Crucial Roles for Chromatin Dynamics in Cellular Memory

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Cellular memory is defined as a long-term maintenance of a particular pattern of gene expression through many rounds of cell division or even after cell division. It is critical for development and differentiation of multicellular organisms. Chromatin dynamics including histone modification, histone replacement and chromatin remodeling play key roles in cellular memory.

Key words: Pc group, trx group, position effect variegation, heterochromatin, histone H3.3.

Abbreviations: PHD, plant homeodomain; SP-Ring finger, Siz(septin-interacting protein)/PIAS(protein inhibitor of activated STAT)-Ring finger; PRC, Polycomb goup repressor complex; Su(z), Suppressor of zeste; Nurf, nucleosome remodeling factor; CBP, CREB(cyclic AMP response element-binding protein)-binding protein; SWI/SNF, mating type switch/sucrose non-fermenting; SET, Su(var)3-9/ Enhancer of zeste/Trithorax; bxd, bithoraxoid; Ubx, Ultrabithorax; Fab7, Frontabdominal 7; Abd-B, Abdominal-B; TBP, TATA element-binding protein; FACT, facilitates chromatin transcription; SSRP1, structure specific recognition protein 1; SPT16, suppressor of ty element 16; HDAC, histone deacetylase; Su(var), suppressor of variegation; E(var), enhancer of variegation.

Chromatin can transmit a particular pattern of gene expression from one cell generation to the next. This phenomenon termed as cellular memory is critical for the development and differentiation of metazoans. For example, once an expression pattern of Hox genes along the anterio–posterior body axis has been established during the early embryogenesis, it is maintained throughout the life and governs formation of the body segments such as head, thorax and abdomen $(1, 2)$. Another example is the maintenance of the stem cell identity: a stem cell can self-renew while maintaining its totipotency (3).

Although cellular memory is evolutionarily conserved among metazoans, many pioneer works on the memory have been carried out by using the fruit fly Drosophila melanogaster. Two types of cellular memory have been studied extensively in D. melanogaster. One is the maintenance of H_{α} gene expression $(1, 2)$ and the other is the position effect variegation (PEV) (4, 5). In this review, chromatin dynamics underlying the two types of cellular memory will be focused.

MAINTENANCE OF HOX GENE EXPRESSION

In 1947, P. Lewis isolated a Polycomb (Pc) mutant in which the sex comb, normally found only on the first leg of male, is also present on the second and the third legs. In embryos homozygous for the Pc mutation, many body segments showed characteristics of the posterior segments of wild-type. This phenotype cannot be explained by a mutation in any single Hox gene and E. Lewis has proposed that Pc can repress many Hox genes simultaneously (6). Since then many mutants with similar

phenotypes have been isolated in different genes and these genes are classified into Pc group $(1, 2)$. Typical examples of Pc group are listed in Table 1.

Pc group genes do not appear to determine the initial patterns of Hox gene expression, but govern the maintenance of the repressed state of Hox genes once determined by the segmentations genes. As double mutations in different genes of Pc group cause more severe phenotypes than each single mutation does, Pc group gene products are thought to work cooperatively. In good agreement with this view, biochemical studies identified two complexes containing Pc group proteins. One is PRC1 complex including Pc, Ph, Psc and Ring (7). The other is PRC2 complex consisting of Esc, $E(z)$, $Su(z)12$ and Nurf55 $(8-10)$. $E(z)$ in PRC2 methylates histone H3 at K27 and Pc in PRC1 binds to K27-methylated histone H3 through its chromodomain. Ring in PRC1 is responsible for ubiquitylation of histone H₂A (11).

On the other hand, a mutant in any gene that is involved in the maintenance of the active state of Hox genes should show phenotypes with simultaneous loss of functions of many Hox genes. Based on this prediction, a $trithorax$ (trx) mutant has been isolated (12) . Subsequently many mutants have been isolated, which suppress the derepression of H_{ox} genes in the P_c mutant (13). These mutants showed similar phenotypes as the trx mutant and hence, the corresponding genes are classified as trx group. Typical genes of trx group are listed in Table 1.

trx group functions to maintain the active state of Hox genes. Trx is a histone H3 methyltransferase at K4 and forms a complex containing a histone acetyltransferase CBP (14). Trl encodes the GAGA factor that binds to DNA through recognizing the GAGAG sequence (15). Brm is a catalytic subunit of the SWI/SNF-type

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Table 1. Pc and trx groups.

chromatin remodeling factor Brm complex (16). Double mutants of brm and Pc suggest that Brm cannot prevent the Pc-dependent repression, but functions to activate transcription on genes that have escaped the Pc silencing. Ash1 carries a SET domain shared with many histone methyltransferases and forms a complex that is required for histone H3 K4 methylation (17), but its exact function is still unclear.

Pc group and trx group proteins occupy specific sites within the regulatory regions of Hox genes (18, 19). These sites are termed Pc response element (PRE)/Trx response element (TRE). For example, the bxd region of Ubx and the Fab7 region of Abd-B harbour PRE/TRE. Previously, it was thought that Pc group proteins occupy PRE/TRE in repressed cells while trx group proteins replace Pc group proteins at PRE/TRE in active cells. However, recent data ruled out this simple scenario. It turns out that PRC1, PRC2 and Trx are present at PRE/TRE in both active and repressed cells (20). Then how can Pc group proteins repress Hox genes in the presence of Trx, and how can trx group proteins maintain Hox gene expression in the presence of P_c group proteins? Surprisingly recent study using a model PREhsp26 promoter construct has shown that Pc group silencing does not prevent the binding of TBP and RNA polymerase to the promoter (21) . These data suggest that Pc group silencing is not due to block of accessibility of the transcription machinery, but is achieved through repression of transcription at the initiation and/or the early elongation step. Some component(s) in the PRC1 or PRC2 complex may affect the transcription preinitiation complex and inhibit the initiation or early elongation step.

Mechanisms of the trx group-dependent maintenance of Hox gene expression are also elusive at this moment, but two recent findings provide a clue for the issue. First, the GAGA factor recruits FACT, a heterodimer of SSRP1 and SPT16, to PRE/TRE, facilitates chromatin remodeling, and contributes to the maintenance of Hox gene expression (22). Second, non-coding RNAs are transcribed in the PRE/TRE regions in active cells but not in repressed cells, and this transcription is required for the maintenance of $H\alpha x$ gene expression (23). It is possible that the GAGA factor-dependent chromatin remodeling allows non-coding transcription in the PRE/ TRE region, which in turn leads to release of the transcription machinery from the poised state through long-distance interactions between the regulatory region and promoter.

Although Pc and trx group proteins are displaced from mitotic chromosomes, these proteins should return back again soon after cell division to the original places on the interphase chromatin to maintain the repressed or active state. These processes are thought to be guided by histone modifications such as H3 K4, K9, K27, H4 K20 methylation and H3 K9, K27, H4 K16 acetylation but the precise mechanisms are still unknown. Clearly further studies are needed to elucidate the mechanisms underling Pc-dependent repression and its counteraction by trx group.

MAINTENANCE OF GENE EXPRESSION AGAINST HETEROCHROMATIN SILENCING

In 1930 H. Muller reported an important finding (24). When the *white* (w) gene that governs the eye color of the

fly is juxtaposed with pericentric heterochromatin by chromosome inversion such as w^{m4} , w expression becomes either silent or active in a stochastic manner. Once determined during embryogenesis, the silent or active state is maintained through cell divisions, which gives rise to variegated eye color. This is PEV. Genetic studies have identified many modifiers of PEV (4). Typical modifiers are shown in Table 2. Among suppressors of PEV, Su(var)2-5, Su(var)3-3, Su(var)3-7, and Su(var)3-9 encode heterochromatin protein 1 (HP1) (25), a histone H3 K4 demethylase (Gunter Reuter, personal communication), a Zn finger protein that interacts with HP1(26), and a histone H3 K9 methyltransferase (27), respectively. While molecular functions of most PEV enhancers remain unknown, Trl is known to encode the GAGA factor (15).

HP1 binds to a nucleosome by recognizing K9-methylated histone H3 through its chromodomain. HP1 also recruits Su(var)3-9 through protein–protein interactions. Then Su(var)3-9 methylates histone H3 at K9 in the neighboring nucleosome and another molecule of HP1 binds to the nucleosome. By repeating the process, heterochromatin has a tendency to spread into the neighboring regions (5, 28) (Fig. 1A). However, heterochromatin is present only in the restricted regions of the genome (e.g. pericentric region). This means the presence of some mechanism that prevents the spreading of heterochromatin. As the spreading is mediated through suppressor functions, enhancers of PEV would be responsible for the blocking mechanism. Consistent with this expectation, recent study from this laboratory demonstrated that the GAGA factor-FACT complex and its binding site just downstream of w are crucial for PEV (29). Interestingly there are a peak of histone H3 K4 methylation and a dip of histone H3 K9 methylation at this site. The K9 methylation at d1 could be removed by histone replacement or demethylation. We considered replication-independent replacement of histone H3 by its variant H3.3 (30) rather than demethylation because histone H3.3 is a preferred target of K4 but not K9

Replacement of K9-methylated histone H3 by H3.3

Fig. 1. (A) Mechanisms of heterochromatin spreading. In the heterochromatin, HP1 binds to a nucleosome by recognizing K9-methylated histone H3. HP1 recruits a histone methylase Su(var)3-9 through protein-protein interactions. Then Su(var) 3-9 methylates histone H3 at K9 of the neighboring nucleosome, which allows the binding of another molecule of HP1. By repeating the process, heterochromatin has a tendency to spead into the neighboring regions. (B) Histone H3.3 replacement prevents the spreading of heterochromatin. The GAGA factor and FACT direct replacement of a nucleosome containing K9-methylated histone H3 by a new nuclesome containing variant histone H3.3. This prevents the spreading of heterochromatin across the GAGA factor-binding site.

methylation (31) while a demethylated histone H3 could be a target of K9 methylation again. Indeed, we found that the GAGA factor and FACT direct replacement of K9-methylated histone H3 by histone H3.3 at this site, and prevent the spreading of heterochromatin (29) (Fig. 1B).

The GAGA factor occupies PRE/TRE of Hox genes and hence, the above mechanism may operate not only in loci juxataposed with heterochromatin but also in the regulatory regions of Hox genes to prevent the Pc silencing. High levels of histone H3.3 have been also reported at the locus control region of the chicken folate receptor gene (32) . This suggests evolutionary conservation of the barrier function against the chromatin silencing via histone H3.3 replacement from invertebrates to vertebrates.

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The data cited as Gunter Reuter, personal communication have been published: Rudolph, T., Yonezawa, M., Lein, S., Heidrich, K., Kubicek, S., Schäfer, C., Phalke, S., Walther, M., Schmidt, A., Jenuwein, T., and Reuter, G. (2007) Heterochromatin formation in Drosophila is initiated through active removal of H3K4 methylation by the LSD1 homolog SU(VAR)3-3. Mol. Cell 26, 1–13

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