattern observed during sporulation is consistent with *HSP82* induction occurring through the relief of URS-mediated repression. The complex bound to an activating URS1 variant during vegetative growth is the functional equivalent of a complex bound to the canonical URS1 at some point during meiotic induction. This model is supported by the observation



FIG. 8. *IME2* plays a major role in starvation-dependent induction. Haploid  $\alpha$  cells of the indicated genetic backgrounds were starved in 2% acetate sporulation medium. Symbols:  $\bigcirc$ , WT;  $\square$ , pRS  $P_{ACTT}$ -*IME1* (a multicopy plasmid that constitutively expresses an *ACT1* promoter-*IME1* fusion gene [69]);  $\blacktriangle$ , *ime2* $\Delta$  (an *ime2*-2:::*LEU2* chromosomal disruptant [48]);  $\bigcirc$ ,  $P_{ACTT}$ -*IME1 ime2* $\Delta$ . (A) Expression of an *HSP82-lacZ* reporter carrying an intact URS1-ARE element; (B) expression of an *HSP82-lacZ* reporter carrying a random replacement of the URS-ARE motif ( $\emptyset$  UAB). All constructs incorporate 5' *HSP82* DNA from -188 to +1. To differentiate between activation and repression, data are normalized to the vegetative expression level of the operatorless reporter in WT cells ( $\emptyset$  UAB, 0 h of starvation; the reference activity level is shown by horizontal dotted lines).

that the activating URS1 variants and Ume6p apparently modulate the same machinery to mediate vegetative activation. It suggests that the antagonism of Ume6p function is inherent to early meiotic induction, as might be expected of a protein essential for the mitotic repression of all tested early meiotic genes. The equivalent functionality of the repressing and activating URS1 elements at the height of meiotic expression furthermore suggests that these motifs may bind similar protein complexes during vegetative growth despite supporting very different levels of vegetative transcription (see Discussion). This view is consistent with the observation that the random replacement mutation, which cannot bind a repressing or activating form of the URS1 factor, supports a lower level of early meiotic expression (Fig. 7A and C).

IME1 expression antagonizes URS1-mediated vegetative re**pression.** To investigate how the major regulatory factor that controls entry into the meiotic pathway might interact with operator sequences, a multicopy plasmid that constitutively overexpressed IME1 was transformed into cells carrying integrated minimal HSP82-lacZ reporters. In haploid cells grown in acetate, a construct bearing a replacement of the entire URS1-ARE operator displayed the same expression in the presence or absence of ectopic Ime1p (Fig. 8B, 0 h). For constructs bearing an intact URS1 version of the operator, overexpressing IME1 increases transcription sixfold above the normal repressed level to about half that seen in the absence of the entire URS1-ARE motif (Fig. 8A, 0 h). This partial-derepression phenotype suggested that only a single component of the bipartite operator might be the target of *IME1* action. Therefore, constructs containing specific replacements of either URS1 or the ARE were evaluated in IME1-overexpressing strains. In wild-type cells, reporters bearing lesions in either component transcribed at 70% of the level seen for the extended URS-ARE lesion (Fig. 9A). When IME1 was overexpressed, transcription of the ARE mutation recovered to that of the extended lesion, whereas transcription of the URS1 mutation declined slightly. This pattern indicates that the URS1 element is the specific target of IME1 antagonism.

The loss of specific interactions between URS1 and an activation element may enable secondary modes of induction. To test whether meiotic specificity is a simple combinatorial property of known meiotic repression and activation elements, HSE 1 was replaced by the *IME2*  $T_4C$  activation element (Fig. 9B). No induction during sporulation was observed for  $T_4C$  constructs that did or did not include the consensus URS1-ARE motif (data not shown). Both  $T_4C$  constructs supported the same high level of vegetative activity, about 30 times that of *HSP82* with URS1 (Fig. 9B, rows 5 to 8). In an *ime1* $\Delta$  background, vegetative expression of the  $T_4C$  constructs decreased about twofold, but it changed little for the HSE 1 counterparts. Interestingly, for cells grown in glucose, vegetative expression was virtually absent for  $T_4C$  constructs but only slightly decreased for those with HSE 1 (rows 9 to 12). The loss of  $T_4C$ -mediated transcription may reflect glucose repression, because addition of small amounts of glucose to acetate-grown cells severely reduced vegetative activity (data not shown).

The pattern of expression mediated by T<sub>4</sub>C here differs radically from that of the composite T<sub>4</sub>C-URS1 UAS in IME2; in this case, IME1-dependent expression increases 100-fold over extremely low vegetative levels (7). However, when an isolated  $T_4C$  element is used as the UAS in a CYC1-lacZ reporter, it behaves much as it does in HSP82 (8). A simple explanation that integrates all of the foregoing observations asserts that high  $T_4C$ -dependent constitutive expression corresponds to a derepressed state. The repression element cannot function because the ARE cannot substitute for a similar unidentified IME2 ancillary element or because the mutual context of URS1 and T<sub>4</sub>C is altered in terms of spacing, orientation, or distance from promoter. As is the case for HSE 1 (see below), *IME1* can only minimally stimulate  $T_4C$  directly. The *IME1*-dependent induction reported for the native T<sub>4</sub>C-URS1 module (7) may thus entail, via an altered interaction between factors bound to URS1 and  $T_4C$ , the unmasking of latent induction machinery bound to  $T_4C$ , which in this case is glucose repressible.

*IME2* plays a major role in starvation-dependent induction. When haploid cells that overexpressed *IME1* were starved in acetate sporulation medium, an additional time-dependent increase in  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity occurred in the reporter fusion containing the URS1-ARE motif (Fig. 8A). A lesser increase with similar kinetics was noted for the reporter in which random sequence had replaced the bipartite operator (Fig. 8B), consistent with the absence of the previously described URS1-HSE activation mechanism. If the chromosomal *IME2* gene was disrupted and *IME1* was overexpressed, a very small increase in transcription occurred in the URS1-ARE reporter; in the operatorless construct, expression increased modestly for the first 3 h and thereafter declined slowly. For both reporters, *IME2* disruption alone led to no induction. It is clear that *IME2* function is required for efficient induction under



FIG. 9. (A) Overexpressed *IME1* specifically antagonizes the function of the URS1 component of the URS1-ARE motif.  $\beta$ -Galactosidase activity was assayed in acetate-grown WT or  $P_{ACTT}$ -*IME1* (69)  $\alpha$  haploid cells. To better examine URS1 function, data are normalized to the expression of an operatorless *HSP82* construct (row 1, dark construct). (B) An *IME2* activation element does not support URS1-dependent repression and activation when substituted for the *HSP82* HSE. Constructs containing the *IME2* T<sub>4</sub>C activation element (7) or HSE 1 were integrated into  $P_{ACTT}$ -*IME1* and *ime1-12* (62)  $\mathbf{a}/\alpha$  diploid cells. Expression was measured in cells grown in synthetic acetate or glucose medium as indicated. The operatorless integrant in acetate-grown WT cells was used to normalize  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity (row 5, dark construct).

starvation conditions and that to a considerable degree, *IME2* can stimulate transcription in the absence of the bipartite repression element, especially later in the response.

Interestingly, *IME1-IME2*-dependent ectopic induction of *HSP82* also occurs in acetate-grown haploid cells subsequently starved in 2% glucose but not in cells starved in water (data not shown). Starvation of haploids in the presence of a carbon source allows the eventually suicidal progression of the cell cycle, whereas starvation in water leads to a protective cell cycle arrest (16, 17). This finding suggests that in addition to responding to limiting nutrients, ectopically expressed *IME1-IME2* pathway components also monitor cell cycle progression.

## DISCUSSION

Absence of positive early meiotic determinants. A primary aim of this study was to identify *cis*-acting DNA elements that regulate the induction of *HSP82* transcription during sporulation. Surprisingly, *HSP82* was found to be a member of the so-called early meiotic genes. *HSP82* has two features in common with all members of this family: its meiotic induction is under control of the *IME1-IME2* transcriptional cascade, and it possesses an URS1 element. However, *HSP82* also differs from members in two respects: the translated product clearly has functions other than in meiosis or sporulation (6, 55), and it is the only currently identified gene that is highly transcribed prior to meiotic induction.

HSP82 shares an unusual trait with two other early meiotic genes whose regulatory regions have been dissected, SPO13 and HOP1, in that no single sequence capable of regulating meiotic transcription in a heterologous reporter has been identified. In all three cases, proper regulation requires less than 200 bp of immediate upstream sequence; each includes a nonspecific activation element that lies 20 to 50 bp 5' to a functional URS1 element. Whereas the positive elements in SPO13 (undescribed) and HOP1 (UAS<sub>H</sub>) are poorly characterized, HSE 1 and other yeast HSEs have been thoroughly studied. An isolated HSE can nonspecifically support meiotic induction, but there must be other meiotic regulatory mechanisms in vivo because many heat shock genes are not induced during sporulation. Therefore, attention is focused on the element in common, URS1. The widespread occurrence of URS1 in nonmeiotic genes indicates a general function for this element but

does not preclude an obligate supporting role in conferring meiotic specificity.

Two modes of meiotic activation. The absence of a positively acting meiotic determinant suggests a mechanism in which specificity is conferred through the regulated relief of URS1-mediated repression. Although the means by which early meiotic transcriptional regulators interact with URS1 to initiate relief is still obscure, the data presented here suggest that full meiotic activation of *HSP82* actually involves two distinct mechanisms: (i) the relief of URS1-mediated repression, followed by URS1 and the HSE acting jointly to stimulate meiotic expression; and (ii) the *IME2* kinase directly or indirectly stimulating an HSE-bound factor. URS1-dependent activation contributes about a third of full meiotic expression, and *IME2*-dependent activation contributes about two-thirds.

The relative proportion of meiotic expression that is IME2 dependent appears to be larger for HSP82 than for SPO13 and HOP1 (48, 63), whereas the meiotic expression driven by the upstream T<sub>4</sub>C-URS1 UAS is completely independent of IME2 (7). These variations further affirm that IME2-mediated activation is mechanistically distinct from URS1-mediated activation. IME2 has been shown to weakly stimulate meiotic transcription of IME2 that is mediated by sequences separate from the  $T_4C$ -URS1 UAS (7). However, the presence of URS1 in all early meiotic genes suggests that URS1-mediated repression may have to be lifted prior to any IME2-mediated activation. The existence of a relatively strong IME2-dependent mode of activation only for genes in which the UAS resides near the promoter suggests that factors proximal to the basal transcriptional machinery may be specifically involved in this type of activation, consistent with the behavior of HSP82 reported here.

The vegetative activation conferred by  $ume6\Delta$  or rare point mutations in URS1 may utilize the same transcriptional machinery involved in URS1-mediated activation during early meiosis. Vegetative and meiotic modes of activation require the collaboration of URS1 and the HSE. The absolute increases in expression are similar for vegetative and meiotic activation, and in each mode URS1 supports a somewhat greater increase than URS82. Time course experiments provide evidence that the two activation modes are directly linked by showing that the vegetative activation state is encompassed by the meiotic activation pathway. The URS1-associated mechanisms by which vegetative expression can be artificially upregulated may thus provide insight into URS1-mediated meiotic activation.

The role of the bipartite repression element. Although it is known that sequence context is sometimes important for URS1 repression function in nonmeiotic genes (42), URS1 is in isolation a general repression element, and therefore specific meiotic function must be conferred by other sequences. A major finding of these experiments is that an ancillary element, the ARE, is required for efficient URS1-dependent repression. This is the first identification of an obligate accessory element in an early meiotic gene; it has been recently reported that an URS1 and an ABF1 element jointly mediate the glucose repression of a metabolic gene, FOX3 (13). The ARE is operationally distinct from the core URS in that the ARE motif is at least to a limited extent physically separable from URS1 and in that it facilitates only repression in all tested environments, in contrast to the variable nature of URS1. The extended homology between the URS1-ARE region in HSP82 and corresponding sequences in SPO13 suggests that an ARE-bound factor(s) might specifically interact with early meiotic regulators. However, ectopic overexpression of IME1 in vegetatively growing cells partially antagonizes repression mediated by the URS1

	ARE			URS		_
HSP82	TGAGAAT	-	-185	TAaCCGCtCA*	-	-195
SP013	TGAGAAA	+	-104	TAGCCGCCGA*	+	-97
	TGAGACT	-	-78			
HOP1	aGAGAAA	+	-133	TAGCCGCCCA*	-	-173
IME2	ggagaaa	-	-580	TAGCCGCCGt *	-	-552
				TLGCCGCCGA*	-	-457
DMC1	TGgGAAA	-	-183	TAGCCGCCCA	+	-138
ZIP1	aGAGAAT	+	-5	TAGCCGCCGA	-	-22
	TGAGAtT	+	-45			
RED1	TGAaAAA	-	-664	TAGtCGCCAA	-	-691
	TGAGCAA	-	-179	TAGCCGCtGA	-	-166
	TGcGAAA	-	-144			
SP016	cgagaaa	+	-76	TAGCCGCCCA	-	-90
REC114	aGAGAAT	+	-109	TAGCCGCCCA	-	-90
REC104	TcAGAAA	+	-48	TAGCCGCCAA	-	-93
MER1	TGAGAAA	+	-199	TAGCCGCCGA	+	-112
MEK1	TGAaAAA	-	-284	TAGCCGCCAt		-150
				TAGCCGCCGA	-	-136
MEI4	TGtGAAA	+	-43	TAGCCGCCCA	-	-98
SP011	TGtGAAT	-	+163	TAGCCGCCAA	-	+253
CONSENSUS	TGAGAAA T			TAGCCGCCCA G A		URS1 <sub>E</sub>
				AGCCGCCGA		URS1

FIG. 10. Relationship of ARE and URS motifs in early meiotic genes. To facilitate comparison, orientations of motifs (sense [+] and antisense [-]) are relative to the published URS1 consensus sequence (42). Positions of the motifs represent the 5'-most base pairs relative to the 5'-3' gene orientation and are numbered with respect to the translation start. Lowercase letters indicate mismatches to the derived consensus sequences. Asterisks denote URS1 elements that reside within UAS or promoter regions demonstrated to support early meiotic induction.

component rather than the ARE. It is surprising that the nonspecific URS1 is the target for a presumed early step in meiotic activation, but this is a limited stimulus under conditions quite different from those that initiate sporulation. It is possible that additional stimuli mediated by other meiotic regulators or a modified Ime1p target the ARE. Sequence analysis of 14 early meiotic genes (47) identifies 10 that contain good matches (6 of 7 bp or better) to the ARE within 50 bp of URS1 (Fig. 10). In eight cases, including *HSP82*, *HOP1*, and *SPO13* (a second match), the ARE motif is downstream of URS1. It is currently unknown whether any of the candidate ARE motifs have a function corresponding to that of the *HSP82* element. Note that the URS1 motif as compiled from early meiotic genes extends the published URS1 consensus (42) to 10 bp, with pronounced variability confined to a single position.

The mechanism of URS1 function. It is striking that the URS1-bound factor can be converted from a repressor to an activator of vegetative transcription by two experimental means, the deletion of UME6 or the introduction of certain point mutations into URS1. URS1 is operationally distinct from classical activation elements in S. cerevisiae because it requires an adjacent UAS (HSE) in order to function. Despite uncertainty as to the nature of the factor(s) that binds to URS1, there are several lines of evidence that suggest that much of the functional repressor complex remains bound to URS1 when it functions as an activator. First, in a gel shift experiment using crude WT yeast cell extract, a 26-bp SPO13 oligonucleotide that spans URS1 and 5 bp of the ARE homology produces six shifted complexes (67). In an extract prepared from a ume6 disruptant, the two most slowly migrating complexes were replaced by two faster complexes, consistent with

Ume6p directly or indirectly interacting with a multisubunit complex that remains bound to the oligonucleotide. Second, a preparation purified by virtue of its affinity to the prototypal CAR1 URS1 element was found to be almost exclusively replication factor A (RPA), a heterotrimeric complex implicated in early events of DNA replication in S. cerevisiae and mammals (40). Interestingly, this complex binds the activating  $G \rightarrow C$  URS1 variant described earlier as well as it binds to the prototypal URS1 (30). Furthermore, the activating sequence within a classical CAR1 UAS is an RPA-binding motif related to this activating URS1 variant (30), suggesting that in vivo URS1-bound complexes that repress or activate may modulate the same regulatory machinery. Third, as reported in this study, the  $G \rightarrow C$  (and also the  $T \rightarrow C$ ) URS1 variant is epistatic to  $ume 6\Delta$ , suggesting that a functionally equivalent activator complex binds to URS1 in the presence of these cis and trans lesions. Last, the observation here that the most efficient repressor becomes the most efficient activator when UME6 is deleted suggests that the affinities of both forms of complex for their binding sites are related and thus perhaps reflect the retention of crucial protein-DNA contacts. Since activating point mutations of the prototypal URS1 elicit the same phenotype as the intact URS1 in a *ume6* $\Delta$  background, it might be thought that the point mutations achieve their functional effect simply by eliminating a DNA-binding site for Ume6p (or an UME6-dependent protein) (67). However, among the many point mutations assayed, those that strongly activate are rare (30, 42), suggesting that activation may instead result from an alternate conformation of bound complex that is stabilized by an altered binding site. There is indirect evidence that yeast RPA may exist in vivo in two forms that have different physical properties and different affinities for single-stranded DNA and double-stranded DNA (30).

A recent study of the T<sub>4</sub>C-URS1 UAS of IME2 has led to the suggestion that *IME1* activates meiotic genes by converting URS1-bound Ume6p from a negative regulator to a positive regulator, thereby establishing URS1 as an independently acting UAS (8). The IME2 analysis and the present study are in agreement that URS1 is functionally converted from an element that mediates repression to one that mediates activation, but the mechanism proposed for IME2 induction is difficult to reconcile with these HSP82 experiments. It is unknown whether UME6 is a positive regulator of other meiotic genes, but levels of SPO13, SPO11, and SPO16 expression seen in  $ume6\Delta$  vegetative SK1 cells approach the levels seen in WT meiotic SK1 cells (67). It is likely that the high *ume6*-dependent vegetative expression of these early meiotic genes corresponds to the ume6-triggered URS1-dependent vegetative activation seen in HSP82. Such a correspondence strengthens the argument that UME6 plays no positive role in URS1-mediated meiotic activation of these genes.

A role for HSF. Although the experiments reported here make no attempt to directly identify the factor(s) that binds HSE 1 during early sporulation, it is likely to be HSF because (i) no other HSF-like proteins in *S. cerevisiae* that bind HSEs have been identified (65, 79); (ii) HSEs from nonmeiotic genes can substitute for HSE 1 during sporulation, making improbable the existence of HSF-like proteins that recognize only a subset of HSEs; (iii) variant HSEs support similar relative levels of induction during early meiosis and heat shock; (iv) yeast HSF binds HSE 1 constitutively (19, 46, 72), and haploids or *ime1* diploids retain vegetative levels of ranscription under sporulation conditions; and (v) early meiotic induction occurs at a time when there is only minimal synthesis of new sporulation-specific proteins. Induction can be driven ectopically in haploids by first expressing *IME1* and *IME2* and subsequently

starving the cells. This finding is consistent with the idea that later starvation-dependent steps in the transcriptional activation of *HSP82* may involve only modifications of extant proteins.

Yeast HSF contains two spatially and functionally separable activation domains (3, 11, 26, 50, 64). A broad N-terminal region contains a stress-inducible activator (it does not support constitutive expression) that cannot be resolved from the DNA-binding site, whereas a C-terminal domain can function independently as a strong constitutive activator. Under conditions of steady-state growth, a small region near the N terminus can operationally mask the C-terminal activator in inverse proportion to environmental temperature, thereby eliciting a sustained heat-dependent vegetative response (11, 64). In heat-shocked cells, only the N-terminal activator can independently support a transient increase in expression; the presence of the C-terminal domain simply increases the overall level of expression without altering the magnitude of the induction.

The pattern of HSP82 regulation is consistent with this understanding of HSF structure and function. The activating URS1 point variants mediate sustained HSF-dependent vegetative activation that is distinct from heat shock, suggesting that the URS1-bound complex may directly or indirectly unmask the HSF C-terminal domain. However, this model remains speculative pending experiments using engineered forms of HSF. An HSE found in CUP1 mediates a sustained induction upon glucose starvation that is dependent on SNF1 and SNF4, known regulators of glucose starvation-induced genes (73). In CUP1, the carboxyl domain of HSF is critical to the sustained starvation response and also supports transient SNFindependent heat shock induction (73). The regulated use by two pathways of the HSF carboxyl domain in CUP1 hints that this domain may contact other regulatory components, but DNA-binding sites for such factors have not been identified. Secondary regulatory elements in SSA1, SSA3, and HSP26 that may depend at least in part on an HSE for their function have been identified or can be inferred, but little is known about their mode of action (5, 53, 71, 81).

Mechanism of IME2-mediated induction. It is a paradox that IME1-IME2 expression plus starvation is able to induce HSP82 transcription in the absence of any cis-acting element specific to early meiotic genes. Although URS1 supports about a third of increased meiotic transcription, it appears as if IME2 transmits a starvation signal that independently stimulates other components of the HSP82 transcriptional machinery. These experiments do not distinguish whether starvation increases the transcription or translation of IME2 or, alternatively, activates or recruits existing Ime2p. Evidence presented here suggests that a factor binding the HSE could be directly activated by IME2. Phosphorylation of yeast HSF in vivo is important for the downregulation of transcription following heat shock (23). It remains to be tested whether in response to starvation IME2 can directly or indirectly modify HSF.

It also remains possible that *IME2* can efficiently activate only a complex composed of HSF and URS1 factors; namely, components of the URS1 complex also may be able to function in *trans* when an URS1 binding site is absent. Precedent for this type of scenario is found in the TATA-binding protein's ability to function with promoters that lack a cognate binding site (68). In such a model, the function of URS1 would be to tether general transcriptional machinery adjacent to regulatory factors that impart specificity and adjacent to UAS-bound activators that drive transcription. By maintaining contact with the activation domains of UAS activators, an URS1-bound complex could also effectively screen these enhancer proteins from inappropriate interactions with other general or specific transcriptional components. In the case of most early meiotic genes, which are toggled from an off state to an on state, a cis-binding URS1 complex may well provide the only meiotically regulated means to mask and unmask the activation domains of activator proteins that otherwise support significant vegetative expression. This model is consistent with the vegetative transcription seen for early meiotic genes in an ume6 background (67), in which the URS1 complex can no longer function as a repressor. It is perhaps noteworthy that UME6 and SRB10 (UME5), a CDC28-like kinase component of the RNA polymerase II holoenzyme (38), were each isolated in screens for the relief of vegetative repression of SPO13 (66, 67). Both gene products have roles in repression and activation (this study; 31, 76). This parallel suggests that URS1 could tether or otherwise interact with the polymerase II holoenzvme.

Although there is no direct evidence that *IME2* and the rat mak1 kinase genes are functional homologs, one (*HSP84*) of the two members of the murine *HSP90* genes is specifically expressed in male meiotic germ cells (36), suggesting that the relationship of these meiotic regulatory kinases to these target promoters may indeed be phylogenetically conserved. Meiotic induction of rodent *HSP84* may furthermore involve HSF because HSF2 accumulates in sperm cells and is able to constitutively bind to HSEs of testis-specific *HSP70* genes (57). A developmental role for HSF has also been proposed for *Drosophila melanogaster* (78).

The observation made here that a nonspecific starvation signal plus cell cycle progression may be required for *IME2*-mediated regulation suggests that the expression and/or activity of this kinase depends on general cellular parameters that coexist only after an initial decision has been made to enter the meiotic cell cycle. The ability of the  $T_4C$  element to be independently repressed by glucose provides a transcriptional mechanism that enables *IME2* to directly respond to the nutrient environment after URS1-mediated repression has been relieved. Under appropriate conditions, the *IME1*-dependent  $T_4C$ -URS1-mediated induction of *IME2* may thus be reversed, and cells may be directed to return to mitotic growth.

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