Phosphorylation of histone H3 at Ser10 facilitates RNA polymerase II release from promoter-proximal pausing in Drosophila

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Running title: Phosphorylation of histone H3 and transcription

Key words: histone, chromatin, transcription, kinase

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The *Drosophila* JIL-1 kinase is known to phosphorylate histone H3 at serine10 (H3S10) during interphase. This modification is associated with transcriptional activation but its precise function is not well understood. Here we present *in vivo* evidence suggesting that JII-1 mediated H3S10 phosphorylation is required during early transcription elongation to release Pol II from promoter proximal pausing. JIL-1 localizes to transcriptionally active regions on polytene chromosomes and is required for activation of the *E75A* ecdysone-responsive and *hsp70* heat shock genes. Immunofluorescence analyses show that the heat shock transcription factor (HSF), the promoter-paused form of RNA Polymerase II (Pol II<sup>ser5</sup>) and the pausing factor DSIF are still present at the *hsp70* loci in *JIL-1* null mutants, whereas levels of the elongating form of Pol II (Pol II<sup>ser2</sup>) and the P-TEFb kinase are dramatically reduced. These observations suggest that phosphorylation of H3S10 takes place after transcription initiation but prior to recruitment of P-TEFb and productive elongation. Western analyses of global levels of both forms of Pol II further suggest that JIL-1 plays a general role in early elongation of a broad range of genes. We also show that phosphorylation of H3S10 by this kinase is dependent on chromatin remodeling by the brahma complex. Taken together our results introduce H3S10 phosphorylation by JIL-1 as a novel hallmark of early transcription elongation in *Drosophila*. 
INTRODUCTION

The eukaryotic cell packages its DNA wrapped around histone proteins to form nucleosomes, the basic units of chromatin (Wolffe 1998). These nucleosomes assemble into higher order chromatin structures through which the transcription machinery must navigate each time it is signaled to transcribe. Mechanisms have consequently evolved to maintain a flexible chromatin state that can readily respond to intrinsic and extrinsic stimuli and accordingly modulate gene expression (Orphanides and Reinberg 2002). Most prominently, histone modifying enzymes can methylate, acetylate and phosphorylate various amino acid residues of histone N-termini thereby changing their affinity for different transcriptional regulators (Jenuwein and Allis 2001). ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling complexes can also be recruited to alter the position and accessibility of the nucleosome (Simone 2006). The binding of specific transcription factors triggers a cascade of events during which these diverse chromatin modulators work in concert to allow the RNA polymerase II (Pol II) machinery to bind target genes, initiate transcription and elongate the messenger RNA (mRNA). These regulators maintain tight control of transcription throughout the elongation process by continuously communicating with the C-terminal domain (CTD) of the largest subunit of Pol II (Orphanides and Reinberg 2002).

The CTD of Pol II consists of a heptad repeat (Tyr-Ser-Pro-Thr-Ser-Pro-Ser) that is conserved from yeast to humans. It integrates transcriptional events by interacting with distinct regulatory proteins that recognize different patterns of CTD phosphorylation (Saunders et al. 2006). When Pol II is first recruited to the promoter as part of the pre-initiation complex its CTD
is hypophosphorylated. After Pol II disengages from the promoter, the CTD becomes phosphorylated at Ser5 (Pol IIo\textsuperscript{ser5}) by TFIIH, a general transcription factor that is part of the Pol II machinery (Feaver et al. 1991; Lu et al. 1992; Serizawa et al. 1992). As part of an early elongation complex, Pol II progresses 20-40 bp downstream of the promoter. It then pauses in a process referred to as promoter-proximal pausing, to allow for capping of the nascent mRNA. DRB sensitivity-inducing factor (DSIF) and negative elongation factor (NELF) cooperate to repress transcription elongation and maintain this pause. Pol II is released once the P-TEFb kinase is recruited to relieve the negative effects of DSIF and NELF and phosphorylate the CTD at Ser2 (Pol IIo\textsuperscript{ser2}), marking the onset of productive elongation (Marshall et al. 1996). The various transcriptional steps are associated with distinct histone modifications and chromatin remodeling complexes. Set1, the enzyme responsible for methylating lysine 4 of histone H3 (H3K4) in \textit{S. cerevisiae}, is known to physically associate with the CTD of Pol II when it is phosphorylated at Ser5. At the same time, tri-methylation of H3K4 has been found concentrated at the 5’end of transcribed genes (Ng et al. 2003). Methylation of Lysine 36 of H3 (H3K36), on the other hand, is associated with a later step in elongation; this mark accumulates further downstream of the promoter and associates with the CTD when phosphorylated at Ser2 (Krogan et al. 2003). Other modifications, such as lysine acetylation, arginine methylation and serine phosphorylation have also been associated with activation of gene expression (Turner 2000; Kouzarides 2002; Nowak and Corces 2004; Peterson and Laniel 2004). Of interest, phosphorylation of histone H3 at the Ser10 residue (H3S10) has been shown to be important for activation of transcription in yeast, \textit{Drosophila} and mammalian cells, but its precise role in this process is not well understood.
Several studies have suggested an important role for H3S10 phosphorylation in specific transcriptional responses to signaling stimuli. The yeast Snf1 kinase phosphorylates H3S10 upon activation of the \textit{INO1} gene (Lo et al. 2001). In mammalian fibroblasts, rapid phosphorylation of histone H3 concomitant with activation of immediate-early (IE) response genes takes place when cells are treated with growth factors and various stress-inducing agents, (Mahadevan et al. 1991). Further, Coffin-Lowry syndrome is characterized by impaired transcriptional activation of the \textit{c-fos} gene and a loss of EGF-induced phosphorylation of histone H3S10 (Sassone-Corsi et al. 1999). Treatment of immature rat ovarian granulosa cells with follicle-stimulating hormone produces rapid H3S10 phosphorylation in a PKA-dependent manner, suggesting a role for histone phosphorylation in cellular differentiation (DeManno et al. 1999). Additionally, H3S10 phosphorylation follows the stimulation of the suprachiasmatic nucleus of rats with light (Crosio et al. 2000) and activation of hippocampal neurons (Crosio et al. 2003). It further appears to play a central role during cytokine-induced gene expression mediated by I\kappa B kinase alpha (IKK-\alpha) (Yamamoto et al., 2003). What remains unclear from these studies is whether H3S10 phosphorylation is limited to mediating signal transduction events or whether it plays a more general role in the activation of gene expression in vertebrates.

Studies in \textit{Drosophila} suggest that this modification may be required for the transcription of most genes in this organism. Using the heat shock response as a model system, we have previously established that H3S10 phosphorylation patterns parallel those of active genes. \textit{Drosophila} responds to a rise in temperature by rapidly increasing the transcription of heat shock genes while repressing genes previously expressed. Before heat shock, phosphorylated H3S10 localizes to euchromatic regions of polytene chromosomes and co-localizes with Pol II. After
heat shock, this modification redistributes to the active heat shock loci and disappears from the rest of the chromosome where genes are now repressed (Nowak and Corces 2000).

Despite these observations, the precise role of H3 phosphorylation in gene activation remains elusive. The mammalian MSK1 and MSK2 kinases, among others, have been shown to be responsible for H3S10 phosphorylation associated with transcription (Davie 2003; Soloaga et al. 2003). The *Drosophila* homologue of MSK1/2, the JIL-1 threonine/serine kinase, was recently characterized and shown to phosphorylate H3S10 *in vitro* (Jin et al. 1999). H3S10 phosphorylation levels *in vivo* are dramatically reduced in *JIL-1*\(^{22}\) null mutants (Wang et al. 2001). The JIL-1 protein localizes to interband regions of polytene chromosomes and is found up-regulated on the male X-chromosome. Furthermore, the *JIL-1*\(^{22}\) allele enhances the phenotype of *trx-G* mutations (Zhang et al. 2003). These data indirectly suggest that JIL-1-mediated H3S10 phosphorylation plays an important role in transcriptional activation.

In this study we further characterize the role of JIL-1-mediated H3S10 phosphorylation in transcription. We directly establish that JIL-1 is required for the transcription of the majority, if not all, of *Drosophila* genes. Mechanistic analyses place the phosphorylation event subsequent to transcription initiation but prior to productive elongation and show that JIL-1 plays an integral role in the release of Pol II from promoter-proximal pausing. The data therefore highlight H3S10 phosphorylation as a novel hallmark of early productive elongation in *Drosophila*. 
RESULTS

JIL-1 associates with actively transcribed regions on polytene chromosomes

A correlation exists between active transcription in *Drosophila* and H3S10 phosphorylation, and both events take place specifically in most interband regions (less condensed chromatin) on salivary gland polytene chromosomes. Upon heat shock treatment, H3 becomes phosphorylated at Ser10 at the highly transcribed heat shock loci, and it becomes dephosphorylated at genes that were previously active and are now repressed (Nowak and Corces 2000). Since JIL-1 phosphorylates histone H3 in vitro and H3S10 phosphorylation is dramatically reduced in *JIL-1* null mutants (Wang et al. 2001), we tested if the JIL-1 kinase is required for transcription. To determine whether JIL-1 associates with actively transcribed regions, we compared its distribution on polytene chromosomes with that of both hypophosphorylated and hyperphosphorylated forms of Pol II. We performed immuno-fluorescence experiments using polytene chromosomes from third instar larvae, co-staining with α-JIL-1 anti-sera as well as 8WG16, H5 or H14 antibodies directed against Pol IIa, Pol IIo\textsuperscript{ser2} and Pol IIo\textsuperscript{ser5} respectively. The results reflect a broad distribution of JIL-1 throughout euchromatin, localizing to most interband regions, with an extensive overlap between JIL-1 and both phosphorylated forms of Pol II (Figures 1A and 1B). Although the relative levels of JIL-1 and Pol II vary from site to site, a close examination shows that JIL-1 is found at approximately 95% of sites associated with either phosphorylated forms of Pol II, examples of which are indicated by arrows (Figures 1A and 1B) and detailed views (Figures 1C and 1F). JIL-1 also overlaps significantly with Pol IIa,
albeit to a lesser extent – only about 60% of sites containing Pol IIa also contain JIL-1 (Figure 1C, arrows indicate sites where there is no overlap and Figure 1D, detailed view).

**JIL-1 is required for transcription of ecdysone-induced genes**

To further analyze the possible role of JIL-1 in the activation of transcription, we examined the chromosomal localization of JIL-1, Pol II

\[ \text{ser}^2 \]

and phosphorylated H3S10 in developmental puffs of third instar larvae polytene chromosomes. The presence of these puffs reflects high levels of transcription regulated by ecdysone hormone. It has been previously demonstrated that Pol II

\[ \text{ser}^2 \]

localizes to these regions at discrete times during development (Weeks et al. 1993). Later studies also showed phosphorylated H3S10 at these puffs, suggesting that this histone modification may be required for ecdysone-induced transcription (Nowak and Corces 2000). Our results show that JIL-1 co-localizes with Pol II

\[ \text{ser}^2 \]

and phosphorylated H3S10 at prominent early ecdysone-induced puffs such as 75B and 74EF (Figure 1F and 1G). The presence of JIL-1 in the ecdysone-induced puffs led us to examine if JIL-1 was necessary for ecdysone-induced transcription. We analyzed the expression levels of \( E75A \), one of the isoforms encoded by the early gene \( E75 \), at the late pre-pupae stage. At this stage, a high titer of ecdysone triggers the transition from pre-pupae to pupae, accompanied by a peak in the expression of the early genes (Thummel 1996). Equal amounts of total RNA isolated from wild type and \( JIL-1^{\text{ts}} \) mutant pre-pupae were examined by Northern analysis using a probe specific for the \( E75A \) mRNA. We observed high levels of \( E75A \) expression in wild type pre-pupae and a reduction in \( E75A \) expression in \( JIL-1^{\text{ts}} \) mutants (Figure 2A), suggesting that JIL-1 is required for transcription of the ecdysone genes.
**JIL-1 is required for transcription of the heat shock genes**

Histone H3 becomes phosphorylated at Ser10 concomitantly with transcription activation of the heat shock genes. We therefore asked if JIL-1 is involved in the transcription activation of the heat shock genes by examining whether JIL-1 localizes to the heat shock puffs of polytene chromosomes upon thermal induction. Using α-JIL-1 anti-sera, we performed immunofluorescence microscopy on polytene chromosomes from wild type third instar larval salivary glands subjected to 25 min of heat shock. JIL-1 localization at the heat shock loci was revealed by a robust staining at several heat shock puffs, most prominently at the *hsp70* genes (chromosomal subdivisions 87A/C) and at the 93D and 95D puffs (Figure 3A). However, unlike phosphorylated H3S10, JIL-1 can still be detected at the previously transcribed genes that are repressed after heat shock. To confirm that JIL-1 recruitment is transcription-dependent, we examined whether JIL-1 is present at the *hsp70* genes under non-heat shock conditions.

*Drosophila* has six nearly identical genes that encode Hsp70, the major heat shock protein. Two are located at the division 87A and four at 87C, on the right arm of chromosome 3 (Gong and Golic 2004). Anti-JIL-1 staining combined with *in situ* hybridization to a portion of the *hsp70* transcription unit shows no co-localization between JIL-1 and the *hsp70* genes at the 87C locus in the absence of heat shock (Figure 3B). Nevertheless, JIL-1 is present at very low levels at the 87A locus. This could be explained by the fact that the *hsp70* genes at 87A are surrounded by actively transcribed genes that cannot be distinguished from *hsp70* at the level of resolution provided by polytene chromosomes. This is supported by the presence of low levels of Pol IIo*ser2* at 87A and not 87C under non-heat shock conditions (Figure 3C). These results suggest that JIL-1 is recruited to the heat shock loci in a transcription-dependent manner.
To confirm that JIL-1 is required for the phosphorylation of H3S10 at the *hsp70* loci upon heat shock, we tested whether this modification is JIL-1-dependent. Antibodies to phosphorylated H3S10 were used for immunofluorescence microscopy combined with *in situ* hybridization on polytene chromosomes. Before heat shock in wild type chromosomes, phosphorylated H3S10 cannot be detected at the 87C locus while low levels are observed at 87A (Figure 3D), consistent with the localization of both JIL-1 and Pol II\textsuperscript{ser2}. After heat shock, an intense signal can be detected at both loci in wild type (Figure 3E) but is severely reduced in chromosomes from *JIL-1* null mutants (Figure 3F). To further confirm this conclusion, we examined the expression of the *hsp70* genes in wild type and *JIL-1\textsuperscript{e2}* mutants before and after heat shock by Northern analysis. A robust increase in the levels of *hsp70* mRNA is detected in wild type larvae after heat shock while no *hsp70* transcripts are detected in *JIL-1* null mutants under the same conditions (Figure 2B). These results suggest that JIL-1-mediated H3 phosphorylation is required for transcription of the *hsp70* genes.

**JIL-1 is not required for the recruitment of the HSF transcription factor**

Having established that JIL-1 is required for transcription of the *hsp70* gene, we sought to place H3S10 phosphorylation in the cascade of events leading from transcription factor recruitment to transcription elongation. It is conceivable that the overall disruption of chromosome structure in *JIL-1* mutants (Wang et al. 2001) prevents the binding of transcription factor HSF to its response element upon gene induction. We therefore examined the recruitment of HSF to polytene chromosomes after heat shock in wild type and *JIL-1\textsuperscript{e2}* mutant larvae. When inactive, HSF is diffusely distributed throughout the chromosomes at very low levels including at
the heat shock genes (Figure 4A). After 25 minutes of heat shock HSF redistributes to discrete sites, most prominently at the heat shock loci, as can be visualized by immunofluorescence microscopy of polytene chromosomes using anti-HSF antibodies (Figure 4A) (Westwood et al. 1991). Mutation of JIL-1 has no effect on this re-localization as HSF can be observed to bind polytene chromosomes of JIL-1^{12} mutants despite their poorly organized chromatin (Figure 4B). This binding appears to be very specific, as suggested by the strong signal at the 87A and 87C loci and by the lack of non-specific binding before heat shock (Figure 4B). These results indicate that the disrupted chromatin organization of chromosomes in JIL-1 mutant larvae does not preclude transcription factor binding, suggesting that JIL-1 acts to promote a transcription step downstream of transcription factor recruitment.

Transcription initiation takes place at the hsp70 genes in JIL-1 mutants but elongation is impaired

The heat shock genes accumulate a hypophosphorylated form of promoter-paused Pol II at a location 20-40 bp downstream of their transcription start sites prior to induction. Immediately after induction and recruitment of HSF, levels of Pol II^{ser5} rapidly increase, especially at the promoter-proximal region of the gene, indicating promoter clearance. Soon thereafter, Pol II^{ser2} can be detected at the transcription start site and throughout the reading frame, marking transcription elongation (Boehm et al. 2003). In order to determine the stage of the transcription process at which JIL-1 acts, we first examined the localization of Pol II^{ser5} at the hsp70 loci of wild type and JIL-1^{12} mutants using antibody H14, which is specific for this form of Pol II. Anti-HSF antibodies were also used to mark the heat shock puffs and as an
internal control of signal level. Pol II$^{\text{ser5}}$ localizes to the 87A and 87C loci of wild type chromosomes after 25 min of heat shock treatment (Figure 4C). Similarly, $JIL-1^{zz}$ mutants display high levels of Pol II$^{\text{ser5}}$, suggesting that transcription initiation is not affected and that elongation might be defective in these mutants (Figure 4D). To test this possibility we carried out immunofluorescence analysis using the H5 antibody, which recognizes Pol II$^{\text{ser2}}$. In contrast to HSF and Pol II$^{\text{ser5}}$, levels of Pol II$^{\text{ser2}}$ are dramatically reduced in $JIL-1^{zz}$ mutants (Figure 4F) as compared to wild type (Figure 4E).

**JIL-1 is required for P-TEFb recruitment during promoter-proximal pausing**

The results so far suggest a requirement for H3S10 phosphorylation by JIL-1 during transcription elongation of the $hsp70$ genes. The low levels of Pol II$^{\text{ser2}}$ observed at 87A/C could be explained by two scenarios. It is possible that H3S10 phosphorylation is necessary for the recruitment of the kinase responsible for phosphorylation of the CTD at Ser2. If this is the case, the polymerase should not become phosphorylated in $JIL-1$ null mutants and would not be released from its pause. A second possibility is that the chromatin structure in $JIL-1$ mutants interferes with elongation. In this case, the polymerase could become phosphorylated, but disengages shortly after being released.

The P-TEFb complex, a heterodimer of the CDK9 kinase and cyclin T (CycT), is responsible for the phosphorylation of the CTD at Ser2. This complex is rapidly recruited upon heat shock, and acts to release Pol II from promoter proximal pausing by antagonizing the effects of the pausing factors DSIF and NELF. Immunofluorescence analysis using anti-CycT antibodies has previously detected high levels of P-TEFb at 87A/C after heat shock (Lis et al. 2000). To
obtain a better understanding of the role of JIL-1 and to narrow down the window during which it acts, we performed similar analyses and compared levels of CycT at 87A/C in wild type and $JIL-1^{22}$ mutant larvae. Antibodies against Pol IIo$^{\text{ser}5}$ were used to mark the puffs and as an internal control for signal intensity. A dramatic decrease in CycT binding at heat shock genes was observed in $JIL-1$ mutants, as can be seen by comparing Figure 5B to Figure 5A. Quantitative RT-PCR analyses revealed normal transcript levels of CycT in these larvae as compared to wild type, suggesting that this observation is not due to indirect effects on CycT expression (data not shown). We then performed the same comparative analyses using antibodies against SPT5, a component of the pausing factor DSIF. Unlike the case with P-TEFb, we observed no changes in SPT5 binding in $JIL-1^{22}$ mutants (Figure 5D) when compared to wild type (Figure 5C). These data suggest that JIL-1 acts prior to P-TEFb recruitment.

**JIL-1 is required for transcription of most Drosophila genes**

JIL-1 localizes to all interbands on polytene chromosomes and co-localizes extensively with RNA polymerase throughout the genome suggesting that JIL-1 may play a role in the transcription of the vast majority of Drosophila genes (Figure 1A). The results from the previous experiments suggest that JIL-1 is required for proper elongation but not initiation of the hsp70 genes. To examine whether this role is conserved throughout the genome, we performed western analyses of protein extracts from wild type and $JIL-1^{22}$ mutant larvae and compared total levels of the two phosphorylated forms of Pol II. Total Pol IIo$^{\text{ser}2}$ levels are significantly reduced in $JIL-1^{22}$ mutants as compared to wild type (Figure 6A). In contrast, total Pol IIo$^{\text{ser}5}$ levels are maintained in these mutants at wild type levels (Figure 6B). Furthermore, levels of tri-methylated H3K4 – a marker of a chromatin environment that promotes transcription initiation –
are also maintained in \textit{JIL-1}\textsuperscript{\textasciitilde2} mutants (Figure 6C). Taken together, these results suggest a general role for JIL-1 in early elongation of transcription.

\textbf{Histone phosphorylation requires the Brahma chromatin remodeling complex}

To more precisely place JIL-1-mediated H3S10 phosphorylation into currently understood steps of the transcription process we examined the presence of phosphorylated H3S10 in mutants that abrogate transcription at two distinct steps by disrupting key components of chromatin remodeling complexes. The \textit{brm} gene encodes an ATPase that is part of the SWI/SNF remodeling complex. When a dominant-negative form of BRM (UAS\textit{brm}\textsuperscript{K804R}) is expressed in salivary glands, levels of Pol II\textsuperscript{ser2} and Pol IIa are dramatically reduced, suggesting that chromatin remodeling by the BRM complex is required at an early step in transcription initiation (Armstrong et al. 2002). A synergistic genetic interaction between \textit{JIL-1}\textsuperscript{\textasciitilde2} and mutations in the \textit{trx-G} genes \textit{brahma} (\textit{brm}) and \textit{trithorax} (\textit{trx}) has been previously reported (Zhang et al. 2003), suggesting that JIL-1 functions in the same pathway. We compared phosphorylated H3S10 levels on polytene chromosomes derived from wild type larvae (Figure 7A) to those derived from salivary glands that express \textit{brm}\textsuperscript{K804R} (Figure 7B). The loss of normal BRM function dramatically reduces levels of phosphorylated H3S10 while levels of Su(Hw), a chromatin associated protein used as a control, are maintained. Western blot analysis performed on protein samples derived from wild type vs. \textit{brm}\textsuperscript{K804R} salivary glands using anti-H3pS10 antibodies further shows that overall levels of phosphorylated H3S10 are reduced in \textit{brm} mutants (Figure 6D). These results are consistent with a role for JIL-1 mediated H3S10 phosphorylation.
at a later step in transcription and suggest that the modification is dependent on chromatin remodeling by the BRM complex.

**Histone H3S10 phosphorylation is not affected in kismet mutants**

Kismet-L (KIS-L) is another transcriptional regulator that exhibits *trx-G* phenotypes. It contains an ATPase domain that is highly related to that of BRM and has been proposed to act as the catalytic subunit of a novel chromatin remodeling complex required downstream of BRM. Disruption of the *kismet* gene (*kis*<sup>k13416</sup>) leads to reduction in the elongating form of Pol II but not that of the initiating form, suggesting that KIS-L is required in an early step in transcription elongation (Srinivasan et al. 2005). To further characterize the step at which JIL-1 acts during transcription elongation we examined the levels of phosphorylated H3S10 in *kis*<sup>k13416</sup> mutants. Unlike the *brm<sup>K804R</sup>* mutant, *kis*<sup>k13416</sup> had no effect on H3S10 phosphorylation as visualized by immunofluorescence microscopy (Figure 7C) when compared to wild type (Figure 7A). These results were confirmed by western blot analysis (Figure 6E). These observations suggest that H3S10 phosphorylation by JIL-1 either acts upstream of KIS function or that the two chromatin regulators function in independent pathways.
DISCUSSION

Eukaryotic transcription is a dynamic process that is regulated at many different levels. Intricate interactions between RNA polymerase and its chromatin environment are essential for proper progression through transcription initiation, elongation and termination. Previous findings suggest a correlation between histone H3S10 phosphorylation and transcription activation of most genes in *Drosophila*. (Nowak and Corces 2000; Labrador and Corces 2003). Results presented here establish H3S10 phosphorylation by JIL-1 as a key event during early elongation of transcription in *Drosophila*. JIL-1 appears to interact with the transcription machinery at most or all actively transcribed regions on *Drosophila* polytene chromosomes, including active ecdysone and heat shock genes. At the same time, expression levels of the *hsp70* and *E75A* genes are decreased in *JIL-1* null mutants. Importantly, when *JIL-1* is mutated, a global decrease in the phosphorylation levels of elongating RNA polymerase II is observed, suggesting that JIL-1 is required for transcription of the majority of genes.

The results further elucidate the timing of H3S10 phosphorylation within the framework of the cascade of events that lead to activation of transcription in eukaryotes (Figure 7). Phosphorylation of H3S10 is not required for transcription factor recruitment, since loss of JIL-1 does not affect binding of HSF at the *hsp70* genes after heat shock. Also, H3S10 phosphorylation is dependent on BRM chromatin remodeling, which is required genome-wide prior to the recruitment of Pol II. Transcription initiation can take place independent of JIL-1 as shown by the normal levels of Pol IIo\textsuperscript{ser5} and H3K4 methylation in *JIL-1*\textsuperscript{z2} mutants, indicating that the chromatin environment in the absence of JIL-1 is still suitable for transcription initiation.
However, productive elongation is impaired in these mutants as is evident by the decrease in Pol II\textsuperscript{ser2} levels. These findings introduce H3S10 phosphorylation as a new component of an increasingly complex chromatin environment that is required at the onset of transcription elongation in \textit{Drosophila}, suggesting a role for JIL-1 in the release of Pol II from promoter-proximal pausing and facilitation of early elongation. Specifically, in \textit{JIL-1} mutants P-TEFb is not detected at the induced \textit{hsp70} genes while levels of DSIF are maintained. In the absence of P-TEFb, neither DSIF nor Pol II can be phosphorylated, which is sufficient to block productive elongation. It is likely that Pol II arrests in a paused state and cannot elongate in these mutants. It is also possible that Pol II continues to elongate but is unable to communicate with the proper mRNA processing machinery, which is normally contingent on Ser2 phosphorylation of its CTD (Orphanides and Reinberg 2002). In this case, the mRNA would be produced but quickly degraded, leading to the transcription defects observed in our northern analyses. Further investigation is needed to decipher between these two possibilities.

Although JIL-1 is required for transcription, its presence is not sufficient to ensure gene activation, since JIL-1 is present at all previously transcribed genes that are silenced after heat shock, whereas phosphorylated H3S10 is found exclusively at the transcriptionally active heat shock genes (Nowak and Corces 2000). Nevertheless, recruitment of JIL-1 to the \textit{hsp70} gene is transcription-dependent. One possibility is that JIL-1 can exist in both active and inactive states. Once recruited to activate a gene, it may eventually be repressed by inactivation rather than disassociation. Alternatively, the net levels of phosphorylated H3S10 could result from a delicate balance between kinase and phosphatase activities. It has been previously proposed that phosphatase 2A (PP2A) plays a major role in transcription-dependent H3S10 phosphorylation (Nowak et al. 2003). Therefore, even if JIL-1 is actively maintained at silent genes, its action
may be counterbalanced by PP2A. Further studies are required to shed light on how JIL-1 activity can be regulated to affect transcription.

In vertebrates, phosphorylation of H3S10 seems to be limited to transcription activation of specific genes in the context of particular signal transduction pathways (Mahadevan et al. 1991; DeManno et al. 1999; Sassone-Corsi et al. 1999; Crosio et al. 2000; Crosio et al. 2003; Yamamoto et al. 2003; Vicent et al. 2006). In fact, activation of the hsp70 genes by different stressors in mammalian cells is associated with distinct signaling pathways that are not always linked to H3S10 phosphorylation. Contrary to the Drosophila response, heat shock elicits histone H4 acetylation instead of H3S10 phosphorylation at the hsp70 loci in mouse fibroblasts. On the other hand, both H3S10 phosphorylation and H4 acetylation are detected at the hsp70 genes upon arsenite treatment of the same cells (Thomson et al. 2004). Therefore, mammals appear to have more diverse mechanisms of transcription activation and may partially rely on H3S10 phosphorylation in a context dependent manner. In yeast, substituting the H3 Ser10 for an Ala prevents the recruitment of the TATA-biding protein to the INO1 and GAL1 gene promoters, suggesting that H3S10 phosphorylation is required for the assembly of the pre-initiation complex (Lo et al. 2005). It would be interesting to explore the significance of this apparent diversity across species.

The results presented here shed light on the mechanism of transcription regulation by H3S10 phosphorylation. It has been recently shown that H3S10 phosphorylation antagonizes the binding of the heterochromatin protein HP1 to histone H3 methylated in lysine 9 (H3K9) during mitosis in mammalian cells (Fischle et al. 2005; Hirota et al. 2005). It was consequently proposed that JIL-1 maintains chromosome structure in Drosophila by counteracting heterochromatin formation and preventing its spreading into euchromatin (Zhang et al. 2006).
This model for JIL-1 activity could explain a lack of transcription in \textit{JIL-I^2z2} mutants, since any ectopic heterochromatin would make the DNA inaccessible to the Pol II machinery. However, contrary to such prediction, our results show that heat shock puffs are still formed in \textit{JIL-I^2z2} mutants, and transcription factors and the Pol II machinery retain the ability to bind despite the disruption of chromatin structure. Furthermore, transcription can initiate, as is evident by the phosphorylation of Pol II at Ser5. This requires several components of the core transcription machinery and the procession of Pol II a few bases downstream of the promoter. These results suggest that rather than contribute to global chromosome structure, JIL-1 mediated H3S10 phosphorylation may be required to maintain a local chromatin environment that serves as a platform for the recruitment of P-TEFb and the consequent release of Pol II from promoter proximal pausing.

It has become increasingly evident that transcription elongation is a rate-limiting step of gene expression that requires tight regulation (Saunders et al. 2006). It was recently reported that the majority of gene promoters in human embryonic stem cells are occupied by a promoter proximally paused Pol II, poised for productive elongation (Guenther et al. 2007). This suggests the expression of these genes is predominantly regulated at the level of Pol II release rather than during pre-initiation. The exact mechanism of P-TEFb recruitment, a key step in this process, remains to be determined. Several transcription regulators have been shown to recruit P-TEFb (Jang et al. 2005; Yang et al. 2005; Guiguen et al. 2007), but this is the first evidence of a histone modification required at precisely the timing of recruitment.

The exact contribution of H3S10 phosphorylation to P-TEFb recruitment remains open to further investigation. Recent reports have shown that the ubiquitous protein 14-3-3 binds to H3 only when phosphorylated at Ser10, and this interaction could provide a mechanistic link
between H3S10 phosphorylation and P-TEFb (Macdonald et al. 2005). It is possible that 14-3-3 interacts with P-TEFb directly or indirectly through other transcription regulators that are known to recruit it. Alternatively, 14-3-3 is known to interact with many chromatin-related proteins (Tzivion et al. 2001) thus providing another avenue to manipulate the local chromatin environment to support P-TEFb recruitment and early elongation. Further analyses will be necessary to test these hypotheses and clarify the role and mechanism of regulation of JIL-1 and H3S10 phosphorylation in gene expression.
MATERIALS AND METHODS

*Drosophila Stocks*

Stocks were maintained in standard medium at 23°C. Oregon R larvae were used for wild type controls in all experiments. The *JIL-1^{sz2}* stock was a gift from Dr. K. Johansen (Iowa State University). The *brm^{K804R}* and *kiss^{k13416}* stocks were a gift from Dr. J. Tamkun (UC Santa Cruz).

*Induction of the heat shock response and analysis of polytene chromosomes*

Salivary gland polytene chromosome squashes were prepared from wandering third instar larvae maintained at 23°C. For heat shock experiments, third-instar wild type and *JIL-1^{sz2}* mutant larvae were subjected to heat shock treatment as described previously (Nowak et al., 2003). Salivary glands were dissected in 0.7% NaCl and fixed for 2 min in 45% acetic acid/1.85% formaldehyde. Fixed salivary glands were subsequently squashed in 45% acetic acid on subbed slides. The slides were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored dry at -70°C. For immunostaining of H3S10 phosphorylation, salivary glands were fixed for 2 min in 15% acetic acid/1.85% formaldehyde. Slides were incubated overnight at 4°C in antibody dilution buffer (PBS/0.1% Triton X-100/1% BSA) containing primary antibodies at concentrations of 1:30 chicken α-JIL-1 (gift from Dr. K. Johansen), 1:20 rabbit α-H3pS10 (Upstate Biotechnologies), 1:30 mouse α-Pol IIoSer2 (H5, Covance), 1:30 mouse α-Pol IIoSer5 (H14, Covance), 1:50 rabbit α-HSF (gift from Dr. C. Wu, NCI), 1:50 rabbit α-SPT5 (gift from Dr. F. Winston), 1:20 rabbit α-CycT (gift from Dr. D. Price, affinity purified as described in Lis et al 2000) and 1:150 rat α-Su(Hw). Following
incubation, slides were washed three times in PBS/0.1% Triton X-100 and incubated for 1 h at 37°C in the appropriate secondary antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories) diluted 1:200 in antibody dilution buffer. Slides were washed three times as described above and stained with 0.5μg/ml of 4’,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) and mounted in Vectashield mounting medium (Vector Laboratories) for viewing.

**Preparation of Drosophila protein extracts and Western analysis**

Protein extracts from third instar larvae were prepared by lysing the anterior tissues, containing salivary glands, brains and imaginal discs, in sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) sample buffer (0.175M Tris-HCl, 5% SDS, 15% glycerol, 0.0005% bromophenol blue, 4.95mM β-mercaptoethanol) using a Dounce homogenizer. Following homogenization, protein samples were immediately run on SDS- polyacrylamide gels and transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes for immunodetection. Membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C in antibody dilution buffer (PBS/0.05% Tween/5% milk) containing primary antibodies at concentrations of 1:100 mouse α-DDA2.7 EcR common (Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank), 1:1000 mouse α-Pol IIo$^{ser2}$ (H5, Covance), 1:500 mouse α-Pol IIo$^{ser5}$ (H14, Covance), 1:1000 rabbit α-H3pS10 (Upstate Biotechnologies), 1:1000 rabbit α-Lys4 trimethylated histone H3 (Upstate Biotechnologies), 1:1000 rabbit α-histone H2A (Upstate Biotechnologies), 1:1000 mouse α-lamin (Risau et al. 1981). After incubation the membranes were washed twice with PBS/0.25% Tween, incubated for 1h at room temperature in the appropriate HRP secondary antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories), washed twice with PBS/0.25%Tween.
Antibody signal was visualized using chemiluminescence detection methods (SuperSignal West Pico kit, Pierce).

**Immunoprecipitation analysis**

Protein extracts from Schneider 2 cells were prepared by lysing the cells in RIPA buffer (1% NP40, 0.1% SDS, 150 mM NaCl and 10 mM Tris [pH 7.4]). For co-immunoprecipitation experiments 20 µl of either H5 or H14 antibodies were coupled to 30 µl agarose beads coated with anti-mouse IgM antiserum (Sigma) for 2 hours at 4°C in 1ml of buffer PB (0,01 M sodium phosphate buffer [pH 7.2], 0.5 M NaCl). The antibody-coupled beads or beads only were incubated overnight at 4°C with 200 µl S2 cell lysate and PB buffer to a final volume of 0.5 ml. Beads were washed six times for 5 minutes each with 1 ml of buffer PB. Western blots were probed with rabbit α-JIL-1 at 1:3000 dilution.

**Preparation of Drosophila RNA and Northern analysis**

Total RNA was isolated from 20 wild type or JIL-1 frozen third instar larvae and pre-pupae using RNA-Bee™ (Tel-Test, Inc) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA samples (20 µg per lane) were denatured in MOPS/formaldehyde/formamide buffer and separated by electrophoresis on a 1% formaldehyde/agarose gel at low voltage as described (Farrell, 1998). Following electrophoresis RNA was transferred to a Nytran super charge membrane (Scheleicher & Schuell) by capillary blotting overnight in 10X SSC. Resolved RNAs were cross-linked to the membrane by UV irradiation and incubated in hybridization solution (Ultrahyb, Ambion) for 1h at 45°C before addition of the probe. Radiolabeled DNA probes were prepared using the Prime-A-Gene random priming kit (Promega). Labeled probes were purified using MicroSpin™ G-50
columns (Amersham), added to the hybridization mixture and incubated overnight at 45°C. The blots were then washed using solutions containing decreasing concentrations of SDS and SSC (1X SSC is 0.15M NaCl, 0.015M sodium citrate). Transcripts were visualized by autoradiography or PhospholImager. All probes were generated from amplified genomic Drosophila DNA. A probe specific for hsp70 mRNA was generated using the following pairs of primers: Hsp70 IIIA (5’tggtgctgaccaagatgaag3’) and Hsp70 IIIB (5’tagtctgcttgcacggaatg3’). A probe specific for the E75A mRNA isoform was generated using the following pair of primers: E75A-1 (5’cattgactaactgccactgca3’) and E75A-2 (5’caacactgcagtgggaccatcg3’) as described (Karim et al., 1991). A probe against rp49 mRNA was synthesized using primers rp49 I (5’cccaaggtatgacacaacg3’) and rp49 II (5’atggtgctgcagctgatac3’). Membranes used to analyze expression of the E75A and hsp70 genes were stripped in 1% SDS boiling solution for 30 min and rehybridized with rp49 probe as a loading control.

**DNA in situ hybridization**

Digoxigenin-labeled DNA probes were prepared using the Prime-A-Gene random priming kit using a mixture of deoxiribonucleotides containing DIG-11-dUTP (Roche). The reactions were incubated overnight at room temperature. The template used to generate the probe was synthesized as described above. Labeled probes were precipitated and stored in hybridization buffer (4X SSC, 1X Denhardt’s, 0.4mg/ml sonicated salmon sperm, 50% formamide) until ready for use. Salivary glands were dissected in 0.7% NaCl, transferred for 30 sec to 45% acetic acid and then fixed for 2 min in 1 volume lactic acid/2 volumes water/3 volumes acetic acid. Fixed salivary glands were squashed as described above, and the slides were
left overnight at room temperature. Slides were then frozen in liquid nitrogen, the coverslips removed and dehydrated in 70% ethanol for 5 min and incubated twice 5 min in 95% ethanol. The slides were stored at room temperature until ready for use. Slides were incubated in 2X SSC for 60 min at 65°C, dehydrated through an ethanol series, air dried and denatured for 2 min in 70mM NaOH. Following denaturation, the slides were dehydrated again as described above and air dried at room temperature prior to hybridization. For hybridization, boiled probes were added to the dried, denatured polytene chromosomes squashes and covered with a coverslip. The slides and coverslips were sealed with rubber cement and incubated at 37°C overnight in a humidified chamber. Following hybridization, coverslips were removed and the slides were washed 2 times for 10 min at 37°C in 2X SSC, 2 times for 5 min at room temperature in PBS 1X, 2 min in PBS/0.1% Triton-X-100 and 5 min in 1X PBS. After washing, immunocytochemical treatment was carried out as described above.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

We would like to thank all members of the Corces Lab for invaluable discussions, Dr. Elissa Lei for critical comments on the manuscript, Dr. Luisa Cochella and Ashley Bushey for helpful suggestions, Dr. Kristen Johansen for *JIL-1* strains and antibodies, Dr. Carl Wu for HSF antibodies, Dr. Fred Winston for SPT5 antibodies, Dr. David Price for CycT antibodies, Dr. Harry Saumweber for lamin antibodies and Dr. John Tamkun for *brm* and *kis* mutant strains. This work was supported by National Science Foundation Award MCB-0618972.
REFERENCES


FIGURE LEGENDS

**Figure 1.** JIL-1 localizes to actively transcribed regions on polytene chromosomes.

(A) Immunolocalization of JIL-1 (red) and Pol II\textsuperscript{ser2} (green) on wild type (wt) polytene chromosomes, arrows indicate sites of co-localization. (B) Immunolocalization of JIL-1 (red) and Pol II\textsuperscript{ser5} (green) on wild type (wt) polytene chromosomes, arrows indicate sites of co-localization. (C) Detailed view of a section of the chromosomes in B. (D) Immunolocalization of JIL-1 (red) and Pol II\textsuperscript{a} (green) on wt polytene chromosomes, arrows indicate Pol II\textsuperscript{a} sites that do not exhibit JIL-1 binding. (E) Detailed view of a section of the chromosomes in D. (F) Immunolocalization of JIL-1 (red) and Pol II\textsuperscript{ser2} (green) on ecdysone-induced puffs at E74EF and E75B. (G) Immunolocalization of JIL-1 (green) and phosphorylated H3S10 (H3pS10) (red) on ecdysone-induced puffs at E74EF and E75B. The puffs are indicated with arrows. DNA is stained with DAPI (blue) in all images.

**Figure 2.** JIL-1 is required for ecdysone and heat shock-induced gene expression.

(A) Expression analysis of the ecdysone-induced gene *E75A*. Total RNA isolated from wild type (wt) and *JIL-1*\textsuperscript{c2} mutant prepupae was analyzed by Northern blot hybridization to detect *E75A* mRNA; *rp49* was used as loading control. (B) Expression analysis of *hsp70* gene expression. Total RNA isolated from heat shocked (HS) and non heat shocked (NHS) wt and *JIL-1*\textsuperscript{c2} mutant larvae was analyzed by Northern blot hybridization to detect *hsp70* mRNA; *rp49* was used as loading control.
**Figure 3.** JIL-1 is recruited to the *hsp70* loci after heat shock treatment.

Immunolocalization of (A) JIL-1 (red) on wild type heat shock-induced polytene chromosomes. The major heat shock induced puffs at 87A, 87C, 93D and 95D are indicated with arrows. (B) JIL-1 (red) combined with *in situ* hybridization to detect *hsp70* (green) on wild type non-heat shocked polytene chromosomes. (C) Pol II*o*ser2 (green) combined with *in situ* hybridization to detect *hsp70* (red) on wild type non-heat shocked polytene chromosomes. (D) H3pS10 (red) combined with *in situ* hybridization to detect *hsp70* (green) on wild type non-heat shock polytene chromosomes. The cytological sites 87A and C are indicated with arrows. (E) and (F) H3pS10 (red) combined with *in situ* hybridization to detect *hsp70* (green) on wild type and *JIL-1*<sup>z2</sup> heat shock-induced 87A and 87C puffs.

**Figure 4.** Transcription factor recruitment and transcription initiation occur in *JIL-1* mutants but transcription elongation is impeded.

Immunolocalization of HSF on polytene chromosomes of (A) wild type (wt) or (B) *JIL-1*<sup>z2</sup> larvae that have been either heat shocked (HS) or non-heat shocked (NHS). Inset indicates the 87A/C heat shock puffs in both panels. Detailed view of the heat shock puffs at 87A/C stained with (C and D) Pol II*o*ser5 (green) or (E and F) Pol II*o*ser2 (green) from (C and E) wild type or (D and F) *JIL-1*<sup>z2</sup>. HSF (red) was used as control and DNA is stained with DAPI (blue) in all panels C to F.

**Figure 5.** JIL-1 is required for P-TEFb recruitment but not DSIF binding after heat shock in *JIL-1* null mutants.
Detail view of the heat shock puffs at 87A/C stained with (A and B) cyclin T (red) and (C and D) SPT5 (red) antibodies from wt (A and C) and JIL-1^{+2} (B and D) polytene chromosomes under heat shock conditions. Pol II^{ser5} (green) was used as control and DNA is stained with DAPI (blue) in all panels A to D.

**Figure 6.** Analysis of Pol II and histone modifications in wild type and mutant larvae.

Western analysis of: (A) Pol II^{ser2} levels in wt and JIL-1^{+2} larvae; lamin was used as loading control. (B) Pol II^{ser5} levels in wt and JIL-1^{+2} larvae; lamin was used as loading control. (C) H3pS10 levels in wt and brm^{K804R} larvae; H2A was used as loading control. (D) H3 trimethylated K4 (H3mK4) levels in wild type and JIL-1^{+2} larvae; H2A was used as loading control. (E) H3pS10 levels in wild type and kis^{k13416} larvae; H2A was used as loading control.

**Figure 7.** Histone phosphorylation requires BRM but not KIS chromatin remodeling factors.

Immunolocalization of H3pS10 (red) and Su(Hw) (green) on polytene chromosomes from (A) wild type, (B) brm^{K804R}, or (C) kis^{k13416} third instar larvae. DNA is stained with DAPI (blue) in all merge panels.

**Figure 8.** The role of JIL-1 in transcription elongation.

The diagram indicates the time during the transcription process at which JIL-1 and various other factors are thought to act. JIL-1 acts during promoter-proximal pausing after phosphorylation of
Ser5 in the CTD of Pol II and recruitment of the complex NELF-DSIF. Phosphorylation of the CTD on Ser2 by P-TEFb and release of Pol II from the halt are dependent on JIL-1. See text for details.
Figure 1, Ivaldi MS, Karam CS and Corces VG
Figure 2, Ivaldi MS, Karam CS and Corces VG
Figure 4, Ivaldi MS, Karam CS and Corces VG
Figure 5, Ivaldi MS, Karam CS and Corces VG
Figure 6, Ivaldi MS, Karam CS and Corces VG
Figure 7, Ivaldi MS, Karam CS and Corces VG
Figure 8, Ivaldi MS, Karam CS and Corces VG