

DNA methylation of the maize transposable element Ac interferes with its transcription

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Summary. We find a correlation between genetic activity, DNA methylation and transcription of the maize Ac element: in the active phase the Ac DNA is unmethylated and normally transcribed, in the inactive phase the DNA is highly methylated and no Ac transcript is detectable. After reversion to Ac activity the DNA is partly demethylated and the element is transcribed again. The distribution of CpG and GpC dinucleotides in the transcribed part of the Ac sequence is reminiscent of a CpG island and a neighboring inter-island region described in mammalian genes. A different distribution is observed in the termini of Acwhere the dinucleotide GpC is strongly under-represented.

Key words: Zea mays – Inactivation of transposition – Modification – Expression – Regulation

Introduction

The Ac element is the autonomous member of the Ac/Dstransposable element family in maize; it is auto-transposable and can mobilize Ds elements in trans (McClintock 1951). McClintock observed that the Ac element in the wxm7::Ac allele can undergo changes in phase from active to inactive and back to an active state (McClintock 1964, 1965).

Recently, it was shown that the cycling of the Ac element in the wx-m7::Ac allele between active and inactive phases can be correlated with DNA modification (Chomet et al. 1987). Schwartz and Dennis (1986) described the occurrence of a cycling Ac in the wx-m9::Ac allele, resembling the behavior of the wx-m7::Ac allele. The inactivated Ac element was designated wx-m9::Ds-cy because it behaves like a Ds element: it can transpose in the presence of an additional active Ac, but has lost its transposase activity (Schwartz and Dennis 1986).

By Southern analysis of genomic DNA it was demonstrated that in the normal, active phase only the cluster of 3 HpaII sites close to one end of the element is methylated, whereas at least some of the other 10 HpaII restriction sites in Ac (which are all located near the other end) are cleavable by the enzyme. After the switch to the inactive state in the wx-m9::Ds-cy allele, all 13 CCGG sites within Ac are methylated, but the HpaII sites in the maize DNA bordering the element remain cleavable. Upon reversion from the inactive to the active state $(wx-m9::Ac_{rev})$ partial demethylation of the HpaII restriction sites within Ac occurs. However, due to the incomplete and variable demethylation of the HpaII sites in the first generation revertants, they clearly differ from the progenitor in their methylation pattern (Schwartz and Dennis 1986). Apparently, the demethylation process can be progressive: in the third backcrossed generation after the reversion to the active state of the element the Ac DNA can be completely demethylated (data not shown).

McClintock observed reversible changes in phase also in the *Spm* controlling element (McClintock 1959), and there are indications that the molecular mechanism responsible is DNA methylation (Masson et al. 1987). A correlation between activity and DNA modification was also described for Robertson's Mutator (Bennetzen 1985, 1987; Chandler and Walbot 1986).

Results and discussion

For this analysis we studied the transcription of the transiently inactivated Ac derivative in the wx-m9::Ds-cy allele and a revertant to full Ac activity, $wx-m9::Ac_{rev}$.

 $Poly(A)^+$ RNA was isolated from seedlings and from leaves of single young plants of the described strains and additionally from seedlings containing an active Ac in the wx-m7: Ac allele and an Ac-free control strain. The RNA was size-fractionated on a Northern gel, blotted onto nitrocellulose and hybridized with a single-stranded DNA probe homologous to part of Ac. The result of the hybridization is shown in Fig. 1. The RNA from the wx-m7::Ac control strains contain the 3.5 kb Ac transcript (lanes 1, 2). It was shown earlier that in plant material from the wx-m9::Acallele, which carries the Ac element in a different position in the Wx locus, a transcript of the same size hybridizes with the Ac probe (Kunze et al. 1987). This transcript appears also in tobacco plants stably transformed with Ac (lane 9). In $poly(A)^+$ RNA from maize seedlings (lane 7) and a single plant (lane 5) both carrying the inactivated Ac element (wx-m9::Ds-cy) the Ac transcript is not detectable. The other transcripts which hybridize to the Ac probe are not Ac specific, because they are lacking in some strains with Ac activity and two of them are also found in the Ac free control strain (lane 6). In a young plant grown from a kernel showing phenotypic reversion to Ac activity a small amount of the Ac mRNA is synthesized (lane 4). The DNA of this plant is still partially methylated. The plants (lane 3)



Fig. 1. Transcription analysis of Ac, an inactivated derivative and revertants of it to Ac activity. Poly(A)⁺ RNA was isolated, electrophoresed, transferred to nitrocellulose and hybridized with a singlestranded DNA probe containing a 324 nucleotide Bg/I-AccI Ac fragment as described (Kunze et al. 1987). Denatured plasmid fragments containing Ac sequences were used as size markers: Lane M1 contains 6 pg of a 4.4 kb DNA fragment; lane M2 contains 2 pg of a 0.79 kb DNA fragment. Lanes 1–8 contain 3 μ g poly(A)⁺ RNA each from different maize materials: lane 1: wx-m7:: Ac, seedling roots; lane 2: wx-m7:: Ac, whole seedlings; lane 3: wxm9:: Acrev (3rd backcross generation), young plant; lane 4: wxm9:: Acrev (1st generation), young plant; lane 5: wx-m9:: Ds-cy, young plant; lane 6: Ac-free wx, young plant; lane 7: wx-m9:: Dscy, seedlings; lane 8: wx-m9:: Acrev (3rd backcross generation), seedlings. Lane 9 contains 2 µg poly(A)⁺ RNA from transgenic tobacco plants carrying Ac

and seedlings (lane 8) of the third backcross generation after reversion, the DNA of which was completely demethylated, contain normal amounts of the 3.5 kb Ac transcript. However, we have not yet confirmed the inverse correlation between the degree of methylation and the amount of Ac RNA synthesized in other plants.

These results corroborate our earlier conclusion that only the 3.5 kb Ac transcript, and not the other mRNAs homologous to Ac, correlates with Ac activity. This activity seems to be correlated with the degree of DNA methylation. In the case of Ac, methylation of the element could prevent the expression of the transposase gene. Indeed, genetic analysis showed that the inactivated Ac cannot mobilize Dselements, which means that no functional transposase protein is synthesized in that state (Schwartz and Dennis 1986). This conclusion is supported by the observation that the only specific Ac transcript, the 3.5 kb mRNA, disappears upon inactivation.

Alternatively, methylation of the target sites for the transposase could interfere with transposase binding or function. Such a mechanism was described for the bacterial insertion sequence IS10 and the composite transposon Tn10 (Morisato and Kleckner 1987; Roberts et al. 1985). However, assuming that methylation of the Ac transposase target sites would be sufficient to prevent transposition, one would expect that the modified element would behave like a stable insertion mutation. This is not the case: the inactivated Ac element behaves like a Ds element, as it can be transposed if an active Ac element provides the transposase in trans.

In several cases, it was reported that methylation of one or a few sequences in the promoters of viral or mammalian genes can reduce or even prevent gene expression (Doerfler 1983; Doerfler et al. 1985). Our data show that the Ac promoter can also be regulated by methylation.

The distribution of CpG dinucleotides and CpNpG trinucleotides in the Ac element is conspicuously non-random. The overall GC content in the first 240 bases of the Ac element (Fig. 2, segment A), including the putative promoter region, is 108 G + C (45%). However, it contains 26 CpG (23 CpNpG) and only 1 GpC (2 GpNpC). One of these CpG is part of a *Hpa*II recognition site which was shown to be uncleavable in the inactivated state of Ac (Fig. 2). Up to now we do not know which distinct sequences in the Ac terminus exhibit promoter activity, but the results from experiments of G. Coupland et al. (manuscript in preparation; Coupland et al. 1988) indicate the possibility that the transposase target region and the Ac regulatory region could overlap, and that there is some positive interaction or negative interference between DNA binding proteins involved in transposition and transcription.



Fig. 2. Distribution of CpG and GpC dinucleotides along the Ac element. On top of the figure the position of the BamHI, HindIII and EcoRI sites on the 4565 bp long Ac element is shown. CpG and GpC: each vertical line indicates the occurrence of the dinucleotide in the Ac sequence. The methylation-sensitive HpaII and PvuII sites are marked on the bottom line. The Ac transcript is shown as an open arrow (mRNA). The multiple transcription start points lie between the two dotted vertical lines; the solid vertical line marks the major transcription start site. The long open reading frame encoded by the Ac mRNA is diagrammed as the arrow with the wavy line (ORF). The introns (1–4) are indicated

A bias in CpG distribution very similar to that of the 5'-end is observed at the 3'-end of Ac (Müller-Neumann 1985): the terminal 240 nucleotides of the element (Fig. 2, segment D) contain an overall of 95 G+C (40%), 24 CpG (21 CpNpG) and 1 GpC (6 GpNpC). In this terminal Ac segment, the three HpaII sites are located which are methylated even in the active state of Ac. The similarity in base and sequence composition between the two Ac termini is striking and may reflect partially identical sequence requirements for transposition (Müller-Neumann et al. 1984).

Except for the 240 terminal bases of both Ac ends, the Ac sequence is remarkably reminiscent of a CpG island (or HTF island) identified in vertebrate DNA and a neighboring inter-island region (Bird 1986; Lavia et al. 1987). Approximately the first 650 bases of the Ac transcript constitute a long untranslated leader sequence. The G + C content in this leader is 68%, compared to only 38% in the following open reading frame. Eight of the 13 *Hpa*II sites of Ac (marked H in Fig. 2) are located in the leader sequence. However, in contrast to the terminal 240 bp, there is no bias in the distribution of CpG/GpC dinucleotides observed in the first two-thirds of the leader: its first 430 nucleotides (Fig. 2, segment B) contain 62 CpG and 60 GpC; this segment resembles a CpG island.

Further downstream, the distribution of these dinucleotides shifts drastically. In the remaining 3.1 kb of the 3.5 kb long transcribed region, the methylation-prone CpG sequence is under-represented (51 CpG vs 181 GpC), thereby resembling the inter-island regions in mammalian genes.

Conclusion

The data presented for the Ac element of Zea mays provide evidence that the transcription of its transposase gene can be regulated via DNA methylation. Obviously, the DNA methylation of inactivated Ac is not restricted to the region upstream of the transcription start, but extends several hundred nucleotides into the untranslated leader sequence. We cannot distinguish experimentally between premature termination of transcription and an inhibition of transcription initiation. Termination of transcription could yield an unpolyadenylated transcript which would be excluded from the poly(A)⁺ RNA fraction and, therefore, would not be detectable in our experiments.

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