

A Cytosine Methyltransferase Homologue Is Essential for Sexual Development in *Aspergillus nidulans*

Dong W. Lee¹, Michael Freitag²✉, Eric U. Selker², Rodolfo Aramayo^{1*}

1 Department of Biology, College of Science, Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas, United States of America, **2** Department of Biology, Institute of Molecular Biology, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon, United States of America

Abstract

Background: The genome defense processes RIP (repeat-induced point mutation) in the filamentous fungus *Neurospora crassa*, and MIP (methylation induced premeiotically) in the fungus *Ascobolus immersus* depend on proteins with DNA methyltransferase (DMT) domains. Nevertheless, these proteins, RID and Masc1, respectively, have not been demonstrated to have DMT activity. We discovered a close homologue in *Aspergillus nidulans*, a fungus thought to have no methylation and no genome defense system comparable to RIP or MIP.

Principal Findings: We report the cloning and characterization of the *DNA methyltransferase homologue A (dmtA)* gene from *Aspergillus nidulans*. We found that the *dmtA* locus encodes both a sense (*dmtA*) and an anti-sense transcript (*tmdA*). Both transcripts are expressed in vegetative, conidial and sexual tissues. We determined that *dmtA*, but not *tmdA*, is required for early sexual development and formation of viable ascospores. We also tested if DNA methylation accumulated in any of the *dmtA/tmdA* mutants we constructed, and found that in both asexual and sexual tissues, these mutants, just like wild-type strains, appear devoid of DNA methylation.

Conclusions/Significance: Our results demonstrate that a DMT homologue closely related to proteins implicated in RIP and MIP has an essential developmental function in a fungus that appears to lack both DNA methylation and RIP or MIP. It remains formally possible that *DmtA* is a bona fide DMT, responsible for trace, undetected DNA methylation that is restricted to a few cells or transient but our work supports the idea that the DMT domain present in the RID/Masc1/*DmtA* family has a previously undescribed function.

Citation: Lee DW, Freitag M, Selker EU, Aramayo R (2008) A Cytosine Methyltransferase Homologue Is Essential for Sexual Development in *Aspergillus nidulans*. PLoS ONE 3(6): e2531. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002531

Editor: Luis M. Corrochano, University of Sevilla, Spain

Received: December 11, 2007; **Accepted:** May 8, 2008; **Published:** June 25, 2008

Copyright: © 2008 Lee et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Funding: This work was supported by U. S. Public Health Service Grants GM58770 and GM35690 to R. A. and E. U. S., respectively.

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

* E-mail: raramayo@tamu.edu

✉ Current address: Department of Biochemistry & Biophysics, Center for Genome Research and Biocomputing, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon, United States of America

Introduction

DNA methylation is essential for normal development and differentiation of plants and mammals [1–11]. Fungi like *Neurospora crassa* show substantial DNA methylation despite the fact that the process in this organism is dispensable [12,13]. In contrast, several well-studied organisms completely lack DNA methylation (e.g., *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* and *Caenorhabditis elegans*), while in others (e.g., *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Aspergillus flavus*) very little methylation has been reported [14–18], and its significance remains controversial [19].

Although extensively studied, much remains to be learned about the biology and relationship of eukaryotic DNA methyltransferases (DMTs). Putative and established eukaryotic DMTs can be separated into five families [11,20]: 1) the DNMT1 or “maintenance DMT” family (e.g., mammalian Dnmt1 and plant MET1); 2) the DNMT3 or “*de novo* DMT” family (e.g., mammalian Dnmt3A and Dnmt3B and the plant DRMs) 3) the plant-specific chromomethylase (CMT) family (e.g., Arabidopsis CMT3); 4) the fungal-specific DMT-like family (e.g., *Ascobolus immersus* Masc1 and *Neurospora* RID); and 5) the DNMT2 family. Some fungal DMTs,

like *Neurospora* DIM-2 and *Ascobolus* Masc2, do not fit well into any one of the above-mentioned groups, but are regarded as highly divergent members of the DNMT1 family; alternatively, they may constitute a sixth, fungal-specific family [11].

It is important to note that proteins that are similar to DMTs in their primary structure (i.e., putative DMTs) may not be true DMTs. This appears to be the case for members of the DNMT2 family that have been recently demonstrated to have tRNA^{ASP}-methylation activity [19]. Similarly, DMTase activity has not been demonstrated for either RID [20] or Masc1 [21], putative DMTs associated with RIP (Repeat-Induced Point Mutation) in *Neurospora* and the related process, MIP (Methylation Induced Premeiotically), in *Ascobolus*, respectively. RIP, the first eukaryotic genome defense system discovered [22–26] alters DNA duplications during the sexual phase of the life cycle by introducing C:G to T:A transition mutations in both copies of the duplication [27,28]. DNA sequences that have been subjected to RIP are usually, but not invariably, methylated [23–25]. The precise relationship between RIP and DNA methylation remains unknown, but it seems likely that RID is responsible for cytosine methylation and/or deamination, resulting in the observed transition mutations

[20,26,29–31]. RIP is abolished in homozygous crosses with *rid* mutants [20].

As in *Neurospora*, the haploid parental genomes of *A. immersus* are scanned for DNA duplications after fertilization but before karyogamy. Unlike the situation in *Neurospora*, however, duplicated sequences are subjected to DNA methylation only; mutations do not occur [21,32–34]. Interestingly, the *Ascobolus* RID orthologue, *Masc1*, is essential for normal sexual development. This is in contrast to homozygous *rid* crosses, which are completely fertile [20]. It is impossible to test the involvement of *Masc1* in MIP in crosses homozygous for mutations in *masc1*, but MIP is markedly reduced in crosses heterozygous for mutations in this gene (Malagnac, et al., 1997). In addition, *masc1* is more penetrant when the mutation and the duplication are in the same nucleus. These findings contrast with what has been found with *rid* mutants in *Neurospora*, which show no nucleus-specific effect [20]. Based on its involvement in MIP, *Masc1* has been called a “de novo” DMT [21].

The present study was prompted by the observation that the genome of *A. nidulans* contains a single gene that is predicted to encode a DMT-like enzyme similar to *Masc1* and *RID*. This was surprising, given that neither widespread DNA methylation nor active MIP or RIP have been reported in any *Aspergillus* species. We therefore cloned and characterized the *Aspergillus* homologue and named it *DNA methyltransferase homologue A (dmtA)*. Curiously, the *dmtA* locus encodes both a sense (*dmtA*) and an anti-sense transcript (*tmdA*). Inactivation of *dmtA*, but not of *tmdA*, abolishes the formation of viable ascospores. No cytosine methylation has been detected in the wild type or *dmtA/tmdA* mutant strains in sexual or asexual tissues.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and plasmids construction

Escherichia coli K12 XL1-Blue MR (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA) was the host for most plasmid DNA. When non-methylated DNA was needed for enzyme digestions, either GM2163 or JM110 [35] were used. Plasmid pDC1 was described in Aramayo et al. [36]. Plasmid pRB2 was provided by Thomas H. Adams (Monsanto, St. Louis, MO). Oligonucleotides used in this study are described in Table 1.

Plasmids were constructed by standard procedures [37]. The *EcoRI* site 2432 bp upstream of the predicted translation initiation signal (ATG) of the *DmtA* polypeptide was arbitrarily defined as position 1 of the *dmtA/tmdA* locus (see Figure 1). To obtain plasmid

pMF156, we used the sequence information provided by the EST sequences identified in the University of Oklahoma *A. nidulans* cDNA database to design oligonucleotides (AND1 and AND2, Table 1) that were used to amplify a genomic DNA fragment from a wild-type *A. nidulans* strain (FGSC 4, Table 2). This amplified fragment was inserted into the TA-cloning vector pCR2.1 (Invitrogen) to yield pMF156. Plasmid pDLAM001 was obtained from a phage Lambda ZAP cDNA library (as described in Results) and contains the 1989 bp *tmdA* cDNA (coordinates 4503 to 2433, Figure 1). Plasmid pDLAM002 was constructed by replacing the 694 bp *HindIII-EcoRV* (coordinates 3224 to 3999) region of *dmtA/tmdA* of pDLAM001 with the ~1.8 kbp *NruI-SmaI* fragment containing the *argB*⁺ from pDC1 after subjecting *HindIII-EcoRV*-digested pDLAM001 to an end-filling reaction. The *dmtA* and *argB* genes have opposite directions of transcription and the region deleted contains the predicted catalytic site of the putative DNA methyltransferase. Plasmids pDLAM004 and pDLAM005 contain the 3224 bp *EcoRI-HindIII* fragment of *dmtA* (coordinates 1 to 3224) and 2972 bp *HindIII-EcoRI* fragment of *dmtA* (coordinates 3224 to 6195), respectively. Insertion of the 2972 bp *HindIII-EcoRI* fragment of *dmtA/tmdA* (coordinates 3224 to 6195) into the *HindIII-EcoRI* sites of pK19 [38] yielded pDLAM013. Inverse PCR with ODLAM069, which introduces a *BamHI* site, and ODLAM070 as primers and pDLAM013 as the substrate, followed by self-ligation resulted in pDLAM014. Plasmid pDLAM018 was constructed by inserting the ~1.8 kbp *BamHI-XhoI* fragment containing the *argB*⁺ gene from pDC1 into the *BamHI-SalI* sites of pDLAM014, resulting in a 646 bp deletion (coordinates 4462 to 5107) of the *tmdA* promoter. Insertion of the 1226 bp *ClaI-HindIII dmtA/tmdA* fragment (coordinates 1998 to 3224) from pDLAM004 into the *ClaI-HindIII* sites of pDLAM005 yielded pDLAM039, which carries the 4197 bp *ClaI-EcoRI dmtA/tmdA* fragment (coordinates 1998 to 6195) inserted into the *ClaI-EcoRI* sites of pBluescript II KS(+) (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA). Amplification of the 2214 bp fragment (coordinates 2334 to 4547) with oligonucleotides ODLAM87 and ODLAM088 as primers and pDLAM039 as substrate, followed by digestion with *XhoI* and *KpnI* and insertion into the *XhoI-KpnI* sites of pBluescript II KS(+) resulted in pDLAM040. An over-expression construct (pDLAM044) was generated by insertion of the 2214 bp *XhoI-KpnI* fragment (coordinates 2334 to 4547) from pDLAM040 into the *XhoI-KpnI* sites of pRB2, followed by insertion of the *niaA* promoter [39] to direct transcription of *dmtA*. These constructs carried the entire *niaA-niaD* intergenic region.

Aspergillus strains and culture conditions

Strains of *A. nidulans* are described in Table 2. Standard conditions were used to maintain and grow cultures, and fungal transformations, fertility tests and genetic crosses were performed according to published protocols [40–43]. Minimal medium was prepared as described (PONTECORVO et al. 1953) with minor modifications (6 g/L of NaNO₃). Self-fertilization assays were performed by inoculating ~10⁸ conidia onto properly supplemented solid minimal medium (40 ml/Petri dish). To induce sexual development, we restricted air and light for 24 h after inoculation [44]. Petri dishes were incubated in the dark at 37°C for an additional 20 days, after which sexual structures (cleistothecia) could readily be observed.

DNA isolation

DNA extractions from *A. nidulans* were performed as described previously for *N. crassa* [45]. Procedures for Southern blot analysis, and other nucleic acid manipulations were as described [36,45,46].

Table 1. Oligonucleotides used in this study

Name	Sequence
ANID1	5'-(4110)-GGCGGTGGGGACAATTATCATCCCTCT-(4136)-3'
ANID2	5'-(4334)-TCATTGGTTTTCTGTCGAATTCACGCTC-(4308)-3'
ODLAM008	5'-(2957)-CAAAGACCACCCAGACAAAT-(2976)-3'
ODLAM009	5'-(4229)-CCTCTTACTCTGCGTCTAC-(4210)-3'
ODLAM069	5'- <u>GGATCC</u> -(4461)-GAGCCTCTTCCCGTTGTCCA-(4442)-3'
ODLAM070	5'-(5045)-CAGGTCTCCCGCAATCTCC-(5064)-3'
ODLAM087	5'- <u>CTCGAG</u> -(2334)-ACTGACCAGCCTTTCTCCTCGTA-(2357)-3'
ODLAM088	5'- <u>GGTACC</u> -(4547)-CAATCAACCGCTTACACAGCAG-(4524)-3'

Numbers in parenthesis denote *dmtA/tmdA* coordinates with respect to the *EcoRI* site 2432 bp upstream of the predicted translation initiation codon (ATG) of *DmtA*. *BamHI*, *XhoI*, and *KpnI* sites in ODLAM069, ODLAM087 and ODLAM088, respectively, are underlined.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002531.t001

Table 2. *Aspergillus nidulans* strains used in this study

Name ^a	Genotype ^{b, c}	Origin ^d
FGSC 4		FGSC ^e
FGSC A237	<i>pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC801</i>	FGSC ^e
FGSC A851	<i>pabaA1, yA2; ΔargB::trpC⁺; veA1, trpC801</i>	FGSC ^e
PW1	<i>biA1; argB2; methG1; veA1</i>	P. Weglenski, Department of Genetics, Warsaw University, Poland
DLAN2	<i>pabaA1, yA2, Δ(3224–3999)dmtdA⁻/tmdA⁻::argB⁺; ΔargB::trpC⁺; veA1, trpC801</i>	FGSC A851 transformed with pDLAM002
DLAN3	<i>pabaA1, yA2, Δ(4462–5107)dmtdA⁺/tmdA⁻::argB⁺; ΔargB::trpC⁺; veA1, trpC801</i>	FGSC A851 transformed with pDLAM018
DLAN4	<i>pabaA1, yA2; ΔargB::trpC⁺; veA1, trpC801; niiA(p)::dmtdA⁺[2334–4547]::argB⁺ [ectopic]</i>	FGSC A851 transformed with pDLAM044
DLAN5	<i>biA1; methG1; veA1</i>	Cross of FGSC A237 with PW1
DLAN6	<i>pabaA1, yA2, Δ(3224–3999)dmtdA⁻/tmdA⁻::argB⁺; veA1</i>	Progeny from DLAN2 X DLAN5
DLAN7	<i>pabaA1, yA2, Δ(4462–5107)dmtdA⁺/tmdA⁻::argB⁺; veA1</i>	Progeny from DLAN3 X DLAN5
DLAN8	<i>pabaA1, yA2; veA1</i>	Progeny from FGSC A851 X PW1

^aDLAN indicate strains constructed for this study by Dong W. Lee.

^bAllele numbers or designations are: *arginine requirement-B* (ornithine transcarbamylase), *argB*; *biotin requirement-A*, *biA1*; *DNA methyltransferase-like-A* anti-sense, non-coding transcript, *tmdA*; *DNA methyltransferase-like-A*, *dmtdA*; *methionine requirement-G1* (cystathionine-β-lyase), *methG1*; *nitrite utilization* (nitrite reductase), *niiA*; *p-aminobenzoic acid requirement-A1*, *pabaA1*; *tryptophan requirement-C* (IGP-synthetase, PRA-isomerase, anthranilate-synthetase, phosphorybosylanthranilate-isomerase), *trpC801*; *velvet-A1*, *veA1*; *yellow conidia-A2* (laccase-I), *yA2*.

^cNote that the presence of *argB⁺* or *ΔargB::trpC⁺*; and *trpC⁺* or *trpC801* alleles was not determined in strains DLAN6, DLAN7 and DLAN8.

^dConstruction of the different plasmids is described in Materials and Methods.

^eFGSC, indicates strains acquired from the Fungal Genetics Stock Center, University of Kansas Medical Center, Kansas City.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002531.t002

Treatment of mycelia with 5-azacytidine (5-AC)

Conidia were propagated in liquid medium containing different concentrations of 5-AC for 72 hr essentially as described previously by Tamame *et al.* [47]. Conidiation of the resulting mycelial mass was induced as described [46] and the resulting conidia were diluted and spread onto Petri plates. The frequency of “fluffy” phenotypes obtained from the different strains tested was then determined among the different 5-AC concentrations tested.

GenBank accession numbers

The combined sequence of the *dmtdA/tmdA* inserts contained in pDLAM004 and pDLAM005 was deposited as GenBank accession number AF428247. Accession numbers for predicted fungal DmtAs are: Ao, *A. oryzae* (BAE61916); Af, *A. fumigatus* (XP_747703); At, *A. terreus* (XP_001209776); Ci, *C. immitis* (XP_001239116); Ur, *Unicocarpus reesii* (UREG_03572.1, Broad Institute); Nc, *N. crassa* (AAM27408); Nt, *N. tetrasperma* (AAM27410); Ni, *N. intermedia* (AAM27409); Cg, *C. globosum* (XP_001222613); Gz, *G. zeae* (XP_388824); Nh, *N. haematococca* (e.gw1.11744.1, DOE); Mg, *M. grisea* (XP_366719); Bf, *B. fuceliana* (BC1G_09864.1; BC1G_00725.1, Broad Institute); Ss, *S. sclerotiorum* (SS1G_05055.1; SS1G_00377.1, Broad Institute); and Ai, *A. immersus* (AAC49849).

Results

Cloning and structure of the *dmtdA/tmdA* locus

Three Expressed Sequence Tags (ESTs; 13g06a1.fl, 13g06a1.r1 and g6e08a1.r1) with similarity to DMTs were identified in the University of Oklahoma *A. nidulans* cDNA database (<http://www.genome.ou.edu/fungal.html>). All belonged to a single gene that we named *DNA methyltransferase-like A* (*dmtdA*). A gel-purified DNA fragment obtained from plasmid pMF156 was used to screen a pWE15-based *Aspergillus* cosmid library (see <http://www.fgsc.net/nidlib.html>) by colony hybridization. We obtained seven overlapping clones, but all were rearranged and contained only part of the *dmtdA* gene. We therefore screened a non-amplified 24 h developmental phage Lambda ZAP cDNA

library (see <http://www.fgsc.net/nidlib.html>) with a 0.5 kbp fragment containing sequences predicted to encode the amino terminus of the putative cytosine methyltransferase. Four independent clones were isolated, converted to plasmid DNA [48], sequenced and found to be identical (pDLAM001). Surprisingly, based on the directional cloning strategy used in the construction of the cDNA library, the insert present in pDLAM001 represented anti-sense transcripts (see Figure 1). The anti-sense message of *dmtdA* was named *tmdA*.

To isolate and characterize the complete genomic version of the *dmtdA/tmdA* locus, we constructed an *EcoRI-HindIII* mini-genomic library of the wild-type *A. nidulans* strain FGSC 4 (Table 2) by inserting genomic DNA into pBluescript II KS(+) digested with *EcoRI* and *HindIII*. We screened this library by colony hybridization with a labeled *dmtdA/tmdA* probe from pDLAM001 and found two positive colonies. Sequencing of the corresponding plasmids (pDLAM004 and pDLAM005) showed that they span the entire *dmtdA/tmdA* locus, which maps to contig 110 (195304-197205[+]) of the *A. nidulans* genome (http://www.broad.mit.edu/annotation/genome/aspergillus_nidulans/Home.html) on Chromosome 1.

The *dmtdA/tmdA* chromosomal region contains one large open reading frame (*dmtdA* ORF, AN6638.2; predicted translation initiation signal at coordinate 2433 in Figure 1) interrupted by a single 56 bp intron with canonical 5'- and 3'-consensus splice sites (positions 3851 and 3906, respectively). Conceptual translation of the *dmtdA* ORF predicts a 615 amino acid (aa) polypeptide. Interestingly, analysis of the sequence corresponding to the *tmdA* cDNA revealed the presence of an 82 bp intron with canonical 5'- and 3'-consensus splice sites, at positions 3280 and 3361, respectively. No long ORFs were found in the *tmdA* cDNA when searching with a window of 100 aa suggesting that the *tmdA* transcript is non-coding RNA.

BlastP searches [49] with the predicted DmtA sequence as bait revealed similarities with the group of DMT homologues found to date only in fungi and predominantly in the Ascomycota (with the notable exception of the Saccharomycotina) (Figure 2). Similarity of DmtA to its homologues in *Aspergillus oryzae* (61.5% identity),

Aspergillus fumigatus (69.4% identity), and *Aspergillus terreus* (59.9% identity) extends across their entire predicted polypeptides. Among characterized proteins, DmtA is most similar to *N. crassa* RID (41.4% identity) [20] and *A. immersus* Masc1 (43.3% identity) [21], the putative DMTs involved in RIP and MIP, respectively. Conserved regions are restricted predominantly to the ~300 aa catalytic DMT domain. Like other putative DMTs in the Masc1/RID family, DmtA has conserved DMT domain motifs arranged as in most eukaryotic and prokaryotic DMTs [50,51] and it has a short variable region between motifs VIII and IX (Figure S1). When the sequence of the DmtA polypeptide was scanned against the Conserved Domain Database (CDD) using an E-value threshold of 1.0, we found a Bromo-Adjacent Homology motif (BAH; residues 136 to 236). BAH motifs are also found in *Ascobolus* Masc1 and the *Coccidioides immitis* homologue CIMG_10138.2, but they are absent from most of these putative DMTs. Curiously, we found two RID-like proteins in the genome of the Hymenomycete *Coprinopsis cinerea* (i.e., CC1G_01237.2 and CC1G_00579.1) but both have interrupted catalytic domains and only one (CC1G_00579.1) has a complete BAH domain (data not shown). Similarly, the genomes of *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* (SS1G_05055.1 and SS1G_00377.1) and *Botryotinia fuckeliana* (BC1G_09864.1 and BC1G_00725.1) encode two putative RID homologues. Like *Ascobolus* Masc1, DmtA homologues from all *Aspergillus* species, *Coccidioides*, *Uncinocarpus*, *Botryotinia*, and *Sclerotinia* lack a carboxy-terminal domain after the catalytic domain. This C-terminal region is most prominent in *Neurospora* species (Freitag et al., 2002), but shorter versions are also found in *Chaetomium*, *Gibberella*, *Nectria*, and *Magnaporthe*.

The *dmtA/tmdA* locus is not essential

To investigate the possible biological function of the *dmtA/tmdA* region, we deleted a 775 bp fragment within the predicted coding region of *dmtA* and replaced it with the *argB⁺* gene. The deleted DNA fragment contained most of the predicted catalytic domain of DmtA and included a part of the *tmdA* transcript. To do this, we transformed *A. nidulans* strain FGSC A851 with linearized pDLAM002, and selected for growth on medium without arginine

(Figure 3A), thereby generating strain DLAN2 (*dmtA⁻/tmdA⁻*). We also evaluated the biological relevance of *tmdA* by deleting a 645 bp fragment corresponding to its predicted promoter, and by replacing it with the *argB⁺* marker from pDLAM018 (Figure 3B) in strain FGSC A851 to generate strain DLAN3 (*dmtA⁺/tmdA⁻*). Although we had to search through more than 30 strains to find the desired replacements in each case, the fact that we were able to build the strains implies that the *dmtA/tmdA* locus does not encode essential gene products. Morphological phenotypes were not detected on these mutants during vegetative growth.

Transcripts originating from the *dmtA/tmdA* locus are scarce and constitutively produced

No *dmtA* or *tmdA* transcripts were detectable by Northern blot hybridizations using 50 µg of total RNA extracted from vegetative mycelium and self-fertilized fruiting bodies of a wild type strain (data not shown). However, both *dmtA* and *tmdA* transcripts were detectable by Strand-Specific Reverse Transcribed-PCR in mRNA from wild-type vegetative cells (Figure 4). Results from these experiments suggested that the *dmtA/tmdA* region is constitutively transcribed on both strands during asexual and sexual development (Figure 4 and data not shown). The anti-sense *tmdA* transcripts appear slightly more abundant than those of *dmtA* (Figure 4), which may be why all ESTs sequenced from this region correspond to *tmdA*. As expected, neither *dmtA* nor *tmdA* transcripts were detected in the *dmtA⁻/tmdA⁻* DLAN2 strain (Figure 4).

The existence of non-coding anti-sense transcripts in the *dmtA/tmdA* region suggested the possibility of functional interactions between the sense and anti-sense transcripts. In one such model, antisense transcripts may serve to regulate the level of DmtA protein by forming double-stranded RNA (dsRNA), which then would be expected to serve as a target for ribonucleases like Dicer [52,53]. If this were the case, our inability to readily detect transcripts by standard Northern blot analysis might reflect rapid degradation, e.g. into small-interfering RNAs (i.e., siRNAs). However, we found that disruption of the promoter controlling the production of *tmdA* transcript in strain DLAN3 (*dmtA⁺/tmdA⁻*) failed to increase the level of *dmtA* transcripts significantly, arguing

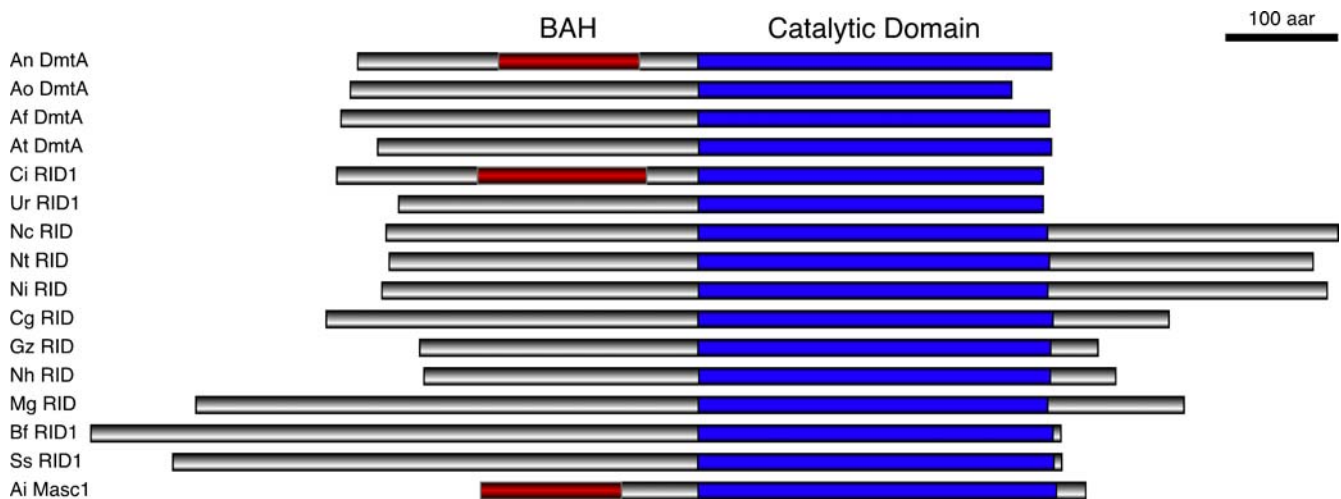


Figure 2. Structure of DmtA. Domain structure of DmtA and its known homologues from filamentous fungi. Confirmed and predicted proteins were aligned at the beginning of the predicted DMT catalytic domain [blue box; [77]]. Weak homology to a bromo-adjacent homology domain (BAH; red box) can be detected in DmtA homologues from *Aspergillus*, *Coccidioides* and *Ascobolus*, but is absent from the other proteins depicted. Note the long carboxy-terminal extension of *Neurospora*, and to a lesser degree *Chaetomium*, *Magnaporthe*, *Gibberella*, and *Nectria* Masc1/RID proteins. Abbreviations are: An, *A. nidulans*; Ao, *A. oryzae*; Af, *A. fumigatus*; At, *A. terreus*; Ci, *C. immitis*; Ur, *Uncinocarpus reesii*; Nc, *N. crassa*; Nt, *N. tetrasperma*; Ni, *N. intermedia*; Cg, *C. globosum*; Gz, *G. zeae*; Nh, *N. haematococca*; Mg, *M. grisea*; Bf, *B. fuckeliana*; Ss, *S. sclerotiorum*; Ai, *A. immersus*. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002531.g002

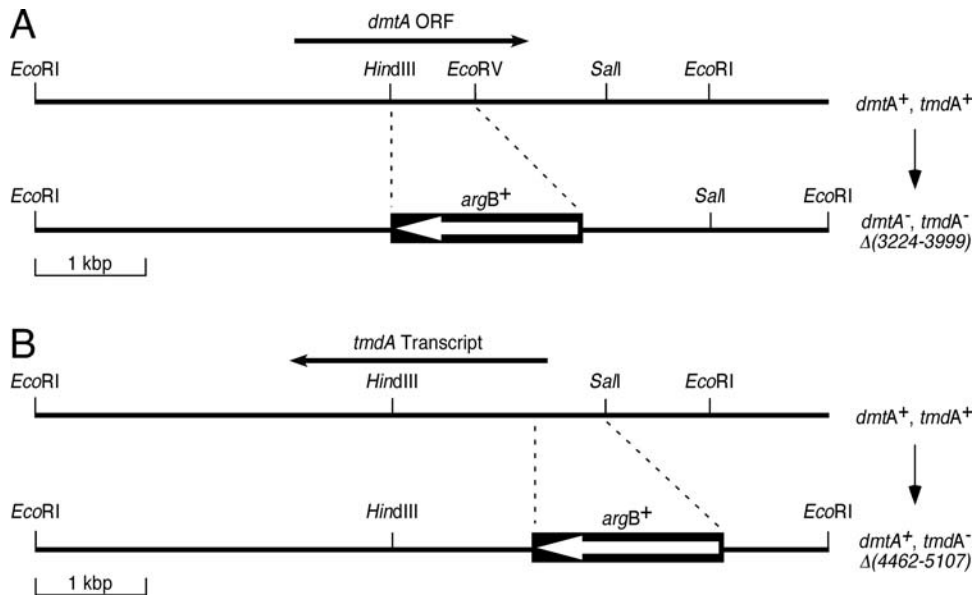


Figure 3. Construction of mutant alleles of the *dmtA/tmdA* region. Panels A and B show the segments of the *dmtA/tmdA* region and the relative positions of relevant restriction sites. (A) Extent of the deletion in $\Delta(3224-3999)dmtA^-/tmdA^-::argB^+$ allele. (B) Replacement of the *tmdA* promoter with *argB*⁺ in $\Delta(4462-5107)dmtA^-/tmdA^-::argB^+$ allele. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002531.g003

against this scenario (Figure 4 and data not shown). We also sought to perturb potential dsRNA formation by increasing *dmtA* transcript levels in *trans*. For this, we over-expressed *dmtA* by constructing a transcriptional fusion between the inducible *niaA* (nitrite reductase) promoter [39], and the *dmtA* coding region. The resulting plasmid (pDLAM044) was linearized and used to transform strain FGSC A851. Transformants were selected on minimal medium supplemented with *p*-aminobenzoic acid and strains with a single ectopic copy of the *niaA(p)::dmtA⁺::argB⁺* fusion construct were identified by Southern hybridization. Over-expression of *dmtA⁺* in DLAN4 (*niaA(p)::dmtA⁺*) strain was confirmed by Northern analysis and did not result in RNA degradation or other noticeable phenotypes (data not shown).

dmtA is dispensable for asexual development but essential for sexual development

We tested if *dmtA⁻/tmdA⁻* (DLAN2), *dmtA⁺/tmdA⁻* (DLAN3) and *niaA(p)::dmtA⁺; dmtA⁺/tmdA⁺* (DLAN4) strains were defective in the development and formation of asexual reproductive structures or conidiophores, and if the resulting asexual spores (i.e., conidia) could germinate normally. In all mutants, we found that asexual

development, spore formation and spore germination were indistinguishable from those of wild-type strains.

To determine if *dmtA* or *tmdA* are required for sexual development, we self-fertilized strains DLAN2 and DLAN3 and compared the crosses to those of wild-type strains. Interestingly, a *dmtA⁻/tmdA⁻* mutant (DLAN2) formed exclusively immature fruiting bodies without ascospores (Figures 5B and 5E) whereas control crosses of wild-type strains produced normal fruiting bodies with abundant sexual spores (Figures 5A and 5D). In contrast, the sexual development of the *dmtA⁺/tmdA⁻* (DLAN3) mutant was indistinguishable from that of the wild type (Figures 5C and 5F).

To ensure that the phenotype observed in *dmtA⁻/tmdA⁻* disruption strains was not caused by an unlinked mutation introduced during transformation, both DLAN2 and DLAN3 strains were crossed to DLAN5 (Table 2). Ascospores from these backcrosses were germinated and a total of 24 recombinants (12 per cross) carrying either the *dmtA⁻/tmdA⁻* or the *dmtA⁺/tmdA⁻* allele, were selected and tested for their ability to undergo homothallic sexual development. Results from this experiment were consistent with our previous observation. All 12 *dmtA⁻/tmdA⁻* progeny (from the *dmtA⁻/tmdA⁻* × *dmtA⁺/tmdA⁺* cross) were

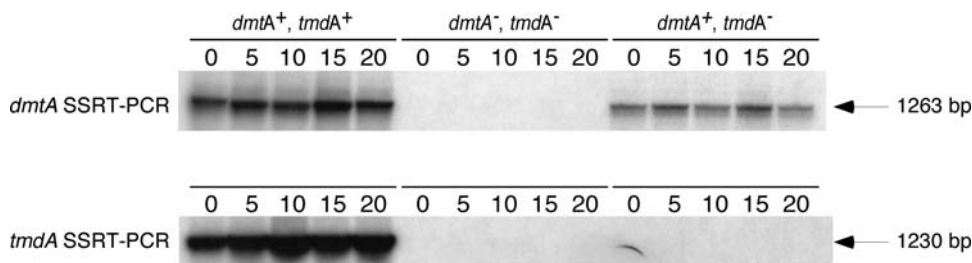


Figure 4. Transcription of the *dmtA/tmdA* locus. Developmental regulation of the *dmtA/tmdA* locus. Southern blot of DNA synthesized by a strand-specific reverse transcribed-PCR reaction (SSRT-PCR), with mRNA extracted from strains FGSC A851 (*dmtA⁺/tmdA⁺*), DLAN2 (*dmtA⁻/tmdA⁻*), and DLAN3 (*dmtA⁺/tmdA⁻*), at 0, 5, 10, 15, and 20 hours after synchronously inducing asexual development [78]. For details, see Materials and Methods (Strand-specific Reverse Transcribed-PCR (SSRT-PCR)). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002531.g004

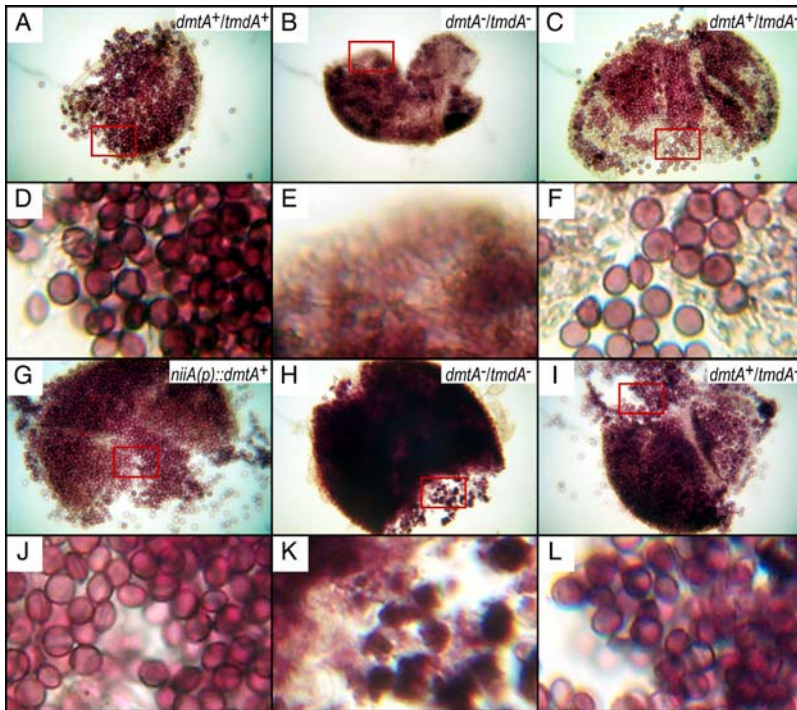


Figure 5. Sexual development is abolished in $dmtA^-/tmdA^-$ mutants but unaffected in $dmtA^+/tmdA^-$ mutants and $niiA(p)::dmtA^+$ transformants. Panels A, B, C, G, H and I show representative cleistothecia from self-fertilized wild type $dmtA^+/tmdA^+$ (FGSC A851), the $dmtA^-/tmdA^-$ mutant (DLAN2), the $dmtA^+/tmdA^-$ mutant (DLAN3), the DmtA overexpressing $niiA(p)::dmtA^+$ [2334–4547] transformant (DLAN4), and the back-crossed $dmtA^-/tmdA^-$ (DLAN6) and $dmtA^+/tmdA^-$ mutants (DLAN7), respectively. Cleistothecia were obtained as described in Materials and Methods, cleaned, crushed and photographed using a Zeiss light microscope at 400X magnification. The area highlighted by the rectangles in Panels A, B, C, G, H, and I, was enlarged six-times and presented in Panels D, E, F, J, K, and L, respectively.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002531.g005

sterile (DLAN6. Figures 5H and 5K—these figures show the presence of maternal tissue exclusively), whereas the 12 $dmtA^+/tmdA^-$ progeny (from the $dmtA^+/tmdA^- \times dmtA^+/tmdA^+$ cross) were fertile (DLAN7. Figures 5I and 5L). Another control cross (FGSC A851 X PW1, Table 2), yielded four recombinants with the same genotype as FGSC A851, and as expected, all these strains were fertile and yielded a normal number of ascospores (data not shown). We conclude that strains lacking $dmtA$ transcript are unable to complete normal sexual development.

We also observed that when self-fertilized and tested for sexual development, cultures of strains carrying the $niiA(p)::dmtA^+$; $dmtA^+/tmdA^-$ (DLAN4) alleles formed normal fruiting bodies with the expected abundance of fully developed and viable ascospores (Figures 5G and 5J). Together, these results suggest that the absence of $dmtA$ transcript results in a pronounced defect in early sexual development.

Search for DNA methylation in $dmtA/tmdA$ mutants

To test the possible effects of $dmtA$ and $tmdA$ mutations, or over-expression of $dmtA$, on DNA methylation, we performed two types of experiments. We analyzed genomic DNA of wild type and mutant strains for methylation by traditional Southern hybridization as well as by immunoblotting with a sensitive monoclonal antibody against 5-methylcytosine (5Me-C; methods described in [54]. We tested DNA from both vegetative and sexual tissues (cleistothecia) of DLAN2 ($dmtA^-/tmdA^-$), DLAN3 ($dmtA^+/tmdA^-$), FGSC 4 ($dmtA^+/tmdA^+$) and vegetative tissues of FGSC A851 ($dmtA^+/tmdA^+$) and DLAN4 ($niiA(p)::dmtA^+$; $dmtA^+/tmdA^+$). DNA from vegetative tissue of a *N. crassa* wild type ($dim-2^+$) and of a $dim-2$ mutant (which lacks all detectable DNA methylation; [12], served

as controls. For Southern hybridizations, DNAs were digested with *Sau3AI* (S) or *DpnII* (D), which differ in sensitivity to 5MeC (S is inhibited by 5MeC whereas D is not), and probed with rDNA, which is typically methylated in organisms that sport 5MeC (Figure S2). We were unable to detect DNA methylation in vegetative or sexual tissue from *Aspergillus* wild type strains by using the *Neurospora* rDNA repeat and several known methylated retrotransposon relics from *Neurospora* (Figure S2 and data not shown). We next used the *Aspergillus* rDNA intragenic spacer region as a probe but did not find DNA methylation (data not shown). No reproducible differences in band patterns between any of the $dmtA/tmdA$ mutants and wild type *Aspergillus* were found. Tests with the sensitive antibody to 5MeC showed no DNA methylation in any of the *Aspergillus* strains tested, as with negative control genomic DNA from *S. cerevisiae* and the *Neurospora dim-2* mutant (data not shown). Quantitative differences in DNA methylation levels of four different *Neurospora dim* mutants previously characterized by Southern hybridizations were confirmed with the antibody assay, suggesting that small changes in DNA methylation levels are detectable by this method (data not shown).

We also tested the effect of 5-azacytidine (5-AC) on strains DLAN2 ($dmtA^-/tmdA^-$), DLAN3 ($dmtA^+/tmdA^-$), FGSC 4 ($dmtA^+/tmdA^+$) and FGSC A851 ($dmtA^+/tmdA^+$). 5-AC, a cytidine analog is known to cause extensive DNA hypomethylation and its use and mode of action in DNA methylation has been extensively documented [55–57]. In *Aspergillus*, low concentrations of 5-AC are known to increase the formation of “fluffy” phenotypic variants [47,58], an effect postulated to occur through the heritable modification of a single nuclear gene, *fluffy-F1* (*FluF1*) [58]. The frequency of non-conidial (i.e., fluffy) strains obtained in

our experiments although lower from what was previously reported [47], was nevertheless similar among the different strains tested, thus these experiments did not reveal any phenotypic differences between experimental and control strains (data not shown).

Discussion

We report the cloning and characterization of the *dmtA* gene, predicted to encode a Masc1/RID DMT-like protein from *A. nidulans*, a fungus in which no DNA methylation has been demonstrated. Curiously, we found that *dmtA* is transcribed on both strands, thus leading to the designation “*dmtA/tmdA*” for the locus. In eukaryotes, transcription on both top and bottom strands is often associated with gene silencing at either the transcriptional or post-transcriptional level (e.g., via formation of siRNAs). Our results, however, are not consistent with *tmdA* playing a role in the regulation of *dmtA*. Instead, we found that the *dmtA* transcript, but not the *tmdA* transcript, is essential for normal completion of sexual development.

In *A. nidulans*, sexual reproduction occurs after asexual sporulation has stopped and results in the formation of macroscopic fruiting bodies called cleistothecia. Although the formation of ascogenous tissue is not completely understood in this organism, its development is thought to be similar to ascogenous tissue development in *Neurospora* and *Ascobolus*, where the two nuclei fuse to generate dikaryotic tissue, which then develops further to form a three-celled hook-shaped structure called the crozier [59]. The parental nuclei in the middle cell of the crozier fuse to form a diploid nucleus, which then immediately undergoes meiosis [59]. The four resulting haploid nuclei undergo a single mitosis, resulting in eight nuclei that are partitioned into eight ascospores within the developing ascus [60]. During ascospore maturation in *A. nidulans*, the nuclei undergo a second mitotic division that results in the formation of eight bright red mature binucleate ascospores. It is noteworthy that neither of these early structures can be observed in *dmtA*⁻/*tmdA*⁻ mutants. In *Ascobolus*, crosses homozygous for *masc1* are blocked in sexual development before crozier formation [21]. No such defect was observed in *Neurospora* crosses homozygous for *rid* [20]. The *dmtA/tmdA* deletion phenotype observed in *Aspergillus* resembles the one seen in *Ascobolus* crosses homozygous for *masc1*-cleistothecia are devoid of internal ascogenous tissue. That development of croziers and viable ascospores was never observed in our *dmtA* mutant suggests that DmtA has an important role in sexual development, as previously suggested for Masc1 [21].

It is interesting to consider why a gene known to be involved in RIP in *Neurospora* would be quite conserved and functional in an organism apparently devoid of active RIP and DNA methylation. All *Aspergillus* species examined to date (*A. nidulans*, *A. fumigatus*, *A. terreus* and *A. oryzae*) have DmtA homologues. DmtA homologues are not restricted to the *Eurotiomycetes* (e.g., *Aspergillus*), *Sordariomycetes* (e.g., *Neurospora*), or *Pezizomycetes* (e.g., *Ascobolus*), but are also present in the *Leotiomycetes* (e.g., *Sclerotinia*). Among the *Ascomycota*, they are notably absent from the *Saccharomycotina*, which also lack components of RNA silencing machinery [61,62].

The predicted structures of DmtA homologues, although conserved, are not identical. These proteins can be grouped by the presence of a conserved BAH domain upstream of the “catalytic” domain. Another feature that distinguishes classes of DmtA homologues is the carboxy-terminal domain. Some DmtA homologues have centrally located catalytic domains (e.g., RID from *N. crassa*, *N. tetrasperma*, *N. intermedia*, and *Podospora anserina*), a second group has a carboxy-terminal located catalytic domain

(e.g., DmtA from *A. nidulans*, *A. fumigatus*, *A. oryzae* and *A. terreus*, the two RID homologues each from *Botryotinia fuckeliana* and *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*, Masc1 from *A. immersus*, and RID from *C. immitis* and *Uncinocarpus reesii*). In the remaining members, the carboxy-terminally located peptides have varied lengths (e.g., RID from *Chaetomium globosum*, *Gibberella zeae*, *Nectria haematococca* and *Magnaporthe grisea*). Based on these comparisons it is tempting to speculate that the C-terminal “tail” of *Neurospora* and *Podospora* RID homologues might be involved in determining RIP efficiency.

Why would the *dmtA/tmdA* locus be transcribed on both strands? In general, our understanding of the interplay of sense/anti-sense transcription is very limited, especially in fungi. Genome-wide analyses of mouse transcripts suggest that anti-sense transcription is quite widespread and, contrary to an early suggestion, is not restricted to imprinted genes [63]. The ratio of sense/anti-sense transcripts in mouse cells fluctuates markedly among different tissues consistent with the hypothesis that anti-sense transcription serves as a gene regulatory mechanism during development. Interestingly, murine anti-sense transcripts tend to be poly(A)-negative and nuclear localized, similarly to what has been found among randomly selected sense/anti-sense pairs from *Arabidopsis thaliana*, which are also poly(A)-negative and nuclear localized [64]. Perhaps the presence of these sense/anti-sense dsRNA pairs and/or their polyadenylation status determines their nuclear localization in a developmentally regulated manner.

Initial evidence for the existence of sense and anti-sense dsRNA in fungi came from studies aimed at isolating meiosis-specific genes in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* [65]. Among several meiotic expression upregulated (*meu*) cDNAs characterized, five lacked clear ORFs and were postulated to represent non-coding RNA. In a more recent study, the presence of long ORFs on both strands of regions of several, distantly-related fungal genomes was taken as an indication for the presence of anti-sense transcripts [66]. The authors of this study noted that, curiously, the majority of the postulated transcript pairs have no homolog in any other characterized species, similar to the situation in mouse. They also proposed that the genes involved in sense/anti-sense-relationships code for proteins that are preferentially localized to the nucleus, as suggested by the Gene Ontology terms used to annotate them. The *IME4* gene of *S. cerevisiae* exemplifies the importance of sense-anti-sense transcription in fungi. The *IME4* anti-sense transcript causes transcriptional interference, a regulatory mechanism that controls entry into meiosis [67]. Our observation that the *dmtA/tmdA* locus is actively transcribed in both directions constitutes the first demonstration of the presence of a sense/anti-sense-pair that, analogous to the *IME4* locus in yeast, controls the early stages of sexual development in *A. nidulans*.

Finally, we did not detect DNA methylation in *A. nidulans*. This is consistent with previous studies that failed to reveal DNA methylation or MIP in this organism [47,58,68]. Similarly, RIP has not been detected in *A. nidulans*, despite numerous studies in which RIP, if present, should have been observable even at a low level, as was reported for *Leptosphaeria maculans* [69,70] and *P. anserina* [71–73]. Nevertheless, it seems possible that DmtA proteins are responsible for vestiges of RIP found in the *Aspergillus* genome and perhaps for the low RIP activity reported for some other *Aspergillus* species [74–76]. One possibility is that in *Aspergillus de novo* DNA methylation by DmtA only occurs transiently during the sexual phase, a stage where low levels of DNA methylation are difficult to detect. If true, this methylation might not be maintained and might only rarely result in RIP. Future studies on the expression of DmtA or Masc1 in *Neurospora* may provide clues to what makes a fungus competent for efficient MIP or RIP.

Supporting Information

Figure S1

Found at: doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002531.s001 (0.57 MB PDF)

Figure S2

Found at: doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002531.s002 (0.59 MB PDF)

References

- Wolffe AP, Matzke MA (1999) Epigenetics: regulation through repression. *Science* 286: 481–486.
- Martienssen RA, Colot V (2001) DNA methylation and epigenetic inheritance in plants and filamentous fungi. *Science* 293: 1070–1074.
- Dean W, Santos F, Reik W (2003) Epigenetic reprogramming in early mammalian development and following somatic nuclear transfer. *Seminars in Cell & Developmental Biology* 14: 93–100.
- Li E (2002) Chromatin modification and epigenetic reprogramming in mammalian development. *Nature Reviews Genetics* 3: 662–673.
- Reik W, Dean W, Walter J (2001) Epigenetic reprogramming in mammalian development. *Science* 293: 1089–1093.
- Barlow DP (1995) Gametic imprinting in mammals. *Science* 270: 1610–1613.
- Bird AP (1986) CpG-rich islands and the function of DNA methylation. *Nature* 321: 209–213.
- Bestor TH (1990) DNA methylation: evolution of a bacterial immune function into a regulator of gene expression and genome structure in higher eukaryotes. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London Series B-Biological Sciences* 326: 179–187.
- Razin A, Riggs AD (1980) DNA methylation and gene function. *Science* 210: 604–610.
- Wessler SR (1988) Phenotypic diversity mediated by the maize transposable elements Ac and Spm. *Science* 242: 399–405.
- Gracc Goll M, Bestor TH (2005) Eukaryotic Cytosine methyltransferases. *Annual Review of Biochemistry* 74: 481–514.
- Kouzmanova E, Selker EU (2001) *dim-2* encodes a DNA methyltransferase responsible for all known cytosine methylation in *Neurospora*. *EMBO Journal* 20: 4309–4323.
- Freitag M, Selker EU (2005) Controlling DNA methylation: many roads to one modification. *Curr Opin Genet Dev* 15: 191–199.
- Lyko F, Ramsahoye BH, Kashevsky H, Tudor M, Mastrangelo MA, et al. (1999) Mammalian (cytosine-5) methyltransferases cause genomic DNA methylation and lethality in *Drosophila*. *Nature Genetics* 23: 363–366.
- Tweedie S, Ng HH, Barlow AL, Turner BM, Hendrich B, et al. (1999) Vestiges of a DNA methylation system in *Drosophila melanogaster*? *Nature Genetics* 23: 389–390.
- Lyko F, Ramsahoye BH, Jaenisch R (2000) DNA methylation in *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Nature* 408: 538–540.
- Kunert N, Marhold J, Stanke J, Stach D, Lyko F (2003) A Dnmt2-like protein mediates DNA methylation in *Drosophila*. *Development* 130: 5083–5090.
- Gowher H, Ehrlich KC, Jeltsch A (2001) DNA from *Aspergillus flavus* contains 5-methylcytosine. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* 205: 151–155.
- Goll MG, Kirpekar F, Maggert KA, Yoder JA, Hsieh CL, et al. (2006) Methylation of tRNAsp by the DNA methyltransferase homolog Dnmt2. *Science* 311: 395–398.
- Freitag M, Williams RL, Kothe GO, Selker EU (2002) A cytosine methyltransferase homologue is essential for repeat-induced point mutation in *Neurospora crassa*. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 99: 8802–8807.
- Malagnac F, Wendel B, Goyon C, Faugeron G, Zickler D, et al. (1997) A gene essential for *de novo* methylation and development in *Ascobolus* reveals a novel type of eukaryotic DNA methyltransferase structure. *Cell* 91: 281–290.
- Selker EU, Stevens JN (1985) DNA methylation at asymmetric sites is associated with numerous transition mutations. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 82: 8114–8118.
- Selker EU, Cambareri EB, Jensen BC, Haack KR (1987) Rearrangement of duplicated DNA in specialized cells of *Neurospora*. *Cell* 51: 741–752.
- Selker EU, Stevens JN (1987) Signal for DNA methylation associated with tandem duplication in *Neurospora crassa*. *Molecular and Cellular Biology* 7: 1032–1038.
- Selker EU, Garrett PW (1988) DNA sequence duplications trigger gene inactivation in *Neurospora crassa*. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 85: 6870–6874.
- Selker EU (1990) Premiotic instability of repeated sequences in *Neurospora crassa*. *Annual Review of Genetics* 24: 579–613.
- Cambareri EB, Jensen BC, Schabtach E, Selker EU (1989) Repeat-induced G-C to A-T mutations in *Neurospora*. *Science* 244: 1571–1575.
- Selker EU (1990) DNA methylation and chromatin structure: a view from below. *Trends in Biochemical Sciences* 15: 103–107.
- Mautino MR, Rosa AL (1998) Analysis of models involving enzymatic activities for the occurrence of C→T transition mutations during repeat-induced point mutation (RIP) in *Neurospora crassa*. *Journal of Theoretical Biology* 192: 61–71.
- Galagan JE, Selker EU (2004) RIP: the evolutionary cost of genome defense. *Trends in Genetics* 20: 417–423.
- Rosa AL, Folco HD, Mautino MR (2004) In vivo levels of S-adenosylmethionine modulate C:G to T:A mutations associated with repeat-induced point mutation in *Neurospora crassa*. *Mutation Research* 548: 85–95.
- Freedman T, Pukkila PJ (1993) *De novo* methylation of repeated sequences in *Coprinus cinereus*. *Genetics* 135: 357–366.
- Goyon C, Faugeron G (1989) Targeted transformation of *Ascobolus immersus* and *de novo* methylation of the resulting duplicated DNA sequences. *Molecular and Cellular Biology* 9: 2818–2827.
- Rhounim L, Rossignol JL, Faugeron G (1992) Epimutation of repeated genes in *Ascobolus immersus*. *EMBO Journal* 11: 4451–4457.
- Yanisch-Perron C, Vieira J, Messing J (1985) Improved M13 phage cloning vectors and host strains: nucleotide sequences of the M13mp18 and pUC19 vectors. *Gene* 33: 103–119.
- Aramayo R, Adams TH, Timberlake WE (1989) A large cluster of highly expressed genes is dispensable for growth and development in *Aspergillus nidulans*. *Genetics* 122: 65–71.
- Sambrook J, Fritsch EF, Maniatis T, eds (1989) *Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual*. Second ed. N. Y.: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press.
- Pridmore RD (1987) New and versatile cloning vectors with kanamycin-resistance marker. *Gene* 56: 309–312.
- Johnstone IL, McCabe PC, Greaves P, Gurr SJ, Cole GE, et al. (1990) Isolation and characterisation of the *crnA-niaA-niaD* gene cluster for nitrate assimilation in *Aspergillus nidulans*. *Gene* 90: 181–192.
- Pontecorvo G, Roper JA, Hemmons LM, Macdonald KD, Bufton AW (1953) *The genetics of Aspergillus nidulans*. *Advances in Genetics* 5: 141–238.
- Kafer E (1977) Meiotic and mitotic recombination in *Aspergillus* and its chromosomal aberrations. *Advances in Genetics* 19: 33–131.
- Clutterbuck JC (1974) *Aspergillus nidulans*. In: King RC, ed. *Bacteria, Bacteriophages and Fungi*. New York and London: Plenum Press. pp 447–510.
- Yelton MM, Hamer JE, Timberlake WE (1984) Transformation of *Aspergillus nidulans* by using a *trpC* plasmid. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 81: 1470–1474.
- Han DM, Han YJ, Lee YH, Jahng KY, Jahng SH, et al. (1990) Inhibitory conditions of asexual development and their application for the screening of mutants defective in sexual development. *Korean Journal of Mycology* 18: 225–232.
- Pratt RJ, Aramayo R (2002) Improving the efficiency of gene replacements in *Neurospora crassa*: a first step towards a large-scale functional genomics project. *Fungal Genetics and Biology* 37: 56–71.
- Aramayo R, Timberlake WE (1993) The *Aspergillus nidulans* *yA* gene is regulated by *abaA*. *EMBO Journal* 12: 2039–2048.
- Tamame M, Antequera F, Villanueva JR, Santos T (1983) High-frequency conversion to a “fluffy” developmental phenotype in *Aspergillus* spp. by 5-azacytidine treatment: evidence for involvement of a single nuclear gene. *Molecular and Cellular Biology* 3: 2287–2297.
- Short JM, Fernandez JM, Sorge JA, Huse WD (1988) Lambda ZAP: a bacteriophage lambda expression vector with in vivo excision properties. *Nucleic Acids Research* 16: 7583–7600.
- Altschul SF, Madden TL, Schaffer AA, Zhang J, Zhang Z, et al. (1997) Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database search programs. *Nucleic Acids Research* 25: 3389–3402.
- Leonhardt H, Bestor TH (1993) Structure, function and regulation of mammalian DNA methyltransferase. In: Jost JP, Saluz HP, eds. *DNA Methylation: Molecular Biology and Biological significance*. Basel: Birkhauser Verlag. pp 109–119.
- Noyer-Weidner M, Trautner TA (1993) Methylation of DNA in prokaryotes. In: Jost JP, Saluz HP, eds. *DNA Methylation: Molecular Biology and Biological significance*. Basel: Birkhauser Verlag. pp 39–108.
- Mello CC, Conte D Jr (2004) Revealing the world of RNA interference. *Nature* 431: 338–342.
- Bernstein E, Caudy AA, Hammond SM, Hannon GJ (2001) Role for a bidentate ribonuclease in the initiation step of RNA interference. *Nature* 409: 363–366.
- Tweedie S, Charlton J, Clark V, Bird A (1997) Methylation of genomes and genes at the invertebrate-vertebrate boundary. *Molecular and Cellular Biology* 17: 1469–1475.
- Christman JK, Schneiderman N, Acs G (1985) Formation of highly stable complexes between 5-azacytosine-substituted DNA and specific non-histone nuclear proteins. Implications for 5-azacytidine-mediated effects on DNA methylation and gene expression. *J Biol Chem* 260: 4059–4068.
- Creusot F, Acs G, Christman JK (1982) Inhibition of DNA methyltransferase and induction of Friend erythroleukemia cell differentiation by 5-azacytidine and 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine. *J Biol Chem* 257: 2041–2048.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: ES RA DL MF. Performed the experiments: RA DL MF. Analyzed the data: ES RA DL MF. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: ES RA DL MF. Wrote the paper: ES RA MF.

57. Jones PA, Taylor SM (1980) Cellular differentiation, cytidine analogs and DNA methylation. *Cell* 20: 85–93.
58. Tamame M, Antequera F, Santos E (1988) Developmental characterization and chromosomal mapping of the 5-azacytidine-sensitive fluF locus of *Aspergillus nidulans*. *Molecular and Cellular Biology* 8: 3043–3050.
59. Raju NB (1980) Meiosis and ascospore genesis in *Neurospora*. *European Journal of Cell Biology* 23: 208–223.
60. Kirk KE, Morris NR (1991) The *tubB* alpha-tubulin gene is essential for sexual development in *Aspergillus nidulans*. *Genes and Development* 5: 2014–2023.
61. Anantharaman V, Koonin EV, Aravind L (2002) Comparative genomics and evolution of proteins involved in RNA metabolism. *Nucleic Acids Research* 30: 1427–1464.
62. Aravind L, Watanabe H, Lipman DJ, Koonin EV (2000) Lineage-specific loss and divergence of functionally linked genes in eukaryotes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 97: 11319–11324.
63. Katayama S, Tomaru Y, Kasukawa T, Waki K, Nakanishi M, et al. (2005) Antisense transcription in the mammalian transcriptome. *Science* 309: 1564–1566.
64. Kiyosawa H, Mise N, Iwase S, Hayashizaki Y, Abe K (2005) Disclosing hidden transcripts: mouse natural sense-antisense transcripts tend to be poly(A) negative and nuclear localized. *Genome Research* 15: 463–474.
65. Watanabe T, Miyashita K, Saito TT, Yoneki T, Kakiyama Y, et al. (2001) Comprehensive isolation of meiosis-specific genes identifies novel proteins and unusual non-coding transcripts in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*. *Nucleic Acids Research* 29: 2327–2337.
66. Steigle S, Nieselt K (2005) Open reading frames provide a rich pool of potential natural antisense transcripts in fungal genomes. *Nucleic Acids Research* 33: 5034–5044.
67. Hongay CF, Grisafi PL, Galitski T, Fink GR (2006) Antisense transcription controls cell fate in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Cell* 127: 735–745.
68. Li Destri Nicosia MG, Brocard-Masson C, Demais S, Hua Van A, Daboussi MJ, et al. (2001) Heterologous transposition in *Aspergillus nidulans*. *Molecular Microbiology* 39: 1330–1344.
69. Attard A, Gout L, Ross S, Parlange F, Cattolico L, et al. (2005) Truncated and RIP-degenerated copies of the LTR retrotransposon Pholy are clustered in a pericentromeric region of the *Leptosphaeria maculans* genome. *Fungal Genetics and Biology* 42: 30–41.
70. Idnurm A, Howlett BJ (2003) Analysis of loss of pathogenicity mutants reveals that repeat-induced point mutations can occur in the Dothideomycete *Leptosphaeria maculans*. *Fungal Genetics and Biology* 39: 31–37.
71. Bouhouche K, Zickler D, Debuchy R, Arnaise S (2004) Altering a gene involved in nuclear distribution increases the repeat-induced point mutation process in the fungus *Podospora anserina*. *Genetics* 167: 151–159.
72. Graia F, Lespinet O, Rimbault B, Dequard-Chablat M, Coppin E, et al. (2001) Genome quality control: RIP (repeat-induced point mutation) comes to *Podospora*. *Molecular Microbiology* 40: 586–595.
73. Hamann A, Feller F, Osiewacz HD (2000) The degenerate DNA transposon Pat and repeat-induced point mutation (RIP) in *Podospora anserina*. *Molecular & General Genetics* 263: 1061–1069.
74. Clutterbuck AJ (2004) MATE transposable elements in *Aspergillus nidulans*: evidence of repeat-induced point mutation. *Fungal Genetics and Biology* 41: 308–316.
75. Nielsen ML, Hermansen TD, Aleksenko A (2001) A family of DNA repeats in *Aspergillus nidulans* has assimilated degenerated retrotransposons. *Molecular Genetics and Genomics* 265: 883–887.
76. Neuveglise C, Sarfati J, Latge JP, Paris S (1996) *Afut1*, a retrotransposon-like element from *Aspergillus fumigatus*. *Nucleic Acids Research* 24: 1428–1434.
77. Posfai J, Bhagwat AS, Posfai G, Roberts RJ (1989) Predictive motifs derived from cytosine methyltransferases. *Nucleic Acids Research* 17: 2421–2435.
78. Law DJ, Timberlake WE (1980) Developmental regulation of laccase levels in *Aspergillus nidulans*. *Journal of Bacteriology* 144: 509–517.