SUM1-1, a Dominant Suppressor of SIR Mutations in Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Increases Transcriptional Silencing at Telomeres and HM Mating-Type Loci and Decreases Chromosome Stability

MING-HUI CHI AND DAVID SHORE*

Department of Microbiology, College of Physicians and Surgeons of Columbia University, New York, New York 10032

Received 7 November 1995/Returned for modification 11 December 1995/Accepted 13 May 1996

Transcriptional silencing in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae occurs at HML and HMR mating-type loci and telomeres and requires the products of the silent information regulator (SIR) genes. Recent evidence suggests that the silencer- and telomere-binding protein Rap1p initiates silencing by recruiting a complex of Sir proteins to the chromosome, where they act in some way to modify chromatin structure or accessibility. A single allele of the SUM1 gene (SUM1-1) which restores silencing at HM loci in strains mutant for any of the four SIR genes was identified a number of years ago. However, conflicting genetic results and the lack of other alleles of SUM1 made it difficult to surmise the wild-type function of SUM1 or the manner in which the SUM1-1 mutation restores silencing in sir mutant strains. Here we report the cloning and characterization of the SUM1 gene and the SUM1-1 mutant allele. Our results indicate that SUM1-1 is an unusual altered-function mutation that can bypass the need for SIR function in HM silencing and increase repression at telomeres. A sum1 deletion mutation has only minor effects on silencing in SIR strains and does not restore silencing in sir mutants. In addition to its effect on transcriptional silencing, the SUM1-1 mutation (but not a sum1 deletion) increases the rate of chromosome loss and cell death. We suggest several speculative models for the action of SUM1-1 in silencing based on these and other data.

Cytological studies have long suggested that eukaryotic genomes are organized into two distinct types of functional domains that can influence states of gene expression (reviewed in reference 40). In general, lightly staining euchromatic regions contain transcriptionally active or potentially active genes and are replicated early during S phase. In contrast, heterochromatic regions, where chromatin appears more condensed, are typically transcriptionally inactive and late replicating. The repressive effect of heterochromatin has been known and studied genetically for many years: transposition of euchromatic genes to regions next to heterochromatin can result in variable but heritable repression of the euchromatic gene, a phenomenon known as position-effect variegation (reviewed in reference 25). Position-effect variegation not only provides a means to study the nature of heterochromatin but may also reveal ways in which stable transcriptional states are normally established in euchromatic genes (28, 49).

A well-characterized example of position effect, in which the expression of a gene depends on its location in the chromosome, occurs in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* at the silent mating-type loci *HMR* and *HML* (reviewed in reference 38). Mating type in this yeast is determined by the information present at the *MAT* locus, near the centromere of chromosome III. The *MATa* and *MAT* α alleles encode transcription factors that control the expression of cell-type specific genes, thereby imparting the **a** and α mating phenotypes of haploid cells and the nonmating, sporulation-proficient phenotype of a/α diploids. Yeast cells typically have additional copies of **a** and α information stored at loci called *HMR* and *HML*, respectively. These loci, found near the right and left telomeres of chromo-

some III, are transcriptionally repressed but can be transposed to the active *MAT* locus by a gene conversion event called mating-type switching. Mating-type genes at the *HM* loci (*HML* and *HMR*) contain all of the promoter sequences required for their expression and in fact can become active when any of four *SIR* (silent information regulator) genes are mutated (54).

Repression of the HM loci requires a number of trans-acting factors (including the four SIR genes) and cis-acting sequences that flank these regions, called silencers (1, 6, 17). The HMR-E silencer is found to the left of the HMR locus and is both necessary and sufficient for repression (6). HMR-E consists of three partially redundant regulatory sites (A, E, and B), which are binding sites for the origin recognition complex (4), Rap1p (9, 62, 63), and Abf1p (15). Genetic studies have demonstrated a direct role for both the origin recognition complex and Rap1p in silencing at HMR (3, 18, 34, 46, 68). Position-effect repression of genes at HM loci probably results from a modification of chromatin structure, since it requires the highly conserved N-terminal tails of histones H3 and H4 (29, 45, 51, 71). Repression by the HMR silencers is not specific to matingtype genes and can also affect RNA polymerase III transcription (7, 43, 61).

Telomeres in yeast cells are also subject to a position effect similar in many respects to that observed at HM loci. Genes placed near a telomere can be transcriptionally repressed (21) by a mechanism that requires RAPI, three of the four SIR genes (SIR2, SIR3, and SIR4) and the N-terminal tails of histones H3 and H4 (2, 36, 47, 71). The SIR1 gene, which is required for stable silencing at HM loci, appears to play no role in the transcriptional repression of telomere-linked genes (2). Perhaps for this reason, transcriptional silencing at telomeres is normally unstable, resembling position-effect variegation in multicellular eukaryotes such as $Drosophila\ melanogaster$.

The role of SIR genes in silencing has been investigated by

^{*} Corresponding author. Present address: Département de Biologie Moléculaire, Université de Genève, Sciences II, 30, quai Ernest Ansermet, CH-1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland. Phone: (41) (22) 702 6182. Fax: (41) (22) 702 6868. Electronic mail address: shore@sc2a.unige.ch.

the isolation and characterization of extragenic suppressors of *sir* mutations (31, 60). One such suppressor gene is *SUM1*, a single allele of which (*SUM1-1*) was isolated as a suppressor of *mar1-1* (*MAR1* is allelic to *SIR2* [31]). *SUM1-1* restores mating to *sir2* strains by restoring transcriptional repression at *HML* and *HMR* (41). *SUM1-1* is unique among suppressors of *SIR* mutations because it is able to suppress mutations in all of the *SIR* genes (37) and thus appears to bypass the requirement for *SIR* gene function in silencing. Significantly, though, *SUM1-1* still requires some *cis* and *trans* elements normally involved in silencing, since it will not bring about repression in strains carrying a deletion of the histone H4 N terminus or a deletion of the *HMR-E* silencer (37).

Initial studies indicated that the SUM1-1 allele is recessive (31). However, subsequent work using a different strain background showed that the SUM1-1 allele can be dominant to wild-type SUM1 (37). These two contrary results have led to different interpretations of the nature of the mutant phenotype and the function of the wild-type protein. Where the mutation was found to be recessive, it was proposed that SUM1-1 is a loss-of-function allele in a gene encoding an activator required for transcription at HM loci but not at MAT. In this model, the SIR genes were proposed to encode negative regulators of SUM1. One problem with this model is that it fails to explain why the HM loci should require a special activator (SUM1) not needed for transcription from the MAT locus. Furthermore, though loss-of-function mutations might be expected to arise frequently, SUM1-1 was the only allele isolated from a heavily mutagenized culture (31). On the other hand, where SUM1-1 appeared to be dominant to wild type, it was proposed to be a gain-of-function or altered-function mutation (37). In this case, it was imagined that SUM1 might encode a component of the repressed chromatin structure at the HM loci or an assembly factor involved in its formation. The SUM1-1 mutation might then alter or increase the protein's function such that SIR gene products would no longer be required to assemble repressed chromatin at HM loci.

We report here the cloning and characterization of the SUM1-1 and SUM1 alleles. Our results show that SUM1 is involved in both HM locus silencing and telomeric position effect. However, we rule out the model that SUM1 is an activator required for expression of HM loci, since a sum1 null mutation allows full expression from the silent mating-type loci in combination with sir mutations. Instead, our results are consistent with the proposition that the SUM1-1 allele is a partially dominant altered-function mutation that bypasses the need for SIR function at HM loci and increases repression at telomeres in SIR wild-type strains. Interestingly, the SUM1-1 mutation, but not a sum1 deletion, increases the rate of cell death and chromosome loss. As expected for a protein directly involved in transcriptional silencing, the SUM1 gene product is localized to the nucleus. Our results suggest possible molecular models for the function of SUM1 and SUM1-1 in both HM repression and telomeric silencing.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Construction of genomic libraries from SUM1-1 strains. Total genomic DNA from yeast strains JRY2465 and JRY2466 was partially digested with Sau3AI. DNA was separated on agarose gels, and fragments within the range of 10 to 16 kb were recovered by electroelution. YCp50 (a UR43 CENIV vector [56]) was cleaved with BamHI, which is within the tetracycline resistance gene, and dephosphorylated with calf intestinal phosphatase. This vector DNA was then mixed at a roughly 2:1 ratio (by weight) with the size-fractionated genomic DNA, and the mixture was ligated at a total DNA concentration of either 12 or 25 ng/ μ l. Ligation mixtures were used to transform Escherichia coli DH5 α (22) by electroporation. Transformants were collected by scraping cells from the surface of the plates, using LB broth, and pooled. Four libraries were generated, each containing more than 20,000 independent transformants. More than 97% of the

plasmids contain inserted yeast DNA, as judged by tetracycline sensitivity of DH5 α transformants.

Yeast strains, media, and genetic methods. The genotypes of the yeast strains described in this paper are listed in Table 1. All yeast genetic manipulations were performed as described previously (57). Yeast transformations were performed by the lithium acetate method (26). Mating-type tests of patches of cells were performed as described previously (54), using the tester strains YDS31 (MATa) and YDS32 (MATa), unless otherwise indicated. Quantitative mating assays were performed as described previously (66). Mating efficiency was calculated as the number of diploid cells (prototrophs) formed divided by the number of viable cells added to the tester strain. The reported efficiencies represent the mean of three independent assays per strain.

Yeast spot assays for tryptophan or uracil prototrophy or 5-fluoro-orotic acid (FOA) resistance (5) were done as follows. Overnight cell cultures were five times serially diluted by a factor of 10. Each dilution (5 μ l) was transferred to either control or test plates, and the cells were allowed to grow at 30°C for 2 days before the plates were photographed. Colony-forming ability was assayed by micromanipulating individual cells from overnight liquid cultures onto YEPD agar plates, which were then incubated for 5 days at 30°C.

Plasmids. Marking of the wild-type SUM1 allele for linkage analysis was done with plasmid DM268, in which a 1.2-kb PvuII-SpeI fragment from the SUM1-1 allele was cloned into pRS405, a LEU2-containing integrating plasmid (64). The plasmid was linearized by cleavage within the insert (SmaI) and used for yeast transformation. Note that through this integration process, the C terminus of the predicted SUM1 open reading frame (ORF) was truncated at codon 906. The sum1::URA3 mutation was constructed by inserting a HindIII fragment containing the URA3 gene into the SpeI sites of an AvrII fragment containing the complete SUM1 gene. This results in the removal of the entire predicted SUM1 coding region. The sum1::URA3 allele was subcloned into pBluescript II, creating plasmid DM264, and was released by digestion with both HindIII and XbaI before yeast transformation. sum1::LEU2 (DM286) contains the NsiI-BglII fragment of the SUM1 gene in pRS405, an integrating vector. The plasmid was used for yeast transformation after cleavage within the SUM1 insert at a unique NruI site. The integration creates a disruption by the LEU2-containing vector with a partial duplication (NsiI-BglII fragment) of the SUM1 coding sequence. (The resulting two SUM1 gene fragments consist of [i] the start codon to codon 581 and [ii] codon 340 to the end of the gene.)

The SUM1 gene was tagged with an epitope from the influenza virus hemagglutinin (HA) protein for immunofluorescence studies. A 4.9-kb AvrII fragment containing the wild-type SUM1 gene was cloned into the multicopy vector pRS425 (13), creating plasmid DM383, and a NotI site was generated just 5' to the termination codon of SUM1 by PCR mutagenesis. The NotI fragment from plasmid GTEP, encoding an HA triple-epitope tag (72), was inserted to create DM651. The HA-tagged SUM1 allele was tested for complementation in MC33, as well as expression of the tagged protein on immunoblots, before being examined by immunofluorescence microscopy.

Construction of isogenic SUM1-1 strains. To replace the SUM1 gene with the mutant SUM1-1 allele, we first replaced the wild-type gene with the sum1::URA3 deletion/insertion by one-step gene disruption (58). Subsequently, an AvrII fragment containing the SUM1-1 allele was cotransformed with the 2µm-LEU2 plasmid pRS425 (13) into the sum1::URA3 strains. Leu* transformants were replica plated to FOA plates to select for those cells in which the SUM1-1 allele had replaced the sum1::URA3 mutation. The putative SUM1-1 strains were further characterized by Southern blotting analysis with multiple restriction digests to confirm that the SUM1-1 fragment had replaced the normal SUM1 locus. Strains MC54, MC57, MC105, and MC113 were constructed accordingly. Other SUM1-1 strains were derived from crosses with these four parental SUM1-1 strains. The SUM1-1 genotype of segregants derived from a SUM1-1 heterozygous diploid was scored by the following criteria: slow growth, loss of a BgIII restriction site present in the wild-type allele, and the ability to suppress mating defects of MATa sir2 strains.

Chromosome stability assays. The rates of mitotic chromosome loss at chromosomes III and V were assayed in diploid strains (MC105 imes MC113 and GA224 × MCY2675), using fluctuation analysis, as described previously (52). Briefly, individual colonies of independent diploids were grown at 30°C on YPD medium to an average colony size of about 10⁷ cells. Colonies were removed, resuspended in water, and plated on YPD plates for viable cells per colony. A portion of the cell suspension ($\sim 5 \times 10^5$ cells) was mated with approximately 10^7 cells of either mating-type tester strain in YPD broth for 4 h and then plated onto minimal medium. The mating-proficient cells included both a- and α-mating cells. The same amount of cell suspension was also plated on synthetic complete medium with canavanine in place of arginine and later replica plated to complete medium lacking threonine. Seven colonies of each strain were assayed, and median chromosome loss frequencies for both chromosome III and chromosome V (number of maters and number of Can^r Thr⁻ cells in the total cell population) were determined. The chromosome loss rates (number of events per cell per generation) were calculated according to the following formula: rate $= (0.4343 \times$ median frequency)/ $\log N - \log N_0$, where N is the number of cells present in the colony and N_0 (the number of initial cells) = 1 (16). For each genotype, three independent diploids were assayed by fluctuation analysis, and the average loss rate is reported.

TABLE 1. Strains used

Strain	Genotype	Source
JRY2515	MATα ade2 his3 leu2 sir2::HIS3 ura3	J. Rine
JRY2465	MAT α ade2-101 his3 Δ 200 leu2 lys1-1 lys2-801 sir2::HIS3 SUM1-1 ura3-52	J. Rine
JRY2466	MATα ade2-101 his3 Δ200 leu2 lys1-1 lys2-801 sir2::HIS3 SUM1-1 ura3-52	J. Rine
JRY3138	MATa ade2-101 his3 \(\Delta 200 \) leu2 lys1-1 lys2-801 sir2::HIS3 SUM1-1 ura3-52	J. Rine
W303-1A	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11,15 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL ⁺	R. Rothstein
W303-1B	Same as W303-1A except $MAT\alpha$	R. Rothstein
W303	$W303-1A \times W303-1B$	R. Rothstein
W1089-1	W303-1A $LEU2^+$	R. Rothstein
MC25	JRY2515 sum1\Delta::LEU2	
MC27	W303-1A <i>sum1::URA3</i>	
MC28	W303-1B <i>sum1</i> :: <i>URA3</i>	
JRY3935	W303-1B $hmr:ss\Delta I$	J. Rine
MC31	JRY3935 sum1::URA3	
YLS586	W303-1B $hmr\Delta B$:: $ADE2$	
MC33	YLS586 sum1::URA3	
YLS404	W303-1B hmrΔA::ADE2	
MC35	YLS404 sum1::URA3	
MC47		
	W303-1A sir2::HIS3 sum1::URA3	
MC49	W303-1B sir2::HIS3 sum1::URA3	
MC54	W303-1A sir2::HIS3 SUM1-1	
MC57	W303-1B sir2::HIS3 SUM1-1	
YDS712	W303-1A <i>sir2::HIS3</i>	
YDS714	W303-1B sir2::HIS3	
AJL275-2a	W303-1B URA3/ADE2-TelVIIL	A. Lustig
MC51	W303-1A URA3/ADE2-TelVIIL SUM1-1	
MC52	W303-1B URA3/ADE2-TelVIIL SUM1-1	
MC53	W303-1A URA3/ADE2-TelVIIL SUM1-1	
MC60	W303-1B URA3/ADE2-TelVIIL sir2::HIS3 SUM1	
MC61	W303-1B URA3/ADE2-TelVIIL sir2::HIS3 SUM1-1	
YDS631	W303-1B URA3-TelVIIL	
MC64	YDS631 sum1::LEU2	
YDV66	W303-1A URA3-TelVIIL hmrΔA::TRP1	
MC66	YDV66 sum1::LEU2	
YDV67	W303-1B $URA3$ - $TelVIIL\ hmr\Delta A$:: $TRP1$	
MC68	YDV67 sum1::LEU2	
MC80	W303 (haploid, MAT allele not determined) sir2::HIS3 SUM1-1 URA3-TelVIIL	
MC88	W303-1A SUM1-1	
MC89	W303-1A 30M1-1 W303-1B SUM1-1	
MC90	W303-1A <i>URA3 SUM1-1</i>	
MC91	W303-1B <i>URA3 SUM1-1</i>	
MC92	W303-1A HIS3 SUM1-1	
MC93	W303-1B <i>HIS3 SUM1-1</i>	
YLS506	W303-1B $hmr\Delta A$::TRP1 $rap1$ -12::URA3	
MC96	W303-1B $SUM1$ -1 $hmr\Delta A$:: $TRP1$ $sir2$:: $HIS3$ $rap1$ -12:: $URA3$	
MC97	W303-1B $SUM1$ -1 $hmr\Delta A$:: $TRP1$ $sir2$:: $HIS3$	
MC98	W303-1B $SUM1-1 hmr\Delta A::TRP1 rap1-12::URA3$	
MC99	W303-1B $SUM1-1 hmr\Delta A::TRP1 rap1-12::URA3$	
MC100	W303-1B $SUM1-1 hmr\Delta A::TRP1 rap1-12::URA3$	
GA224	MATα can1-100 hom3 his3 leu2-3,112 trp1 ura3	S. Gasser
MC105	GA224 <i>SUM1-1</i>	
MC120	GA224 sum1::URA3	
MCY2675	MAT a his3 Δ200 leu2-3,112 ura3-52	M. Carlson
MC113	MCY2675 SUM1-1	
MC122	MYC2675 sum1::URA3	
YDS31	MATa his1	K. Nasmyth
YDS32	MATa his1	K. Nasmyth
MC124	W303-1B sir3::HIS4	is. Hasinyth
MC125		
	W303-1B sir4::HIS3	
MC130	W303-1A sum1::LEU2 rap1-17 ADE2-TelVIIL	
MC131	W303-1B SUM1-1 rap1-12::HIS3 hmr Δ 4::TRP1 URA3/ADE2-TelVIIL	
AJL440-1c	W303-1A HIS3 rap1-17 ura3/ADE2-TelVIIL	A. Lustig
MC132	W303-1A SUM1-1 rap1-17 ADE2-TelVIIL	
MC133	W303-1A SUM1-1 rap1-17 ADE2-TelVIIL hmr Δ A::TRP1	

Indirect immunofluorescence of yeast spheroplasts. Indirect immunofluorescence was performed as described previously (39), with the following modifications. Cells with either the HA-tagged or wild-type SUM1 gene on a $2\mu m$ plasmid (DM383 or DM651) were grown overnight to high density in selective medium.

The culture were first fixed for 20 min under growth conditions by adding 1/4 culture volume of 0.5 M KP $_{\rm i}$ (pH 6.5) and 18.5% formaldehyde. The fixed cells were converted to spheroplasts by treatment with Zymolyase (0.125 mg of Zymolyase per ml in wash solution) for 2.5 to 4 h at 30°C. The final pellet was

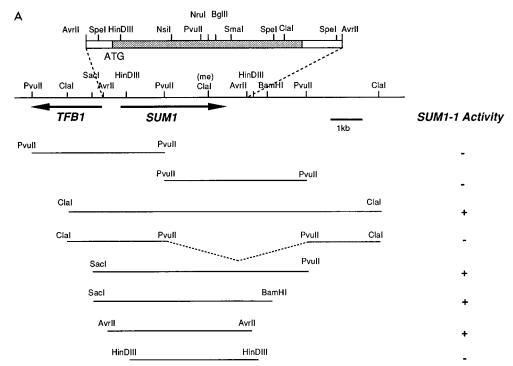


FIG. 1. (A) Restriction map of the SUM1 locus and the eight subclones used to localize the SUM1-1 allele. (B) Nucleotide sequence of the SUM1 gene. The predicted amino acid sequence of Sum1p is shown in the one-letter code below the nucleotide sequence.

washed with and resuspended in 2 volumes of NS $^+$ azide (NS [20 mM Tris-HCl {pH 7.6}, 0.25 M sucrose, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM MgCl $_2$, 0.1 mM CaCl $_2$, 0.1 mM ZnCl $_2$], 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 7.2 mM β -mercaptoethanol, 0.02% sodium azide). The slides were incubated in mouse monoclonal anti-HA anti-body 12CA5 (6.2 mg/ml; Berkeley Antibody Company, Berkeley, Calif.) diluted 1:500 in PBT for 2 h at room temperature. The slides were washed 10 times with PBT and then incubated with rhodamine-conjugated goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin G (Boehringer Mannheim) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Slides were viewed with a 100×, 1.32-numerical aperture oil immersion objective on a Leitz Dialux fluorescence microscope (Leitz, Rockleigh, N.J.) equipped with a 3.1× projection lens (Diagnostics Instruments, Sterling Heights, Mich.) and a Star-1 cooled charge-coupled device camera (Photometrics, Tucson, Ariz.). Images were processed by the NIH Image program (version 1.55) on a Macintosh Quadra 800 (Apple Computer Inc., Cupertino, Calif.).

Nucleotide sequence accession number. The nucleotide sequence reported in this paper is entered in GenBank with accession number U34832.

RESULTS

Cloning of the SUM1-1 allele. SUM1-1 behaves as a dominant mutation in the strain background described in a previous report (37). We decided to use this property as a basis for cloning the SUM1-1 gene, reasoning that the introduction of this mutant allele into a MATα SUM1 sir2 strain would restore mating by suppressing the sir2 mutation. To obtain the DNA encoding SUM1-1, we constructed recombinant plasmid libraries that contained genomic DNA from SUM1-1 mutant strains. Genomic libraries, with inserts ranging from 10 to 16 kbp, were made by using DNA from yeast strains JRY2465 and JRY2466 in the centromeric vector YCp50 (see Materials and Methods). Four libraries were generated, each containing more than 20,000 independent recombinants.

Recombinant plasmid DNA prepared from each library was used to transform yeast strain JRY2515 (MATα SUM1 sir2:: HIS3 ura3 leu2) to uracil prototrophy. Transformants were then mated with strain W1089-1A (MATa SUM1 SIR2 ura3 LEU2) by replica plating directly from transformation plates onto YEPD plates containing a lawn of the tester strain. Mat-

ing-competent transformants, which potentially contained a plasmid with the *SUM1-1* allele, were identified by making a second replica from the mating plate onto plates lacking both uracil and leucine. Approximately 25,000 transformants were screened for each library, and 12 that acquired the ability to mate with the tester strain were identified. Plasmids were rescued from these cells and used to retransform strain JRY2515, in order to retest their ability to confer mating competence. Two independent clones tested positive in this rescreening and were found to contain overlapping inserts. Analysis of subclones from a region in common between these two clones revealed that a 4.9-kb *Avr*II fragment could confer mating competence in the *sir2* strain JRY2515 (Fig. 1A). Northern (RNA) blot analysis had previously shown that this fragment encodes an RNA of approximately 3.7 kb (19, 27).

To determine whether the cloned DNA is derived from the SUM1 locus, we performed a linkage analysis. A PvuII-SpeI fragment of the cloned DNA was inserted into pRS405, a LEU2-containing integrating plasmid, and integrated into the chromosome of a sir2 SUM1 strain (JRY2515) by cleavage within the insert at a SmaI site (see Materials and Methods for further details). Integration of the cloned DNA at its homologous chromosomal locus was confirmed by Southern blotting analysis (data not shown). The resulting strain, MC25, still mated very poorly, indicating that the PvuII-SpeI fragment was not sufficient to confer the SUM1-1 phenotype. (This result was expected since the fragment contains only the C-terminal part of the ORF contained on the minimal active fragment.) MC25 was made mating proficient by introduction of a SIR2-containing plasmid and was then crossed to strain JRY3138 (MATa sir2::HIS3 SUM1-1 leu2). After loss of the SIR2 plasmid, the resulting diploid was induced to undergo meiosis. The haploid segregants from this cross should all contain the sir2::HIS3 mutation. Because SUM1-1 suppresses mating defects in $MAT\alpha$ sir2 strains better than in MATa sir2 strains (37), the segregants

ACTAGTGGCTTTAATTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTCATC -241

В

-240 TATCCTTTAATACCATTTGTGTTTGAAATAAACTGCTAAAAGAATTATACACAGGCATATTTTATCAAAAGTGTCAGCAAACAGAGCACAAGGGACTTGTTTAAAGTAGCTAAGTATCA -121 1 ATG AAC AGA GAC TTC CGT CTT GGA CCC AAA GAT GAC GTA GAT AGT TTA CGA CTT ACC AGT GCT CAA AAT CAA GCT AAT AGT TTG AGG AAG
1 M N R D F R L G P K D D V D T L R L T S A O N Q A N S L R K 181 GGT TTT GGT TCA AAT CCG CTT CAT ATA AAA GAT TCC GAG GCC TTT CCA CAT TCA TCT ATT GAA GCC CTA AAA GAG GGT ATG GAC AAA GTC 270 90 451 AAT GAA CGA TTG AAC AAA TTA TCG ACA ATG TTG CAA AAT ACT TCG AAA GTA AAT CAC TCT AAC CTT CTC ATA GAA AAT TCA TCC AAC AAT 151 N E R L N K L S T M L Q N T S K V N H S N L L I E N S S N N 540 180 631 TCA AAC GCA GCC TCG GTC AAT CTC AAA AGT GCA TCC AAT CAG GGT GCT CCT TTC TCA CCA GTA AAT ATT ACT TTA CCG ACT 211 S N A A S V N L K S A S N Q G A P F S P V N I T L P T 721 CAA ACG TCT AAA TCC AAA AGG TAT TTT GTG GAA CCA TCA ACG AAA CAA GAG TCG CTT TTA TTA TCT GCC CCT TCA TCA TCA AGA GAT GAT 241 Q T S K S K R Y F V E P S T K Q E S L L L S A P S S S R D D 900 300 1080 360 1531 ACG TCA GAG ATG AAT AGA CAA CAA AGA GAA TTA GAT AAA AGA CGT GAT TCA AGG GAG AAA ATG CTT GTT AAT ATG AAA TAT 511 T S E M N R Q Q R E L D K R R D S R E K M L V N M K Y 1621 GAT AAA GCA AAG TCA TTT ATG GAG TCT AAT AAG AAA CTC TTA AAA GCA ATG AAA GAA GAA GAA GAA GAA AGG AAG ATG ACT 541 D K A K S F M E S N K K L L K A M K E E E R R K R M T 1710 570 1800 600 AGC GAC TCT CTC AAG ATG GGT CTA ACC ATA
S D S L K M G L T I 1980 660 2070 690 TCA CAA CCT TCG GAC ACG ATA AGG AAA AGA ACA GCA GGC GAT GAC GGT GCA TTG GAT S Q P S D T I R K R T A G D D G A L D 2161 ACG AGC ATA TCA CCA AAG AAG AGA CGC ACA GAA GAT CAT ACA AAA GGT GAA GAA GAT GAG GGA GAA
721 T S I S P K K R R T E D H T K G E E D E G E 2250 750 2520 840 2611 GAA GAG ACG GAA CTT GCC 871 E E T E L A TTT GAA ATT TTG AGC AAG ACA ACG CTG ACA GAG AAA TAC GTT AAC AGT TTG GAG TAC F B I L S K T T L T E K Y V N S L E Y 2700 900 2701 AGG TGG GAG AAT AAA CTA GTT GGT CTA GGC TTA AAA CTT CGG GAA TCC AAA AGA ACC TGG CAA AGG AGA AAG GCG TTA TTT GCC CTT TTC 901 R W E N K L V G L G L K L R E S K R T W Q R R K A L F A L F 2880 960 TAC AAC CAT ATT ACC CTG CTA AAA ATG ATC CTC TAC GAC Y N H I T L L K M I L Y D 2971 TGG AGA GAG TGG ATG TTT CCC CAT AAC GAA ACA CTG CCG GCA TTG GGT CAG GAC GGC ATT AAC GAA GAC AAT CTG AAT GAA 991 W R E W M F P H N E T L P A L G Q D G I N E D N L N E 3060 1020 3061 AAC ATG TTA ATT TTT GAC TTC CTT GAT GAC GGT TCA GAA AAC AAC CAG GTC AAA TAT TCC AGA ATC ATA CCG CCA GAT ATC CGT TAA GCT 1021 N M L I F D F L D D G S E N N Q V K Y S R I I P P D I R * 3339

should display detectable mating in patch mating assays only when they are $MAT\alpha$ SUM1-1. We observed that all of the mating-proficient spore colonies from 24 tetrads dissected were phenotypically α mating and Leu⁻. This result indicates that the cloned DNA is closely linked to the SUM1 locus.

Cloning and DNA sequencing of the wild-type SUM1 gene. Several approaches were taken to clone the wild-type copy of the SUM1 gene. The cloned SUM1-1 allele was used to probe a yeast chromosome blot and nitrocellulose filters containing an ordered set of DNA clones representing most of the yeast genome (obtained from L. Riles and M. Olsen, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.). A clone 6898 hybridized to the probe, placing SUM1 on chromosome IV-R between GCN2 and PEP7 (53). To obtain a full-length clone of the SUM1 gene, two yeast genomic libraries in plasmid vectors (kindly provided by M. Rose and M. Carlson) (11, 56) were then screened by colony hybridization (59). The SUM1 sequence (Fig. 1B) is derived from phage λ clone 6898 and genomic clones from each of the two plasmid libraries. The putative SUM1 gene encodes an ORF of 1,048 codons which predicts a polypeptide of approximately 115 kDa. Analysis of the Gen-Bank (release 88.0) and PIR (release 44.0) databases revealed no significant homologies to known protein sequences. Furthermore, no similarities to known sequence motifs were found (GCG sequence analysis software package; Genetics Computer Group, Inc., Madison, Wis.).

SUM1 is essential neither for normal growth nor for transcriptional silencing. To determine whether the product of the SUM1 gene is important for cell growth or for silencing, a disruption of the SUM1 gene was constructed in vitro and integrated into the chromosome by the one-step gene replacement method (58). The sum1::URA3 allele (DM264; see Materials and Methods) was introduced into a homozygous diploid strain (W303), and a Ura⁺ transformant heterozygous for the *sum1* gene disruption was identified by Southern blotting analysis. This SUM1/sum1::URA3 diploid was then sporulated, and the phenotypes of the haploid segregants were analyzed. In all 13 complete tetrads examined, the Ura⁺ phenotype segregated 2:2. There was no obvious growth difference observed between the Ura+ and Ura- spore colonies on rich medium. Because the *sum1::URA3* mutation removes all of the predicted SUM1 ORF and is therefore presumably a null allele, these data indicate that SUM1 is not an essential gene, nor is it necessary for normal growth on rich medium. Furthermore, mating defects were not observed in the Ura⁺ segregants. Thus, a sum1 null mutation does not seem to affect gene repression at the silent mating-type loci in a wild-type SIR background.

To determine whether telomeric repression is affected by the *SUM1* disruption, a *sum1::LEU2* mutation was constructed (see Materials and Methods) and introduced into strains that contained a *URA3* reporter gene immediately adjacent to a telomere created at the *ADH4* locus of chromosome VII-L (21) (strains YDS631, YDV66, and YDV67 [Table 1]). The level of telomeric repression in the *sum1::LEU2* mutant strains (MC64, MC66, and MC68) was monitored by growth on complete medium, complete medium minus uracil, and FOA medium, which kills cells that are expressing the *URA3* gene product (5). In all strains tested, expression of the telomeric *URA3* reporter was unaffected by the *sum1::LEU2* mutation (data not shown).

We also introduced the *sum1*::*URA3* disruption into strains containing the *sir2*::*HIS3* mutation, whereby the *SUM1-1* mutant allele is able to restore mating. The resulting strains (MC47 and MC49) were still defective in mating (data not shown), indicating that a *sum1* null mutation cannot suppress

the mating defects of a *sir2* mutation in the W303 background. This result strongly suggests that *SUM1-1* is not a loss-of-function mutation (see below).

sum1 mutation can slightly weaken repression at HMR loci with a mutated silencer. It is possible that the lack of a silencing phenotype for the sum1::URA3 disruption is due to the complexity of the HMR-E silencer element. As stated in the introduction, the three HMR-E silencer regulatory elements (A, E, and B) are partially redundant: any two of these three binding sites are sufficient for silencing, though the Rap1p binding site (E) is required for full repression (7, 30). To test for possible synthetic effects of the sum1::URA3 disruption allele, we began with strains YLS404 and YLS586, which contain the ADE2 reporter gene placed adjacent to an HMR-E silencer with mutation in the A and B silencer elements, respectively ($hmr\Delta A$ or $hmr\Delta B$ silencer) (69). The ADE2 gene provides a colony color marker for the transcriptional state at HMR: phenotypically Ade2⁻ cells accumulate a pigment and yield red colonies, whereas Ade2⁺ cells are white (55). In these strains, the ADE2 reporter gene is normally slightly derepressed and yields primarily red colonies with few white sectors. Introduction of the sum1::URA3 allele into these strains (to produce strains MC33 and MC35) caused an increase in the number of white sectors in the colonies, indicating a further decrease in repression (Fig. 2).

Other tests of sum1 mutations, however, did not reveal effects on the activity of weakened silencers (data not shown). For example, introduction of the sum1::URA3 mutation into a strain containing a synthetic silencer in place of HMR-E and a deletion of the HMR-I silencer (JRY3935 [44]) did not result in a measurable loss of mating efficiency (strain MC31). (The synthetic silencer differs from wild-type HMR-E in that all three silencer regulatory elements are required for complete repression.) In addition, we observed no effect of the sum1:: $L\bar{E}U2$ allele on repression of a $hmr\Delta A$::TRP1 reporter gene (comparing strains YDV66 and MC66), as judged by growth in the absence of tryptophan. We conclude from these results that deletion of SUM1 has a subtle effect on the HMR-E silencer that can be seen only when the functional redundancy of the silencer is eliminated and when a sensitive reporter gene (such as ADE2) is present at HMR.

We also considered the possibility that the relatively minor effect of *SUM1* deletion on *HM* silencing is due to functional redundancy of Sum1p itself. To begin to determine whether *SUM1* homologs exist, yeast genomic DNA was cleaved with a variety of restriction enzymes and probed with *SUM1* DNA by hybridization at low stringency on Southern blots. This approach failed to reveal any sequences homologous to *SUM1*.

Characterization of the SUM1-1 mutation and construction of an isogenic set of SUM1-1 strains. We noticed several restriction fragment length polymorphisms between the SUM1-1 mutant and wild-type alleles, as well as multiple point mutations and deletions within the 3' untranslated region. To localize the mutation(s) responsible for conferring the SUM1-1 phenotype (suppression of the mating defect of a $MAT\alpha sir2$ mutant), a series of restriction fragment exchanges between the SUM1-1 allele and the wild-type SUM1 gene was made (Fig. 3A). The recombined alleles were transformed into strain JRY2515 (MATα sir2) and tested for the ability to restore mating. We noted that a C-terminal restriction fragment (SphI to BsiWI, nucleotides 2847 to 3155 [Fig. 3A]), which encodes the terminal 100 amino acids of Sum1p and contains only 8 nucleotides beyond the predicted stop codon, conferred the SUM1-1 phenotype in the context of otherwise wild-type sequences (Fig. 3B). This fragment was subjected to DNA sequencing and found to have a single missense mutation at

hmr(∆B)::ADE2 SUM1

hmr(∆B)::ADE2 sum1::URA3



FIG. 2. A sum1 null mutation weakens repression of hmrΔB::ADE2. Representative colonies of isogenic SUM1 and sum1::URA3 strains are shown.

codon 974 in the predicted *SUM1* ORF that would result in a threonine-to-isoleucine change. This mutation maps to a locally hydrophobic part of the predicted protein and would presumably increase the hydrophobic character of this region. The *SUM1-1* allele that contains the point mutation at the codon 974 in the context of otherwise wild-type sequences (DM449) confers a slightly (approximately 2.5-fold) higher mating efficiency to the *sir2* mutant (JRY2515) than does the original *SUM1-1* allele. Our data indicate, therefore, that this mutation in *SUM1-1* is both necessary and sufficient to restore mating in a *MAT* \(\alpha\) *sir2::HIS3* mutant.

We proceeded to introduce the SUM1-1 allele by gene replacement into W303-derived strains in order to study the phenotype caused by the mutation in an isogenic background (see Materials and Methods for details). In these experiments, a 4.9-kb AvrII fragment containing the entire SUM1-1 coding sequence was used for gene transplacement experiments. As shown in Table 2, the SUM1-1 mutation improved mating by a MATα sir2::HIS3 strain by more than 10,000-fold. In contrast, the mating efficiency of a MATa SUM1-1 sir2::HIS3 strain was improved by 10-fold relative to that of the MATa SUM1 sir2 strain. These data are consistent with results from a previous report (37) which showed that SUM1-1 strongly suppresses the nonmating phenotype of sir2::HIS3 mutations in $MAT\alpha$ strains but restores only weak mating in MATa strains. We confirmed that the SUM1-1 allele acts to restore transcriptional repression at HMR and HML by measuring the steady-state levels of a1 and α 1 mRNAs in these strains by Northern blotting (Fig. 4). Consistent with the large improvement in mating observed, we did not detect a 1 transcripts in the MAT α SUM1-1 sir2:: HIS3 strain (MC57). We also found that αI transcripts were fully repressed in the MATa SUM1-1 sir2::HIS3 strain (MC54), despite the fact that SUM1-1 restored only weak mating in this strain. This severe drop in α1 mRNA may be in part due to residual $a1-\alpha 2$ repression. Finally, we found that the SUM1-1 plasmid also suppressed mating defects in MATa sir3::HIS3 and MATa sir4::HIS3 strains (MC124 and MC125 [data not shown]), as expected (37).

The SUM1-1 allele is dominant to the wild-type gene in the W303 strain background, since the SUM1-1 plasmid could suppress mating defects when transformed to a MATα SUM1 sir2 strain (YDS714 [data not shown]). However, SUM1-1 is not a

hypermorph, since SUM1 on a $2\mu m$ plasmid could not rescue mating defects when it was transformed into a $MAT\alpha$ sir2::HIS3 strain (JRY2515 [data not shown]). Furthermore, we found that additional copies of the wild-type SUM1 gene in a sir2 SUM1-1 cell (either a or α) actually results in a slight (five-fold) decrease in mating efficiency. We also noticed that the SUM1-1 plasmid suppressed the mating defects of sir2::HIS3 mutation at least 100-fold better in a sum1::URA3 strain than in a SUM1 strain. These findings argue against the idea that the SUM1-1 allele is an increased function (hypermorphic) mutation and support the notion that SUM1-1 is an altered-function mutation.

SUM1-1 restores HM silencing in $rap1^s$ and $rap1^t$ mutant strains. Because SUM1-1 has been shown to suppress the silencing defects of multiple silencer site mutations at HMR-E (37), we were interested in determining whether it could also restore repression in strains with a mutated silencer-binding protein. Alleles of RAP1, called rap1s, which are defective in silencing at $hmr\Delta A$ loci but are apparently completely unaffected in essential RAP1 functions have been identified (68). We therefore asked whether SUM1-1 could suppress a rap1-12 mutation, the most severely defective rap1s allele. The rap1-12 mutation results in complete derepression of $hmr\Delta A$::TRP1. A SUM1-1 strain (MC57) was crossed to a strain containing rap1-12 and the $hmr\Delta A$::TRP1 reporter gene (YLS506). The diploid was sporulated, and haploid segregants of relevant genotypes were tested for growth in the presence and absence of tryptophan. We found that SUM1-1 fully restored repression of $hmr\Delta A$::TRP1 in a rap1-12 strain (Fig. 5). By contrast, SUM1-1 appeared only to slightly restore repression of $hmr\Delta A::TRP1$ in a sir2 mutant.

Mutations that result in truncation of the Rap1p C terminus $(rap1^t)$ have been shown to cause complete derepression of telomeres and a more modest silencing defect at HML. We therefore examined the effect of SUM1-1 on the HML locus and on the artificial chromosome VII-L telomere in the strains harboring a severe $rap1^t$ mutation (rap1-17). For this purpose, the strain MC131 $(SUM1-1 \ rap1-12::HIS3 \ hmr\Delta4::TRP1 \ URA3-ADE2-TelVII-L)$ was mated to the strain MC130 $(sum1::LEU2 \ rap1-17 \ ADE2-TelVII-L)$. The diploid was sporulated, and tetrads were analyzed. The $MATa \ rap1-17$ mutant (AJL440-1c) has a mating efficiency of 2.8×10^{-2} relative to that of the

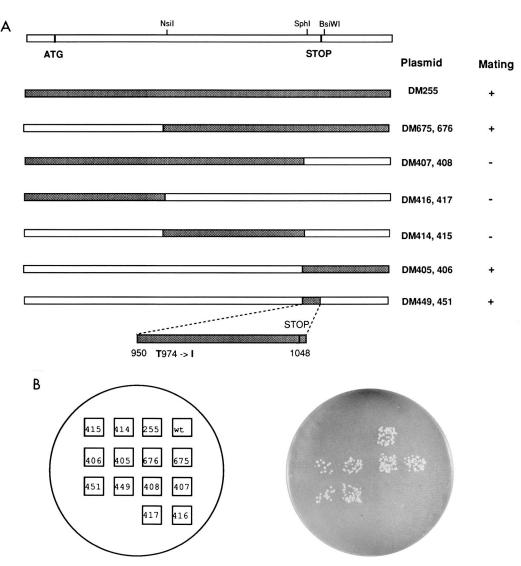


FIG. 3. (A) Schematic representation of SUM1 alleles constructed by exchanging restriction fragments between the SUM1-1 mutant allele and the wild-type SUM1 gene. The stippled boxes represent the sequences derived from the SUM1-1 allele. The plasmid designations and results of patch mating assays (see panel B) are shown to the right. Two independent constructs were tested for each recombinant allele. (B) Patch mating assays for the sir2 strain JRY2515 transformed with plasmids containing either wild-type SUM1, the SUM1-1 mutant allele (DM255), or the recombinant alleles shown in panel A.

wild-type *MATa* (W303-1A) cells. *SUM1-1* restored wild-type levels of *HML* silencing in the *rap1-17* mutant (MC132 or MC133), as judged by the restoration of efficient mating in *MATa* segregants. In contrast, *SUM1-1* appeared to have little or no effect on the telomere repression defect of *rap1-17*. Three *SUM1-1 rap1-17 URA3-ADE2-TelVII-L* segregants were examined, and only one showed a slight improvement in FOA resistance (~10 fold), which has not been examined further (data not shown).

SUM1-1 increases telomeric silencing. As described above, disruption of SUM1 did not appear to have any effect on telomeric repression, nor did SUM1-1 appear to restore telomere position effect in the rap1-17 mutant. To test whether SUM1-1 can restore telomeric repression in sir mutants, a SUM1-1 $MAT\alpha$ sir2::HIS3 strain (MC57) was crossed to a MATa strain that contained the URA3 telomeric reporter (YDV66). In analyzing haploid segregants from this cross, we found that SUM1-1 could not restore telomeric URA3 repression in sir2 mutant segregants (e.g., MC80 [data not shown]).

In a separate experiment, a *SUM1-1 MATa sir2::HIS3* strain (MC54) was crossed to a *MATα URA3-ADE2-TelVII-L* reporter strain (AJL275-2a). Again, *SUM1-1* did not restore repression of either the *ADE2* or *URA3* reporter in *sir2* mutant segregants. Surprisingly, however, we observed that *SUM1-1*

TABLE 2. Mating efficiencies of isogenic SUM1 and SUM1-1 strains

Strain	Relevant genotype	Relative mating efficiency
W303-1B	MATα SIR2 SUM1	1
YDS714	W303-1B sir2::HIS3 SUM1	$\leq 3.1 \times 10^{-5}$
MC57	W303-1B sir2::HIS3 SUM1-1	0.37
MC89	W303-1B SIR2 SUM1-1	5.3
W303-1A	MATa SIR2 SUM1	1
YDS712	W303-1A sir2::HIS3 SUM1	$\leq 2.2 \times 10^{-5}$
MC54	W303-1A sir2::HIS3 SUM1-1	1.9×10^{-4}
MC88	W303-1A SIR2 SUM1-1	5.4

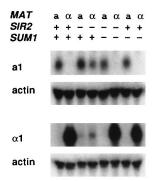


FIG. 4. Northern blot analysis of aI, αI , and actin transcripts in isogenic SUM1 and SUM1-1 strains. Total RNA was prepared from the indicated strains, size fractionated on a 1% formaldehyde agarose gel, transferred to a Hybond-N filter, and hybridized with either aI or αI and actin (control) probes (see Materials and Methods). The relevant genotypes of the strains used are indicated above the autoradiograph. – represents SUM1-I (in the case of SUM1) and sir2:: HIS3 (in the case of SIR2).

caused an increase of telomeric repression in SIR^+ segregants. Normally, the telomeric ADE2 reporter in a W303 (SUM1) strain background is only slightly repressed, giving rise to mostly white colonies. However, in the SUM1-1 segregants from the cross with AJL275-2a, the telomeric ADE2 gene was further repressed, creating white/red sectored colonies (Fig. 6A). In addition, a URA3-ADE2-TelVII-L strain with the SUM1-1 mutation grew at least 10-fold better on FOA plates than an otherwise isogenic SUM1 strain, indicating an increase of repression of the telomeric URA3 reporter in these SUM1-1 strains (Fig. 6B). The increased telomeric ADE2 repression could also be observed if SUM1-1 on a CEN plasmid was transformed into the SUM1 URA3-ADE2-TelVII-L reporter strain (AJL275-2a), although the effect was weaker in the transformants than in an isogenic SUM1-1 strain (data not shown).

The SUM1-1 mutation increases the rates of cell death and chromosome loss. A SUM1-1 mutant strain grows more slowly than isogenic wild-type or sum1 mutants. For example, wildtype haploid cells (W303-1A and W303-1B) have a doubling time of ~130 min, whereas isogenic SUM1-1 mutants (MC88 and MC89) have a doubling time of ~160 min. This slowgrowth phenotype of SUM1-1 mutants can be rescued when copies of the wild-type SUM1 gene are introduced into these cells. We also noted that although heterozygous SUM1-1/ SUM1 diploids show some increase in telomeric repression (as judged by a telomeric ADE2 reporter), their growth rates appear comparable to those of isogenic wild-type diploids and are clearly much higher than those of SUM1-1 homozygous diploids (data not shown). Hence, the slow-growth phenotype of the SUM1-1 mutation, like the silencing phenotype, appears to be partially dominant in the W303 strain background.

We measured cell viability in cultures of SUM1-1 mutants,

since a decrease in cell viability could result in a slow-growth phenotype. The viability was assayed by colony-forming ability in three pairs of isogenic haploid strains (YDS3 and MC89, MC60 and MC61, and YDS712 and MC57). Cell viability of the mutant strain was reduced to about 80% of that of the wild-type cells (Table 3).

We also noted that homozygous SUM1-1 diploids produce colonies with a much larger size variation than wild-type diploids. Because this phenotype is often associated with mutations that increase chromosome loss, we decided to measure chromosome stability in SUM1-1 homozygous diploids. We monitored the loss rate of chromosomes III and V in the SUM1-1/SUM1-1 diploid (MC105 × MC113), the sum1/sum1 diploid (MC120 \times 122), and the homozygous wild-type diploid $(GA224 \times MCY2675)$. Mating assays were used to determine the rate of chromosome III loss, since an \mathbf{a}/α nonmating diploid cell will acquire the ability to mate if it loses one (or both) of its two copies of chromosome III. This diploid strain also contains a marked chromosome V, with can1 and hom3 markers on opposite chromosome arms. A cell that loses the wildtype chromosome V will grow on plates containing canavanine but not on complete media lacking threonine (23). As shown in Table 4, the SUM1-1/SUM1-1 diploid loses both chromosome III and chromosome V at a rate (number of events per cell division per generation) approximately fivefold higher than in the isogenic SUM1/SUM1 and sum1/sum1 strains.

Cellular localization of Sum1p. The results presented above suggest that Sum1p mediates interactions that influence chromosome behavior as well as position effects. To gain further insights into SUM1 function, we have localized Sum1p by indirect immunofluorescence (Fig. 7), using a version of the protein containing an influenza virus HA antigen tag at its C terminus (see Materials and Methods for details). The HAtagged SUM1 allele complemented the partial silencing defect of a *sum1* null mutation in the strain MC33 (data not shown). Nuclear extracts from the cells harboring the tagged allele were analyzed by Western blotting (immunoblotting) using the mouse monoclonal anti-HA antibody 12CA5 as a probe. A protein band of ~125 kDa, specific to the tagged SUM1 gene, was detected, indicating that intact HA-tagged Sum1p was being made (data not shown). Antibody 12CA5 also recognized a nonspecific band of ~46 kDa in yeast cells. In indirect immunofluorescence of yeast spheroplasts derived from cells lacking the HA tag, we observed weak, slightly punctate staining that appeared to be cytoplasmic, presumably as a result of the 46-kDa cross-reacting protein detected on Western blots. Despite this homogeneous nonspecific staining, we observed an obvious nuclear staining in ~25 to 40% of spheroplasts derived from cells which contained the HA-tagged SUM1 gene. We therefore conclude that Sum1p is localized to the nucleus, consistent with the effect of SUM1-1 on both transcriptional silencing and chromosome stability. At present, we do not know why only about one-third of the cells appear to contain

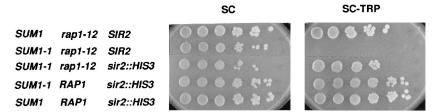
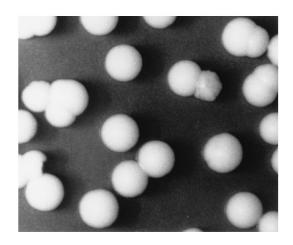
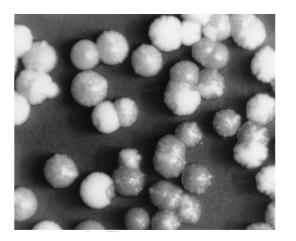


FIG. 5. Effect of the SUM1-1 mutation on an $hmr\Delta A$::TRP1 reporter gene in a rap1-12 or sir2 mutant background, as judged by the ability of cells to form colonies in the absence of tryptophan. SC, synthetic complete medium.

A URA3/ADE2-TEL VIIL, SUM1

URA3/ADE2-TEL VIIL, SUM1-1





B SC FOA

SUM1, URA3/ADE2-TELVIIL SUM1-1, URA3/ADE2-TELVIIL





FIG. 6. The SUM1-1 allele increases telomeric repression. (A) Colonies of SUM1 and SUM1-1 strains containing a chromosome VII-L telomeric ADE2/URA3 reporter are shown. (B) Growth of a SUM1-1 ADE2/URA3-TelVIIL strain in synthetic complete (SC) and FOA media compared with that of an isogenic SUM1 strain.

nuclear Sum1p. This could result from variable permeabilization of the spheroplasts, and hence differences in antibody accessibility, or from differences between cells in Sum1p levels or nuclear localization. We have also constructed an equivalent HA-tagged version of the *SUM1-1* allele. Unfortunately, this modified *SUM1-1* gene does not confer the *SUM1-1* silencing phenotype, perhaps because the epitope is located near the Sum1-1p mutation, and we have not determined its cellular localization.

DISCUSSION

Previous genetic analyses of the *SUM1-1* allele have shown that it has the unique ability to suppress the silencing defects of mutations in a number of *cis-* and *trans-*acting silencer factors, including all four of the *SIR* genes (37). These results have suggested that wild-type Sum1p may play a critical role in silencing. However, lack of a *sum1* null allele and the variable dominance or recessiveness of the *SUM1-1* mutation in differ-

TABLE 3. Colony-forming abilities of SUM1-1 isogenic haploid cells on YEPD medium

Charin	No. of cells		
Strain	Total	No growth	
YDS712 (SUM1)	50	0	
MC54 (SÙM1-1)	50	9	
YDS3 (SUM1)	50	3	
MC89 (SUM1-1)	50	11	
MC60 (SUM1)	50	0	
MC61 (SUM1-1)	50	9	

ent strain backgrounds have prevented a clear understanding of the function of either Sum1p or the *SUM1-1* mutant gene product. As a result, two very different models for Sum1p function have been proposed, one in which the protein is an activator required for the expression of silent mating-type genes which is itself repressed by Sir proteins (31) and another in which Sum1p is directly associated with an altered chromatin structure at *HM* loci (37).

Here we have reported the cloning and initial characterization of both the *SUM1* gene and the *SUM1-1* allele. The availability of these cloned genes has allowed us to examine the null phenotype of *SUM1* and also to study the effects of the *SUM1-1* mutation in a set of isogenic strains. Our results clearly indicate that a *sum1* null mutation does not suppress the effect of *sir* mutations at *HM* loci. Therefore, full expression of *HM* loci apparently occurs in the absence of Sum1p, ruling out the possibility that the protein is an activator required for transcription at the silent mating-type loci. Instead, we found that

TABLE 4. Chromosome stability in homozygous *SUM1*, *SUM1-1*, and *sum1* diploids

Genotype	Loss rate (no. of events [10 ⁻⁶]/cell division/generation)	
	Chromosome V	Chromosome III
SUM1 CAN1 HOM3 SUM1 can1 hom3	0.46 ± 0.29	0.86 ± 0.14
SUM1-1 CAN1 HOM3 SUM1-1 can1 hom3	2.67 ± 0.49	4.37 ± 1.92
sum1 CAN1 HOM3 sum1 can1 hom3	0.57 ± 0.11	2.80 ± 0.78

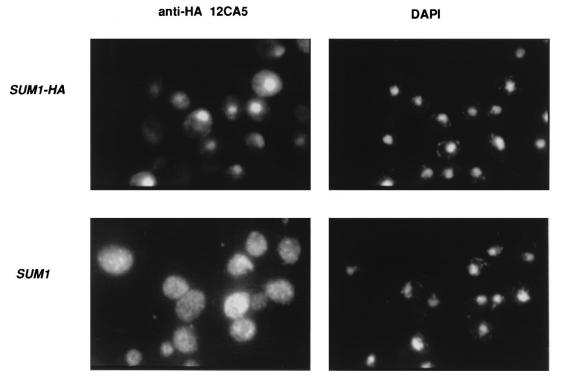


FIG. 7. Indirect immunofluorescence and 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) staining of cells containing either HA-tagged SUM1 or the wild-type SUM1 gene. See text for details.

a sum1 null mutation has a slight derepressing effect on HM loci in SIR⁺ strains when the HMR-E silencer is weakened by mutation of either the A or the B site. This subtle phenotype of sum1 null alleles explains why loss-of-function mutations in this gene were never isolated in previous genetic screens for silencing-defective mutants. Taken together, these results suggest that SUM1-1 is either a gain-of-function (hypermorphic) mutation or an altered-function mutation. This conclusion is also consistent with previous observations (37) and results reported here, all of which indicate that the SUM1-1 allele is dominant to the wild type. However, our observations that elevated gene dosage of the wild-type SUM1 gene diminishes the mutant phenotype (suppression of sir2 mating defects) in SUM1-1 mutants and that the SUM1-1 plasmid confers a stronger phenotype in cells devoid of Sum1p than in the wild-type cells lead us to rule out the idea that *SUM1-1* is a hypermorph.

By virtue of having cloned the SUM1-1 allele, we have been able to examine the effect of this mutation in an isogenic set of strains. This analysis is particularly important given the previously reported strain-to-strain variation in the strength of SUM1-1 suppression (37) and the observation that SUM1-1 appears to be recessive to SUM1 in some strain backgrounds (31). We found a fairly uniform, dominant SUM1-1 phenotype in isogenic strains of the W303 background. The previously reported variation in the SUM1-1 phenotype may have been the result of natural strain background differences. Alternatively, the original SUM1-1 isolate, which was derived from a heavily mutagenized culture (31), may contain other mutations that modify the effect of SUM1-1. We noted that SUM1-1 only slightly restores repression of a $hmr\Delta A$:: TRP1 reporter in a sir2mutant, as measured by the ability to grow in the absence of tryptophan. We do not think that this observation is contradictory to the previous observation (37) that SUM1-1 restores

repression (at least 10-fold better) of hmr::TRP1 in sir3::LEU2 strains. The intact HMR-E silencer and the more leaky sir3:: LEU2 mutation (12a) might account for the greater suppression observed in this previous study.

With respect to the differential effect of SUM1-1 on the two HM loci, our results are consistent with previous observations that SUM1-1 more effectively restores silencing at HMRa than it does at $HML\alpha$ (31, 37, 41). At present, there seem to be at least two possible explanations for this observation. The first follows from the finding that silencing at HMR is generally more resistant than HML to mutations in genes (other than SIR genes) which have partial effects on silencing. For example, nat1 or ard1 mutations have no effect at a wild-type HMR locus, whereas they result in partial derepression of HML (48). The same is true of a number of different mutations in the histone H4 (HHF2) N-terminal tail (29). This difference in the strength of silencing at HMR compared with HML, which may be due to the redundancy of the HMR-E silencer (7, 30) or the specific effect of the neighboring chromosome III-R telomere (70), could explain the apparent differential effect of SUM1-1. Alternatively, weak expression of α information in MATa cells may reduce mating more than weak expression of a information in $MAT\alpha$ cells. This could explain the observation that a information is better repressed than α information (as measured by mating efficiency) regardless of where the genes are located (HML or HMR) (31).

We also found that SUM1-1 suppresses two different types of mutations in the silencer-binding protein Rap1 $(rap1^t)$ and $rap1^s$). $rap1^t$ mutants are presumably defective in recruiting Sir3p and Sir4p to the silencers (47), whereas the $rap1^s$ mutants have been proposed to create a deficiency in Sir4p (and perhaps other factors) available at the HMR silencer, as a result of competition by telomeres (10). We imagine that SUM1-1 sup-

presses these mutations by overcoming the requirement for Sir3p and Sir4p in silencing, thus bypassing the Sir protein recruitment function of Rap1p.

Because many of the same genes involved in HM locus silencing are also involved in the variegated silencing phenomenon observed at telomeres, we also tested the effects of sum1 and SUM1-1 mutations on telomeric repression. Although we found no effect of a *sum1* null mutation on telomeric silencing, we observed that SUM1-1 increases telomeric repression of two different telomeric reporters genes (URA3 and ADE2) in SIR strains. However, SUM1-1 does not suppress the telomeric silencing defect caused by a sir2 mutation. The first observation demonstrates that the effect of SUM1-1 is not restricted to the silent mating-type loci and suggests that SUM1-1 should be viewed as a general regulator of position effects in S. cerevisiae. The failure of SUM1-1 to suppress sir defects at telomeres may be viewed within the context of several observations which indicate that telomeric silencing is inherently weaker than repression at HM loci. To begin with, telomeric silencing is normally unstable, whereas HM silencing is not (2, 21). In addition, telomeric silencing is more sensitive to histone H4 and histone H3 mutations, and mutations in the NAT1 and ARD1 genes, than are HM loci (2, 71). Finally, a sir3 suppressor mutation which partially restores HML silencing in a hhf2 mutant strain (K16G) fails to restore telomeric repression (2). Taken together, these observations are consistent with the idea that the effect of SIR mutations (SIR2 to SIR4) on telomeric silencing may simply be too severe for SUM1-1 to coun-

In thinking about how SUM1-1 suppression might work, it is important to consider current models for silencing at HM loci and telomeres. Recent studies indicate that a complex of Sir proteins (containing at least Sir3p and Sir4p) can interact directly with the silencer- and telomere-binding protein Rap1p (47). Sir3p and Sir4p, in turn, are capable of binding in vitro with the N-terminal tails of histones H4 and H3 (24), which genetic studies have shown are involved in both HM locus and telomeric silencing (29, 45, 51, 71). These findings have led to a model in which silencing results from the recruitment of a Sir complex to silencers or telomeres and the subsequent assembly of a Sir-nucleosome complex along the chromatin fiber. Silent chromatin appears to be in an altered, more protected structure than nonsilent chromatin, as determined from its decreased accessibility to methylases (20, 36, 65), the HO-encoded endonuclease (32, 42, 67), restriction enzymes (42), and thiol-reactive reagents (12). However, a growing number of cell biological studies of S. cerevisiae suggests that nuclear localization, or more specifically attachment to the nuclear envelope, may also play an important role in silencing. Indirect immunofluorescence studies using anti-Rap1p antibodies suggest that telomeres are clustered in yeast cells and localized at or near the nuclear periphery (33, 50). Strikingly, this localization and clustering of telomeric Rap1p is lost in sir3 or sir4 mutant cells (50), in which telomeric silencing is also abolished.

An intriguing and perhaps informative phenotype of *SUM1-1* mutants is increased chromosome loss. We note that many genes involved in silencing also cause chromosome instability when they are mutated or deregulated. For example, *rap1'* alleles (*rap1-17*) display telomere elongation and elevated chromosome instability (35). Overexpression of the *RAP1* C terminus or of *SIR2* causes increased chromosome instability and cell death, similar to that which we have observed in *SUM1-1* mutants (8, 14), albeit to different degrees. In light of these results and the current working models for silencing, we suggest two models for Sum1p and Sum1-1p function, both of

which might explain the chromosome instability and decreased cell viability phenotypes of SUM1-1 mutants. In the first model, Sum1p is involved in the localization of telomeres and HM loci to the nuclear periphery. The altered localization function provided by Sum1-1p is sufficient to allow silencing to occur in the absence of SIR gene function. An increase in chromosome loss might be a consequence of this enhanced nuclear envelope attachment function. Alternatively, Sum1p may be a normal (but nonessential) component of heterochromatin in S. cerevisiae which is used for both gene silencing and chromosome condensation during mitosis. In this scenario, the mutant Sum1-1p may allow HM loci (and perhaps other sites not normally subject to silencing) to form a stably repressed chromatin structure in the absence of Sir proteins. This inappropriate formation of heterochromatin could either directly or indirectly lead to a decrease in chromosome stability. It is important to note, however, that we cannot rule out the possibility that the chromosome loss and decreased viability phenotypes of SUM1-1 are unrelated to its effect on silencing.

In summary, by cloning and characterizing *SUM1* and the *SUM1-1* mutant allele, we have obtained clear evidence that *SUM1-1* is a dominant altered-function mutation that can either restore or improve silencing at *HM* loci and telomeres in a number of different genetic backgrounds (e.g., *sir*, *rap1*^t or *rap1*^s mutant or wild type). The nuclear localization of Sum1p, the effect of *SUM1-1* on chromosome stability and cell viability, and the ability of the mutation to bypass the requirement for *SIR* gene function in *HM* locus silencing all point to a role for *SUM1* in chromosome function. Continued study of *SUM1* and the *SUM1-1* allele should provide new experimental approaches to address the precise function(s) of this intriguing gene.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank J. Rine, A. Lustig, S. Gasser, A. Mitchell, M. Carlson, and M. Rose for providing strains, plasmids, and/or genomic libraries. We are also grateful to J. Ivy and O. Gileadi for communicating unpublished results. We thank L. Pon and the members of her laboratory for assistance with indirect immunofluorescence, and we thank L. Symington, K. Freeman, and P. Laurenson for critically reviewing the manuscript. M.-H.C. especially thanks P. Laurenson for encouragement and advice.

This work was supported by grants from the American Cancer Society (VM-62) and the National Institutes of Health (GM40094) to D.S.

REFERENCES

- Abraham, J., K. A. Nasmyth, J. N. Strathern, A. J. S. Klar, and J. B. Hicks. 1984. Regulation of mating-type information in yeast. J. Mol. Biol. 176:307–331
- Aparicio, O. M., B. L. Billington, and D. E. Gottschling. 1991. Modifiers of position effect are shared between telomeric and silent mating-type loci in S. cerevisiae. Cell 66:1279–1287.
- Bell, S. P., R. Kobayashi, and B. Stillman. 1993. Yeast origin recognition complex functions in transcription silencing and DNA replication. Science 262:1844–1849.
- Bell, S. P., and B. Stillman. 1992. ATP-dependent recognition of eukaryotic origins of DNA replication by a multiprotein complex. Nature (London) 357:128–134.
- Boeke, J. D., J. Trueheart, G. Natsoulis, and G. R. Fink. 1987. 5-Fluoroorotic acid as a selective agent in yeast molecular genetics. Methods Enzymol. 154:164–175.
- Brand, A. H., L. Breeden, J. Abraham, R. Sternglanz, and K. Nasmyth. 1985. Characterization of a "silencer" in yeast: a DNA sequence with properties opposite to those of a transcriptional enhancer. Cell 41:41–48.
- Brand, A. H., G. Micklem, and K. Nasmyth. 1987. A yeast silencer contains sequences that can promote autonomous plasmid replication and transcriptional activation. Cell 51:709–719.
- 8. Broach, J. Personal communication.
- Buchman, A. R., W. J. Kimmerly, J. Rine, and R. D. Kornberg. 1988. Two DNA-binding factors recognize specific sequences at silencers, upstream

- activating sequences, autonomously replicating sequences, and telomeres in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:210–225.
- Buck, S. W., and D. Shore. 1995. Action of a RAP1 C-terminal silencing domain reveals an underlying competition between HMR and telomeres in yeast. Genes Dev. 9:370–384.
- Carlson, M., and D. Botstein. 1982. Two differentially regulated mRNAs with different 5' ends encode secreted and intracellular forms of yeast invertase. Cell 28:145–154.
- Chen-Cleland, T. A., M. M. Smith, S. Le, R. Sternglanz, and V. G. Allfrey. 1993. Nucleosome structural changes during derepression of silent matingtype loci in yeast. J. Biol. Chem. 268:1118–1124.
- 12a. Chi, M.-C. Unpublished observations.
- Christianson, T. W., R. S. Sikorski, M. Dante, J. H. Sheo, and P. Hielter. 1992. Multifunctional yeast high-copy-number shuttle vectors. Gene 110: 119–122.
- Conrad, M. N., J. H. Wright, A. J. Wolf, and V. A. Zakian. 1990. RAP1 protein interacts with yeast telomeres in vivo: overproduction alters telomere structure and decreases chromosome stability. Cell 63:739–750.
- Diffley, J. F., and B. Stillman. 1988. Purification of a yeast protein that binds to origins of DNA replication and a transcriptional silencer. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 85:2120–2124.
- Drake, J. W. 1970. The molecular basis of mutation. Holden-Day, San Francisco.
- Feldman, J. B., J. B. Hicks, and J. R. Broach. 1984. Identification of sites required for repression of a silent mating-type locus in yeast. J. Mol. Biol. 178:815–834.
- Foss, M., F. J. McNally, P. Laurenson, and J. Rine. 1993. Origin recognition complex (ORC) in transcriptional silencing and DNA replication in S. cerevisiae. Science 262:1838–1844.
- 19. Gileadi, O. Personal communication.
- Gottschling, D. E. 1992. Telomere-proximal DNA in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is refractory to methyltransferase activity in vivo. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 89:4062–4065.
- Gottschling, D. E., O. M. Aparicio, B. L. Billington, and V. A. Zakian. 1990.
 Position effect at S. cerevisiae telomeres: reversible repression of pol II transcription. Cell 63:751–762.
- Hanahan, D. 1983. Studies on transformation of Escherichia coli with plasmids. J. Mol. Biol. 166:557–580.
- Hartwell, L. H., and D. Smith. 1985. Altered fidelity of mitotic chromosome transmission in cell cycle mutants of S. cerevisiae. Genetics 110:381

 395
- Hecht, A., T. Laroche, S. Strahl-Bolsinger, S. M. Gasser, and M. Grunstein. 1995. Histone H3 and H4 N termini interact with SIR3 and SIR4 proteins: a molecular model for the formation of heterochromatin in yeast. Cell 80:583-592.
- Henikoff, S. 1990. Position-effect variegation after 60 years. Trends Genet. 6:422–426.
- Ito, H., V. Fukuda, D. Murata, and A. Kimura. 1983. Transformation of intact yeast cells treated with alkali cations. J. Bacteriol. 153:163–168.
- 27. Ivy, J. Personal communication.
- Karpen, G. H. 1994. Position-effect variegation and the new biology of heterochromatin. Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev. 4:281–291.
- Kayne, P. S., U. J. Kim, M. Han, J. R. Mullen, F. Yoshizaki, and M. Grunstein. 1988. Extremely conserved histone H4 N terminus is dispensable for growth but essential for repressing the silent mating loci in yeast. Cell 55:27–39.
- Kimmerly, W., A. Buchman, R. Kornberg, and J. Rine. 1988. Roles of two DNA-binding factors in replication, segregation and transcriptional repression mediated by a yeast silencer. EMBO J. 7:2241–2253.
- Klar, A. J. S., S. N. Kakar, J. M. Ivy, J. B. Hicks, G. P. Livi, and L. M. Miglio. 1985. SUM1, an apparent positive regulator of cryptic mating-type loci in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics 111:745–758.
- Klar, A. J. S., J. N. Strathern, and J. B. Hicks. 1984. A position-effect control for gene transposition: state of expression of yeast mating-type genes affects their ability to switch. Cell 25:517–524.
- Klein, F., T. Laroche, M. E. Cardenas, J. F.-X. Hofmann, D. Schweizer, and S. M. Gasser. 1992. Localization of RAP1 and topoisomerase II in nuclei and meiotic chromosomes of yeast. J. Cell. Biol. 117:935–948.
- 34. Kurtz, S., and D. Shore. 1991. The RAP1 protein activates and silences transcription of mating-type genes in yeast. Genes Dev. 5:616–628.
- Kyrion, G., K. A. Boakye, and A. J. Lustig. 1992. C-terminal truncation of RAP1 results in the deregulation of telomere size, stability, and function in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 12:5159–5173.
- Kyrion, G., K. Liu, C. Liu, and A. J. Lustig. 1993. RAP1 and telomere structure regulate telomere position effects in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Genes Dev. 7:1146–1159.
- Laurenson, P., and J. Rine. 1991. SUM1-1: a suppressor of silencing defects in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics 129:685–696.
- Laurenson, P., and J. Rine. 1992. Silencers, silencing, and heritable transcriptional states. Microbiol. Rev. 56:543–560.
- Lazzarino, D. A., I. Boldogh, M. G. Smith, J. Rosand, and L. A. Pon. 1994.
 Yeast mitochondria contain ATP-sensitive, reversible actin-binding activity.

- Mol. Biol. Cell 5:807-818.
- Lima-de-Faria, A. 1983. Molecular evolution and organization of the chromosome. Elsevier Science Publishers, Amsterdam.
- Livi, G. P., J. B. Hicks, and A. J. S. Klar. 1990. The sum1-1 mutation affects silent mating-type gene transcription in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 10:409–412.
- Loo, S., and J. Rine. 1994. Silencers and domains of generalized repression. Science 264:1768–1771.
- Mahoney, D. J., and J. R. Broach. 1989. The HML mating-type cassette of Saccharomyces cerevisiae is regulated by two separate but functionally equivalent silencers. Mol. Cell. Biol. 9:4621–4630.
- McNally, F. J., and J. Rine. 1991. A synthetic silencer mediates SIR-dependent functions in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 11:5648

 5650
- Megee, P. C., B. A. Morgan, B. A. Mittman, and M. M. Smith. 1990. Genetic analysis of histone H4: essential role of lysines subject to reversible acetylation. Science 247:841–845.
- Micklem, G., A. Rowley, J. Harwood, K. Nasmyth, and J. F. X. Diffley. 1993. Yeast origin recognition complex is involved in DNA replication and transcriptional silencing. Nature (London) 366:87–89.
- Moretti, P., K. Freeman, L. Coodley, and D. Shore. 1994. Evidence that a complex of SIR proteins interacts with the silencer and telomere-binding protein RAP1. Genes Dev. 8:2257–2269.
- Mullen, J. R., P. S. Kayne, R. P. Moerschell, S. Tsunasawa, M. Gribskov, S. M. Colavito, M. Grunstein, F. Sherman, and R. Sternglanz. 1989. Identification and characterization of genes and mutants for an N-terminal acetyltransferase from yeast. EMBO J. 8:2067–2075.
- Orlando, V., and R. Paro. 1995. Chromatin multiprotein complexes involved in the maintenance of transcription patterns. Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev. 5:174– 179
- Palladino, F., T. Laroche, E. Gilson, A. Axelrod, L. Pillus, and S. M. Gasser. 1993. SIR3 and SIR4 proteins are required for the positioning and integrity of yeast telomeres. Cell 75:543–555.
- Park, E.-C., and J. W. Szostak. 1990. Point mutations in the yeast histone H4 gene prevent silencing of the silent mating type locus *HML*. Mol. Cell. Biol. 10:4932–4934.
- Rattray, A. J., and L. S. Symington. 1995. Multiple pathways for homologous recombination in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Genetics 139:45–56.
- 53. Riles, L. Personal communication.
- Rine, J., and I. Herskowitz. 1987. Four genes responsible for a position effect on expression from HML and HMR in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics 116:9–22.
- Roman, H. 1956. Studies of gene mutation in Saccharomyces. Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. 21:175–185.
- Rose, M. D., P. Novick, J. H. Thomas, D. Botstein, and G. R. Fink. 1987. A Saccharomyces cerevisiae genomic plasmid bank based on a centromerecontaining shuttle vector. Gene 60:237–243.
- Rose, M. D., F. Winston, and P. Hieter. 1990. Methods in yeast genetics: a laboratory course manual. Cold Spring Harbor Press, Plainview, N.Y.
- Rothstein, R. 1983. One-step gene disruption in yeast. Methods Enzymol. 101:202–211.
- Sambrook, J., E. F. Fritsch, and T. Maniatis. 1989. Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual, 2nd ed. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- Schnell, R., L. D'Ari, M. Foss, D. Goodman, and J. Rine. 1989. Genetic and molecular characterization of suppressors of SIR4 mutations in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics 122:29–46.
- Schnell, R., and J. Rine. 1986. A position effect on the expression of a tRNA gene mediated by the *SIR* genes in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Mol. Cell. Biol. 6:494–501.
- Shore, D., and K. Nasmyth. 1987. Purification and cloning of a DNA binding protein from yeast that binds to both silencer and activator elements. Cell 51:721–732.
- 63. Shore, D., D. J. Stillman, A. H. Brand, and K. A. Nasmyth. 1987. Identification of silencer binding proteins from yeast: possible roles in SIR control and DNA replication. EMBO J. 6:461–467.
 64. Sikorski, R., and P. Hieter. 1989. A system of shuttle vectors and yeast host
- strains designed for efficient manipulation of DNA in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Genetics 122:19–27.
- Singh, J., and A. J. S. Klar. 1992. Active genes in budding yeast display enhanced in vivo accessibility to foreign DNA methylases: a novel in vivo probe for chromatin structure of yeast. Genes Dev. 6:186–196.
- Sprague, G. F., Jr. 1991. Assay of yeast mating reaction. Methods Enzymol. 194:77–93.
- Strathern, J. N., A. J. S. Klar, J. B. Hicks, J. A. Abraham, J. M. Ivy, K. A. Nasmyth, and C. McGill. 1982. Homothallic switching of yeast mating-type cassettes is initiated by a double-stranded cut in the MAT locus. Cell 31:183–192.
- 68. Sussel, L., and D. Shore. 1991. Separation of transcriptional activation and silencing functions of the *RAP1*-encoded repressor/activator protein 1: isolation of viable mutants affecting both silencing and telomere length. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 88:7749–7753.
- 69. Sussel, L., D. Vannier, and D. Shore. 1993. Epigenetic switching of tran-

Downloaded from http://mcb.asm.org/ on September 20, 2019 by guest

4294 CHI AND SHORE Mol. Cell. Biol.

scriptional states: *cis*- and *trans*-acting factors affecting establishment of silencing at the *HMR* locus in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Mol. Cell. Biol. **13**:3919–3928.

- Thompson, J. S., L. M. Johnson, and M. Grunstein. 1994. Specific repression
 of the yeast silent mating locus *HMR* by an adjacent telomere. Mol. Cell.
 Biol. 14:446–455.
- Thompson, J. S., X. Ling, and M. Grunstein. 1994. Histone H3 amino terminus is required for telomeric and silent mating locus repression in yeast. Nature (London) 369:245–247.
- Tyers, M., G. Tokiwa, and B. Futcher. 1993. Comparison of the Saccharomyces cerevisiae G1 cyclins: Cln3 may be an upstream activator of Cln1, Cln2 and other cyclins. EMBO J. 12:1955–1968.