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Authors

Petty, Emily L Lafon, Anne Tomlinson, Shannon L <u>et al.</u>

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Promotion of Cell Viability and Histone Gene Expression by the Acetyltransferase Gcn5 and the Protein Phosphatase PP2A in Saccharomyces cerevisiae

Emily L. Petty, Anne Lafon,¹ Shannon L. Tomlinson, Bryce A. Mendelsohn,² and Lorraine Pillus³

Division of Biological Sciences, Molecular Biology, University of California, San Diego Moores Cancer Center, La Jolla, California 92093

ORCID IDs: 0000-0001-5932-9044 (E.L.P.); 0000-0002-8818-5227 (L.P.)

ABSTRACT Histone modifications direct chromatin-templated events in the genome and regulate access to DNA sequence information. There are multiple types of modifications, and a common feature is their dynamic nature. An essential step for understanding their regulation, therefore, lies in characterizing the enzymes responsible for adding and removing histone modifications. Starting with a dosage-suppressor screen in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, we have discovered a functional interaction between the acetyltransferase Gcn5 and the protein phosphatase 2A (PP2A) complex, two factors that regulate post-translational modifications. We find that *RTS1*, one of two genes encoding PP2A regulatory subunits, is a robust and specific high-copy suppressor of temperature sensitivity of *gcn5* Δ and a subset of other *gcn5* Δ phenotypes. Conversely, loss of both PP2A^{Rts1} and Gcn5 function in the SAGA and SLIK/SALSA complexes is lethal. *RTS1* does not restore global transcriptional defects in *gcn5* Δ ; however, histone gene expression is restored, suggesting that the mechanism of *RTS1* rescue includes restoration of specific cell cycle transcripts. Pointing to new mechanisms of acetylation–phosphorylation cross-talk, *RTS1* high-copy rescue of *gcn5* Δ growth requires two residues of H2B that are phosphorylated in human cells. These data highlight the potential significance of dynamic phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of these deeply conserved histone residues for cell viability.

KEYWORDS chromatin; transcription; phosphorylation; acetylation (IOC2, PAB1, RHO2, MED6, ZDS1, PP2A^{B56})

T the foundation of nuclear DNA organization in eukaryotes is the dynamic formation, movement, and modification of nucleosomes. Acetylation and phosphorylation are two histone post-translational modifications (PTMs) catalyzed by histone acetyltransferases (HATs) and kinases and reversed by histone deacetylases (HDACs) and phosphatases that alter nucleosome structure and function. Tightly regulated acetylation and phosphorylation of specific histone residues have deeply conserved functions in eukaryotes that are critical for

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transcriptional regulation, replication, repair, and segregation of eukaryotic genomes (Banerjee and Chakravarti 2011; Rossetto *et al.* 2012; Tessarz and Kouzarides 2014).

One well-conserved HAT is Gcn5, which specifically targets histones H3 and H2B as part of multiple complexes (Grant et al. 1997; Eberharter et al. 1999; Grant et al. 1999; Howe et al. 2001; Sterner et al. 2002; Pray-Grant et al. 2005). Gcn5 is a key regulator of eukaryotic gene expression and acetylates H3 at promoters of active genes (Pokholok et al. 2005; Nagy and Tora 2007; Rosaleny et al. 2007). Its role as a transcriptional activator is so fundamental that Gcn5 is essential in most eukaryotes studied. An exception of note is budding yeast, where deletion of GCN5 is tolerated, but does cause a spectrum of phenotypes, including defects in gene activation, particularly for stress-regulated genes, and altered cell cycle progression (Howe et al. 2001; Huisinga and Pugh 2004; Vernarecci et al. 2008). Gcn5-mediated histone acetylation does not function in isolation, but is affected by other PTMs. For example, H3S10 phosphorylation

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¹Present address: Institut Curie, Unité mixte de recherche 3664 Centre national de la recherche scientifique, 75248 Paris Cedex 05, France.

²Present address: Department of Pediatrics, Division of Medical Genetics, University of California, San Francisco, 550 16th Street #0706, San Francisco, CA 94158.

³Corresponding author: University of California, San Diego, 9500 Gilman Dr., La Jolla, CA 92093-0347. E-mail: lpillus@ucsd.edu

(H3S10ph) promotes H3-K14 acetylation (H3K14ac) in mammals and yeast (Cheung *et al.* 2000; Lo *et al.* 2000). The full extent to which acetylation by Gcn5 interacts with other dynamic modifications remains an active area of investigation.

Nuclear functions of Gcn5 in eukaryotes extend beyond transcriptional regulation into response to DNA damage and nucleosome reassembly during genome replication. Acetylation of H3K9 by Gcn5 promotes nucleotide excision repair in human cells (Guo *et al.* 2011) and recruits the chromatin remodeling complex SWI/SNF to sites of double-stranded breaks in yeast and human cells to promote repair (Lee *et al.* 2010; Bennett and Peterson 2015). During genome replication, H3 acetylation by Gcn5 recruits histone chaperones leading to assembly of new nucleosomes (Burgess *et al.* 2010). Therefore, Gcn5 has integral roles in genome maintenance and organization.

Among enzymes controlling dynamic phosphorylation, PP2A is a conserved heterotrimeric serine/threonine phosphatase complex consisting of catalytic (encoded by *PPH21* and *PPH22*), regulatory (encoded by *CDC55* and *RTS1*), and structural (encoded by *TPD3*) subunits in yeast (Jiang 2006). Humans have 15 regulatory subunits (also known as B subunits), resulting in formation of dozens of biochemically distinct forms of PP2A (Virshup and Shenolikar 2009). Cdc55 and Rts1 are homologous to the mammalian B55 and B56 subunits, respectively. Human forms of PP2A complexes have been implicated in multiple cancers with specific B56 isoforms functioning as tumor suppressors (Yang and Phiel 2010; Seshacharyulu *et al.* 2013). Impaired PP2A^{B56} function is also associated with neurological disorders such as Alzheimer's disease (Sontag and Sontag 2014).

The relative simplicity of PP2A as PP2A^{Cdc55} and PP2A^{Rts1} forms has made yeast an ideal organism in which to characterize distinct functions of PP2A. Indeed, several previous studies have found nonoverlapping roles for the two PP2A complexes in many aspects of cell function, particularly in regulating chromatin dynamics during the cell cycle. PP2A^{Cdc55} contributes to progression through the G2/M checkpoint and prevents early mitotic exit (Queralt et al. 2006; Wang and Ng 2006; Yellman and Burke 2006; Rossio and Yoshida 2011). PP2ARts1 localizes to centromeric chromatin, where it promotes condensin loading and functions in the tension-sensing mechanism of the spindle assembly checkpoint (Chan and Amon 2009; Nerusheva et al. 2014; Peplowska et al. 2014; Verzijlbergen et al. 2014). Further, PP2A^{Rts1} coordinately regulates cell cycle entry and the cell size checkpoint, in part by relieving transcriptional repression of the G1 cyclin Cln3, but the mechanism of this control is not yet fully defined (Artiles et al. 2009; Zapata et al. 2014).

We report here a functional interaction between the Gcn5 acetyltransferase and PP2A^{Rts1} phosphatase that is critical for cell viability and cell cycle progression. We found that overexpression of *RTS1* rescues multiple *gcn5* Δ mutant phenotypes, including temperature sensitivity, DNA damage sensitivity, and progression though S phase. Deepening this acetyl–phospho connection, we found that concurrent loss of SAGA and/or SLIK/SALSA and PP2A^{Rts1} function is lethal. This demonstrates that the coordinated functions of these enzymatic complexes are critical for cell viability. We determined that $gcn5\Delta$ cells have reduced histone protein and messenger RNA (mRNA) levels, both of which are rescued by *RTS1* overexpression. Lastly, in a directed "histome"-wide screen of core histone residues potentially subject to phosphorylation, we identified two conserved residues of H2B that are required for rescue of $gcn5\Delta$ by *RTS1* overexpression.

Materials and Methods

Yeast growth, strains, and plasmids

All strains used in this study are in the W303 background and listed in Supplemental Material, Table S1. Standard conditions were used to grow and maintain strains on YPAD (yeast extract-peptone-dextrose + adenine) or synthetic dropout liquid and solid medium (Guthrie and Fink 1991). For selection against URA3 plasmids, 5-FOA was used at 0.1%. All other drug additives or media substitutions are specified in the figure legends. Liquid minimal sporulation medium was used for diploids prior to tetrad dissection and genotyping (Rose et al. 1990). Transformants and deletion mutants were constructed with standard methods (Amberg et al. 2005) using plasmids listed in Table S2 and oligonucleotides in Table S3. A 2µ-plasmid library (Engebrecht et al. 1990) was used for the suppressor screen of $gcn5\Delta$ sas3-C357Y, P375A (Howe et al. 2001) temperature sensitivity. Briefly, the library was transformed into LPY13321 (gcn5 Δ ::natMX sas3A::HIS3 ura3-1::sas3 C357Y, P375A-URA3). Transformants were plated on YPAD to recover for 36 hr before replica plating onto Leu⁻ containing 1 M sorbitol and grown at 37° to select suppressors. Sorbitol was used to increase screen sensitivity. Sequencing with universal oligonucleotides flanking each library insert identified endpoints of the chromosomal fragments in the rescuing plasmids. Subcloning individual genes within the insert was used to identify the suppressing gene. The phosphohistome screen was performed with the SHIMA histone mutant library, (Nakanishi et al. 2008). Sitedirected mutagenesis was used to generate other mutants. For plate assays, overnight cultures were diluted to 1 O.D. A₆₀₀ and 1:5 serial dilutions were plated and imaged after 3-5 days. Images of plate assays are representative of at least three biological replicates with freshly transformed strains.

$\alpha\textsc{-}Factor\ arrest\ and\ flow\ cytometry$

LPY11975 (*bar1* Δ ::*kanMX*) and LPY21272 (*gcn5* Δ ::*natMX bar1* Δ ::*kanMX*) were transformed with pLP136 (2 μ vector) or pLP2462 (2 μ *RTS1*) and cultures of fresh transformants were grown in Ura⁻ overnight. Cultures were diluted to 0.1 O.D. A₆₀₀ in YPAD, grown to 0.2–0.3 O.D. A₆₀₀, and arrested with α -factor (200 μ g/ml for LPY11975 and 40 μ g/ml for LPY 21272) for 90–120 min at 30°. Cells were washed twice with fresh, prewarmed YPAD to release and grow at 30° or 37°. Samples were collected immediately and 30 min after release for analysis (Haase and Reed 2002) using a BD Accuri C6 Flow Cytometer. The *bar1* Δ mutation facilitated synchronization by enhancing pheromone sensitivity (Amberg *et al.* 2006).

Okadaic acid survival assay

Overnight cultures of LPY5 [wild type (WT)] and LPY10182 (*gcn5* Δ ::*kanMX*) transformed with either vector (pLP136) or *RTS1* (pLP2462) 2 μ plasmids were diluted to 0.1 O.D. A₆₀₀ and grown to 0.4 O.D. A₆₀₀ at 30°. A total of 10 μ M of okadaic acid (OKA) sodium salt (LC Labs, O-5857) or an equal volume of DMSO (solvent) was added to the cultures and cells were grown for 1 hr as in Peplowska *et al.* (2014). Cells were then spread onto prewarmed plates at 500–1000 cells per plate. Colonies were counted after 3 days for 30° plates, and 4 days for 36.5° plates. The ratio of 36.5°:30° CFU was calculated to determine high-temperature survival after OKA and ratios were normalized to WT + vector. Three independent experiments were conducted, each with independently transformed strains.

Protein lysates and immunoblotting

Whole cell extracts were prepared as described (Clarke et al. 1999). For preservation of phosphorylated species, OKA (2 nM), sodium orthovanadate (1 mM), and sodium fluoride (1 mM) were added to lysate buffer. SDS/PAGE (7–8%) was used for observation of phosphorylated Net1, and 16% SDS/PAGE was used for histones. After electrophoresis, proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA; 0.2 µM, cat. no. 162-0112). Antibodies were used as follows: PP-B, rabbit anti-phospho-Net1, (Azzam et al. 2004) 1:1,000 in 5% BSA-TBST; anti-FLAG (M2; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) 1:5000 in 3% milk-TBST; anti-H2B (Abcam, 1790) 1:1000 in 3% BSA-TBST; anti-H4 (Active Motif, 61199) 1:2000 in 5% BSA-TBST; anti-H3 (Abcam, 1791) 1:1000 in 5% milk-TBST; anti-H2A (Active Motif, 39236) 1:5000 in 3% BSA-TBST; and anti-H3-K9, K14ac (Upstate, 06-599) 1:10,000 in 5% milk-TBST. Anti-rabbit IgG and antimouse IgG HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies from Promega (Madison, WI; W4011 and W4021, respectively) were used at 1:10,000-1:20,000. Blots were developed with Pierce ECL Western Blot Substrate (ThermoScientific, 32106) and exposures obtained with Protein Simple FluorChem E imager. ImageJ was used to determine relative signal densities (Schneider et al. 2012).

RT-qPCR

The 20-ml cultures were grown to 1 O.D. A_{600} followed by hot phenol extraction of RNA (Lafon *et al.* 2012). After purification, RNA was treated with DNase (Ambion) followed by complementary DNA (cDNA) synthesis (TaqMan Reverse Transcriptase kit, Life Sciences). At least three independently prepared samples were evaluated for each comparison. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was used to determine transcript levels relative to the *SCR1* control using EvaGreen qPCR Master Mix (Lamda Bio) on an MJ Research Opticon2. Oligonucleotides are listed in Table S3.

Data and reagent availability

All strains and plasmids listed in Table S1 and Table S2 that were generated in the L.P. lab are available upon request.

Results

Dosage suppressors of $gcn5\Delta$ temperature sensitivity: diverse roles for RTS1

We reported previously that overexpression of genes encoding Isw1 subunits can rescue the lethality observed upon loss of function of Gcn5 and Sas3, the two major H3 acetyltransferases in yeast (Lafon et al. 2012; Petty and Pillus 2013). To better understand these functionally overlapping acetyltransferases, we sought to identify gene dosage suppressors (reviewed in Rine 1991; Magtanong et al. 2011). We began by transforming the $gcn5\Delta$ sas3-C357Y, P375A temperaturesensitive mutant (Howe *et al.* 2001) with a 2μ library (Engebrecht et al. 1990) and screened 30,000 transformants for growth at the restrictive temperature. Suppressors were individually confirmed by dilution assays at high temperature and verified by isolating and retransforming the parental strain with recovered plasmids. Inserts of each suppressing plasmid were sequenced to identify its chromosomal fragment and each full-length gene within the fragment was individually subcloned to determine the suppressing factor. By this strategy, we isolated six distinct suppressors (Figure 1A), including IOC2, a subunit of the ISWI ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling complex (Lafon et al. 2012). The most frequently recovered suppressor was RTS1, which encodes a regulatory subunit of the PP2A complex. Four additional genes were identified a single time: MED6, PAB1, RHO2, and ZDS1. MED6 encodes a subunit of the "head" module of the Mediator coactivator complex, PAB1 encodes the major poly(A) binding protein in budding yeast, RHO2 encodes one of several Rho-family GTPases, and ZDS1 encodes a protein that binds PP2A^{Cdc55} to promote cortical localization (Jonasson et al. 2016). Three of the originally isolated RTS1 transformants along with several other suppressors are shown in Figure 1B.

We chose to pursue the mechanism of *RTS1* suppression of $gcn5\Delta$ sas3-C357Y, P375A as it was the most frequent hit from the screen and because genetic interactions between *GCN5-SAS3* and *RTS1* had not been previously described. Because $gcn5\Delta$ itself is temperature sensitive, it was important to determine whether rescue involved *SAS3*. To do so, we transformed $gcn5\Delta$ cells with the empty library vector, *RTS1*, or *IOC2*, to ask if *RTS1* rescue was *SAS3* independent. As we previously reported (Lafon *et al.* 2012), *IOC2* overexpression does not rescue $gcn5\Delta$ growth at high temperature; however, *RTS1* does (Figure 1C). Therefore, the *RTS1* suppressing mechanism is distinct from that of *IOC2*, and specific for $gcn5\Delta$.



Figure 1 *RTS1* is a high-copy suppressor of $gcn5\Delta$. (A) A screen for highcopy suppressors of $gcn5\Delta$ sas3-C357Y, P375A (LPY13321) lethality identified multiple independent isolates of *RTS1*. Suppression by *IOC2* has been characterized (Lafon *et al.* 2012). (B) Several of the independently isolated transformants identified in the dosage suppression screen that rescue $gcn5\Delta$ sas3-C357Y, P375A lethality at high temperature are shown. (C) Unlike *IOC2*, *RTS1* suppression of $gcn5\Delta$ (LPY10182) temperature sensitivity is independent of SAS3. Strains were grown on Leu⁻ media for 3 days at indicated temperatures prior to imaging.

To characterize rescue of $gcn5\Delta$ by RTS1, we tested whether overexpression could suppress diverse phenotypes reported for $gcn5\Delta$. These included DNA damage sensitivity, microtubule poison sensitivity, poor growth on nonfermentable carbon sources, delayed cell cycle progression, abnormal bud morphology, defects in sporulation, and osmotic stress sensitivity, as summarized in the Saccharomyces Genome Database (SGD) (Cherry et al. 2012). As shown in Figure 2A, the sensitivity of $gcn5\Delta$ to DNA damage-inducing agents HU and MMS was reduced upon RTS1 overexpression. We used nocodazole to test for sensitivity to microtubule disruption and found that RTS1 overexpression suppressed this phenotype (Figure 2B). GCN5 mutants are unable to utilize nonfermentable carbon sources comparably to WT (Dimmer et al. 2002) and we found that RTS1 overexpression improved growth with either glycerol or ethanol as a carbon source (Figure 2C). In order to determine if RTS1 restored normal cell cycle control, we followed progression through S phase by flow cytometry in WT and $gcn5\Delta$ cells. We used α -factor to

synchronize cultures in G1 and collected cells immediately and at 30 min after release. Upon release from α -factor, *gcn5* Δ cells did not progress into or through S phase as readily as WT. However, overexpression of *RTS1* suppressed this delayed entry into the cell cycle at both 30° and 37° (Figure 2D).

We did not observe rescue of $gcn5\Delta$'s bud morphology defect by RTS1 overexpression (Figure S1A). In fact, overexpression of RTS1 in both WT and $gcn5\Delta$ increased the frequency of abnormal budding. Additionally, diploids homozygous for $gcn5\Delta$ sporulate poorly with and without RTS1 overexpression (Figure S1B). The fact that RTS1 overexpression rescues stress-related phenotypes led us to test whether RTS1 restored growth under osmotic stress conditions and whether general stress response transcription factors Hsf1, Hog1, Msn2, or Msn4 are required for RTS1 rescue. We did not observe rescue of osmotic sensitivity (Figure S1C), nor did we find that RTS1 rescue of temperature sensitivity required the stress response transcription factors (data not shown). Combined with the subset of phenotypes rescued by RTS1 (summarized in Figure S1D), these results supported the idea that RTS1 suppression was mediated through mechanisms distinct from general stress response pathways.

PP2A^{Rts1} function is essential in gcn5 Δ cells

Rts1 is one of two regulatory PP2A subunits in budding yeast. The alternate regulatory subunit is encoded by CDC55 (Figure 3A). Although CDC55 was not recovered in the screen, to test specificity of suppression, we asked whether it rescued $gcn5\Delta$ growth similarly to RTS1. To do this, we compared growth of $gcn5\Delta$ transformed with a high-copy plasmid containing either RTS1 or CDC55 at high temperature. We found that CDC55 overexpression did not rescue temperature sensitivity (Figure 3B). To further test the functional interactions between PP2A and Gcn5, we deleted the genes encoding each subunit of the PP2A complex in a $gcn5\Delta$ mutant and tested growth upon loss of a WT GCN5 or PPH22 plasmid by counterselection with 5-FOA. Loss of either *PPH21* or *PPH22* individually exacerbated $gcn5\Delta$ temperature sensitivity (data not shown), and loss of CDC55 caused slow growth (Figure 3C). Most strikingly, we found that loss of Rts1, loss of the structural subunit Tpd3, or concurrent loss of both catalytic subunits Pph21 and Pph22 were lethal in $gcn5\Delta$ cells (Figure 3C, Figure S2A). Thus, PP2A^{Rts1} function is essential in $gcn5\Delta$ cells.

Because loss of *CDC55* can increase PP2A^{Rts1} formation (Bizzari and Marston 2011), we asked whether loss of *cdc55* Δ could suppress *gcn5* Δ temperature sensitivity. We compared *gcn5* Δ and *gcn5* Δ *cdc55* Δ growth at elevated temperatures (Figure S2B), but did not observe suppression similar to *RTS1* overexpression. We further evaluated the possibilities that the rescue of *gcn5* Δ growth by overexpression of *RTS1* could be due to reduced or altered PP2A^{Cdc55} activity. To test this possibility, we evaluated Net1, which is dephosphorylated by PP2A^{Cdc55} during mitosis to prevent early mitotic



Figure 2 *RTS1* overexpression suppresses diverse $gcn5\Delta$ phenotypes. (A) *RTS1* overexpression rescues $gcn5\Delta$ growth on Ura⁻ plates containing DNA damage inducers HU (0.1 M) and MMS (0.03%). (B) *RTS1* overexpression partially restores growth of $gcn5\Delta$ in the presence of microtubule destabilizing nocodazole (NOC) (2 µg/ml). (C) Growth on nonfermentable carbon sources glycerol and ethanol improves in $gcn5\Delta$ with *RTS1* overexpression. Cells were grown at 30° for 3 days (A and B) or 2 days (C). LPY5 (WT) and LPY10182 ($gcn5\Delta$::*kanMX*) transformants are shown. (D) *RTS1* overexpression suppresses $gcn5\Delta$ slow progression into S phase. The *bar1* Δ (LPY11975) and $gcn5\Delta$ *bar1* Δ (LPY21272) transformants were arrested in G1 with pheromone α -factor at 30° for 90 and 120 min, respectively, and released into fresh medium for immediate collection (T_0) or to grow at 30° or 37° for 30 min prior to collection for flow cytometry. All data shown are representative of at least three independent experiments using independent transformants. See Figure S1 for additional analysis and summary.

exit (Queralt *et al.* 2006). We analyzed the levels of phosphorylated Net1 by immunoblotting whole cell lysates. We observed accumulation of the species recognized by the anti-Net1ph antibody PP-B (Azzam *et al.* 2004; Queralt *et al.* 2006) in *cdc55* Δ , but did not see a similar accumulation with *RTS1* overexpression (Figure S2C). These data suggested that the mechanism of *gcn5* Δ rescue by *RTS1* overexpression was not mediated by loss of PP2A^{Cdc55} activity.

OKA is a useful tool in analyzing phosphatase activity. It is a potent inhibitor of phosphoprotein phosphatase family enzymes (Swingle et al. 2007) with high affinity for both PP2A and the less abundant PP4, and lower affinity for PP1 and PP5 (Bialojan and Takai 1988; Haystead et al. 1989; Sasaki et al. 1994). Because of its high affinity and cell permeability, OKA has been used routinely to probe PP2A function. Specifically, Rts1 centromeric function was unaffected by OKA treatment, suggesting a mechanism independent of PP2A enzymatic activity (Peplowska et al. 2014). Further, PP2A subunit stoichiometry is reported to include three times as much Rts1 as Tpd3, the limiting subunit for PP2A complex assembly (Gentry and Hallberg 2002). These findings suggest independent functions for Rts1 beyond that of regulating PP2A phosphatase activity. We therefore sought to determine whether RTS1-mediated rescue required PP2A enzymatic function. Attempts to address this question genetically are precluded by the lethality of the $gcn5\Delta$ $pph21\Delta$ $pph22\Delta$ strain. Instead, we used OKA to determine if interrupting phosphoprotein phosphatase activity had an effect on RTS1 rescue of $gcn5\Delta$ temperature sensitivity.

We treated cells grown to log phase at 30° with 10 μ M OKA as described in Peplowska *et al.*, (2014) for 60 min, diluted ~2000 cells into fresh medium, and plated half of this dilution onto two plates, one prewarmed to 30°, the other to 36.5°. CFUs were counted to evaluate growth at 36.5° relative to 30°. As shown in Figure 3D, temporary inhibition of phosphoprotein phosphatase activity by OKA dampened rescue of *gcn5* Δ growth by *RTS1* overexpression. These results support the hypothesis that *RTS1* rescue is mediated through the PP2A^{Rts1} complex, but do not exclude the possibility that other phosphatases, such as PP4, may also contribute to rescue.

RTS1 functionally interacts with the SAGA complex

Gcn5 is a subunit of multiple complexes: the transcriptional coactivator SAGA, the retrograde pathway-specific SLIK/-SALSA, and the less well-characterized ADA complex (Figure 4A) (Grant *et al.* 1997; Eberharter *et al.* 1999; Sterner *et al.* 2002; Lee *et al.* 2011). To determine whether PP2A^{Rts1} was linked to a specific Gcn5-containing complex, we constructed double mutants with genes encoding representative members of modules distinguishing the complexes.

Components tested included Spt20, an architectural subunit of SAGA, necessary for complex assembly (Roberts and Winston 1996; Sterner *et al.* 1999; Lee *et al.* 2011), and both ADA-specific complex subunits Ahc1 and Ahc2 (Eberharter *et al.* 1999; Lee *et al.* 2011). We also tested the interaction between *RTS1* and the only SLIK/SALSA-specific subunit gene, *RTG2* (Pray-Grant *et al.* 2002). We observed synthetic lethality between *rts1* Δ and *spt20* Δ as well as *gcn5* Δ , but not



Figure 3 Loss of PP2ARts1 function impairs growth and RTS1 rescue in $gcn5\Delta$. (A) Cartoon representations of two yeast PP2A complexes are adapted from crystal structures (Cho and Xu 2007). (B) Only RTS1 overexpression, not CDC55, can suppress $gcn5\Delta$ temperature sensitivity. LPY10182 (gcn5 Δ ::kanMX) was transformed with 2 μ GCN5 (pLP1524), empty vector (pLP135), RTS1 (pLP2197), and CDC55 (pLP2330). Fresh transformants were grown overnight and plated onto Leu- medium prewarmed to the indicated temperature, and grown for 4 days. (C) Loss of PP2A^{Rts1} is lethal in gcn5 Δ . WT (LPY5), gcn5 Δ rts1 Δ (LPY15178), gcn5 Δ cdc55 Δ (LPY15178), gcn5 Δ pph21 Δ (LPY15296), gcn5 Δ pph22 Δ (LPY14692), $gcn5\Delta$ pph21 Δ pph22 Δ (LPY20694), and $gcn5\Delta$ tpd3 Δ (LPY15416) are all shown transformed with pLP1640 (GCN5). The $gcn5\Delta$ $pph21\Delta$ $pph22\Delta$ mutant (LPY20694) was transformed with pLP2997 (PPH22). Cells were plated onto Ura- and 5-FOA to select against the GCN5 or PPH22 CEN plasmid and grown for 3 days at 30°. (D) Treatment with the phosphoprotein phosphatase inhibitor OKA reduces RTS1 suppression of $gcn5\Delta$ temperature sensitivity. Log-phase cells were treated with 10 µM OKA or DMSO (control) for 1 hr prior to plating onto Uraplates prewarmed to 30° or 36.5°. OKA treatment caused temperature sensitivity in WT cells when grown at 37° (not shown), so a slightly lower

between $rts1\Delta$ and the ADA-specific mutants nor with the SLIK/SALSA-specific $rtg2\Delta$ mutant (Figure 4B, Figure S3A). To determine if lethality was due to loss of Gcn5 catalytic activity, we expressed two well-characterized *GCN5* HAT mutants in a plasmid shuffle in $gcn5\Delta$ $rts1\Delta$ cells. Of the two mutants, *GCN5-LKN* and *GCN5-KQL*, the latter is catalytically inactive (Wang *et al.* 1998; Grant *et al.* 1999). Whereas expression of *GCN5-LKN* supported viability, expression of *GCN5-KQL* did not (Figure S3B). Thus, Gcn5 catalytic function is essential in $rts1\Delta$ cells.

Because SAGA and SLIK/SALSA include distinct functional modules (Sterner et al. 1999; Wu et al. 2004; Lee et al. 2011), we further dissected the genetic interaction between RTS1 and two of the modules. Among these, SPT8 encodes a SAGAspecific subunit that mediates the physical and functional interaction between the complex and TATA-binding protein (TBP) (Eisenmann et al. 1994; Warfield et al. 2004) and UBP8 encodes the deubiquitinase enzyme of the DUB module that removes H2B-K123 monoubiquitylation (Henry et al. 2003). Whereas previous high-throughput epistatic miniarray profile analysis found an increase in relative fitness of rts1 Δ spt8 Δ double mutants (Collins et al. 2007), we observed synthetic sickness in the $rts1\Delta$ spt8 Δ mutant. This discrepancy may be due to the different genetic background used for the two studies or the difference in comparing growth of single colonies to growth of populations derived from single colonies in the dilution assays shown. Regardless, the interaction we observe is not as severe as with SPT20 or GCN5 deletion. We also found that deletion of the DUBspecific gene *UBP8* had little effect on $rts1\Delta$ growth. This observation is consistent with the fact that loss of Spt20 does not strongly affect DUB function (Henry et al. 2003) and, combined, suggests that the functional interaction of RTS1 with SAGA and SLIK/SALSA is DUB independent.

Loss of *SPT20*, *SPT8*, or *UBP8* sensitizes cells to various stresses (SGD, Cherry *et al.* 2012). We tested whether *RTS1* overexpression could suppress *spt20* Δ , *spt8* Δ , and *ubp8* Δ temperature and MMS sensitivity as for *gcn5* Δ . We found that overexpression of *RTS1* indeed improved growth of *spt20* Δ and *spt8* Δ at high temperatures and improved growth of all SAGA single mutants on MMS (Figure 4C). Together, these results support the idea that the catalytic activity of Gcn5 interacts with PP2A^{Rts1} as part of the SAGA and/or SLIK/SALSA complexes.

A major function of Gcn5 as a member of the SAGA and SLIK/SALSA complexes is acetylation of histone H3 to activate transcription. Gcn5 targets H3 predominantly at lysines 9 and 14 (K9, K14) and loss of Gcn5 has a global impact on

temperature was used for this assay. Cells were grown for 3 days prior to counting CFUs on each plate. Survival at high temperature was determined by calculating the ratio of CFUs at 36.5° to 30° followed by normalization to WT + vector controls, where *n* indicates total CFUs counted in three experiments for each transformant, and the error bars show standard deviation. See Table S4 for all normalized relative survival ratios.

levels of these marks *in vivo* (Zhang *et al.* 1998; Howe *et al.* 2001; Pray-Grant *et al.* 2005; Downey *et al.* 2015).

We asked if *RTS1* mediated restoration of H3 acetylation. In *gcn5* Δ cells overexpressing *RTS1*, we observed a reproducible increase in global H3-K9, K14ac (Figure 4D), as quantified in Figure 4E. We then asked whether the increase in H3 acetylation correlated with higher transcription of Gcn5regulated genes. We selected four highly expressed genes previously identified as Gcn5 regulated (Huisinga and Pugh 2004) for RT-qPCR analysis. We collected cells grown to log phase under suppressing conditions and measured expression of the selected genes relative to *SCR1*, an RNA polymerase IIItranscribed gene. Increased expression was not observed in cells overexpressing *RTS1* (Figure S3C). This result suggested that the mechanism of *gcn5* Δ rescue by *RTS1* was not via global restoration of Gcn5-dependent gene expression.

RTS1 overexpression restores histone gene expression in gcn5 Δ cells

We considered that the increase in relative H3 acetylation observed in $gcn5\Delta$ cells overexpressing RTS1 could be due to increased activity of another HAT, decreased activity of an HDAC such as Hda1 or Sir2, or an increase in overall H3 in the cell. We were intrigued by the third possibility, as RTS1had previously been found to promote cell-cycle-regulated gene expression (Artiles *et al.* 2009; Parnell *et al.* 2014; Zapata *et al.* 2014) and RTS1 overexpression suppressed $gcn5\Delta$'s slow G1–S progression (Figure 2D). To test a role in histone expression, we quantified unmodified H3 levels along with the other core histones in WT and $gcn5\Delta$ by immunoblotting and found that $gcn5\Delta$ cells had reduced levels of core histones compared to WT (Figure S4, A and B). Further, RTS1 overexpression restored levels of all histones (Figure S4, A and B).

Unlike other eukaryotes where there are several copies of each canonical histone gene, there are only two genes for each in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Histone gene loci in budding yeast contain pairs of histone genes oriented in opposite directions from a shared promoter, and each pair is coordinately regulated and expressed (Eriksson et al. 2012). Analysis of Gcn5 (Venters et al. 2011), and H3-K9, K14ac genome-wide chromatin immunoprecipitation data (Pokholok et al. 2005) revealed that Gcn5 and H3-K9, K14ac are found at the promoters of each histone gene pair. Additionally, genomic expression analysis in $gcn5\Delta$ and gcn5-KQL mutants showed reduced histone expression (Huisinga and Pugh 2004). To determine if the changes in global histone protein levels we observed in $gcn5\Delta$ were regulated at the level of transcription, we quantified RNA prepared from logarithmically growing cells by RT-qPCR. All histone genes have significantly reduced expression in $gcn5\Delta$, with the notable exception of *HTA1*, which did not show any significant changes (Figure 5A). To our knowledge this is the first report of divergent rather than coordinate regulation of gene expression at the HTA1-HTB1 locus. Similar to protein levels, RTS1 overexpression also restored histone mRNAs to near WT levels (Figure 5A).

As in other eukaryotes, yeast histone gene expression is tightly regulated in a cell-cycle-dependent manner. Histone genes are turned on at the end of G1 in preparation for genome replication and turned off at the end of S phase (Eriksson et al. 2012). To evaluate the effects GCN5 loss and overexpression of RTS1 on cell-cycle-regulated histone gene induction, we arrested cells in G1 with α -factor and collected samples for RNA extraction at 20-min intervals after release into S phase. We observed similar levels of HTA1 expression in WT and $gcn5\Delta$, independently of *RTS1* overexpression (Figure 5B). This finding was consistent with our observation in asynchronous cultures that HTA1 expression was unaffected by loss of GCN5 or overexpression of RTS1. By contrast, there was decreased induction of *HTB1* expression in $gcn5\Delta$ cells. This decrease was rescued in cells overexpressing RTS1. Thus, Gcn5 was an important positive regulator of histone gene expression. Further, our results suggested that RTS1-dependent suppression of $gcn5\Delta$ was, in part, mediated through histone gene expression.

Does RTS1 suppression require specific histone residues?

Dynamic histone phosphorylation is a key regulator of chromatin-templated functions (Banerjee and Chakravarti 2011; Rossetto et al. 2012; Zentner et al. 2013; Sawicka and Seiser 2014; Tessarz and Kouzarides 2014). Many kinases targeting histones continue to be discovered and characterized, but much less is known of the phosphatases responsible for removing this modification. We hypothesized that the PP2ARts1-Gcn5 interaction was mediated through dynamic modification of specific histone residues. We first tested whether well-characterized sites of histone phosphorylation were required for RTS1 suppression of $gcn5\Delta$ temperature sensitivity. Among these, H3-S10ph functions in chromosome condensation in mitosis and meiosis (Johansen and Johansen 2006). Phosphorylation at this site also has reported crosstalk with H3-K9 and K14 acetylation (Cheung et al. 2000; Lo et al. 2000; Edmondson et al. 2002). Histone H3-S28ph is linked to H3-S10ph and is associated with transcriptional response to stress in mammalian cells (Clayton and Mahadevan 2003; Sawicka et al. 2014). Histone H3-T45ph functions during DNA replication (Baker et al. 2010), and, lastly, H2A-S121ph has a role in DNA damage and protection of centromeric cohesion in budding yeast (Fernius and Hardwick 2007; Moore et al. 2007).

Mutation of H3-S10 to alanine did not interfere with *RTS1* rescue (Figure S5A). Further, loss of an H3-S10 kinase Snf1 did not interfere with *RTS1* rescue (data not shown), consistent with a lack of function for this modification in the interaction. Similarly, mutation at H3-S28, H3-T45, and H2A-S121 did not impair rescue by *RTS1* (Figure S5A).

We continued to test the hypothesis that histone phosphorylation underlies the *RTS1–GCN5* interaction. Using an unbiased approach, we tested the scanning histone mutagenesis with alanine (SHIMA) library (Nakanishi *et al.* 2008) to screen all serine and threonine residues (Figure 6A) for effects on



Figure 4 There is a functional interaction between RTS1 and SAGA. (A) Molecular models of three Gcn5-containing complexes in budding yeast (Lee et al. 2011). (B) Genetic analysis of $rts1\Delta$ (LPY14653) with SAGA, ADA, and SLIK/-SALSA subunits highlighted by black outlines. The rts1 Δ strain was transformed with RTS1-URA3 (pLP2462) and crossed to generate the double mutants shown. Strains were plated onto Ura-(growth) and 5-FOA to select against the RTS1 plasmid and grown for 3 days at 30°. Synthetic lethality is observed with $rts1\Delta$ $qcn5\Delta$ (LPY15178) and $rts1\Delta$ $spt20\Delta$ (LPY17484) but not with loss of ADA subunits encoded by AHC1 (LPY18424), AHC2 (LPY18495), or the SLIK/SALSA-specific RTG2 (LPY20692). Deletion of the SAGA-specific SPT8 (LPY21898), encoding a TBP-binding subunit, and UBP8 (LPY21081), encoding the deubiquitinase subunit, are also viable in *rts1* Δ . (C) *RTS1* improves *gcn5* Δ (LPY10182), spt20A (LPY16914), and spt8 Δ (LPY6487) growth at high temperature and in DNA damaging conditions in all strains shown, including $ubp8\Delta$ (LPY8240). Strains were transformed with vector or RTS1 and plated onto Ura- plates with and without MMS and grown for 3 days at 30° or 37.5° as indicated. (D) RTS1 overexpression results in increases in H3-K9, K14ac. Log-phase cells grown at indicated temperature were collected for protein lysate preparation; shown is a representative immunoblot. (E) Quantification of relative H3-K9, K14ac signal from three biological replicates is shown. Error bars indicate standard deviation. Asterisks indicate P-values < 0.05 by paired Student's t-test: a single asterisk indicates significant difference compared to WT + vector and a double asterisk, compared to $gcn5\Delta$ + vector. All normalized averages and significant P-values are listed in Table S4.

RTS1 rescue of temperature sensitivity. Briefly, we constructed a $gcn5\Delta$ strain that also lacked chromosomal copies of the core histones. To maintain viability, the strains contain a *URA3*-plasmid bearing a copy of each core histone pair. We then transformed a histone plasmid bearing a single alanine substitution of each of the 72 nonessential serine or threonine residues (H3-T118A is lethal) (Nakanishi *et al.* 2008). We then selected for loss of the WT plasmid using 5-FOA and tested for effects on rescue by *RTS1* overexpression.

Although PP2A^{Rts1} is classified as a serine/threonine phosphatase, we also considered three tyrosine residues that have been identified as phosphorylated in phosphoproteomic studies: Y40, Y43, and Y45 on histone H2B (PhosphoGRID). Previous work identified H2B-Y40 phosphorylation by the Wee1 kinase (Swe1) as an important regulator of histone gene expression in budding yeast and human cells (Mahajan *et al.* 2012; Mahajan and Mahajan 2013). A recent study has linked PP2A^{Rts1} with *in vivo* dephosphorylation of tyrosine 19 of Cdk1, another Swe1 substrate (Kennedy *et al.* 2015). We constructed the structurally conservative tyrosine-to-phenylalanine substitutions for the H2B tyrosine residues of interest and transformed into the histone shuffle strains as above.

Two residues of H2B are required for *RTS1* overexpression to rescue $gcn5\Delta$ temperature sensitivity: Y40 and T91 (Figure 6, B and C). Mutation to neighboring residues Y43 and S90



Figure 5 RTS1 overexpression restores histone gene expression in asynchronous $qcn5\Delta$ populations. (A) RT-qPCR analysis of histone mRNA reveals lower histone gene expression in $gcn5\Delta$ at 37° relative to the RNA Pol III transcript, SCR1, except for HTA1, which revealed no significant change. Gene expression increased with RTS1 overexpression, except for HHT2. Error bars indicate standard deviation from three independent experiments using fresh 2µ vector (pLP136) and RTS1 (pLP2462) transformants derived from LPY5 (WT) and LPY10182 (gcn5\Delta::kanMX). Asterisks indicate P-values < 0.05 by paired Student's t-test: a single asterisk indicates significant difference compared to WT + vector and a double asterisk, compared to $gcn5\Delta$ + vector. All normalized averages and significant P-values are listed in Table S4. Each histone gene pair locus is diagrammed below the corresponding histograms. Oligonucleotide sequences for gPCR amplification of all histone genes except for HHF2 were originally published in Mahajan et al. (2012). (B) RTS1 overexpression restores HTB1 expression upon release from α -factor arrest. Early log-phase transformants of WT (LPY11975) and $gcn5\Delta$ (21272) were arrested with α -factor at 30° and samples were taken every 20 min upon release to grow at 37° for RT-qPCR analysis. HTA1 induction is similar, but HTB1 induction is reduced in between $qcn5\Delta$ and WT. This difference is suppressed when RTS1 is overexpressed.

did not impair rescue, demonstrating that loss of growth is specific to T91 and Y40. Further, the htb1-T91A and htb1-Y40F mutations prevented RTS1 rescue of HU and MMS sensitivity, and htb-T91A also impaired restored growth by RTS1 on nocodazole (Figure 6D). These results suggested overlapping but distinct functions for the two H2B residues in RTS1 rescue of $gcn5\Delta$: both are important for rescue of DNA damage and replication stress, but T91 is more important for rescue of mitotic stress. The Y40 and T91 residues are found on the lateral surface of the core nucleosome structure in close proximity to the surrounding DNA (Figure 6B), and neither the Y40F mutation nor the T91A mutation led to decreased H2B, so the effects are not likely due to gross instability of H2B caused by the site mutations (Figure S5B). The changes in histone gene dosage in the histone shuffle mutants used for this study prevent analysis of expression of each histone gene; however, we did ask whether htb1-Y40F and htb1-T91A mutations affect global H3 acetylation. Although the quantitative data were not statistically significant, we observed a consistent

reduction in global H3 acetylation in $gcn5\Delta$ *htb1-Y40F* and *htb1-T91A* mutants overexpressing *RTS1* (Figure S5C).

Mutation of H2B-T91 supports a role for dynamic modification

H2B-T91 has not been characterized in yeast, although the corresponding residues of human and mouse H2B have been identified as phosphorylated by mass spectrometry (Cell Signaling Technology, phosphosite.org). For further functional analysis, we generated mutations of H2B-T91 to aspartic acid (D) or glutamic acid (E), whose structures are similar to phosphothreonine. The phosphomimetic mutants impaired growth in the WT strain and were lethal in $gcn5\Delta$ (Figure 7A, Figure S6A). We determined whether expression of H2B was altered by the phosphomimetic mutations in GCN5 cells, and found that htb1-T91D reduced levels, likely resulting in the reduced growth of this strain compared to htb1-T91E (Figure S6B). Finally, we tested whether RTS1 overexpression improved growth of the phosphomimetic mutant strains, but



61- FLESVIRDSVTYTEHAKRKTVTSLDVVYAL







Figure 6 Directed "histome" screen identifies two H2B residues required for *RTS1* suppression in *gcn5* Δ . (A) Phosphorylatable S and T residues (blue), known phosphorylated residues (yellow), and select Y residues (underlined) were tested for function in *RTS1* suppression in the *gcn5* Δ histone shuffle strains (LPY16290 *hht1- hhf1* Δ :*kanMX hht2-hhf2* Δ ::*kanMX hta2-htb2* Δ ::*HPH gcn5* Δ ::*kanMX*, LPY16434 *hht1-hhf1* Δ :*kanMX hta1-htb1* Δ ::*natMX hta2-htb2* Δ ::*HPH gcn5* Δ ::*kanMX*). (B) Nucleosome structure with H2B chains in blue. The Y40 and T91 residues of interest are highlighted in yellow and indicated with yellow arrows. (C) H2B (encoded by *HTB1*) residues Y40 and T91 (underlined in A) are required for *RTS1* rescue of *gcn5* Δ temperature sensitivity. Mutant *htb1* plasmids (pLP2482, *htb1-T91A* and pLP3250, *htb1-Y40F*) were transformed into LPY16434 and LPY14461

only observed a very slight growth improvement for the *GCN5* strain and no rescue of lethality in $gcn5\Delta$ (Figure 7B). Thus, dynamic modification of H2B at threonine 91 is important for cell growth and essential in the absence of Gcn5.

Discussion

We report six dosage suppressors of conditional lethality in $gcn5\Delta sas3$ -C357Y, P375A mutants. Among these, we have demonstrated robust interactions between the Gcn5-containing SAGA and SLIK/SALSA complexes and PP2A^{Rts1} in the regulation of growth and histone gene expression. We identified *RTS1* as a high-copy suppressor of a specific subset of $gcn5\Delta$ phenotypes: temperature and DNA damage sensitivity, poor growth on nonfermentable carbon sources, and slow cell cycle entry upon release from G1 arrest. Conversely, loss of PP2A^{Rts1} was lethal in $gcn5\Delta$ cells or those expressing catalytically inactive Gcn5. Genetic dissection demonstrated that it is loss of SAGA and/or SLIK/SALSA function that results in synthetic lethality with loss of PP2A^{Rts1}.

We found that $gcn5\Delta$ had a defect in histone expression at the level of transcription in both asynchronous and synchronized populations and in cellular levels of histone proteins. *RTS1* overexpression restored histone expression to WT levels. A screen of phosphorylatable residues of the core histones revealed that rescue by *RTS1* required two residues of H2B, Y40, and T91. Phosphomimetic mutants of T91 caused sickness in WT and lethality in $gcn5\Delta$, suggesting that regulating dynamic phosphorylation at this site is important for growth and becomes critical with loss of Gcn5. H2B-Y40ph was previously reported to function in regulation of gene expression (Mahajan *et al.* 2012; Mahajan and Mahajan 2013).

Several studies have reported synthetic interactions between GCN5 and histone genes. For example, semidominant sin alleles of HHT2 and HHF2 can restore reporter gene expression in $gcn5\Delta$ cells (Pollard and Peterson 1997). Additionally, deletion of the N-terminal tails of H3 or H4, H3-K14R, H3-R17A, and H4-K8R, K-16R mutations are lethal in cells lacking Gcn5 (Zhang et al. 1998; Ruault and Pillus 2006). Beyond these interactions, we demonstrate loss of GCN5 causes a specific defect in histone gene expression. It is possible that H2B-Y40 is particularly important for turning off histone gene expression at the end of S phase upon overexpression of RTS1 (Mahajan et al. 2012; Mahajan and Mahajan 2013), to prevent cytotoxicity caused by elevated histone expression (Meeks-Wagner and Hartwell 1986; Singh et al. 2010). Consistent with a central role in histone gene expression is the synthetic lethality observed upon loss of the individual SAGA subunits Spt8, Spt20, and Gcn5 with deletion of the histone transcriptional activator Spt10 (Chang and Winston

2013). Normal cell cycle progression and DNA repair require precise regulation of histone levels (Singh *et al.* 2009; Singh *et al.* 2010; Eriksson *et al.* 2012; Liang *et al.* 2012; Ghule *et al.* 2014), therefore restoration of histone expression likely contributes to the restored cell cycle progression and growth upon DNA damage that we observe in $gcn5\Delta$ cells overexpressing *RTS1*.

At the end of S phase, Wee1 phosphorylates H2B-Y40 at histone gene promoters to downregulate expression (Mahajan *et al.* 2012), but a counteracting phosphatase is unknown. Future work should determine whether PP2A^{Rts1} directly dephosphorylates H2BY40ph as part of the mechanism of histone gene activation. Although PP2A is classified as a serine/threonine phosphatase, its dephosphorylation of tyrosine residues has been reported *in vitro* (Cayla *et al.* 1990) and recently proposed *in vivo* (Kennedy *et al.* 2015). We predict that if PP2A^{Rts1} directly dephosphorylates H2BY40ph, it does so in a manner regulated by cell cycle cues.

Alternatively, the mechanism by which RTS1 modulates proper histone gene expression may be less direct. Loss of Gcn5 reduces binding of the G1-specific cell cycle transcription factor SBF to the HO promoter, resulting in reduced expression (Cosma et al. 1999; Krebs et al. 1999). The SBF transcription factor complex also promotes histone gene expression in late G1 (Eriksson et al. 2012). Therefore, a mechanism may involve PP2ARts1 promoting cell-cycle-regulated transcription through SBF or other G1 activators as reported previously for the G1 cyclin Cln3 (Artiles et al. 2009; Parnell et al. 2014; Zapata et al. 2014) or negative regulation of a repressor similar to that reported for Ash1 (Parnell et al. 2014). Indeed, Swi4, the DNA-binding subunit of SBF, was found to be hyperphosphorylated in *rts* 1Δ cells (Zapata *et al.* 2014). PP2A^{Rts1} activation of histone gene expression may therefore be achieved in part by regulating Swi4 phosphorylation.

A distinct mechanism of *RTS1* rescue may be mediated through H2B-T91. The phosphomimetic mutant phenotypes suggest that T91, like Y40, is a site of dynamic phosphorylation. Of note, *htb1-T91E* overexpressing empty vector or *RTS1* grew poorly upon loss of the covering plasmid (compared to Figure 7A and Figure S6A), suggesting that the 2μ plasmids exacerbated sickness or that the more robust growth of *htb1-T91E* observed in Figure 7A and Figure S6A was due to growth of suppressors arising from recombination of *HTB1* from the covering plasmid. In either case, a state mimicking constitutive H2B T91 phosphorylation is clearly detrimental to cell growth.

The residue homologous to H2B-T91 in mammals (H2B-T89) is phosphorylated in murine brain and human cancer cells (phosphosite.org). The kinase prediction program GPS 2.0 (Xue *et al.* 2008) identifies the kinases Ste20 and Rad53

⁽*hht1-hhf1* Δ ::*kanMX hta1-htb1* Δ ::*natMX hta2-htb2* Δ ::*HPH*) containing *RTS1* or vector control high-copy plasmids. 5-FOA was used to select against the WT histone plasmid from these strains before plating onto His⁻ Leu⁻ media as shown and grown for 3 days at the indicated temperature. (D) H2B-Y40 and T91 are required for *RTS1* rescue of DNA damage sensitivity (0.05 M HU, 0.02% MMS). H2B-T91 is also required for *RTS1* rescue of sensitivity to microtubule destabilization by NOC (2 μ g/ml). Fresh histone mutant transformants were generated as above before plating and grown for 3 days at 30°.



Figure 7 HTB1-T91 dynamic modification is essential for growth. (A) Phosphomimetic mutation of T91 is lethal in $gcn5\Delta$ and causes slow growth in *GCN5* cells. Site-directed mutagenesis was used to mutate *htb1-T91A* to D/E to generate pLP2689 and 2770 and transformed into LPY16434 and LPY14461 histone shuffle strains. (B) *RTS1* overexpression does not rescue slow growth and lethality caused by *htb1-T91D/E* phosphomimetic mutations. Transformants were plated onto His⁻ Ura⁻ or His⁻ Leu⁻ Ura⁻ (growth) and 5-FOA to select against the WT histone plasmid as shown and grown for 3 days at 30°.

as candidates for H2B-T91 phosphorylation, both of which have documented histone phosphorylation activity. Ste20 phosphorylates H2B-S10 during peroxide-induced cell death in budding yeast (Ahn *et al.* 2005a,b) and histone phosphorylation by Rad53 is involved in ubiquitin-mediated degradation to prevent excess histone levels (Gunjan and Verreault 2003; Singh *et al.* 2009). The slight increase in H2B observed in the *gcn5* Δ *htb1-T91A* cells at 30° (Figure S5B) might therefore be due to reduced Rad53-driven proteolysis.

We note that *RTS1* overexpression affected growth and gene expression in otherwise WT cells in several experiments. WT cells overexpressing *RTS1* have reduced high-temperature survival after temporary phosphoprotein phosphatase inhibition by OKA (Figure 3D), suggesting that in the absence of phosphatase activity, *RTS1* overexpression can impair growth under stress conditions. *RTS1* overexpression also slightly improved growth of WT cells exposed to MMS (Figure 4C), supporting a role for *RTS1* in the DNA damage response. WT cells overexpressing *RTS1* also exhibited noteworthy changes in gene expression and histone levels compared to the empty vector controls (Figure 5, A and B, Figure S3C, Figure S4).

In asynchronous populations, we observed 57, 56, and 22% lower relative expression of HTB1, HHT1, and HHF1, respectively, and 36% increase in HHT2 expression (Figure 5A). In synchronized cells, RTS1 overexpression increased HTA1 induction (Figure 5B). We observed 20% more H3 and 50% less H4 in WT asynchronous cells overexpressing RTS1 (Figure S4), consistent with some of the changes observed for mRNA levels. Combined, these results support a role for RTS1 in regulation of cellular histone levels. When testing the panel of highly expressed GCN5-regulated genes, we found significant changes in expression, particularly of GPG1 and PHM8 (117 and 68% increases in expression, respectively). Both GPG1 and PHM8 are upregulated by the transcription factor Haa1, which relocalizes to the nucleus upon weak acid stress and in conditions of DNA replication stress (Tkach et al. 2012; Sugiyama et al. 2014). Coincident with Haa1 nuclear accumulation is loss of phosphorylation (Sugiyama and Nikawa 2001), but the phosphatase has not yet been identified. Our data are consistent with the possibility that Haa1 phosphorylation is regulated by PP2ARts1, leading to activation of target genes. Finally, although not statistically significant, we observed changes in global H3 acetylation in RTS1 overexpressing cells (Figure 4, D and E). Combined with the functional interaction between RTS1 and GCN5 we have characterized in detail, we propose PP2ARts1 has an extensive role in regulating gene expression that will be explored in future studies.

The synthetic lethality observed between loss of Gcn5 and PP2A^{Rts1} underscores our conclusion that the coordinate or parallel functions of these enzymes are fundamental for optimal growth and response to cell and genotoxic stress. Therefore, it is likely that there are multiple mechanisms of suppression by *RTS1* depending on type of stress, stage of the cell cycle, and other aspects of physiology. It is noteworthy that human Gcn5 is mutated or amplified in diverse cancers (Farria *et al.* 2015) and that the human B56 homolog of Rts1 has tumor suppressor function, although the mechanism(s) is incompletely understood (Li *et al.* 2007; Eichhorn *et al.* 2009).

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Promotion of Cell Viability and Histone Gene Expression by the Acetyltransferase Gcn5 and the Protein Phosphatase PP2A in Saccharomyces cerevisiae

Emily L. Petty, Anne Lafon, Shannon L. Tomlinson, Bryce A. Mendelsohn, and Lorraine Pillus

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Figure S1.



D	<i>gcn5</i> ∆ phenotype	Suppression by <i>RTS1</i> overexpression
Temperature sensitivity		+
DNA damage sensitivity		+
	Bud morphology defect	-
	Sporulation defect	-
Cell cycle progression defect		+
	Osmotic defect	-
	Poor growth on non-fermentable carbon sources	+



Figure S3.



Figure S4.



Figure S5.



Figure S6.



Tubulin

STRAIN	GENOTYPE
LPY5	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL
LPY1552	MATa/MATα ade2-1/ade2-1 can1-100/can1-100 his3-11/his3-11 leu2-3,112/leu2-3,112 trp1-1/trp1-1 ura3-
	1ura3-1 GAL/GAL
LPY6487	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL spt8∆∷kanMX
LPY8240	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL ubp8∆::kanMX
LPY10182	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5∆::kanMX
	MATα ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5Δ::kanMX sasΔ::HIS3 ura3::C357Y,
LPY11437	P375A – URA3
LPY11975	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL bar1∆::kanMX
I PY12231	MATα ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL hht1- hhf1Δ::kanMX hht2-hhf2Δ::kanMX hta2-
	<i>htb2∆::HPH</i> + pLP2212
I PY13321	MATα ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 GAL gcn5Δ::NatMX sas3Δ::HIS ura3-1::sas3 C357Y,
	P375A-URA3
LPY13435	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5Δ::NatMX
LPY13846	MATα ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5Δ::kanMX snf1Δ::TRP1
	MATα ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL hht1- hhf1Δ::kanMX hta1-htb1Δ::natMX hta2-
LPY14461	<i>htb2</i> ∆:: <i>HPH</i> + pLP2212
LPY14642	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL pph21∆::kanMX
LPY14644	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5∆::kanMX pph21∆::kanMX

STRAIN	GENOTYPE
LPY14653	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL rts1∆::kanMX
LPY14690	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL pph22∆::kanMX
LPY14692	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5∆::kanMX pph22∆::kanMX
LPY15178	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5∆::natMX rts1∆::kanMX + pLP1640
LPY15180	MATa/MATα ade2-1/ade2-1 can1-100/can1-100 his3-11/his3-11 leu2-3,112/leu2-3,112 trp1-1/trp1-1 ura3- 1ura3-1 GAL/GAL gcn5Δ::natMX/gcn5Δ::natMX
LPY15267	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL pph21∆::KanMX pph21∆::KanMX
LPY15296	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 ura3-1 GAL cdc55∆::kanMX6 gcn5∆::natMX+pLP1640
LPY15297	MATα ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 ura3-1 GAL cdc55Δ::kanMX6 +pLP1640
LPY15328	MATa/MATα ade2-1/ade2-1 can1-100/can1-100 his3-11/his3-11 leu2-3,112/leu2-3,112 trp1-1/trp1-1 ura3- 1ura3-1 GAL/GAL gcn5∆::natMX/GCN5 tpd3∆::kanMX/TPD3
LPY15416	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5∆::natMX tpd3∆::kanMX +pLP1640
LPY15417	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL tpd3∆∷kanMX
LPY15460	MATa/MATα ade2-1/ade2-1 can1-100/can1-100 his3-11/his3-11 leu2-3,112/leu2-3,112 trp1-1/trp1-1 ura3- 1ura3-1 GAL/GAL gcn5Δ::natMX/GCN5
LPY16290	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL hht1- hhf1∆:kanMX hht2-hhf2∆::kanMX hta2- htb2∆::HPH gcn5∆::kanMX + pLP2212

STRAIN	GENOTYPE					
LPY16346	MATα ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL hht1- hhf1Δ::kanMX hta1-htb1Δ::NAT hta2-					
	<i>htb2∆::HPH rts1∆::kanMX</i> + pLP2212					
LPY16432	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL hht1- hhf1∆::kanMX hht2-hhf2∆::kanMX hta2- htb2∆::HPH sas3∆::kanMX + pLP2212					
LPY16434	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL hht1-hhf1∆::kanMX hta1-htb1∆::natMX hta2-					
	<i>htb2∆::HPH gcn5∆::kanMX</i> + pLP2212					
LPY16456	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL sch9∆::kanMX					
*LPY16914	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 spt20∆∷HIS3					
LPY16980	MATα ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL rts1Δ::kanMX					
LPY17138	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5∆::natMX sch9∆::kanMX + pLP1640					
LPY17139	MATα ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5Δ::natMX sch9Δ::kanMX					
LPY17140	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5∆::natMX sch9∆::kanMX					
LPY17370	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL ahc1∆∷kanMX					
LPY17484	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL rts1∆::kanMX spt20∆::HIS3					
LPY18184	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL rtg2∆::kanMX					
LPY18424	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL rts1∆::kanMX ahc1∆::kanMX +pLP2462					
LPY18518	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL_ahc2∆∷kanMX					
LPY18495	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL rts1∆::kanMX ahc2∆::kanMX +pLP2462					

STRAIN	GENOTYPE
LPY20692	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL
LPY20694	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL gcn5∆::natMX pph21∆::kanMX pph22∆::kanMX + pLP2997
LPY21081	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL rts1∆::kanMX ubp8∆::kanMX + pLP2462
LPY21272	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL bar1∆::kanMX gcn5∆::natMX
LPY21898	MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 GAL rts1∆::kanMX spt8∆::kanMX + pLP2462

Except where indicated (*), all strains are from the lab collection. * LPY16914 is a gift of D. Stillman

pLP NUMBER	GENE	MARKER/COPYNUMBER	SOURCE
61	Vector	TRP1/CEN	
126	Vector	URA3/CEN	
135	Vector	<i>LEU</i> 2/2μ	
136	Vector	<i>URA3</i> /2µ	
645	SAS3	<i>LEU</i> 2/2μ	
1518	GCN5	TRP1/CEN	
1520	GCN5-LKN	TRP1/CEN	Wang et al. (1998); S. Berger lab
1521	GCN5-KQL	TRP1/CEN	Wang et al. (1998); S. Berger lab
1524	GCN5	<i>LEU2</i> /2μ	
1640	GCN5	URA3/CEN	
1641	GCN5	URA3/2µ	
2131	HTA1 HTB1	HIS3/CEN	Ingvarsdottir et al., (2005); S. Berger lab
2197	RTS1	<i>LEU</i> 2/2μ	
2212	HTA1 HTB1 HHT2 HHF2	URA3/CEN	
2330	CDC55	<i>LEU</i> 2/2μ	
2433	HHT2 HHF2	TRP1/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008)

2436	hht2-S10A HHF2	TRP1/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008)
2439	hht2-S28A HHF2	TRP1/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008)
2462	RTS1	URA3/2µ	
2481	HTA1 htb1-S90A-FLAG	HIS3/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008)
2482	HTA1 htb1-T91A-FLAG	HIS3/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008)
2492	HTA1 HTB1-FLAG	HIS3/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008)
2501	hta-S121A HTB-FLAG	HIS3/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008)
2515	hht2-T45A HHF2	TRP1/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008)
2689	HTA1 htb1-T91E-FLAG	HIS3/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008); this study
2770	HTA1 htb1-T91D-FLAG	HIS3/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008); this study
2997	PPH22	URA3/CEN	
3250	HTA1 htb1-Y40F-FLAG	HIS3/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008); this study
3251	HTA1 htb1-Y43F-FLAG	HIS3/CEN	Nakanishi et al., (2008); this study

Except where indicated, plasmids listed were constructed in the Pillus lab.

Table S3. List of Primers

OLP NUMBER	GENE	USE	SEQUENCE	
1275	SCR1	qPCR control	CGCGGCTAGACACGGATT	
1276	SCR1	qPCR control	GCACGGTGCGGAATAGAGAA	
1586	SCH9	Deletion	GCGCCAGTTCCCGCCTGC	
1587	SCH9	Deletion	CGCGCATCGATGAGCCCTGCC	
1643	HTB1	Mutagenesis	CGTATAACAAGAAGTCTGAGATCTCTGCTAGAG	
1644	HTB1	Mutagenesis	CTCTAGCAGAGATCTCAGACTTCTTGTTATACG	
1645	HTB1	Mutagenesis	GCTACTGAAGCTTCTGCATTGGCTGCGTATAAC	
1646	HTB1	Mutagenesis	GTTATACGCAGCCAATGCAGAAGCTTCAGTAG	
1647	HTB1	Mutagenesis	GGCTGCGTATAACGCGAAGTCTGCTATC	
1648	HTB1	Mutagenesis	GATAGCAGACTTCGCGTTATACGCAGCC	
1685	HTB1	Mutagenesis	CGTATAACAAGAAGTCTGCTATCTCTGCTAGAG	
1686	HTB1	Mutagenesis	CTCTAGCAGAGATAGCAGACTTCTTGTTATACG	
1754	HTB1	Mutagenesis	GCTGCGTATAACAAGAAGTCTGACATCTCTGCTAGAG	
1755	HTB1	Mutagenesis	CTCTAGCAGAGATGTCAGACTTCTTGTTATACGCAGC	
1789	AHC1	Deletion	GCCACTGTGCATAGCCG	
1790	AHC1	Deletion	GGGTACGTCTATGGC	

Table S3. List of Primers

2060	HTA1	qPCR	TGTCTTGGAATATTTGGCCG	
2061	HTA1	qPCR	TGGATGTTTGGCAAAACACC	
2064	HTA2	qPCR	GCTGTCTTAGAATATTTGGCTGC	
2065	HTA2	qPCR	GGCAACAAGTTTTGGTGAATG	
2058	HTB1	qPCR	GGTAAGAAGAGAAGCAAGGCTAGAA	
2059	HTB1	qPCR	GACTTCTTGTTATACGCAGCCA	
2062	HTB2	qPCR	GTCGATGGTAAGAAGAGATCTAAGG	
2063	HTB2	qPCR	GTGGATTTCTTGTTATAAGCGGC	
2070	HHF1	qPCR	TAAAGGTCTAGGTAAAGGTGGTGC	
2071	HHF1	qPCR	TAACAGAGTCTCTGATGACGGATT	
2066	HHT1	qPCR	GCTTTGAGAGAAATCAGAAGATTCC	
2067	HHT1	qPCR	GCAGCCAAGTTGGTATCTTCAA	
2068	HHT2	qPCR	CTGTTGCCTTGAGAGAAATTAGAAG	
2069	HHT2	qPCR	GCAGCCAGATTAGTGTCTTCAAAC	
2182	HHF2	qPCR	TAAAGGTCTAGGAAAAGGTGGTGC	
2183	HHF2	qPCR	TAACAGAGTCCCTGATGACGGATT	
2233	ADH1	qPCR	CGGTCACTGGGTTGCTATCT	
2234	ADH1	qPCR	CCGTCAGTGGCCTTTAGAAC	

Table S3. List of Primers

2229	CWP	qPCR	CTAGCTCCCCAACTGCTTCA
2230	CWP	qPCR	GGCACCTGCATTTTCTGTTT
2231	GPG1	qPCR	CAAAGATGGCAGTGTTGTGG
2232	GPG1	qPCR	GTCACCGTTGTCGGAGAGTT
2235	PHM8	qPCR	AAGGTGATTTGGAGGCAGAC
2236	PHM8	qPCR	AAGTGGCCTTGGGTTTTCTT

Table S4. Normalized averages and significant p-values for quantitative data				
Figure	Transformant	Normalized Average	p-value	
3D	WT+vector (DMSO)	1		
3D	WT+vector (OKA)	1		
3D	WT+RTS1 (DMSO)	0.823		
3D	WT+ <i>RTS1</i> (OKA)	0.62		
3D	<i>gcn5</i> ∆+vector (DMSO)	0.42		
3D	<i>gcn5</i> ∆+vector (OKA)	0.36		
3D	gcn5∆+RTS1 (DMSO)	1.01		
3D	gcn5∆+RTS1 (OKA)	0.73		
4E	WT+vector (30°)	1		
4E	WT+ <i>RTS1</i> (30°)	0.81		
4E	<i>gcn5</i> ∆+vector (30°)	0.19	*2.2x10 ⁻⁴	
4E	gcn5∆+RTS1 (30°)	0.28	**5.1x10 ⁻²	
4E	WT+vector (37°)	1		
4E	WT+ <i>RTS1</i> (37°)	1.22		
4E	<i>gcn5</i> ∆+vector (37°)	0.236	*3.4x10 ⁻³	
4E	gcn5∆+RTS1 (37°)	0.36	**1.9x10 ⁻⁴	
5A	WT+vector (<i>HTA1</i>)	1		

5A	WT+RTS1 (HTA1)	1.06	
5A	gcn5∆+vector (HTA1)	1.05	
5A	gcn5∆+RTS1 (HTA1)	1.07	
5A	WT+vector (<i>HTB1</i>)	1	
5A	WT+RTS1 (HTB1)	0.43	*8.5x10 ⁻⁴
5A	gcn5∆+vector (HTB1)	0.24	*9.3x10 ⁻⁴
5A	gcn5∆+RTS1 (HTB1)	0.72	**2.1x10 ⁻²
5A	WT+vector (<i>HTA2</i>)	1	
5A	WT+RTS1 (HTA2)	1.14	
5A	<i>gcn5</i> ∆+vector (<i>HTA2</i>)	0.40	*3.4x10 ⁻³
5A	gcn5∆+RTS1 (HTA2)	0.68	**1x10 ⁻²
5A	WT+vector (<i>HTB2</i>)	1	
5A	WT+RTS1 (HTB2)	1.13	
5A	<i>gcn5</i> ∆+vector (<i>HTB2</i>)	0.28	*1.2x10 ⁻³
5A	gcn5∆+RTS1 (HTB2)	1.01	**1.4x10 ⁻³
5A	WT+vector (HHT1)	1	
5A	WT+RTS1 (HHT1)	0.44	*4x10 ⁻³
5A	gcn5∆+vector (HHT1)	0.48	*3.4x10 ⁻⁵
5A	gcn5∆+RTS1 (HHT1)	0.83	**9.3x10 ⁻⁴

5A	WT+vector (HHF1)	1	
5A	WT+RTS1 (HHF1)	0.78	
5A	<i>gcn5</i> ∆+vector (<i>HHF1</i>)	0.42	*7.1x10 ⁻³
5A	gcn5∆+RTS1 (HHF2)	0.76	**2.7x10 ⁻²
5A	WT+vector (HHT2)	1	
5A	WT+RTS1 (HHT2)	1.36	
5A	<i>gcn5</i> ∆+vector (<i>HHT</i> 2)	0.63	*3.6x10 ⁻²
5A	gcn5∆+RTS1 (HHT2)	0.82	**1.5x10 ⁻²
5A	WT+vector (HHF2)	1	
5A	WT+RTS1 (HHF2)	1.04	
5A	<i>gcn5</i> ∆+vector (<i>HHF</i> 2)	0.83	*4.2x10 ⁻²
5A	gcn5∆+RTS1 (HHF2)	1.06	**2.4x10 ⁻²