A novel yeast gene, *THO2*, is involved in RNA pol II transcription and provides new evidence for transcriptional elongation-associated recombination

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We have identified two novel yeast genes, THO1 and THO2, that partially suppress the transcription defects of $hpr1\Delta$ mutants by overexpression. We show by in vivo transcriptional and recombinational analysis of *tho2* Δ cells that *THO2* plays a role in RNA polymerase II (RNA pol II)-dependent transcription and is required for the stability of DNA repeats, as previously shown for *HPR1*. The *tho2* Δ mutation reduces the transcriptional efficiency of yeast DNA sequences down to 25% of the wild-type levels and abolishes transcription of the lacZ sequence. In addition, $tho2\Delta$ causes a strong increase in the frequency of recombination between direct repeats (>2000-fold above wild-type levels). Some DNA repeats cannot even be maintained in the cell. This hyper-recombination phenotype is dependent on transcription and is not observed in DNA repeats that are not transcribed. The higher the impairment of transcription caused by *tho2* Δ , the higher the frequency of recombination of a particular DNA region. The *tho2* Δ mutation also increases the frequency of plasmid loss. Our work not only identifies a novel yeast gene, THO2, with similar function to HPR1, but also provides new evidence for transcriptional blocks as a source of recombination. We propose that there is a set of proteins including Hpr1p and Tho2p, in the absence of which RNA pol II transcription is stalled or blocked, causing genetic instability.

Keywords: DNA repeats/genetic instability/*THO1* and *THO2*/transcription elongation/transcription-induced recombination

Introduction

Transcription, in addition to its essential and unique role in gene function, may be intimately related with other DNA transactions. A paradigm of this relationship is the eukaryotic transcription factor TFIIH, which contains proteins of the nucleotide excision repair (NER) machinery and has a functional role in both transcription and excision repair (Bhatia *et al.*, 1996; Friedberg, 1996; Hoeijmakers *et al.*, 1996). Although the putative dual function of this factor in transcription and NER is not obvious, it clearly seems to play an important role in transcription-coupled repair. Transcriptional activity has also been shown to be related to mutagenesis. Thus, high rates of mutation have been found in actively transcribed genes in yeast (Datta and Jinks-Robertson, 1995). In addition, the hypermutation mechanism of immunoglobulin genes, essential in the origin of antibody diversity, seems to be associated with transcription (Goyenechea *et al.*, 1997). Although the molecular basis of this association is not yet understood, it clearly indicates an important role of transcription in mutation and repair.

A very intriguing relationship has also been observed between transcription and recombination. Recombination has been shown to be stimulated by transcriptional activity both in prokaryotes (Dul and Drexler, 1988; Villette et al., 1992), and eukaryotes from yeast to mammals. In yeast it has been shown that recombination leading to deletions between direct repeats is stimulated by activation of transcription occurring via the RNA pol I enhancer HOT1 (Voelkel-Meiman et al., 1987; Stewart and Roeder, 1989), RNA pol II-dependent promoters (Thomas and Rothstein, 1989; Grimm et al., 1991; Bratty et al., 1996) or Tyexpression (Nevo-Caspi and Kupiec, 1994). A connection between transcription and recombination has also been provided in mammalian cells for homologous genes (Nickoloff, 1992; Thygarajam et al., 1995) and for immunoglobulin gene rearrangements (Blackwell et al., 1986; Lauster et al., 1993). It is certainly likely that unwinding of the DNA duplex, changes in local supercoiling or remodelling of the chromatin structure associated with transcription might facilitate recombination by improving (i) the accessibility of the recombination-repair proteins, (ii) the formation of transient DNA-protein structures with transcription-associated activities that could initiate recombination, or (iii) the strand exchange reaction (Thomas and Rothstein, 1989; McCormack and Thompson, 1990; Dröge, 1993; Kotani and Kmiec, 1994). Consistent with these hypotheses, it has been shown that mutations in the structural genes for DNA topoisomerases TOP1, TOP2 (Christman et al., 1988) and TOP3 (Wallis et al., 1989), and the genes involved in chromatin structure SIR2 (Gottlieb and Esposito, 1989) or SPT4 and SPT6 (Malagón and Aguilera, 1996) confer hyper-recombination between different types of DNA repeats in yeast. Sitespecific recombination is stimulated in vitro by negative supercoiling transiently built by an advancing RNA polymerase (Dröge, 1993) and transcription stimulates in vitro RecA-promoted strand exchange of nucleosomal templates (Kotani and Kmiec, 1994). In addition, it has been shown that meiotic recombination initiates preferentially at promoter regions (Baudat and Nicolas, 1997) or is increased at the DNA binding sites of transcription factors in eukaryotes from yeast (White et al., 1991) to mammals (Shenkar et al., 1991). Altogether these results suggest that there may be different transcription-associated events triggering recombination.

We have recently shown that impairment of RNA pol II-dependent transcriptional elongation may induce mitotic recombination between direct repeats in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Hpr1p is a protein required for proper transcriptional elongation by RNA pol II. In the absence of Hpr1p, the elongating RNA pol II is presumably stalled or blocked at particular DNA regions (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997), triggering a deletion event by recombination between the flanking repeats (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997; Prado *et al.*, 1997). The intimate relationship between recombination and transcription in *hpr1* Δ cells is strengthened by the observation that two components of the mediator of the RNA pol II holoenzyme, Srb2p (Koleske *et al.*, 1992) and Hrs1p/Pgd1p (Piruat *et al.*, 1997; Myers *et al.*, 1998) are completely required for *hpr1*-induced deletions (Piruat and Aguilera, 1996; Santos-Rosa *et al.*, 1996).

To gain further information on the mechanism of induction of recombination by transcription-elongation impairment, we have identified two new yeast genes, THO1 and THO2, that suppress the $hpr1\Delta$ transcriptional defects by overexpression. In vivo genetic and molecular analyses of the effect of these genes and their corresponding null mutations reveals that Tho2p has similar effects on transcriptional and genetic stability to Hpr1p. Our work not only provides new evidence that transcriptional elongation may be associated with recombination, but suggests that there is a set of proteins required for RNA pol II-transcription, including Hpr1p and Tho2p, the absence of which may cause recombinogenic stalls. In addition, this work confirms our recombination-based approach as a powerful way to identify new genes participating in transcription.

Results

Isolation of THO1 and THO2 as multicopy suppressors of the ts and transcriptional phenotypes of hpr1 Δ

To understand the function of *HPR1* in transcription and the mechanism by which transcriptional elongation is associated with genetic instability, we searched for genes that suppressed $hpr1\Delta$ by overexpression. Such genes might have functions partially related to HPR1. To isolate genes that suppressed the incapacity of $hpr1\Delta$ cells to express *lacZ*, we first selected clones that in multicopy suppressed the thermosensitivity (ts) phenotype of $hpr1\Delta$ cells, expecting that they would also suppress their incapacity to express lacZ. We first selected 19 veast transformants with the MW90 multicopy library that were able to grow at 37°C and, subsequently, confirmed their capacity to express the GAL1-lacZ construct of plasmid p416GAL1lacZ. Deletion analysis and partial DNA sequencing of the 19 clones isolated (see Materials and methods) permitted us to define two previously uncharacterized open reading frames (ORFs), THO1 (16 clones) and THO2 (3 clones) (suppressors of the transcriptional defects of <u>hpr1</u> Δ by <u>overexpression</u>), as multicopy suppressors of $hpr1\Delta$. THO1 corresponds to the previously defined YER063w ORF of chromosome V (DDBJ/EMBL/ GenBank accession No. U18813) and THO2 to the YNL139c ORF of chromosome XIV (DDBJ/EMBL/Gen-Bank accession No. Z71416; Mallet et al., 1995), also included in the DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank as RLR1 (Required for LacZ RNA) by R.W.West (Ithaca, NY). THO1 encodes a basic protein of 218 amino acids (theoretical mol. wt

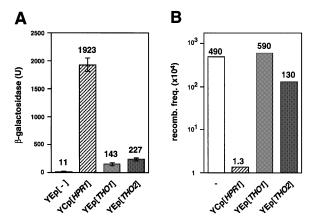


Fig. 1. Effect of the overexpression of THO1 and THO2 on lacZ gene expression and DNA repeat recombination. (A) β-galactosidase activities of the $hpr1\Delta$ strain AYW3-3D transformed with the multicopy plasmid pLGS5 carrying the GAL1::lacZ construct and either YEp351 (control, YEp[-]), YCpA13 (YCp[HPR1]), pSUP4 (YEp[THO1]) or pSUP38 (YEp[THO2]). Either 2% glucose or 2% galactose was added to 16 h mid-log phase cultures in glycerol-lactate synthetic medium, and enzymatic activities were assayed 8 h later. Only the data of induced expression (2% galactose) are given. Under repression conditions (2% glucose) β -galactosidase values were ~1 U in all cases (data not shown). Numbers represent the average value of two different transformants in 2% galactose. Standard deviations are indicated as vertical bars. (B) Recombination frequency of the chromosomal leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k construct of the same transformants as before with the only exception of the control, that is the untransformed AYW3-3D strain. Recombinants were scored on SC+FOA. Numbers represent the median frequency value obtained from six independent cultures each.

24.1 kDa) with no relevant homology to any other yeast protein. No homologous gene has yet been detected in any other organism. *THO2* encodes a protein of 1597 amino acids (theoretical mol. wt 184 kDa), with no relevant homology to any other yeast protein. An homologous ORF of *THO2* exists in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (region SPAC22F3.14c). There is no relevant domain to be mentioned from either Tho1p or Tho2p that could give us a clue to their function.

As shown in Figure 1A, $hpr1\Delta$ cells show 13 and 21 times higher levels of *lacZ* expression when containing *THO1* or *THO2* in multicopy, respectively. This is 7.4 and 11.8% of the wild-type levels, respectively, indicating that overexpression of *THO1* and *THO2* partially suppresses the incapacity of $hpr1\Delta$ cells to transcribe through *lacZ*. However, this partial suppression of the transcriptional phenotype is not accompanied by suppression of the strong hyper-recombination phenotype of $hpr1\Delta$. Recombination of $hpr1\Delta$ cells is not significantly changed by the presence of *THO1* or *THO2* in multicopy (Figure 1B), although it is noteworthy that the latter has levels of recombination 4.5 times below the $hpr1\Delta$ levels. These results are indeed consistent with the idea that transcription is defective in $hpr1\Delta$ cells transformed with *THO1* or *THO2* in multicopy.

The tho1 Δ mutation has no effect on transcription and recombination; tho2 Δ increases recombination and impedes GAL1–lacZ expression

To gain more insight into the biological processes in which *THO1* and *THO2* could participate *in vivo* we constructed *tho1* Δ ::*TRP1* and *tho2* Δ ::*LEU2* deletions by gene replacement (see Materials and methods). Both

deletion mutants were viable, implying that neither *THO1* nor *THO2* is essential. Whereas *tho1* Δ mutants grow with the same doubling time as the wild type on YEPD at 30°C (85 min), *tho2* Δ form small colonies and grow with twice the doubling time of the wild-type (180 min). In addition, *tho2* Δ cells are also thermosensitive for growth (and do not form colonies) at 37°C.

The most relevant phenotypes of $hpr1\Delta$ are impairment of transcription elongation through lacZ (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997) and increased recombination between repeats (Aguilera and Klein, 1990; Prado et al., 1997). Since the way THO1 and THO2 were isolated suggests that they might have functions partially related to HPR1, we decided to analyze expression of GAL1-lacZ and recombination in *tho1* Δ and *tho2* Δ mutants. As can be seen in Figure 2A, lacZ expression occurs at wild-type levels in *tho1* Δ cells, whereas it was abolished in *tho2* Δ . In addition, *tho1* Δ has wild-type levels of recombination in the chromosomal *leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k* repeat construct, whereas $tho2\Delta$ shows a strong increase in recombination (2620 times above the wild-type levels), that is 7-fold above even the $hpr1\Delta$ levels (Figure 2B). Such a hyper-recombination phenotype is clearly observed as a strong red-sectoring phenotype of the $tho2\Delta$ cells containing the *leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k* construct (Figure 2C).

These results suggest that Tho2p is functionally related to Hpr1p. Not only does overexpression of Tho2p partially overcome the transcription defects of $hpr1\Delta$, but $tho2\Delta$ mutants show similar incapacity to express GAL1-lacZ, increase of DNA-repeat recombination and slow growth and ts phenotypes as $hpr1\Delta$. In addition, $hpr1\Delta$ and $tho2\Delta$ double mutants do not show a synergistic effect on recombination (Figure 2B), indicating that THO2 and HPR1 act on the same biological process. Interestingly, overexpression of HPR1 does not suppress the transcriptional defects of *tho2* Δ (data not shown), what might suggest that the Tho2p has a more important role on transcription than Hpr1p. Neither overexpression of HPR1 nor that of THO2 has any effect on lacZ transcription and recombination of wild-type cells (data not shown). THO1 might also have a role in transcription that can partially substitute for that of Hpr1p. However, given the lack of phenotypes of *tho1* Δ , even in a *hpr1* Δ background, we decided to concentrate on the *in vivo* molecular analysis of THO2.

THO2 is required for transcription by RNA pol II

The incapacity of $hpr1\Delta$ strains to express GAL1-lacZ is due to their incapacity to transcribe through lacZ, since $hpr1\Delta$ strains are able to activate the GAL1 promoter. Indeed, $hpr1\Delta$ cells are able to transcribe a GAL1-PHO5 fusion construct (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). In order to determine whether the lack of expression of GAL1-lacZ in tho2 Δ strains is due to their incapacity to transcribe the lacZ sequence, we compared the expression levels of GAL1-lacZ with those of GAL1-PHO5 located in singlecopy centromeric plasmids. As seen in Figure 3, whereas β -galactosidase was very weakly expressed in tho2 Δ strains, acid phosphatase reached 25% of the wild-type levels. This result indicates that transcription can initiate at the GAL1 promoter in tho2 Δ strains. Therefore, THO2 is required for transcription of the lacZ sequence. However,

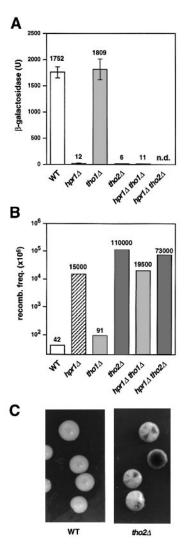


Fig. 2. Effect of the *tho1* Δ and *tho2* Δ mutations on *lacZ* gene expression and DNA repeat recombination. (A) β-galactosidase activities of the GAL1-lacZ fusion construct in the strains AW33-1B (WT), AW33-1C (hpr1 Δ), AW33-2C (tho1 Δ), WR-4B (tho2 Δ) and AW33-8A (hpr1 Δ tho1 Δ) transformed with multicopy plasmid pLGSA5 under induced conditions of expression (2% galactose). No determination was made for $hpr1\Delta$ tho2 Δ strains (n.d., not determined). Under repression conditions (2% glucose) β-galactosidase values were ~1 U in all cases (data not shown). For other details see legend to Figure 1A. (B) Recombination frequency of the chromosomal leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k construct in the strains AW33-12A (WT), AW33-9D (hpr1Δ), AW33-1D (tho1Δ), WRA-4D (tho2 Δ), AW33-2A (hpr1 Δ tho1 Δ) and WRA-31B (hpr1 Δ tho2 Δ). For other details see legend to Figure 1B. (C) Wild-type AW33-12A and tho2A WRA-7B strains growing on SC medium with 16 mg/l adenine and 75 mg/l FOA. A strong red-sectored phenotype is observed in the tho2 Δ mutant as a consequence of the high frequency of deletions of the ADE2 gene by recombination.

our result also indicates that $tho2\Delta$ confers a significant reduction in the expression of *GAL1–PHO5*. As expected, no effect of $tho2\Delta$ on transcription was detected under repression conditions (data not shown).

Similar levels of expression of GAL1-lacZ and GAL1-PHO5 were observed in $tho2\Delta$ and $tho2\Delta$ hpr1 Δ cells (Figure 3), confirming a lack of synergism of both mutations.

To confirm that the absence of lacZ expression and the reduced expression levels of *PHO5* was caused by

transcriptional rather than post-transcriptional defects, we determined the kinetics of activation of both the *lacZ* and the *PHO5* mRNA by Northern analysis. Figure 4 shows that *GAL1*-driven *lacZ* mRNA was not accumulated at all in *tho2* Δ cells after galactose induction, whereas *PHO5* was accumulated up to 18% of the wild-type levels (Figure 4B). These data are consistent with the enzymatic assays (Figure 3), and confirm that *tho2* Δ cells, as previously

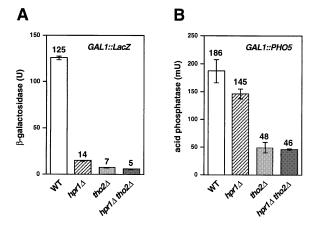


Fig. 3. Expression of *lacZ* and *PHO5* fused to the *GAL1* promoter. (A) β -galactosidase activity of isogenic strains WR-4A (WT), U768–4C (*hpr1*\Delta), WR-4B (*tho2*\Delta) and UR-1A (*hpr1*\Delta *tho2*\Delta) transformed with centromeric plasmid p416GAL1lacZ carrying the *GAL1-lacZ* fusion construct. (B) Acid phosphatase activity of the same strains as before, transformed with centromeric plasmid pSCh202 carrying the *GAL1-PHO5* fusion construct. The average value and standard deviation of two different transformats are given. Only the data of induced expression are given. Under repression conditions values were ~1 U and 5 mU for β -galactosidase and acid phosphatase, respectively. Other details are the same as in Figure 1.

shown for $hpr1\Delta$, cannot transcribe through *lacZ*. In addition, even though transcription occurs through the *PHO5* ORF, there is a significant reduction in the level of *PHO5* mRNA, which suggests that Tho2p might also be required for transcription of *PHO5*. Nevertheless, an additional role for Tho2p in initiation at the *GAL1* promoter cannot be dismissed in order to explain such reduction in *PHO5* mRNA levels.

Since all results previously shown refer to GAL1 fusion constructs located in centromeric plasmids, it was important to show that $tho2\Delta$ had similar effects on transcription of chromosomal endogenous genes, whether constitutive or regulated. The mRNA driven from the endogenous chromosomal GAL1 gene is also accumulated in tho 2Δ cells to 16% of the wild-type levels after induction with galactose (Figure 5), a value similar to those obtained with the episomal GAL1-PHO5 construct. On the other hand, the mRNA driven from the constitutive ACT1 endogenous gene is also significantly reduced, as it only reaches 32-53% of the wild-type levels. These results suggest a general role for Tho2p in transcription of yeast genes, regardless of whether they are located in plasmids or chromosomes, and whether they are constitutive or regulated.

Promoter-independent defects of transcription in tho 2 Δ cells

Known regulatory block- or pausing-sites of transcription in eukaryotic genes are near their 5' ends and require transcriptional activators to be bypassed by RNA pol II (for review see Eick *et al.*, 1994; Bentley, 1995). Transcriptional elongation impairment in *hpr1* Δ cells, however, is promoter-independent (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). To

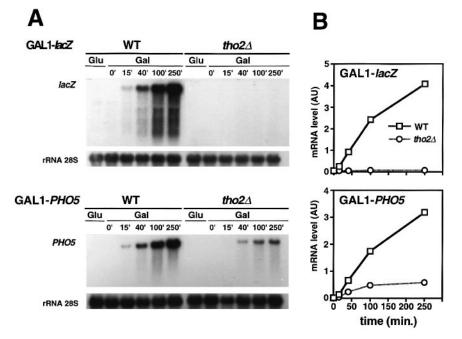


Fig. 4. Transcription analysis of GAL1-lacZ and GAL1-PHO5. (**A**) Northern analysis of lacZ and PHO5 mRNAs driven from the GAL1 promoter in the strains WR-4A (WT) and WR-4B ($tho2\Delta$) transformed with p416GALlacZ and pSCh202. Transformants were obtained from overnight cultures in glycerol-lactate synthetic media lacking uracil and diluted in identical fresh media to an OD_{600} of 0.5 for wild type and 1.0 for $tho2\Delta$. Galactose (Gal) was then added and samples were taken for Northern analysis after different times, as specified. For repression conditions (Glu), total RNA was isolated from mid-log phase cultures in 2% glucose synthetic media lacking uracil. The DNA probes used were the 0.5 kb *Bam*HI–*Hpa*I 5' end fragment of lacZ (lacZ), a 1.5 kb *Eco*RI–*PsI*I internal *PHO5* fragment (*PHO5*) and a 589 bp 28S rRNA internal fragment obtained by PCR (rRNA). (**B**) Kinetics of induction of GALI-promoter driven expression of full-length lacZ and *PHO5* mRNAs a determined by quantification of the Northern blots. The mRNA values are given with respect to the rRNA levels. AU, arbitrary units.

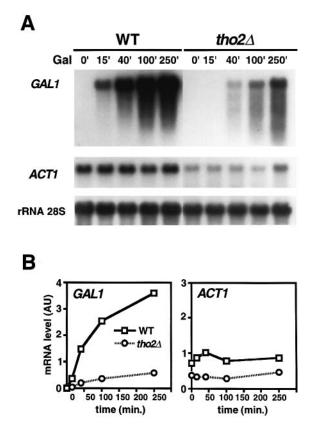


Fig. 5. Transcription analysis of the endogenous *GAL1* and *ACT1* genes. (A) Northern analysis of endogenous *GAL1* and *ACT1* mRNA levels in wild-type WR-4A and *tho2* Δ WR-4B strains after different times of addition of 2% galactose to 2% glycerol-3% lactate medium. (B) Kinetics of expression as determined by quantification of the previous Northern blots. The DNA probes used were a 0.75 kb *PvuII–AvaI* GAL1 internal fragment (*GAL1*) and a 0.55 kb *ClaI–ClaI ACT1* internal fragment (*ACT1*). Other details are the same as in Figure 4.

assess whether transcription elongation is defective in $tho 2\Delta$ cells we determined the effect of $tho 2\Delta$ on transcription of a GAL1-PHO5-lacZ fusion construct identical to the previously characterized GAL1-PHO5, but with the lacZ coding sequence inserted at the untranslated region (UTR) of PHO5. This means that the RNA pol II has to elongate 1.5 kb of PHO5 sequences before entering lacZ. We have already observed that RNA pol II can elongate through *PHO5* to some extent in *tho2* Δ cells (Figures 3 and 4). However, as can be seen in Figure 6, when lacZis inserted downstream of PHO5 (Figure 4) full-length PHO5-lacZ mRNA is accumulated in wild-type cells but not in the 2Δ cells after galactose-induction. Since in the GAL1-PHO5 construct PHO5 transcripts could be clearly detected (Figure 4), the incapacity of GAL1-PHO5-lacZ to produce PHO5-lacZ mRNA must be caused by a transcriptional elongation defect at lacZ. Quantification of total mRNA from the GAL1-PHO5-lacZ construct, indeed, shows that $tho2\Delta$ cells accumulate up to 12% of the levels of the wild-type (Figure 6B), confirming that transcription proceeds through the PHO5 coding sequence, as expected, but not through *lacZ*. Therefore, the reduction in mRNA levels observed in $tho2\Delta$ cells can be explained by the incapacity of the RNA pol II to transcribe through lacZ, regardless of the distance to the promoter from which it is transcribed.

To confirm whether transcription elongation was

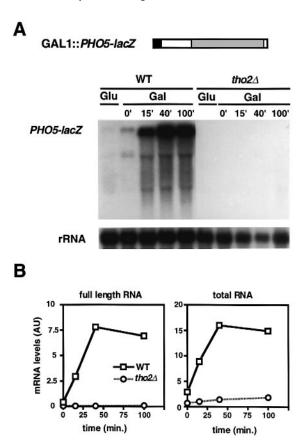


Fig. 6. Transcription analysis of the GALI-PHO5-lacZ fusion construct in wild-type and $tho2\Delta$ strains. (A) Northern analysis of the yeast strains RK2-6A (WT)and RK2-6C ($tho2\Delta$) transformed with the centromeric plasmid pSCh212 carrying the GALI-PHO5-lacZconstruct in which the lacZ ORF is inserted at the 3' UTR of PHO5. (B) Kinetics of induction of expression of full-length PHO5-lacZ and total mRNA as determined by quantification of the Northern blots. The mRNA values are given with respect to the rRNA levels. Other details are the same as in Figure 4.

impaired in tho 2Δ cells at the GAL1-PHO5-lacZ, we performed run-on analysis in permeabilized cells. We found very low levels of RNA synthesis at any given place along the PHO5-lacZ fragment, including the 5' end (Figure 7). Therefore, the strong effect of $tho2\Delta$ on transcription under the conditions used is observed even at initiation. It is probable that the negative effect of *tho2* Δ on transcription initiation impedes detection of any possible effect on elongation. However, given the complete lack of transcript acumulation in the GAL1-PHO5-lacZ construct in $tho2\Delta$ cells (Figure 6), it is also possible that elongation through PHO5-lacZ is blocked in the absence of Tho2p. As a consequence, transcription may not be able to reinitiate or to resume upstream of potential stall regions, explaining the very low levels of RNA pol II activity along the whole PHO5-lacZ region observed in the run-on analysis (Figure 7). Therefore, the run-on analysis clearly confirms an important role of Tho2p in transcription, but cannot answer the question of whether Tho2p has a role in transcription elongation and/or initiation.

Transcriptional elongation impairment causes hyper-recombination in tho 2Δ cells

We have recently shown that the impairment of transcriptional elongation causes genome instability (high frequen-

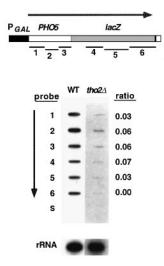


Fig. 7. Transcriptional run-on analysis in wild-type and $tho2\Delta$ cells. Total RNA was isolated from wild-type RK2-6A and tho2∆ RK2-6C strains transformed with single copy plasmid pSCh212 carrying the GAL1-PHO5-lacZ construct. Two percent galactose was added to yeast cultures in glycerol-lactate synthetic medium at an OD₆₀₀ of 0.1, 1 h prior to the run-on analysis. A 589 bp 28S rRNA internal fragment, three fragments of PHO5 (lanes 1-3) and three of lacZ (lanes 4-6) were immobilized in hybond-N+ filters. The PHO5-lacZ DNA region covering each of the six DNA fragments used is shown. In all cases, the percentage of radiolabelled mRNA bound to each fragment was normalized with respect to their corresponding levels in wild-type cells, taken as 100%. The orientation of the PHO5-lacZ arrow indicates the direction of transcription. As negative control we used DNA from Salmonella typhimurium (lane S). Experiments using 2% glucose (repression conditions) instead of galactose gave no signal for any of the DNA fragments used in both wild-type and tho 2Δ cells (data not shown).

cies of recombination and plasmid-loss), as shown in $hpr1\Delta$ cells (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). Since $tho2\Delta$ cells show similar hyper-recombination and transcription defects as $hpr1\Delta$, we assessed whether or not both phenotypes were also linked in $tho2\Delta$ cells.

We determined the effects of $tho2\Delta$ on recombination between two 0.6 kb direct repeats. We used three directrepeat constructs, all of them based on the same 0.6 kb leu2 internal fragment (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). In these constructs, either the *lacZ* or *PHO5* coding sequences have been inserted between the two direct repeats, inmediately downstream from a 3'-end truncated copy of LEU2 and immediately upstream of a 5'-end truncated copy of LEU2. In the three repeats, transcription is initiated at the unique LEU2 promoter located outside of the repeats, and has to traverse 760 bp of *LEU2* before proceeding through *lacZ* or *PHO5*. The *lacZ* is inserted in the same transcriptional orientation as LEU2 (L-lacZ construct), whereas PHO5 is inserted in either the same (L-PHO5) or the opposite (L-PHO5r) orientation. In the latter case, transcription terminates exactly downstream of the LEU2 3'end truncated repeat, at the terminator of the PHO5 gene (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). If the strong hyperrecombination phenotype of $tho2\Delta$ is associated with defective transcription elongation through lacZ or PHO5, we predict a very strong hyper-recombination phenotype at L-lacZ, weaker at L-PHO5 and much weaker, if any, at L-*PHO5r*.

As can be seen in Figure 8, the results confirmed our

predictions. The frequency of recombination in the L-lacZ construct is so high that these strains cannot maintain the duplication of the leu2 fragment (Figure 8B). All cells (100%) lost the duplication. As a consequence, the LEU2driven mRNA, clearly observed in wild-type cells, is undetectable in *tho2* Δ cells. In the L-PHO5 construct, the levels of mRNA covering the first leu2 repeat and PHO5 in *tho2* Δ cells were 6–7% of the wild-type levels, whereas recombination frequencies reach 700 times the wild-type levels (38% of the cells lost the construct). This result confirms that, indeed, transcription elongation is impaired at the *PHO5* sequence causing the deletion of the repeat construct, as in L-lacZ. The higher recombination frequencies of L-lacZ versus L-PHO5 in tho2 Δ strains (Figure 8B) are consistent with the observation that transcription does not proceed through *lacZ*, but does it through *PHO5* with 25% of the wild-type efficiency (Figures 3 and 4). In the L-PHO5r construct, in which only the 3'-end truncated copy of the LEU2 repeat is transcribed, recombination in *tho2* Δ strains is 48 times the wild-type levels. The transcript levels in $tho2\Delta$ cells is 12% of the wild-type levels. The lower recombination frequencies of L-PHO5r (3.7%) versus L-PHO5 (38%) are consistent with the observation that transcription does not elongate properly through PHO5, causing stronger DNA repeat instability. Indeed, these results suggest that transcription of *LEU2* is also defective in $tho2\Delta$ cells and responsible for the increase of recombination observed in L-PHO5r. This is consistent with a general role for Tho2p in transcriptional elongation of RNA pol II-transcribed yeast genes. It is important to note that in the direct repeat constructs studied, recombination can initiate only inside the repeat or in the regions flanked by the repeats, but not outside such sequences (Prado and Aguilera, 1995). Thus, a putative defect of transcription at the externally located LEU2 promoter would not have consequences on the stability of the repeats. Therefore, our recombination studies confirm a role of Tho2p in transcription elongation, even though they do not exclude an additional role in initiation.

To provide definitive evidence that the hyper-recombination phenotype conferred by $tho2\Delta$ is dependent on transcription we decided to change the external LEU2 promoter of the three direct-repeat constructs studied by the regulated GAL1 promoter, so that we could determine the effect of $tho2\Delta$ on recombination under conditions of no transcription. No transcripts were detected in glucoserepressed conditions (Figure 8C), and the frequency of recombination was very similar in the three repeat constructs in wild-type and $tho2\Delta$ cells, with the only significant exception of the 10-fold increase observed in the frequency of recombination of $tho2\Delta$ in the GL-lacZ construct. This 10-fold increase could be due to leaky transcription of the GAL1 promoter-derived constructs, as could be detected in the Northern blot experiments when the radiolabelled filters were overexposed (data not shown). The low levels of recombination observed in the three constructs studied under non-transcription conditions implies that the presence of either lacZ or PHO5 between the *leu2* flanking repeats has no effect on $tho2\Delta$ -induced recombination, unless both sequences are transcribed. Thus, whereas in wild-type cells the frequency of recombination of any of the repeat constructs tested

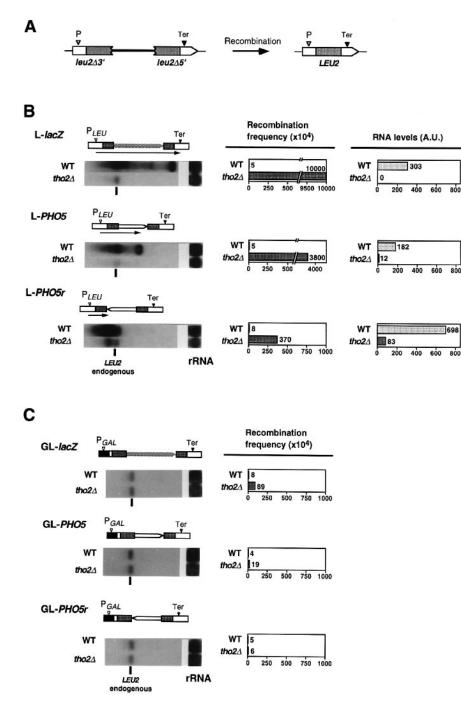


Fig. 8. Transcription and recombination analysis of direct repeat systems in wild-type and *tho2* Δ strains carrying *lacZ*- (3 kb) or *PHO5*- (1.5 kb) coding regions. (A) Scheme of the deletion resulting from recombination between the direct repeats used. The diagram shows the 0.6 kb internal *LEU2* repeated sequences (shaded boxes), the position of the promoters (P), whether the *LEU2* or *GAL1* promoter, and the *LEU2* transcription terminators (Ter). (B) Recombination frequencies and mRNA levels determined by Northern analysis in wild-type RK2-6A (WT) and RK2-6C (*tho2* Δ) transformed with the centromeric plasmids pSCh204, pSCh206 or pSCh207 carrying the L-*lacZ*, L-*PHO5* and L-*PHO5*r repeat constructs, respectively. The orientation of the *lacZ* and *PHO5* coding regions is shown. The transcripts driven from the *LEU2* promoter (P_{*LEU*}) are indicated as arrows, and their 3' ends have been made to coincide with the position of the corresponding band in each Northern blot. Total RNA was isolated from overnight cultures in synthetic media lacking tryptophan. The *LEU2* probe used in the hybridization experiments were the 485 bp *Cla1–EcoRI LEU2* repeat. The rDNA probe used was the same as in Figure 4. The transcript corresponding to the *LEU2* endogenous chromosomal band is indicated. (C) Northern analysis and recombination frequencies of the GL-*lacZ*, GL-*PHO5* and GL-*PHO5* repeat constructs in which the direct repeats have been placed under the control of an external *GAL1* promoter (PGAL). Wild-type RK2-6A (WT) and RK2-6C (*tho2* Δ) strains transformed with the centromeric plasmids p414GLlacZ, pSG206 and pSG207, respectively, were used. For the fluctuation tests, colonies were obtained from SC-trp (see Materials and methods). Recombinations were selected in SC-leu supplemented with 2% galactose.

was the same regardless of transcription, in $tho2\Delta$ cells recombination under transcription conditions (*LEU2* promoter) (Figure 8B) was up to 200-fold higher than under non-transcription conditions (*GAL1* promoter under

repression conditions), in which case $tho2\Delta$ cells show wild-type levels of recombination (Figure 8C). These results confirm that the hyper-recombination phenotype of $tho2\Delta$ is associated with transcriptional elongation.

Table I. Mitotic	stability	of	centromeric	plasmids	in	<i>tho</i> 2Δ mutants
Lable 1. Milloue	stubility	o1	centromerie	prasinius		moza mutanto

Strain ^a	Cells carry p416GAL1	ing plasmid ^b lacZ (%)	Cells carrying plasmid ^b pSCh202 (%)		
	Glucose	Galactose	Glucose	Galactose	
$THO2 \\ tho2\Delta$	64.0 4.9	27.0 2.1	42.0 5.4	22.0 1.3	

^aStrains used were RK2-6A (*THO2*) and RK2-6C (*tho2* Δ). ^bStability was determined after 23 generations on YEPD. Each value represent the median value of six independent determinations.

Plasmid-instability in tho2*A* cells

Recombination could not be assayed in the *GAL1*-derived repeats under induction conditions for transcription (galactose), because $tho2\Delta$ transformants carrying such constructs were very unstable in galactose-containing medium, suggesting that transcription was associated with plasmid instability in $tho2\Delta$ cells. Given these results and the increased levels of plasmid loss associated with transcription in $hpr1\Delta$ cells (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997), we assayed whether or not plasmids became unstable in $tho2\Delta$ cells in a transcription-dependent manner.

We determined the frequency of loss of the centromeric plasmids p416GAL1lacZ and pSCh202 carrying the GAL1-lacZ and GAL1-PHO5 fusion constructs, respectively. As can be seen in Table I, both plasmids were very unstable under repression conditions (Glu) in tho 2Δ mutants, and even more unstable under induction conditions of transcription (Gal). The differences observed between repression and induction conditions are not sufficient to conclude that $tho2\Delta$ also causes plasmid instability in a transcription-dependent manner, as was previously shown for $hpr1\Delta$. However, since the shuttle vectors used in our study carry the yeast URA3 gene as the selection marker, and transcription through URA3 might be impaired in $tho2\Delta$ cells, we cannot exclude the possibility that the instability observed in glucose was also transcriptiondependent.

Hyper-recombination in tho2 Δ is completely suppressed by the hrs1 Δ and srb2 Δ mutations of the RNA pol II basal transcription machinery

If $hpr1\Delta$ and $tho2\Delta$ mutations cause the same transcriptional elongation defects responsible for hyper-recombination, the two previously identified suppressors of the hyper-recombination phenotype of $hpr1\Delta$ should also abolish hyper-recombination in $tho2\Delta$ cells. Consequently, we assayed whether hyper-recombination in $tho2\Delta$ requires a funtional Hrs1p and/or Srb2p components of the RNA pol II holoenzyme, as has been previously shown for $hpr1\Delta$ cells (Piruat and Aguilera, 1996; Santos-Rosa *et al.*, 1996; Piruat *et al.*, 1997). Both $hrs1\Delta$ and $srb2\Delta$ completely suppress the hyper-recombination phenotype of $tho2\Delta$ cells (Figure 9). These results are consistent with the conclusion that Hpr1p and Tho2p participate in the same biological process, their null mutations having identical consequences for the cell.

Discussion

We have identified two new yeast genes, *THO1* and *THO2*, that suppress the transcriptional defects of $hpr1\Delta$ by

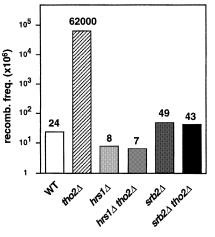


Fig. 9. Suppression of the hyper-recombination phenotype of $tho2\Delta$ by $hrs1\Delta$ and $srb2\Delta$ in the *leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k* construct. Strains used were WRK5-3C (WT), WRK5-1C ($tho2\Delta$), WRK5-7B ($hrs1\Delta$), WRK5-2D ($tho2\Delta$ $hrs1\Delta$), HDY3-3D ($srb2\Delta$) and WDY3-3C ($tho2\Delta$ $srb2\Delta$). Other details are the same as in Figure 1.

overexpression. We show genetic and molecular evidence that *THO2* (also named *RLR1* in the yeast genome database), is a gene with a similar effect as *HPR1* on RNA pol II-driven transcription. Putative stalling of transcription produced in *tho2* Δ null mutants is responsible for a very high frequency of deletions between repeats. We show that Tho2p is not only required for proper RNA pol IIdependent transcription, but also provides new evidence that transcriptional elongation is associated with recombination and genetic instability. In addition, our work confirms our recombination-based approach as a succesful way to identify new proteins involved in transcription *in vivo*.

Tho2p has a role in transcription

Since overexpression of *THO1* and *THO2* partially suppresses the incapacity of $hpr1\Delta$ cells to express lacZ mRNA, it is likely that both genes encode functions partially related to *HPR1*. However, whereas no transcriptional or recombinational phenotype is associated with the $tho1\Delta$ mutation, $tho2\Delta$ confers the same phenotypes as $hpr1\Delta$.

Our *in vivo* genetic and molecular analysis of $tho2\Delta$ cells suggests a role for Tho2p in transcription similar to Hpr1p. The *tho2* Δ mutants are unable to transcribe through *lacZ*, as previously observed for $hpr1\Delta$ (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). Transcription through yeast genes is also impaired in tho 2Δ cells, reaching 17-37% of the wildtype levels, a phenotype observed in $hpr1\Delta$ cells only under the presence of the transcriptional elongation inhibitor 6azauracil. These results are independent as to whether the promoter lies in a plasmid or its natural chromosomal location (Figures 4, 5 and 6). Such results can be interpreted by an additional role of Tho2p at the initiation step of transcription, as the run-on analysis of the GAL1-PHO5-lacZ construct suggests (Figure 7). In any case, Northern analysis on different fusion constructs (Figures 4 and 6) reveals that Tho2p may have a role in elongation. Thus, when the lacZ sequence was inserted at the 3' end UTR PHO5 region, no accumulation of PHO5-lacZ fulllength transcript could be observed, implying that the attempt of the RNA pol II to elongate transcription through *lacZ* after having transcribed 1.5 kb of *PHO5r* causes a reduction in the accumulation of PHO5 mRNA (Figure 6). The same result was obtained when either lacZ or PHO5 was located downstream of the 760 bp of the LEU2 5' end (Figure 8). Again, the attempt of the LEU2promoter-driven RNA pol II to elongate transcription through *lacZ* or *PHO5* strongly reduces the accumulation of LEU2 mRNA. Thus, the strong reduction in the kinetics of transcript accumulation in $tho2\Delta$ cells is observed regardless of either the type of promoter used, whether constitutive or regulated, or the distance between the putative stall region and the promoter. This suggests that at least part of the reduction of transcript accumulation observed in *tho2* Δ cells is caused by transcriptional elongation defects. Indeed we cannot exclude the possibility that the low transcript-initiation levels observed in the run-on analysis (Figure 7) could be caused by an incapacity of *tho2* Δ cells to reinitiate transcription as a consequence of strong transcriptional blocks downstream of the promoter. In any case our work does not exclude a possible role for Tho2p in transcription initiation or promoter clearance.

The defective transcription of yeast genes observed in $tho2\Delta$ mutants (Figures 4 and 5), that was not observed in $hprl\Delta$ mutants (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997), might suggest that the role of Tho2p in transcription is more important than that of Hpr1p. One possibility is that Tho2p had an active role in transcription, by either interacting with chromatin or the transcription machinery, and that Hpr1p was only required for such interaction or for full Tho2p function. In the absence of Hpr1p, Tho2p could still have some residual function as to allow transcription through yeast genes, but not through *lacZ*.

The role of THO2 in transcription elongation is strengthened by the observation that the strong hyperrecombination phenotype of $tho2\Delta$ cells is only observed in DNA repeats in which transcription elongation takes place. The repeat constructs used in our studies are transcribed from an externally located promoter (GAL1 or LEU2). As we have previously shown that deletion events can only be initiated at the *leu2* repeated sequences or at the intervening sequence located in between, but not outside of such sequences (Prado and Aguilera, 1995), a putative defect of $tho2\Delta$ cells in transcription initiation or promoter clearance, cannot be responsible for the hyperrecombination phenotype. Instead, hyper-recombination is only observed when RNA pol II attempt to elongate through either the repeats or the intervening sequences (Figure 8), consistent with the suggestion that $tho2\Delta$ is affected at the transcriptional elongation step. In this sense, it is noteworthy the high instability of the PHO5 sequence located between the leu2 repeats when transcribed from the external LEU2 promoter (38% of the cells deleted PHO5; Figure 8B) as compared with its wild-type levels of instability (0.06%) when not transcribed (Figure 8C). This result confirms indeed that transcription elongation through the yeast PHO5 gene is impaired, explaining both the low accumulation of PHO5 mRNA (Figures 4, 6 and 8) and the hyper-recombination phenotype associated with $tho2\Delta$.

The impairment of transcription through yeast genes may be among the reasons why $tho2\Delta$ strains grow so poorly, especially in synthetic medium. Transcription defects might be critical for some essential genes at high temperatures or might be overcome by other redundant functions at low temperatures, causing thermosensitivity for growth. It is important to note that the $hpr1\Delta$ tho 2Δ double mutants do not show synergistic effects on either the recombinational or transcriptional phenotypes. This suggests that both HPR1 and THO2 play a functional role at a similar step in transcription, a conclusion also supported by the observation that hyper-recombination associated with transcriptional elongation in both $hpr1\Delta$ and *tho2* Δ are suppressed by the same mutations, *hrs1* Δ and $srb2\Delta$ (Figure 9). In any case, Tho2p seems to have a stronger effect on transcription and recombination than Hpr1p. Not only is transcription of yeast genes impaired in the 2Δ strains in the absence of the transcriptional elongation inhibitor 6-azauracil (Figures 3,4 and 5), but a strong hyper-recombination phenotype is observed in DNA repeat constructs in which $hpr1\Delta$ has no effect (Figure 8; Chávez and Aguilera, 1997).

As with Hpr1p, we do not know the function that Tho2p might have in transcription. Tho2p may be required for both initiation and elongation of transcription. However, its putative role in transcription elongation is the only one responsible for the hyper-recombination phenotype of *tho2* Δ cells, as previously shown for *hpr1* Δ (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997; Prado et al., 1997). We believe that the function of Tho2p is not related to TFIIS, because Tho2p seems to function at the same level as Hpr1p, which we have shown is distinct from TFIIS (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). Consistent with this, tho 2Δ does not confer sensitivity to 6-azauracil (S.Chávez and A.Aguilera, unpublished results), as expected if TFIIS activity was impaired in *tho2* Δ cells. Tho2p, like Hpr1p, might have a role in either facilitating elongation of RNA pol II through particular chromatin structures and supercoiled DNA or preventing arrest of RNA pol II by allowing reading through transient pauses. Interestingly, it has recently been identified a new factor from HeLa nuclear extracts, FACT, that facilitates transcription elongation through nucleosomes (Orphanides et al., 1998). Other proteins involved in transcriptional elongation that may act at this level are TFIIF, elongin, ELL (eleven-nineteen lysine-rich leukemia) (for review see Uptain et al., 1997) or the mammalian Cockayne syndrome group B protein CSB (van Gool et al., 1997a), which resides in an RNA pol II-containing complex (van Gool et al., 1997b) and has been shown to contact ternary complexes of elongating RNA pol II (Tantin et al., 1997) and to enhance elongation (Selby and Sancar, 1997).

We do not know whether there is a particular DNA or chromatin feature or topological constraint causing a putative stalling of the RNA pol II in the absence of a functional Tho2p. In this sense, it is noteworthy that the chromatin-related Spt4p and Spt5p proteins are involved in transcription elongation (Hartzog *et al.*, 1998; Wada *et al.*, 1998) and that pausing during transcriptional elongation in the human *hsp70* gene depends on nucleosome templates and requires active SWI/SNF complex and the HSF1 activator for its release (Brown *et al.*, 1996; Brown and Kingston, 1997). However, we believe that the transcriptional defects of *tho2* Δ strains is different to pausing controlled by transactivators as an integral part of the initiation step (Yankulov *et al.* 1994), because they can be caused by DNA regions located 1.5 kb downstream of the promoter (Figure 6). Tho2p might also be required for the processivity of the RNA pol II, since the longer the DNA sequence to be transcribed the stronger the effect of the null mutations (Figures 3–7).

Putative stalling of transcription elongation in tho 2 Δ cells induces recombination

The *tho2* Δ mutants show a very strong increase in the frequency of recombination between DNA repeats leading to deletions, that can be up to 2000-fold the wild-type levels (Figures 2 and 8). As discussed earlier, the hyperrecombination phenotype is only observed in repeat constructs that are transcribed. The stronger the effect of tho 2Δ on transcription elongation of the region flanked by the repeats, the higher the frequency of deletions. Thus, the *lacZ* sequence, that cannot be transcribed in *tho2* Δ cells, cannot even be maintained between direct DNA repeats (Figure 8B). This is consistent with the idea that deletions in *tho2* Δ cells are caused by transcriptional elongation blocks. Tho2p is also important for the stability of centromeric plasmids (Table I). However, we cannot establish whether this instability is also transcriptiondependent.

The linkage between transcriptional elongation and hyper-recombination between repeats suggests a likely explanation for the induction of recombination associated to the 2Δ similar to that proposed for hpr1 Δ (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). A stalled transcriptional elongation complex may promote either (i) the formation of doublestrand breaks, or (ii) the arrest of the replication fork. In the first case, DNA breaks may be facilitated by a major accessibility of nucleases to the stall sequence, either because an open chromatin structure is formed around the putatively stalled ternary complex, or because proteins participating in elongation (i.e. topoisomerase I) caused nicks. In this context, we cannot dismiss the possibility that the stalled RNA pol II holoenzyme could participate in a recruitment of recombination proteins such as in transcription-coupled repair (for review see Bhatia et al., 1996; Friedberg, 1996; Hoeijmakers et al., 1996). Intriguingly, the recombinational-repair protein Rad51p has been found in the human RNA pol II holoenzyme (Maldonado et al., 1996). Also, hyper-recombination in $tho2\Delta$ cells is completely dependent on functional Srb2p and Hrs1p, two of the components of the mediator of transcriptional regulation of the RNA pol II holoenzyme (Koleske and Young, 1994; Piruat and Aguilera, 1996; Piruat et al., 1997; Myers et al., 1998).

The second hypothesis suggesting that recombination in $tho2\Delta$ cells is induced by an arrest of the replication fork after colliding with a stalled transcription complex is consistent with the observations that replication forks transiently arrest at transcribed DNA regions in yeast (Desphande and Newlon, 1996) and that high frequencies of illegitimate recombination are associated with converging replication and transcription machineries in *Escherichia coli* (Vilette *et al.*, 1992). Such collisions could either cause double-strand breaks, as reported for replication arrests in *E.coli* (Michel *et al.*, 1997) or could lead to the deletion of the DNA region containing the putative stalled complex by slippage of the DNA polymerase between flanking repeats.

Transcription elongation and its connection with DNA repeat recombination

Enhancement of recombination by transcription has been reported in different organisms from prokaryotes to higher eukaryotes (Blackwell et al., 1986; Dul and Drexler, 1988; Grimm et al., 1991; Nickoloff, 1992). In yeast it is well-established that recombination between repeats is stimulated by transcription driven from strong promoters that results in high transcript levels (Stewart and Roeder, 1989; Thomas and Rothstein, 1989; Nevo-Caspi and Kupiec, 1994). Interestingly, in *tho2* Δ mutants, DNA repeat recombination is also stimulated by transcription driven from strong promoters. However, it results in low rather than high transcript levels as a consequence of the incapacity of the RNA pol II to complete elongation, as was also shown for hpr1 mutants (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997; Prado et al., 1997). Whether this difference implies a distinct mechanism of induction of recombination is an open question. Hyper-recombination in $tho2\Delta$ cells requires that the RNA pol II attempt to elongate through the repeat construct. Interestingly, HOT1-stimulated recombination requires transcription through the repeats (Voelkel-Meimann et al., 1987), and the GAL10 direct repeats used by Thomas and Rothstein (1989) express a weak transcript of the DNA sequence located between the repeats. Also, in all recombinational substrates used to show transcription-induced recombination, DNA sequences that are normally expressed at low levels, such as Ty and ORFs from genes involved in amino acid or nucleotide metabolism, were fused to a strong promoter (Grimm et al., 1991; Nevo-Caspi and Kupiec, 1994; Bratty et al., 1996). Therefore, it is still possible that an enhanced rate of transcription in such constructs could increase the frequency of elongation failures that could trigger recombination, consistent with our hypothesis for $hpr1\Delta$ -(Chávez and Aguilera, 1997) and *tho2* Δ - (this study) induced recombination events.

Finally, it is noteworthy the recent observation that recombination between a plasmid and a chromosome is enhanced by transcription if driven from the *GAL1* promoter (RNA pol II-dependent), but not if driven from the *ADH1* (RNA pol II), rDNA (RNA pol I) and *RPR1* (RNA pol III) promoters (Bratty *et al.*, 1996). This argues against the possibility that the opening of the chromatin structure associated with transcriptional activity is sufficient to explain transcription-induced recombination. Chromatin changes are associated with transcription driven from any of these promoters, yet the recombination effects are very different.

In summary, we provide new evidence that transcription elongation can be a source of mitotic recombination between repeats. Our work suggests that the recombinogenic events caused during transcriptional elongation are not rare events produced uniquely under the absence of Hpr1p (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). There is a subset of proteins, including Hpr1p and Tho2p in yeast, whose function might be to facilitate transcription by RNA pol II (Kane, 1994; Friedberg, 1996; Uptain *et al.*, 1997). In the absence of such proteins the elongating RNA pol II could stall, triggering genetic instability by either interference with DNA replication or induction of recombinational repair. Our transcription elongation-dependent recombination assay is a powerful tool for the

Table II. Strains

Strain	Genotype	Source
AYW3-3D	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k hpr1∆3::HIS3	Santos-Rosa and Aguilera (1995)
AYW3-1B	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k can1-100	Piruat and Aguilera (1996)
HDY3-3D	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k srb2 Δ 102::HIS3 can1-100	Piruat and Aguilera (1996)
W303-1A	MATa ura3-1 ade2-1 his3-11,5 trp1-1 leu2-3,112 can1-100	R.Rothstein
W303-1B	MAT aura3-1 ade2-1 his3-11,5 trp1-1 leu2-3,112 can1-100	R.Rothstein
U768-4C	MATa ura3-1 ade2-1 his3-11,5 trp1-1 leu2-3,112 hpr1∆3::HIS3 can1-100	R.Rothstein
AWY-3A	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k can1-100	this study
AW33-1B	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2	this study
AW33-1C	MAT α ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 hpr1 Δ 3::HIS3	this study
AW33-2C	MAT α ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2 tho1 Δ ::TRP1	this study
AW33-8A	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2 tho 1Δ ::TRP1 hpr 1Δ 3::HIS3	this study
AW33-12A	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k	this study
AW33-9D	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k hpr1 Δ 3::HIS3	this study
AW33-1D	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k tho1 Δ ::TRP1	this study
AW33-2A	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k tho1 Δ ::TRP1 hpr1 Δ 3::HIS3	this study
WRA-4D	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k tho2∆::LEU2 can1-100	this study
WRA-7B	MATα ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k tho2Δ::LEU2 can1-100	this study
WRA-31B	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k tho2 Δ ::LEU2 hpr1 Δ 3::HIS3	this study
WR-4A	MATα ura3-1 ade2-1 his3-11,5 trp1-1 leu2-3,112 can1-100	this study
WR-4B	MATa ura3-1 ade2-1 his3-11,5 trp1-1 leu2-3,112 tho2∆::LEU2 can1-100	this study
UR-1A	MATα ura3-1 ade2-1 his3-11,5 trp1-1 leu2-3,112 tho2Δ::LEU2 hpr1Δ3::HIS3 can1-100	this study
WRK5-3C	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k can1-100	this study
WRK5-1C	MATα ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k tho2Δ::LEU2 can1-100	this study
WRK5-7B	MATα ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k hrs1Δ::KAN1 can1-100	this study
WRK5-2D	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k tho2 Δ ::LEU2 hrs1 Δ ::KAN1	this study
WDY3-3C	MATa ura3 ade2 his3 trp1 leu2-k::ADE2-URA3::leu2-k tho2 Δ ::LEU2 srb2 Δ 102::HIS3	this study
RK2-6A	MATα ura3-1 ade2-1 his3-11,5 trp1-1 leu2-3,112 can1-100	this study
RK2-6C	MATa ura3-1 ade2-1 his3-11,5 trp1-1 leu2-3,112 tho2∆::KAN1 can1-100	this study

identification of new genes involved in transcription. This is necessary not only to understand the transcription process itself, but to provide a molecular framework to explain transcriptional elongation-associated recombination and genetic instability.

Materials and methods

Strains and plasmids

The yeast strains used in this study, listed in Table II, are congenic to W303-1A and AYW3-3D, which are congenic strains. Plasmids are listed in Table III.

To obtain the 0.16 kb *Bam*HI–*Cla*I *LEU2* fragment used to construct the plasmid p414GLEU2 (Table III), 500 bp of the 5' end of the *LEU2* ORF starting 6 bp upstream of the translation initiation site were PCR-amplified with the oligonucleotides CGC<u>GGATCC</u>ATTCTAATGT-CTGCCCCTAA and CTTCTGGAACGGTGTATTGT. This procedure introduced a *Bam*HI site (underlined sequence) at the 5' end of the *LEU2* ORF that was used for subcloning right after the *GAL1* promoter.

Genetic analysis and determination of recombination and plasmid-loss frequencies

Genetic analysis was performed as previously described, following standard procedures for media and growth conditions (Kaiser *et al.*, 1994). Yeast strains were transformed with lithium acetate according to Schiestl and Gietz (1989). 5-FOA was added at the concentration of 500 mg/l in synthetic medium with 1 g/l proline as the nitrogen source. For the scoring of the bacterial KAN gene in yeast, G418-sulfate was used at the concentration of 200 mg/l in YEPD.

Recombination frequencies were calculated as the median frequency of six independent cultures as previously published (Prado and Aguilera, 1995). For direct-repeat constructs placed under the control of the *GAL1* promoter, recombination frequencies were calculated from colonies growing on selective synthetic medium supplemented with either 2% glucose (repressed conditions). Recombinants were scored in 2% galactose-containing media.

The frequency of plasmid loss was calculated as the median frequency of six independent cultures grown on non-selective rich medium for 23 generations, as previously described (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). All tests were made in duplicate.

Enzymatic assays

For the analysis of *GAL1*-driven expression, mid-log phase cells were inoculated in 3% glycerol-2% lactate synthetic medium at a concentration of $1.5-2.0\times10^7$ cells/ml and incubated for 16 h. Afterward, either 2% glucose or 2% galactose was added. After 8 h at 30°C either β-galactosidase or acid phosphatase activity was assayed as described (Guarente *et al.*, 1982; Haguenauer-Tsapis and Hinnen, 1984) in either permeabilized or whole cells, respectively.

DNA manipulation and analysis

DNA from *E.coli* and yeast was prepared as previously published (Prado *et al.*, 1997). [³²P]dCTP-labelled DNA probes were prepared as described (Feinberg and Vogelstein, 1984). DNA hybridization was performed in 50% deionized formamide, $6 \times$ SSC, $5 \times$ Denhardt's solution, 25mM NaPO₄ pH 6.5, 0.5% SDS and 0.1 mg/ml salmon sperm DNA at 42°C for 18 h.

DNA amplification was made by PCR with Expand-High-Fidelity *Taq* polymerase (Boehringer Mannheim).

Double-chain DNA was sequenced by the dideoxy-chain termination method with T7 DNA polymerase (Sequenase) and $5'-[\alpha-^{35}S]$ thiotriphosphate using the M13 universal primers.

RNA analysis

Yeast RNA was prepared from exponential cultures in the appropriate selective medium, subjected to electrophoresis on formaldehyde-agarose gels and hybridized with radiolabeled DNA probes following previously published procedures (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997). Filters were first hybridized with either the *lacZ*, *PHO5* or *LEU2* probe, and then rehybridized with the *ACT1*, *GAL1* or 28S rDNA probe after removal of the former signals. Quantification of mRNA levels was performed in a β -radiation Fujix Analizer and are given in arbitrary units. All values were normalized with respect to the 28S rRNA detected by hybridization with a ³²P-oligolabelled 589 bp rRNA internal fragment obtained by PCR as described (Chávez and Aguilera, 1997).

For the run-on analysis we used one microgram of DNA denatured with NaOH from each *lacZ* and *PHO5* fragment immobilized on Hybond-N+ filters with a pR600 Slot Blot (Hoefer, USA). Run-on was performed according to previously described protocols (Elion and Warner, 1986; Osborne and Guarente, 1989) following the modifications described by Chávez and Aguilera (1997), with the only difference that cells were harvested after 1 h of induction with galactose instead of 5 h.

Table III. Plasmids

Plasmid	Description	Source
YEp351	YEp vector based on the LEU2 marker	Hill et al. (1986)
pR\$316	YCp vector based on the URA3 marker	Sikorski and Hieter (1989)
p314LB	YCp vector based on TPR1 and carrying two tandem direct repeats of 600 bp of LEU2	Prado and Aguilera (1996)
YCpA13	YCp vector based on LEU2 and carrying the HPR1 gene	Aguilera and Klein (1990)
pFA6KANMX4	<i>E.coli</i> vector carrying a translational fusion of the <i>KAN</i> ORF of Tn903 to the <i>TEF</i> gene of <i>A.gossypii</i>	Wach et al. (1994)
oSUP4	YEp351 with a 7.5 kb Sau3A ^a THO1 genomic fragment inserted at SalI	this study
oSUP6	YEp351 with a 7.4 kb Sau3A ^a THO1 genomic fragment inserted at SalI	this study
oSUP24	YEp351 with a 6.3 kb Sau3A ^a THO1 genomic fragment inserted at SalI	this study
pSUP38	YEp351 with a 7.3 kb Sau3A ^a THO2 genomic fragment inserted at SalI	this study
oSP401	YEp351 with the 1.6 kb PstI-XbaI fragment of pSUP4 inserted at PstI-XbaI	this study
pSP402	YEp351 with the 2.2 kb PstI-XbaI fragment of pSUP4 inserted at PstI-XbaI	this study
pSP381	YEp351 with the 3.0 kb XbaI–XbaI fragment of pSUP38 inserted at XbaI	this study
pSP383	YEp351 with the 4.0 kb XbaI-PstI fragment of pSUP38 inserted at PstI-XbaI	this study
pSTH5	pRS316 with the 0.75 kb SpeI–KspI fragment of pSUP4 inserted at SpeI–KspI	this study
pSTH35	pSTH5 with the 0.45 kb XhoI–DraI THO1 3' end fragment of pSP402 inserted at XhoI–ClaI ^a	this study
pSTH35∆T	pSTH35 with the 0.85 kb Bg/II-EcoRI TRP1 fragment inserted at EcoRI-BamHI	this study
pSP38L	pSUP38 in which the 5.75 kb BamHI-SalI fragment has been substituted by the 2.68 kb BglII- SalI LEU2 fragment	this study
pSP38∆L	pSP38L with the 1.9 kb HindIII-HindIII fragment of pSUP38 inserted at SmaI	this study
pBSTH02∆	pBluescriptII SK- with the 3.78 kb SmaI-HindIII fragment of pSP38AL inserted at SmaI-HindIII	this study
pLGS∆5	YEp plasmid based on the URA3 marker and the <i>lacZ</i> gene under the yeast CYC1–GAL1,10 promoter	Guarente et al. (1982)
p416GAL1lacZ	YCp plasmid based on the URA3 marker and the <i>lacZ</i> coding region under the GAL1 promoter	Mumberg et al. (1994)
pSCh202	identical to p416GAL1lacZ with the PHO5 coding region, instead of <i>lacZ</i> , fused to the GAL1 promoter	Chávez and Aguilera (1997
pSCh204	YCp plasmid based on the TRP1 marker and containing the L-lacZ construct	Chávez and Aguilera (1997
pSCh206	identical to pSCh202 with the L-PHO5 construct instead of L-lacZ	Chávez and Aguilera (1997
pSCh207	identical to pSCh206 with the L-PHO5r construct instead of L-PHO5	Chávez and Aguilera (1997
p414GAL1	YCp expression plasmid based on the TRP1 marker and the GAL1 promoter	Mumberg et al. (1994)
p414GLEU∆	p414GAL1 with the 1.41 kb <i>ClaI–SalI LEU2</i> fragment fused to the <i>GAL1</i> promoter inserted at <i>ClaI–XhoI</i>	this study
p414GLEU2	p414GLEU Δ with a 0.16 kb <i>Bam</i> HI– <i>Cla</i> I fragmentb containing the 5' end of <i>LEU2</i> inserted at <i>Bam</i> HI– <i>Cla</i> I	this study
pSG206	pSCh206 in which the 1.22 kb <i>SacI–ClaI LEU2</i> promoter region has been substituted by the 0.62 kb <i>SacI–ClaI</i> fragment of p414GLEU2 containing the <i>GAL1</i> promoter and the 5' end of <i>LEU2</i>	this study
nSC-207	LEU2 identical to pSG206 but based on the pSGb207	this study
pSG207 p314GLB	identical to pSG206 but based on the pSCh207 p314LB in which the 1.22 kb <i>SacI–ClaI LEU2</i> promoter region has been substituted by the	this study S.González-Barrera
рэт40гр	0.62 kb SacI–ClaI fragment of p414GLEU2 containing the GAL1 promoter and the 5' end of LEU2	5.0011Zalez-Darrera
p314GLlacZ	p314GLB with the 3 kb <i>Bam</i> HI <i>lacZ</i> fragment from pPZ (Straka and Hörz, 1991) inserted at <i>Bg</i> /II between the <i>leu2</i> repeats	S.González-Barrera
pSCh212	YCp plasmid containing the GAL1–PHO5–lacZ fusion construct	Chávez and Aguilera (1997

^aRestriction sites blunt-ended with Klenow prior to ligation.

^bFragment obtained by PCR as described in text.

Isolation of the THO1 and THO2 genes

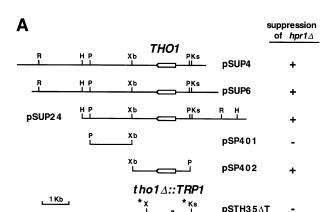
The $hpr1\Delta$ strain AYW3-3D was used to screen for yeast genes that, when placed in a multicopy vector, complemented the growththermosensitivity (ts) phenotype of $hpr1\Delta$. From 2.5×10⁵ transformants with the yeast MW90 library constructed in the YEp351 multicopy vector (Waldherr et al., 1993), we selected 24 for their capacity to grow on SC-leu at 37°C. From 19 of the transformants we isolated four different plasmids that defined two different genomic DNA regions. Three of the plasmids (pSUP4, pSUP6 and pSUP24) were found in 8, 2 and 6 independent transformants, respectively. These plasmids overlapped in an internal 4.75 kb DNA region (Figure 10). The fourth plasmid, pSUP38, was found in three independent transformants and contains a unique 7.3 kb fragment from a different DNA region from that of the first three plasmids. Deletion analysis of the two different DNA regions isolated indicated that the 2.27 kb XbaI-PstI internal fragment of the inserts of the first three plasmids (Figure 10A) contains one gene and the central XbaI site of the insert of plasmid pSUP38 mapped in the ORF of a second gene (Figure 10B) that was able to complement the ts phenotype of $hpr1\Delta$, as shown by back-transformation experiments. We named these genes THO1 and THO2, respectively. DNA sequence analysis of 200 and 181 bp from the XbaI and PstI sites of pSP402 (Figure 10A), respectively, and 170 bp from the left end of pSUP38 (Figure 10B) and subsequent comparison of these sequences with the yeast genome database revealed that THO1 was the YER063w

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ORF from the right arm of chromosome V (DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank accession No. U18813), whereas *THO2* was the YNL139c ORF from the left arm of chromosome XIV, also named *RLR1* (DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank No. Z71416; Mallet *et al.*, 1995).

Construction of tho 1 Δ and tho 2 Δ null mutants

The genomic THO1 and THO2 genes were deleted by gene replacement. To construct the thold::TRP1 deletion we replaced the 0.7 kb SpeI-DraI fragment of THO1 with a 0.85 kb BglII-EcoRI fragment containing the entire TRP1 gene. It was made by transforming the wild-type diploid strain AYW3-1B×AWY-3A with the linearized 2.3 kb XhoI-KspI fragment of plasmid pSTH35 Δ T (Figure 1A). For the tho2 Δ ::LEU2 deletion we replaced the 3.66 kb HindIII-SalI internal fragment of THO2 with a 2.62 kb SalI-BglII fragment containing the entire LEU2 gene. It was made by transforming the wild-type diploid strain W303-1A \times W303-1B with the linearized 3.8 kb SmaI-HindIII fragment of plasmid pSP38 Δ L (Figure 10B). For the *tho*2 Δ ::KAN deletion we replaced the entire 4.79 kb THO2 ORF, with the exception of the 40 bp at each end, with a 1.53 kb fragment containing the bacterial KAN gene (Figure 10B). It was made by transforming the wild-type diploid strain W303-1A×W303-1B with a linear 1.6 kb fragment containing the KAN gene flanked on each side by 40 bp of the THO2 end-regions. This linear DNA fragment was obtained by PCR of plasmid pFA6KANMX4 with the 60-mers: ATGGCAGAACAGACGCTACTTTCCAAATTGAACG-



BXDHP

В

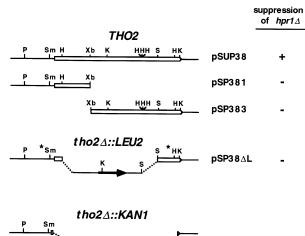


Fig. 10. Restriction maps of different *THO1* and *THO2* clones and the *tho1* Δ and *tho2* Δ mutations. (**A**) Restriction maps of the *THO1* DNA region contained in the plasmids isolated or constructed for this work. The ability of each construct to complement the ts phenotype of *hpr1* Δ in a multicopy vector is shown. (**B**) Idem for *THO2*. The structure of the *tho1* Δ ::*TRP1*, *tho2* Δ ::*LEU2* and *tho2* Δ ::*KAN1* mutation allele is also shown. (**n** (*) indicates the restriction sites used to obtain the linear DNA fragments used for the gene-replacement transformation. The linear *tho2* Δ ::*KAN1* construct was obtained by PCR and used directly for transformation (see Materials and methods). The *THO1* and *THO2* genes are indicated as open boxes. Restriction sites shown are: H, *Hind*III; K, *Kpn*I; Ks, *Ksp*I; P, *Pst*I; R, *Eco*RI; S, *Sal*I; Sm, *SmaI*; X, *XhoI*; Xb, *XbaI*.

<u>CTCTTTT</u>CTAGTGGATCTGATATCATC and <u>AATTACCTCTGGTA-CCTACTGACGTAATTCCCACCCTTG</u>GCAGCTGAAGCTTCGT-ACGCT, which cor- respond to 20 bp of the sequences flanking the *KAN* gene (indicated as plain text) plus the (+1 to +40) and the (+4756 to +4796) sequences of the *THO2* gene (underlined; start and stop codons indicated in bold).

The resulting heterozygous *THO1/tho1* Δ and *THO2/tho2* Δ diploids were subjected to tetrad analysis. In all cases, 4-viable-spore tetrads were obtained, with a 2:2 segregation for either the *LEU2*, *TRP1* or *KAN* traits, according to the genotype of the strain analysed. Southern and DNA hybridization analysis of two complete tetrads of each of the three diploids constructed, revealed the expected cosegregation of the absence of *THO1* and *THO2* bands with the presence of *TRP1* and either *LEU2* or *KAN* bands, respectively (data not shown). Therefore, the three deletion alleles constructed had the expected genomic structure and both *THO1* and *THO2* are non-essential genes. The [³²P]dCTP-labelled DNA probes used in the DNA hybridization experiments were the 0.64 kb *PstI–XbaI* TRP1 and 0.31 kb *DraI–SpeI THO1* internal fragments for the *tho1*\Delta::*TRP1* deletion, the 0.48 kb *ClaI–Eco*RI *LEU2* and 3.1 kb

Transcriptional elongation-associated recombination

HindIII-HindIII THO2 internal fragments for tho2 Δ ::LEU2 and the 6.5 kb PstI-PstI DNA fragment covering the THO2 gene for tho2 Δ ::KAN.

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