Use of *lacZ* Fusions to Delimit Regulatory Elements of the Inducible Divergent *GAL1-GAL10* Promoter in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

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We present the DNA sequence of a 914-base pair fragment from Saccharomyces cerevisiae that contains the GAL1-GAL10 divergent promoter, 140 base pairs of GAL10 coding sequence, and 87 base pairs of GAL1 coding sequence. From this fragment, we constructed four pairs of GAL1-lacZ and GAL10-lacZ fusions on various types of yeast plasmid vectors. On each type of vector, the fused genes were induced by galactose and repressed by glucose. The response of a GAL1-lacZ fusion to gal4 and gal80 regulatory mutations was similar to the response of intact chromosomal GAL1 and GAL10 genes. A set of deletions that removed various portions of the GAL10 regulatory sequences from a GAL10-CYC1-lacZ fusion was constructed in vitro. These deletions defined a relatively guanine-cytosine-rich region of 45 base pairs that contained sequences necessary for full-strength galactose induction and an adjacent guanine-cytosine rich 55 base pairs that contained sequences sufficient for weak induction.

The yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae can grow on galactose as a sole carbon source. Galactose is transported into the cell by a specific galactose permease and is converted to glucose-1-phosphate by the sequential action of three enzymes, galactokinase, α -D-galactose-1-phosphate uridyltransferase, and uridine diphosphoglucose-4-epimerase (6, 32). These three enzymes are encoded by a tightly linked cluster of genes named GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10, respectively (10). If cells are grown on glucose or glycerol and then switched to galactose, GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10 are coordinately induced at least 1,000-fold at the level of transcription (11, 25, 59-61). This dramatic example of regulation in a genetically tractable organism provides an ideal system for studying a eucaryotic gene control mechanism.

Expression of GAL1, -7, and -10 is governed by at least two distinct regulatory circuits, a galactose-specific induction system (11) and a more general glucose repression system (1, 37). Much is known about galactose-specific induction (see reference 47 for review). Classical genetics and recent molecular studies have led to the following model. In the absence of galactose, GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10 are repressed by a negative regulatory protein encoded by the GAL80 gene (11). Recessive gal80 mutations cause constitutive expression of GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10, whereas dominant GAL80^s mutations confer an uninducible phenotype (11-13, 45). A positive regulatory protein, encoded by the GAL4 gene, is required for expression of GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10, even in the absence of wild-type GAL80 (11-13, 25, 35, 36). Dominant GAL4^c mutations cause constitutive expression of GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10, whereas recessive gal4 mutations confer an uninducible phenotype (11, 35, 45). Both the GALA and GAL80 proteins are constitutively produced in low amounts (24, 28, 36 48). Complementation analysis of various pairs of GAL4^c and GAL80^s alleles has suggested that the GAL4 and GAL80 gene products interact with each other (45). It is thought that the inducer (most likely galactose) binds to a site on the GAL80 protein resulting in release of the GAL4 protein. The free GAL4 protein then acts to turn on transcription of GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10, presumably by binding to DNA sites near the 5' ends of the genes (24, 25, 35, 36, 45, 48).

The GAL4 gene has been cloned (24, 28, 31, 31a). Overproduction of the GAL4 protein is sufficient to induce GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10, even in a glucose medium (24, 28). However, the details of the mechanism of action of GAL4 and GAL80 are still unknown.

Two other genes, GAL3 and GAL11, are necessary for a wild-type GAL phenotype. gal3 mutants, or "slow adapters," take over 20 h instead of the normal 10 min for the rate of transcription of GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10 to reach steady-state levels after galactose induction (4, 13, 29). gal11 mutants produce only 20% of wild-type levels of the three Leloir enzymes after induction with galactose (43). The actual functions of GAL3 and GAL11 are still obscure. The regulatory loci, GAL3, GAL4, GAL11, and GAL80, segregate independently from each other as well as from the GAL1,7,10 cluster.

Little is known about the genetics or biochemistry of glucose repression. It is epistatic to galactose induction; growth in glucose plus galactose results in little or no expression of GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10 (37). Some components of the glucose repression system, such as the products of the GAL82 and GAL83 genes, are specific for the GAL1, -7, and -10 genes (37, 39). Other components, for example, the product of the SNF1 gene, also act on genes coding for enzymes which utilize a variety of other carbon sources such as sucrose and maltose (5, 17). Glucose repression in S. cerevisiae is thought not to be mediated by intracellular levels of cyclic AMP as it is in *Escherichia coli* (38).

The GAL1,7,10 gene cluster has been cloned and transcriptionally mapped (7, 51, 54, 59–61). None of these genes contains an intervening sequence. GAL1 and GAL10 are divergently transcribed from an intergenic region of 680 base pairs and GAL7 is independently transcribed from a region of 650 base pairs between the end of GAL10 and the

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beginning of GAL7 (25, 44, 59–61). A 365-base pair fragment of DNA from the middle of the GAL1-GAL10 intergenic region contains all signals necessary for galactose-induced transcription and glucose repression of a nearby transcription start site (23). The site within this fragment that is responsible for induction has been termed the "UAS," for upstream activation site (23).

We sought to learn more about the control of expression of GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10 at the molecular level. We assumed that the GAL genes, like other yeast genes coding for proteins, are regulated through DNA sequences located near the 5' end of the coding sequences (2, 9, 16, 21, 49, 55, 62). First, we determined the DNA sequence of the GAL1-GAL10 intergenic region. Next, we constructed gene fusions on plasmids in vitro between the *E. coli lacZ* gene and both GAL1 and GAL10 to provide an easy assay for expression of these genes (22, 49). The gene fusions were then shown to be regulated identically to the intact chromosomal GAL1 and GAL10 genes, in response to both different carbon sources and known regulatory mutations. Finally, a set of deletions was constructed in vitro which further delimited the DNA sequences involved in transcriptional control of GAL10.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plasmids were maintained and produced in *E. coli* MM294 (F⁻ endA hsdR supE44 thiA) or P90C [F⁻ Δ (lac-pro)XIII] (20). DNA sequences were determined by the chemical cleavage method (40). Manipulation of DNA sequences and homology searches were aided by the Stanford University SUMEX-<MOLGEN>SEQ computer program. All restriction enzymes, T4 DNA ligase, and the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I were purchased from New England Biolabs. Synthetic DNA linkers were from Collaborative Research or New England Biolabs, and 4'-bromo-5'-chloro-3'indolyl- β -D-galactoside was from Bachem.

Plasmid constructions, yeast strain constructions, and yeast transformations were by standard methods (34, 56). Integrating plasmids were directed to a particular chromosomal location by linearizing the plasmid before transformation at a unique site in the sequences homologous to the target (46). Transformants containing a single copy of pRY171, -173, -181, or -183 (see below) were identified by digesting genomic DNA with *Bam*HI, which cleaves each of these plasmids only once, and screening for those which did not produce unit-length linear plasmid DNA (46).

All plasmids constructed for this study were derived from five plasmids supplied by others. pSc4816 contains a 914base pair EcoRI-to-AvaI fragment which covers the region between GAL1 and GAL10 cloned with an EcoRI linker into the EcoRI site of pBR325 (T. St. John, unpublished data). pLG669 is a derivative of YEp24 (3) which contains URA3, a 2 µm replicator, and a CYC1-lacI-lacZ fusion (22). pLGSD5 was derived from pLG669 by replacing CYC1 regulatory sequences with a 365-base pair DdeI-to-Sau3A fragment from the GAL1-GAL10 divergent promoter region (23). pSZ211, a derivative of YIp32 (3), contains LEU2, ARS1, and a truncated, unfused lacZ gene (J. Szostak, personal communication). YCp19 contains CEN4, the centromere from yeast chromosome IV (58).

Deletions of pLGSD5 were constructed by cleaving the unique XhoI site at the GAL10 end of the GAL UAS insert, digesting for various times with BAL31 exonuclease, ligating with XhoI linkers, and cutting with SacI plus XhoI (34, 41). The plasmid backbone was purified by preparative gel electrophoresis (34) and ligated to the short XhoI-to-SacI frag-

TABLE 1. S. cerevisiae strains

Strain	Genotype	Source		
DBY745	α ade1-100 leu2-3 leu2-112 ura3- 52	D. Botstein		
JG50	a gal4-3 leu2-3 leu2-112 trp1 his1	J. Yarger		
JG80	a GAL80 ^s -96 trp1 his1	J. Yarger		
JG129	a gal80 ^a leul trpl	J. Yarger		
JG130	a GAL4°-c1 MEL1 ade his trp1	J. Yarger		
SHC22c	a gal4-3 ade1-100 leu2-3 leu2-112 trp1 ura3-52	$DBY745 \times JG50$		
SHE2b	a gal80 ^a ade1-100 leu1 ura3-52	$DBY745 \times JG129$		
SHI6a	α GAL4 ^c -c1 ade leu2-3 leu2-112 trp1 ura3-52	$DBY745 \times JG130$		
SHJ1d	α GAL80 ^s -96 his1 leu2-3 leu2-112 trp1 ura3-52	DBY745 × JG80		

^a The particular gal80 allele in these strains was not known.

ment of pLGSD5 that had not been treated with exonuclease. This resulted in a set of unidirectional deletions beginning at the *XhoI* site and extending into the *GAL* sequences.

The S. cerevisiae strains used in this study are listed in Table 1.

Minimal selective media contained, per liter, 7 g of yeast nitrogen base (Difco Laboratories); 0.7 g of uracil dropout mix or leucine dropout mix (56) and 2% glucose (MinGlu); 2% glucose plus 2% galactose (MinGluGal); 2% galactose (MinGal); 2% galactose, 3% glycerol, plus 2% ethanol (MinGalGlyEth); or 3% glycerol plus 2% ethanol (MinGlyEth). Solid media contained, in addition, 2% agar. Indicator plates contained, in addition to the above ingredients, 40 mg of 4'-bromo-5'-chlor-3'-indolyl- β -D-galactoside per liter and 70 mM potassium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, both added after autoclaving the media and cooling to 60°C.

β-Galactosidase assays were modified from published methods (22, 42, 49). Single colonies of yeast transformants from MinGlu plates were grown to saturation in 5 ml of MinGlu. Cells were then diluted into MinGlu (1:50), MinGluGal (1:50), MinGal (1:25), MinGalGlyEth (1:25), or MinGlyEth (1:10) and grown at 30°C until an optical density at 600 nm of about 1.0 was reached. Between 0.01 and 0.2 ml of culture was added to Z buffer (42) to give a total volume of 1.0 ml. Each sample then received 0.05 ml of 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate and 3 drops of chloroform and was votexed. The remainder of the assay and calculation of units of activity normalized for the optical density at 600 nm of the culture were exactly as described before (42). All assays were done in triplicate from independent transformants. Reproducibility was typically plus or minus 20% or less among triplicates. As little as 0.2 U was reproducibly detected in this assay.

RESULTS

DNA sequence. The sequence of the 914-base pair *Eco*RI fragment from pSc4816 containing the *GAL1-GAL10* divergent promoter region was determined (Fig. 1). All coordinates referred to hereafter in this paper will be the numbers assigned to base pairs in Fig. 1.

Coding regions. Translation of all six possible reading frames into amino acid sequences gave two open reading frames. These two divergent open reading frames begin near the ends of the sequenced fragment (base pairs 140 on the bottom strand and 821 on the top strand) and both run off

their respective ends. The open reading frame starting at base pair 821 matches 10 of the first 11 amino acids of a published protein sequence for galactokinase (52), which is encoded by GAL1. Threonine is the amino-terminal residue of the GAL10 gene product epimerase (19). This is consistent with the ATG at base pair 140 being the actual GAL10translation start since the next codon is a threonine codon, ACA. Furthermore, the ATG at base pair 140 is the first ATG of the GAL10 mRNA (see below), and translation usually begins at the first ATG of an mRNA in yeasts (57). Thus, the sequenced fragment contains 87 base pairs of GAL1 coding sequence on the right and probably contains 140 base pairs of GAL10 coding sequence on the left.

Base composition. Most of the 914 base pairs is adenine-thymine rich (65% overall), which is typical for S. *cerevisiae*. The genome of S. *cerevisiae* averages 60% adenine-thymine (15). However, bases 377 to 485 are rather guanine-cytosine rich (68%), which is unusual for this species.

Transcription initiation. Transcription start sites have been determined from in vivo mRNA by Johnston (27) for both *GAL1* and *GAL10* (see Fig. 1). Both genes have several starts. The major starts are at -13 for *GAL10* and -61 for *GAL1* with respect to the assumed translation start codons.

TATA boxes. The sequence TATAAA, or a closely related sequence, exists about 25 bases upstream from transcriptional starts in most higher eucaryotic genes that have been sequenced (D. Goldberg, Ph.D. thesis, Stanford University, Stanford, Calif., 1979). Such a sequence is also found upstream from yeast genes, but the distance from the start site is more variable and is usually farther than 25 bases (50, 55). The sequence TATAAG is found 114 bases upstream from the major *GAL10* transcription start and TATAAA is found 85 bases upstream from the major *GAL10* transcription start. However, the adenine-thymine rich nature of these regions gives many other possibilities for these putative "TATA boxes." For example, TATTAA is found at -47 with respect to the *GAL10* start.

Comparison with S. carlsbergensis. The 914-base pair GAL1-GAL10 control region from S. cerevisiae was compared with the equivalent region from S. carlsbergensis (6a). The two sequences were 95% homologous, with all of the differences occurring in the noncoding region (data not shown). Most of the differences were between bases 180 and 250 (see Fig. 1 for numbering), and there were no differences between bases 405 and 569.

Construction of lacZ fusions. Since the sequenced 914-base pair fragment overlapped both the GAL1 and GAL10 coding regions, precise, in-frame gene fusions of both GAL1 and GAL10 to E. coli lacZ could be constructed. This was accomplished by placing synthetic linkers, containing appropriate restriction sites, at both ends of the sequenced fragment. The fragment was then inserted in either orientation into available plasmids that contained the lacZ gene in a convenient form. These constructions resulted in genes coding for fused proteins containing the amino-terminal end of GAL1 or GAL10 and all but the extreme amino-terminal end of B-galactosidase. The construction of four pairs of these plasmids is shown in Fig. 2 to 5. Each pair contains one GAL1 and one GAL10 fusion. All eight plasmids are selectable in either E. coli or S. cerevisiae, but each pair has a different mode of replication or maintenance or both in S. cerevisiae. pRY131 and -133 contain a 2 µm circle origin of replication, whereas pRY161 and -163 contain a chromosomal origin of replication, ARS1, and the CEN4 centromere. pRY171, -173, -181, and -183 contain no yeast origin of replication, and therefore they require integration into a chromosome for maintenance. pRY171 and -173were directed to integrate at the *GAL1-GAL10* locus by cleaving with *Xho*I, wherease pRY181 and -183 were directed to integrate at the *LEU2* locus by cleaving with *Kpn*I.

All eight *lacZ* fusion plasmids formed uniformly blue colonies in *E. coli* P90C on 4'-bromo-5'-chlor-3'-indolyl- β -D-galactoside indicator plates, which is, in part, how they were screened during construction. However, only six of the eight *lacZ* fusion plasmids produced uniformly blue colonies in *S. cerevisiae* DBY745 on MinGal indicator plates (see Materials and Methods). pRY161 and -163 gave a range of colony color from pure white to dark blue under these conditions. Interestingly, pRY161 and -163 contain centromeres, which supposedly stabilize plasmid copy number (58). Hence, we could not satisfactorily explain this result. Due to the variable colony color on indicator plates conferred by pRY161 and pRY163, these plasmids were not used for any further studies.

Sequence of pRY121 fusion junction. pRY121 (and hence pRY131) contained an unexpected *Hin*dIII site near the *GAL1-lacZ* fusion junction. Therefore, the fusion junction was sequenced (Fig. 6). Evidently two *Hin*dIII linkers were inserted during the construction of pRY116 (see Fig. 2), and a single-base-pair deletion compensated in the subsequent construction of pRY121 to give an in-frame fusion. This artifact was not redressed, since the *Hin*dIII site proved to be a useful marker for the *GAL1* end of the insert (R. West, R. Yocum, and M. Ptashne, submitted for publication).

Regulation of *GAL-lacZ* **fusions.** To determine whether expression of the *GAL1*- and *GAL10-lacZ* fusions on the plasmids described above was regulated in the same manner as expression of the intact chromosomal *GAL1* and *GAL10* genes, the various plasmids were transformed into DBY745, which is wild type with respect to all *GAL* regulatory genes. β -Galactosidase activity was then determined after growth in repressing (MinGlu or MinGluGal), inducing (MinGal or MinGalGlyEth), or noninducing, nonrepressing (MinGlyEth) media. The results are shown in Table 2. All six plasmids showed the correct regulatory pattern: β galactosidase was induced at least 1,000-fold by galactose, repressed at least 98-fold by glucose, and uninduced by the nonfermentable carbon sources glycerol plus ethanol.

To examine the effect of known GAL regulatory mutations on the expression of the GAL-lacZ fusions, a set of yeast strains was constructed to give four regulatory mutations, gal4, GAL4^c, gal80, and GAL80^s, in combination with ura3 and leu2 (see Table 1). This allowed selection of the fusion plasmids in the regulatory mutant strains. Each strain was transformed with the GAL1-lacZ fusion plasmid pRY131, grown in the five media mentioned above, and assayed for βgalactosidase activity (Table 3). As expected, the gal4 and the GAL80^s mutants gave little or no activity in any medium, whereas both GAL4^c and gal80 led to constitutive expression of the fusion in nonrepressing, noninducing medium and partially constitutive expression in repressing media.

In vitro deletions. A 365-base pair Ddel-to-Sau3AI fragment (bases 298 to 663 in Fig. 1) was previously shown to contain sufficient information for galactose regulation (the *GAL* UAS) by inserting this fragment into the 5' flanking region of a *CYC1-lacZ* fusion (23). We further delimited the sequences that were sufficient to enable galactose induction to the *GAL10* side of the UAS by constructing a set of deletions in vitro (see Materials and Methods). We chose pLGSD5 (23) as the parent plasmid for constructing the

GAATTCGACA GGTTATCAGC AACAACACAG TCATATCCAT TCTCAATTAG CTTAAGCTGT CCAATAGTCG TTGTTGTGTC AGTATAGGTA AGAGTTAATC CTCTACCACA GTGTGTGAAC CAATGTATCC AGCACCACCT GTAACCAAAA Gagatggtgt cacacacttg gttacatagg tcgtggtgga cattggttt CAATTTTAGA AGTACTTTCA CTTTGTAACT GAGCTGT<u>CAT</u> TTATATTGAA GTTAAAATCT TCATGAAAGT GAAACATTGA CTCGACAGTA AATATAACTT GAL IO TITTCAAAAA TTCTTACTIT ITTTIGGAT GGACGCAAAG AAGTITAATA AAAAGTTTTT AAGAATGAAA AAAAACCTA CCTGCGTITC TICAAATTAT ~ > ATCATATTAC ATGGCATTAC CACCATATAC ATATCCATAT ACATATCCAT TAGTATAATG TACCGTAATG GTGGTATATG TATAGGTATA TGTATAGGTA ATCTAATCTT ACTTATATGT TGTGGAAATG TAAAGAGCCC CATTATCTTA TAGATTAGAA TGAATATACA ACACCITTAC ATTTCTCGGG GTAATAGAAT GCCTAAAAAA ACCTTCTCTT TGGAACTTTC AGTAATACGC TTAACTGCTC CGGATTTTTT TGGAACAGAA ACCTTGAAAG TCATTATGCG AATTGACGAG ATTGCTATAT TGAAGTACGG ATTAGAAGCC GCCGAGCGGG TGACAGCCCT TAACGATATA ACTTCATGCC TAATCTTCGG CGGCTCGCCC ACTGTCGGGA CCGAAGGAAG ACTCTCCTCC GTGCGTCCTC GTCTTCACCG GTCGCGTTCC GCCTTCCTTC TGAGAGGAGG CACGCAGGAG <u>CAGAAG</u>TGGC CAGCGCAAGG TGAAACGCAG ATGTGCCTCG CGCCGCACTG CTCCGAACAA TAAAGATTCT Actttgcgtc tacacggagc gcggcgtgac gaggcttgtt atttctaaga ACAATACTAG CTTTTATGGT TATGAAGAGG AAAAATTGGC AGTAACCTGG TGTTATGATC GAAAATACCA ATACTTCTCC TTTTTAACCG TCATTGGACC CCCCACAAAC CTTCAAATGA ACGAATCAAA TTAACAACCA TAGGATGATA GGGGTGTTTG GAAGTTTACT TGCTTAGTTT AATTGTTGGT ATCCTACTAT ATGCGATTAG TTTTTTAGCC TTATTTCTGG GGTAATTAAT CAGCGAAGCG TACGCTAATC AAAAAATCGG AATAAAGACC CCATTAATTA GTCGCTTCGC 660 670 680 690 700 ATGATTTTTG ATCTATTAAC AGATATATAA ATGCAAAAAC TGCATAACCA TACTAAAAAC TAGATAATTG TCTATATATT TACGTTTTTG ACGTATTGGT CTTTAACTAA TACTTTCAAC ATTTTCGGTT TGTATTACTT CTTATTCAAA GAAATTGATT ATGAAAGTTG TAAAAGCCAA ACATAATGAA GAATAAGTTT * TGTAATAAAA GTATCAACAA AAAATTGTTA ATATACCTCT ATACTTTAAC ACATTATTTT CATAGTTGTT TTTTAACAAT TATATGGAGA TATGAAATTG 810 820 GAL I 840 850 GTCAAGGAGA AAAAACTATA ATGACTAAAT CTCATTCAGA AGAAGTGATT CAGTTCCTCT TTTTTGATAT TACTGATTTA GAGTAAGTCT TCTTCACTAA GTACCTGAGT TCAATTCTAG CGCAAAGGAA TTACCAAGAC CATTGGCCGA CATGGACTCA AGTTAAGATC GCGTTTCCTT AATGGTTCTG GTAACCGGCT AAAGTGCGGA ATTC Eco RI Linker TTTCACCCT TAAG

FIG. 1. DNA sequence of the GAL1-GAL10 divergent promoter region. The 914-base pair EcoRI fragment from pSc4816 was the source of DNA. The EcoRI site at base 908 was formerly an AvaI site in the amino-terminal end of the GAL1 gene. Probable translation start codons are indicated by arrowhead boxes. Possible "TATA" sequences are enclosed in plain boxes. Selected short repeats are shown with arrows. Transcription start sites are indicated by * (27).



FIG. 2. Construction of intermediate plasmids. pRY116, -117, -118, and -119 were designed to provide truncated GAL1 and GAL10 genes and the intergenic sequence for in-frame fusions with *E. coli lacZ* in pLG669 and pSZ211. Abbreviations: A, AvaI; B, BamHI; E, EcoRI; H, HindIII; S, SaII.



FIG. 3. Construction of GAL-lacZ fusions on plasmids containing the 2 μ m replication origin. Shown is construction of pRY131. Construction of pRY133 was identical except that the starting plasmid was pRY118 instead of pRY116 (see Fig. 2). pRY140 was designed to receive internal deletions of the divergent promoter constructed in vitro (West et al., submitted for publication). Abbreviations: B, BamHI; E, EcoRI, H, HindIII; M, XmaI or SmaI; S, SaII; X, XhoI; Kb, kilobases.

deletions since it contained a unique *XhoI* site at the border of the 365-base pair *GAL* UAS. The deletions progressively removed the *GAL10* side of the 365-base pair insert starting at base pair 298 (Fig. 7). The deleted plasmids were then transformed into DBY745, and the transformants were assayed for β -galactosidase activity (see Fig. 7). A deletion from base 298 to base 396 or 406 (Δ 18 or Δ 16) showed no significant loss of activity upon galactose induction. A deletion to base 452 (Δ 31) showed greatly reduced, but nonetheless measurable, induction, whereas a deletion to base 507 (Δ 34) showed complete loss of inducible fusion activity. **Homologous repeats.** To locate possible regulatory sites in the GALI-GAL10 control region, a search for regions of dyad symmetry, internal homologies, and homologies with the region just 5' to the GAL7 gene (44) was made with the MOLGEN<SEQ> computer program. The homology parameters were set to the least possible stringency: homology minimum at 50%, minimum number of consecutive matches at three bases, and probability of significance at 95%. Three types of statistically significant repeated sequences were found: direct repeats, inverted repeats, and short sequences found in both the GAL1-GAL10 and the GAL7 promoter regions. A summary of these repeated sequences showing



FIG. 4. Construction of *GAL-lacZ* fusions on plasmids containing the chromosomal origin of replication, *ARS1*, and the centromere, *CEN4*. Shown is construction of pRY161. Construction of pRY163 was identical except that the starting plasmid was pRY117 instead of pRY119 (see Fig. 2). Abbreviations: B, *Bam*HI; C, *SacI*; E, *Eco*RI; H, *Hind*III; S, *SalI*; X, *XhoI*; Kb, kilobases.



FIG. 5. Construction of GAL-lacZ fusions on integrating plasmids. Starting plasmid pLR1 Δ 3 is similar to pRY131 (Fig. 3) except that a XhoI linker has been artificially inserted in the middle of the divergent promoter (West et al., submitted for publication). Shown is construction of pRY181 and pRY171. Construction of pRY183 was identical to that of pRY181 except that the starting plasmid was pRY123 (see Fig. 3). pRY173 was constructed by reversing the orientation of the BamHI fragment of pRY171 so that an in-frame GAL10-lacZ fusion resulted. Abbreviations: B, BamHI; E, EcoRI; H, HindIII; K, KpnI; M, XmaI; P, PstI; S, SalI; X, XhoI; Kb, kilobases.

their positions upstream from GAL1, GAL7, and GAL10(lined up at their respective major transcription start sites) is shown in Fig. 8. Only a subset of these elements occurred at similar locations in the various genes. Sequences A, B, C, C', E, F, and G varied substantially in distance from the start sites of the genes in which they were found. The highly significant 12-base pair repeat, G, was in the region that matched most poorly with S. carlesbergensis, and in fact neither repeat was intact in S. carlsbergensis (data not shown). Furthermore, all of these sequences from GAL1 and GAL10 lie outside of sequences that are known to be sufficient to confer galactose induction and glucose repres-

sion upon an adjancent promoter (see above and reference 23). Sequence I and J are almost identically situated with respect to the *GAL1* and *GAL10* starts. However, these sequences are also outside the region that is sufficient to confer galactose induction toward the *GAL10* side (see above), and neither site exists upstream from *GAL7*. Thus, it is difficult to imagine how any of these sequences could be involved in galactose regulation.

The direct repeat D and the inverted repeat H are roughly the same distance from transcription start sites of GAL1 and GAL10 and lie within the region suspected to contain the regulatory sequences (see above). A single copy of site D is found upstream from GAL7. Perhaps these sites are involved in galactose regulation. They might represent binding sites for GAL4 protein or other regulatory proteins such as the positive regulator encoded by GAL11 (43).

DISCUSSION

Characterization of GAL-lacZ fusions. The fusion of a slightly truncated E. coli lacZ gene to the amino-terminal coding sequences of a yeast gene gives an easily assayed gene product whose expression is regulated via the flanking yeast sequences (22, 49). Such fusions, constructed on plasmids, greatly facilitate the study of effects of mutations introduced into regulatory sequences. Before undertaking such a study of the regulation of GAL1 and GAL10, we wanted to be certain that regulation of GAL1- and GAL10lacZ fusions on plasmids accurately mimicked regulation of intact, chromosomal GAL1 and GAL10. Regulation of both GAL1- and GAL10-lacZ fusions on integrating plasmids and plasmids bearing the 2 µm replicator accurately reflected the regulation pattern of native GAL1 and GAL10. All fusions showed >1,000-fold induction by galactose and between 90and 180-fold repression by glucose plus galactose (see Table 2). For comparison, galactokinase (GAL1) is induced 1,000fold by galactose and repressed 1,000-fold by glucose (37). The difference between the extent of glucose repression of our fusions and chromosomal GAL1 might result from differences between the media used in the two studies. We routinely used minimal selective media containing 2% galactose plus or minus 2% glucose to grow plasmid-containing yeasts, whereas the studies on galactokinase used a rich medium containing 1% galactose plus or minus 5% glucose (37). The increased ratio of glucose to galactose could account for the increased glucose repression found in the latter study.

For all pairs of matched GAL1 and GAL10 fusion plasmids, the GAL1 fusion gave two- to fourfold more activity than the corresponding GAL10 fusion (see Table 2). This is consistent with galactokinase being synthesized at four times the level of epimerase from the native chromosomal genes (19, 53).

Comparison of β -galactosidase activity from different types of vectors leads to several important conclusions. Integrated fusions gave the same pattern of regulation as fusions borne on replicating circular plasmids, ruling out the possibility that the observed galactose induction was a result of increased plasmid copy number (see Table 2). The nearly



FIG. 6. Sequence of the fusion junction of pRY121 and pRY131. The letters a to e indicate synthetic linkers or remnants thereof that were introduced at the fusion junction. 'lacl' refers to a short portion of the *lacl* gene that occurs in all plasmids derived from pLG669 (20, 22).

TABLE 2. β-Galactosidase activity of GAL1- and GAL10-lacZ fusion plasmids in S. cerevisiae DBY745 grown in minimal selective
media containing various carbon sources

Plasmid								
	Fusion type	Plasmid type	MinGlu	MinGlu Gal	MinGal	MinGly Eth	MinGal GlyEth	repression ratio ^a
pRY131	GALI	2μm	0	83	8,110	0	8,190	98
pRY133	GAL10	2µm	0	10	1,810	0	1,860	181
pRY171	GALI	Integrated at GAL1	0	29	3,800	0	3,650	131
pRY173	GAL10	Integrated at GAL10	0	12	1.310	0	1.260	108
pRY181	GALI	Integrated at LEU2	0	25	3,120	0	3,180	125
pRY183	GAL10	Integrated at LEU2	0	9.0	1,220	0	1,230	135

^a Glucose repression ratio is defined as the number of units from cells grown in galactose divided by the number of units from cells grown in glucose plus galactose.

identical behavior of fusions integrated at the GAL1-GAL10 locus (pRY171 and -173) and fusions integrated at the LEU2 locus (pRY181 and -183) indicated that all sequences necessary for proper regulation are contained on the 914-base pair GAL segment and that long-range effects are probably unimportant. If a change in chromatin structure accompanies galactose induction, then all information needed for that change exists on the 914-base pair fragment.

Two recent determinations of the copy number in yeasts of plasmids containing the 2 μ m replicator gave 7 and 14 copies per haploid genome (24, 28). If we assume that pRY131 exists at seven copies per haploid genome, then the relationship between gene copy number and β -galactosidase activity is nonlinear. pRY171 integrated at one copy per genome gives about half the activity of multipcopy pRY131 (see Table 2). The *GAL4* protein is probably present at only a few copies per cell (30, 31), so it is likely that *GAL4* is limiting and is titrated out by a multicopy plasmid.

Mutations in GAL4 and GAL80 altered expression of the GAL1-lacZ fusion on pRY131 as predicted from the responses of chromosomal GAL1 and GAL10 to the same mutations (11, 47). However, one surprising result was that full glucose repression occurred in our gal80 mutant (Table 3). This suggests that the GAL80 protein plays no role in glucose repression. This contradicts two previous studies, which concluded that the GAL80 protein mediates glucose repression (28) and that inducer exclusion partially accounts for glucose repression in a GAL80 strain, but not in a gal80 strain (23). Resolution of these disagreements will require a strain deleted for GAL80, since the exact allele of gal80 used in the present study was unknown, and it is possible that this allele was only partially deficient for GAL80 function. Glucose repression of the GAL1-lacZ fusion on pRY131 was

TABLE 3. β-Galactosidase activity of pRY131 in several *GAL* regulatory mutants grown in minimal selective media containing various carbon sources

Strain	GAL genotype	β-Galactosidase activity (U)						
		MinGlu	MinGlu Gal	MinGal	MinGly Eth	MinGal GlyEth		
DBY745	GAL4 ⁺ GAL80 ⁺	0	110	7,370	0	7,940		
SHC22c	gal4 GAL80 ⁺	0	0	<i>a</i>	0	0		
SHI6a	GAL4 ⁺ GAL80 ^s	0	0	7 ^b	3	17		
SHE2b	GAL4 ⁺ gal80	37	59	18,900	10,400	19,800		
SHJ1d	GAL4° ĞAL80+	10	155	8,370	18,000	9,420		

^a —, Did not grow at all.

^b Grew very slowly.

also seen in our $GAL4^c$ strain. Thus, constitutive mutations in both GAL80 and GAL4 can still allow normal glucose repression. One interpretation of these results is that glucose repression is, to some extent, independent of the GAL4-GAL80 induction system. However it is also possible that GAL4 or GAL80 or both have functionally independent domains that carry out glucose repression and galactose induction and that our mutant alleles affect only the latter.

We have no good explanation for the growth of our $GAL80^{\rm s}/pRY131$ strain in MinGal medium. Perhaps the $GAL80^{\rm s}-96$ allele used in this study is leaky as was found for a different allele, $GAL80^{\rm s}-16$ (12).

The hyperinduction of GAL1 from pRY131 in our $GAL4^c$ strain grown in glycerol plus ethanol (18,000 versus 8,000 U in galactose; see Table 3) might result from galactose being a partially repressing carbon source in *S. cerevisiae*. In *E. coli*, sugars closely related to glucose, such as galactose and lactose, are known to exhibit partial catabolite repression (33). Hyperinduction of galactokinase in a $GAL4^c$ strain has been previously reported (45). Hyperinduction of GAL1from pRY131 was also found in our *gal80* strain grown in galactose (19,000 versus 10,000 U in glycerol plus ethanol; see Table 3). This might result from partial GAL80 function in our *gal80* strain or GAL80-independent activation of GAL4 by galactose or both.

In vitro deletions. The regulatory sequences in the GAL1-GAL10 intergenic region that respond to GAL4 had been previously shown to reside in a 365-base pair fragment that lies about midway between GAL1 and GAL10 (23). The series of deletions shown in Fig. 7 further defines the minimal sequences sufficient for galactose induction to the GAL10 side (see Results). We conclude from these deletions that there are two adjacent regions involved in galactose regulation: (i) base pairs 406 to 451, which contain sequences necessary for full induction; and (ii) base pairs 452 to 506, which contain sequences capable of independently conferring a low level of galactose induction. The role of the latter sequences in regulation by an intact GAL UAS could be minor. In fact, these results do not necessarily imply that there are two sites of GAL4 action. The region from base pairs 452 to 506 could simply contain part of a single site.

We doubt that the distance between the GAL UAS sequences and transcription start sites is critical, since $\Delta 16$ and $\Delta 18$ bring the UAS about 100 base pairs closer to the transcriptions starts without significantly affecting expression of β -galactosidase. Furthermore, $\Delta 31$ and $\Delta 31R$ show nearly identical levels of β -galactosidase, even though $\Delta 31R$ brings the truncated UAS 23 base pairs closer to the transcription starts than does $\Delta 31$. Thus, we attribute all differ-

		400	500	6	00 50	34 66	z	
or		GC Rich	J. Base	Pairs			GAL I	
GAL IO		L		GLU	GLU	GAL	GLYC	
Plasmid	Structure				GAL		ETOH	
pLGSD5	Control-G	AL UAS Intact		0.5	10	3450	0	
VΙ	317			0.5	9	3470	0	
⊽18		396		2.1	24	4220	0	
∇ 16		406		4.5	21	2390	0	
⊽ 31		452		2.0	3.6	56	0.2	
∇ 3IR		452		1.5	2.6	63	0.2	
⊽ 34			507	1.2	1.6	2.2	1.1	
pLG670	Control – I	No UAS		1.4	1.7	3.9	6.7	
pLG669	Control – (CYCI UAS		73	89	562	910	
					Fusion	Activity	y	

FIG. 7. Deletions of the *GAL* UAS and their effect on activation of transcription to the *GAL10* side. Deletions of pLGSD5 (23) from the *Xho*I site rightward into the *GAL* sequences were constructed as described in the text. Δ 31R contained an accidental additional short deletion to the left. As controls, pLG669 and pLG670, which contain the *CYC1* UAS and no UAS, respectively, were also included (22). The scale at the top refers to base pair coordinates of Fig. 1. The rectangular boxes indicate the sequences deleted from the bar shown on top. The numbers in the rectangular boxes give the coordinate of the first base pair of the deletion endpoint. The brackets on the bar show the guanine-cytosine (GC)-rich region. The numbers to the right give units of β -galactosidase activity for each deleted plasmid in DBY745 grown in minimal selective media containing the carbon sources indicated (see text).

ences between these particular deletions to presence or absence of sequences rather than to spacing between elements.

All of the deletions shown in Fig. 7 gave parallel responses of galactose induction and glucose repression, regardless of the extent of deletion or extent of galactose induction. Even Δ 31, which is severely impaired for galactose induction, still showed 18-fold glucose repression. Thus, we were unable to separate the two types of regulation. Either both types of regulation utilize the same DNA site, or else the sequences that govern glucose repression to the *GAL10* side lie further away from *GAL10* than the sequences involved in galactose activation.

The sequences shown by our deletions to be involved in galactose induction and glucose repression (base pairs 406 to 507) are a subset of the sequences totally conserved between *S. cerevisiae* and *S. carlsbergensis* (base pairs 406 to 568). This is consistent with the involvement of these sequences in regulation. The two species are closely enough related so that the *S. cerevisiae* regulatory proteins operate correctly on the *S. carlsbergensis* GAL1,7,10 genes (6a). These implicated regulatory sequences substantially overlap the guanine-cytosine-rich region noted in Results (base pairs 377 to 485). We know of no good reason why regulatory sequences should be enriched for guanine-cytosine.

pRY121 and -123 were designed so that a set of 5' deletions of both the *GAL1* and *GAL10* fusions could be easily constructed. They were also designed for easily combining these deletions in vitro in pRY140 (see Fig. 3) to give a set of internal deletions and "linker" mutations (41). An extensive set of such mutations has been constructed and analyzed and will be presented elsewhere (West et al., submitted for publication).

Repeated DNA sequences. There are several well-known examples of positive and negative control of gene transcrip-

tion by regulatory proteins that bind to DNA sites at or near the initiation point for transcription. Some of these regulatory regions contain divergent promoters. For example, the right operators of bacteriophages lambda, P22, and 434 all contain three tandem rotationally symmetric sites that bind repressor or cro to regulate divergent transcription from $p_{\rm R}$ and $p_{\rm RM}$ (26). Transcription from the early and late promoters of simian virus 40 is regulated by binding of T antigen to three tandem sites located between the early and late transcription starts (8). In addition, adjacent to the three Tantigen binding sites are a pair of directly repeated 21-base pair sites that bind a regulatory protein called Sp1 (14) and a 72-base pair direct repeat that contains a transcription "enhancer" element that is necessary for high levels of transcription from the early promoter (18). All of these regulatory sites are recognizable by features of their primary sequence structures. We therefore examined the GAL1-GAL10 divergent promoter region and the GAL7 promoter region (44) for common sequences.

Of the many short homologies found, only a couple, D and H, were in the region between bases 406 and 507 that was shown by our deletions to be involved in galactose and glucose regulation (see Results and Fig. 7 and 8). It is tempting to speculate that the inverted repeat H, GAAGACN₁₈GTCTTC, might be a binding site for the GAL4 regulatory protein. The site is rotationally symmetric, as are many known regulatory protein binding sites (26). Furthermore, its 30-base pair size should be large enough to accommodate the GAL4 protein, which is predicted from its DNA sequence to be 99,000 daltons (31a). Simian virus 40 T antigen, which is 94,000 daltons, binds to 30-base pair sites (8). The inverted repeat H is not found in the GAL7 upstream sequence, but a sequence that resembles it, GAAGGCN₁₈GTCTAA, was found 250 base pairs upstream from the GAL7 transcription start. This spacing is nearly



FIG. 8. Schematic diagram of short DNA sequence homologies in the upstream regions of GAL1,7,10. The three upstream DNA sequences were compared pairwise with the MOLGEN<SEQ> homologies program. The sequences were lined up at their respective major transcription start sites. The scale at the top indicates the base pair coordinates from Fig. 1 lined up with the GAL1 gene. The GAL7 sequences and major transcription start site were provided by Nogi and Fukasawa (44). The position of each sequence is indicated by an arrowhead pointing in the 5' to 3' direction of the sequence referred to by the capital letter. A list of the actual sequences is given below the schematic. GC, guanine-cytosine.

identical to that of the H repeats and the GAL10 starts (see Fig. 8).

Of course, it is possible that the homology search did not uncover the actual *GAL4* binding sites. As a control experiment, the bacteriophage lambda and 434 right and left operators were subjected to the same homology search program used above. None of the operator sites were picked out (data not shown). This is because (i) the lambda sites have imperfect symmetry within the sites and spotty homology between sites, and (ii) the conserved 4-base-pair motif at the ends of the phage 434 operator sites was not considered statistically significant by the program used. Thus, wellknown symmetric protein binding sites are not necessarily found by computer searches. The role, if any, for the repeated sequences found in the computer search will require further study.

Conclusion. We have constructed GAL1- and GAL10-lacZ fusions and have shown that these fusions can be used to study the regulation of GAL1 and GAL10. We used these fusions to identify a 45-base pair sequence midway between GAL1 and GAL10 that contains information necessary for a normal level of galactose induction toward the GAL10 side. This sequence lies between -253 and -298 with respect to the major GAL10 transcription starts. From -299 to -353 is another region containing sequences that can independently confer a measurable but low level of galactose induction to the GAL10 side. Our results are consistent with those found in a similar study of the effect of deletions on the expression of chromosomal GAL1 and GAL10 (27). Future work will address the mechanisms whereby these regulatory sequences control transcription from sites hundreds of base pairs away from transcription starts.

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