

The *Drosophila* gene coding for the α subunit of a stimulatory G protein is preferentially expressed in the nervous system

(guanine nucleotide-binding protein/signal transduction/*in situ* hybridization)

FRANKLIN QUAN, WILLIAM J. WOLFGANG, AND MICHAEL A. FORTE*

Vollum Institute for Advanced Biomedical Research, Oregon Health Sciences University, 3181 Southwest Sam Jackson Park Road, Portland, OR 97201

Communicated by Alfred G. Gilman, March 6, 1989 (received for review December 6, 1988)

ABSTRACT In mammals, the α subunit of the stimulatory guanine nucleotide-binding protein ($G_s\alpha$) functions to couple a variety of extracellular membrane receptors to adenylate cyclase. Activation of $G_s\alpha$ results in the stimulation of adenylate cyclase and an increase in the second messenger cAMP. A 1.7-kilobase cDNA has been identified and characterized from *Drosophila* that codes for a protein 71% identical to bovine $G_s\alpha$. The similarity is most striking in the regions thought to be responsible for the interactions with receptors and effectors, suggesting that the basic components of this signal-transduction pathway have been conserved through evolution. RNA blot hybridization and DNA sequence analysis suggest that a single transcript, expressed predominantly in the head, is present in *Drosophila*. *In situ* hybridization studies indicate that the *Drosophila* $G_s\alpha$ transcript is localized primarily in the cells of the central nervous system and in the eyes.

Guanine nucleotide-binding (G) proteins couple the receptors for a wide variety of extracellular signals to a number of intracellular effector systems in the production of diverse biological effects. Upon interaction with an activated receptor, the G-protein α subunit ($G\alpha$) exchanges bound GDP for GTP. The activated α subunit dissociates from the receptor and β/γ subunits to interact with effector enzymes or ion channels (1–3). The intrinsic GTPase activity of the α subunit then hydrolyzes the bound GTP to GDP to return the complex to the unstimulated state. In this scheme, the α subunit is responsible for the specific interaction with both the receptor and the effector, while the β/γ subunits appear to inactivate the α subunit and may anchor the complex to the membrane (1–3). Thus, different G proteins have different α subunits but similar or identical β/γ subunits.

Classification of G proteins is based historically on the functional interaction of α subunits with specific effector proteins. For example, transducins are responsible for the activation of the cGMP phosphodiesterase in the retina. G_s and G_i stimulate and inhibit adenylate cyclase, respectively. G_o is an abundant G protein in the nervous system whose function has yet to be determined. Molecular cloning of cDNAs coding for the various α subunits from a number of mammalian sources (4–8) and yeast (9, 10) has demonstrated that distinct molecular forms exist within each functional class of α subunit (11–15). The functional significance of these alternative forms is unclear.

The study of G-protein function has been limited to conventional *in vitro* biochemistry (1–3) and the genetic manipulation of cultured cells (16–19). The association of G-protein alterations with a variety of pathological conditions (20–23), however, points to a critical role for these proteins and the transduction events they mediate in processes that require the complex interaction of many cells. The sophisticated

genetics and ease of manipulation of *Drosophila* make it a particularly attractive system in which to study the role of G proteins in complex biological processes such as development and behavior (24). To this end, we have identified cDNAs for a number of $G\alpha$ subunits expressed in the *Drosophila* nervous system. We report here the isolation and characterization of cDNAs that code for a $G_s\alpha$ -like protein from *Drosophila* and show that the *Drosophila* homolog is expressed most abundantly in the nervous system. We believe that this is the first report of a $G_s\alpha$ protein in a nonmammalian organism.†

METHODS

Materials. An adult *Drosophila melanogaster* head cDNA library was kindly provided by P. Salvaterra (City of Hope Research Institute, Duarte, CA). The bovine $G_s\alpha$ (4) and rat $G_i\alpha$ (5) cDNAs were kindly provided by J. D. Robishaw and H. Itoh, respectively.

Isolation of cDNA Clones. The *Drosophila* head cDNA library was screened under low-stringency conditions with a 1.0-kilobase (kb) *Nco* I–*Mlu* I fragment from the bovine $G_s\alpha$ cDNA. This fragment consists exclusively of coding sequence and spans the entire coding region except for the 185 base pairs (bp) coding for the carboxyl terminus of the protein. Hybridizations were carried out in 25% (vol/vol) formamide/5× SSC/5× Denhardt's solution/50 mM sodium phosphate, pH 6.8/10% (wt/vol) dextran sulfate at 37°C (1× SSC is 0.15 M NaCl/0.015 M sodium citrate, pH 7; 1× Denhardt's solution is 0.02% Ficoll/0.02% bovine serum albumin/0.02% polyvinylpyrrolidone). Filters were washed in 0.5× SSC at 50°C.

Nucleotide Sequencing. Restriction fragments were sequenced by the dideoxy method (25) with double-stranded templates (26) after subcloning into pBS(M13–) (Stratagene).

Northern and Southern Blots. Total RNA was prepared as described (27). Poly(A)⁺ RNA was selected on oligo(dT)-cellulose (Collaborative Research), electrophoresed in 1.2% agarose/6% formaldehyde gels, and blotted to Nytran (Schleicher & Schuell). Hybridizations were done in 50% formamide/5% SDS/0.4 M sodium phosphate, pH 7.2/1 mM EDTA at 37°C. Washes were done in 0.1× SSC at 65°C. Southern blots were hybridized under low-stringency conditions as described above. High-stringency blots were hybridized in the same buffer containing 50% formamide/3× SSC and washed in 0.1× SSC at 65°C.

Chromosomal Localizations. *In situ* hybridizations to polytene chromosomes were done by using biotinylated probes as described (28) except that the probes were made with biotin-

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Abbreviations: G protein, guanine nucleotide-binding protein; $G\alpha$, G-protein α subunit.

*To whom reprint requests should be addressed.

†The sequence reported in this paper has been deposited in the EMBL/GenBank data base (accession no. M23233).

21-dUTP (Clontech) and detected with a horseradish peroxidase system (Vector Laboratories).

Hybridizations to Tissue Sections. Hybridization to tissue sections was done with RNA probes generated *in vitro* by using either T3 or T7 promoters after the subcloning of the appropriate fragments into pBS(M13-). RNA transcripts were labeled using [α - 35 S]thio]UTP. RNA was prepared and hybridized to 8- μ m tissue sections that had been fixed with 4% formaldehyde, then treated in 0.2 M HCl for 20 min, 2 \times SSC for 30 min at 60°C, proteinase K at 37°C for 15 min, and 4% formaldehyde for 20 min, and then acetylated and dried (29). After hybridization overnight at 50°C, slides were rinsed briefly in 4 \times SSC and then incubated for 15 min at 60°C in 50% formamide/0.3 M NaCl/30 mM Tris, pH 7.5/1 mM EDTA/10 mM dithiothreitol. This procedure greatly improved the signal-to-noise ratio. Slides were then washed in 4 liters of 2 \times SSC (room temperature, 30 min), 0.1 \times SSC (55°C, 10 min), and 0.1 \times SSC (room temperature, 10 min). Slides were dried and coated with photographic emulsion (Kodak NTB2).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Approximately 5×10^5 recombinant phage from the *Drosophila* head cDNA library were screened with the 1.0-kb *Nco* I-*Mlu* I fragment from the bovine $G_{s\alpha}$ cDNA, and 13 positive phage clones were isolated. Restriction analysis placed these isolates into two groups. The major group consisted of 12 recombinants containing inserts of 1.4–1.7 kb. Southern blot analysis showed that this group hybridized strongly to the bovine $G_{s\alpha}$ cDNA and weakly to a rat $G_{i\alpha}$ cDNA (data not shown). The longest member of this group, λ DGs12, was chosen for nucleotide sequence analysis (Fig. 1a).

The nucleotide sequence and deduced amino acid sequence of λ DGs12 are shown in Fig. 1b. λ DGs12 contains an open reading frame coding for a protein of 385 residues (45,003 Da). The assignment of the initiator ATG is based on the homology with the deduced amino acid sequences of other $G\alpha$ subunits, most of which begin with the sequence Met-Gly-Cys (4–8). In addition, the nucleotide sequence around the proposed initiator ATG, CTGCGATGG, is a good match to the Kozak consensus sequence for translation initiation, CCG^ACCATG(G) (30), matching in seven of nine positions (underlined). However, this sequence does not match a consensus sequence, CAA^ACCATG, proposed for *Drosophila* initiation codons (31). The 5' untranslated region contains two additional ATG codons, at positions –252 and –242, followed by 22-codon and 10-codon open reading frames, respectively. Only the ATG at –252 is in the same reading frame as the initiator ATG. This 5' untranslated sequence is found in at least two additional, independently isolated cDNAs. The 3' untranslated region of λ DGs12 is 194 nucleotides long and terminates in a stretch of 5 adenine residues. Nucleotide sequencing of the 3' untranslated region of two additional independent isolates demonstrated that these cDNAs terminated at the same site but with poly(A) tracts of 14–25 residues. A pair of overlapping consensus polyadenylation signals (32) are located 12 and 16 bp upstream of these adenine residues.

Fig. 2 shows a comparison of the deduced amino acid sequence of λ DGs12 to those of $G\alpha$ subunits representative of the various vertebrate G-protein classes (4–8). From this comparison it is evident that λ DGs12 is a cDNA coding for a $G\alpha$ protein. Taking into account only identical residues, the *Drosophila* protein has an amino acid homology of 71% to the long form of bovine $G_{s\alpha}$. The level of homology to $G_{i\alpha}$, $G_{o\alpha}$, and transducin is lower but still significant (41–44%). The

similarity is highest in the four regions of homology that have been identified between the $G\alpha$ subunits, the *ras* oncogene proteins, and bacterial elongation factor Tu (1–8). These highly conserved regions (A, C, E, and G) are thought to be responsible for guanine nucleotide binding and hydrolysis (33, 34). These regions are also highly conserved in this *Drosophila* $G\alpha$ cDNA (Fig. 2). Region C is identical in the *Drosophila* and vertebrate G proteins. Regions A and G are identical to the corresponding regions of bovine $G_{s\alpha}$ and 73–78% identical to rat $G_{i\alpha}$ and bovine $G_{o\alpha}$. Region E is less conserved but is still 78% and 56% identical with $G_{s\alpha}$ and $G_{i\alpha}$.

In mammals, the alignment of the deduced amino acid sequence of the various $G\alpha$ polypeptides has shown that $G_{s\alpha}$ is the most divergent member of the $G\alpha$ family (1–8). As noted earlier, the protein coded for by λ DGs12 has a much higher overall homology to $G_{s\alpha}$ (71%) than to any other of the $G\alpha$ subunits (41–43%). In fact, the *Drosophila* protein is virtually identical to $G_{s\alpha}$ in many of the regions where $G_{s\alpha}$ diverges from the other $G\alpha$ subunits. For example, residues 32–45 of the *Drosophila* protein are virtually identical to residues 29–42 of bovine $G_{s\alpha}$, matching in 14 of 15 positions. In contrast, only 2 of these residues match the corresponding regions of $G_{i\alpha}$ and $G_{o\alpha}$. The homology to $G_{s\alpha}$ is also striking in regions interspersed between the postulated guanine nucleotide contact sites, which are thought to carry out the various functions of the $G\alpha$ chains (34). In these models of a composite $G\alpha$ protein, interaction with effector protein has been assigned to the region between the first two guanine nucleotide-binding regions (A and C, Fig. 2). The protein encoded by λ DGs12 and the smaller form of bovine $G_{s\alpha}$ are 65% identical in this region. The region of receptor interaction has been assigned to the carboxyl-terminal region. Recent studies using chimeric cDNA constructs have suggested that the carboxyl terminus is responsible as well for some portion of effector interaction (19). As shown in Fig. 2, the *Drosophila* protein and bovine $G_{s\alpha}$ are 92% identical over the last 64 amino acid residues. The *Drosophila* protein and other $G\alpha$ proteins are only 27–30% identical over this region. We propose that λ DGs12 codes for a *Drosophila* $G_{s\alpha}$ subunit and thus, that this protein interacts with the same classes of receptors and effectors in *Drosophila* as mammalian $G_{s\alpha}$. This possibility can be tested directly by assessing the ability of *Drosophila* $G_{s\alpha}$ to functionally complement the lack of endogenous $G_{s\alpha}$ in murine S49 cyc⁻ cells (35).

Protein studies have shown that vertebrate $G_{s\alpha}$ is structurally heterogeneous, existing as at least two species with apparent molecular weights of 45,000 and 52,000 in SDS/polyacrylamide gels (1–3). Molecular cloning studies have demonstrated the existence of multiple vertebrate $G_{s\alpha}$ mRNAs, produced by a single gene, that code for proteins varying in both the number and sequence of residues in the region corresponding to amino acids 72–88 of the largest form of $G_{s\alpha}$ (11, 12). λ DGs12 is missing amino acids 72–86 of the long form of bovine $G_{s\alpha}$ (Fig. 2). Thus, λ DGs12 corresponds most closely to the smaller forms of $G_{s\alpha}$ found in mammalian tissues. To determine whether we had isolated cDNAs coding for forms of *Drosophila* $G_{s\alpha}$ that also vary in this region, this region of the remaining 11 $G_{s\alpha}$ isolates was sequenced by using a primer based on the nucleotide sequence of λ DGs12. All 11 were found to be identical to λ DGs12 in this region. It is possible, however, that variant forms of *Drosophila* $G_{s\alpha}$ exist but are expressed at low abundance, in different tissues, or at specific developmental stages and thus were missed in the initial screening. Alternatively, *Drosophila* $G_{s\alpha}$ subunits may be subject to variation in different regions of the protein.

The *Drosophila* $G_{s\alpha}$ appears to be a cholera toxin substrate but not a pertussis toxin substrate. The sequence around Arg-189 is essentially identical to that of bovine $G_{s\alpha}$ around Arg-201, the residue modified by cholera toxin (36). Pertussis toxin modifies susceptible G proteins at a cysteine residue

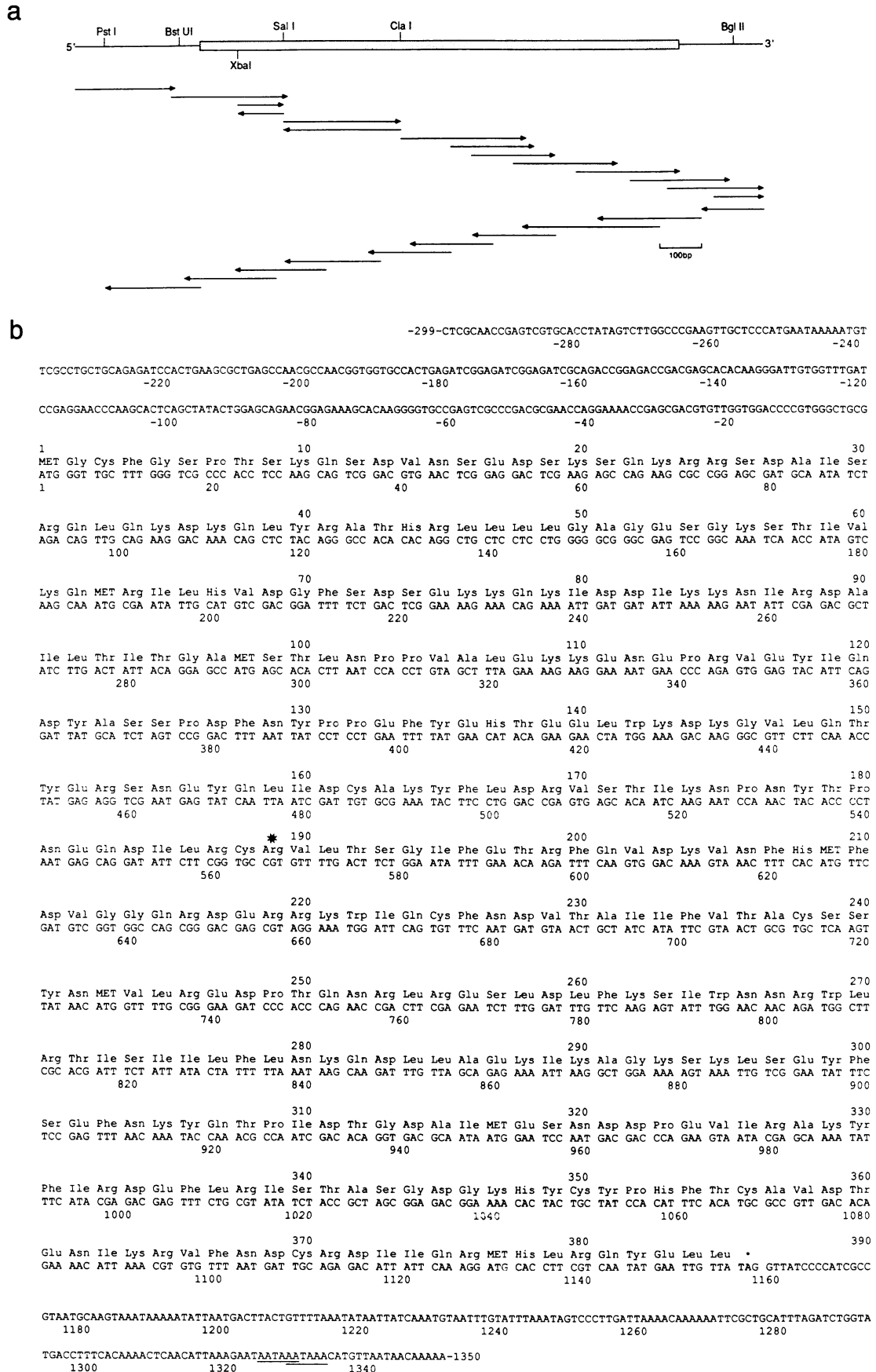


FIG. 1. (a) Restriction map and sequencing strategy of ADGs12. The coding region (nucleotides 1–1155) is indicated by the bar. Arrows indicate the extent and direction of sequencing. (b) Nucleotide sequence and deduced amino acid sequence of ADGs12. Nucleotide 1 is the first nucleotide of the ATG translation start codon. The potential site of ADP-ribosylation by cholera toxin is indicated by an asterisk. The translation termination codon is indicated by a dot. Potential polyadenylation signals are underlined.



FIG. 2. Alignment of the deduced amino acid sequence (standard one-letter symbols) of the *Drosophila* G α subunit with those of bovine G α , G α , and transducin (T α) and rat G α . Only residues identical to those of the *Drosophila* subunit have been boxed. The postulated guanine nucleotide-binding regions (A, C, E, G) are indicated.

found in the conserved sequence Cys-Gly-Leu-(Phe/Tyr) at the carboxyl terminus (36, 37). The *Drosophila* G α subunit ends in the sequence Tyr-Glu-Leu-Leu (Fig. 1b).

Southern blot analysis of *Drosophila* genomic DNA with λ DGs12 as a probe was consistent with the presence of a single gene for G α (Fig. 3). A single major band of hybridization was seen after digestion of genomic DNA with *Bam*HI, *Eco*RI, *Hind*III, or *Pst* I. The additional low molecular weight band seen with *Pst* I is consistent with the presence of a *Pst* I site in λ DGs12. The minor high molecular weight band seen in the *Bam*HI, *Eco*RI, and *Pst* I digests may have resulted from hybridization to related sequences in the *Drosophila* genome or to partial digestion products. These additional bands may also have resulted from the presence of small portions of G α exons in fragments containing mostly intron sequences. A low molecular weight band was seen with *Eco*RI digests after long autoradiographic exposures (data not shown). No additional bands were seen at low stringency (Fig. 3). *In situ* hybridization of the biotinylated 1.7-kb fragment of λ DGs12 to polytene chromosomes localized the *Drosophila* G α gene to position 60A of the genome (data not shown). No mutations have been identified that map to this region of the second chromosome.

In Northern blot analysis of poly(A)⁺ RNA isolated from whole adult flies, heads, and bodies, λ DGs12 hybridized to a single transcript of \approx 1.9 kb found predominantly in heads (Fig. 4). No additional transcripts were detected after longer exposures (Fig. 4). When the poly(A) tail is taken into account, it seems likely that λ DGs12 is close to full length.

To examine the distribution of G α mRNAs in *Drosophila*, ³⁵S-labeled RNAs were made *in vitro* from a fragment corresponding to the coding sequence of λ DGs12 and hybridized to tissue sections. As seen in dark-field (Fig. 5a) and phase-contrast (Fig. 5b) microscopic images, the strongest hybridization of antisense RNA was to the cortex (arrows) of the brain, which contains the neuronal cell bodies. Little or no hybridization was detected in the central neuropil, which contains neurites and synapses but no cell bodies. An intermediate level of hybridization was present in the eyes. The cortex of the optic lobes (small arrows) had consistently

lower levels of hybridization than the midbrain cortex (big arrows). In addition, the cortex of the ventral ganglion showed hybridization to these probes (data not shown). Little hybridization above background levels was detected in other tissues such as muscles, gut, fat bodies (Fig. 5), and ovaries. Similar results were obtained with a fragment containing only 5' untranslated sequences (data not shown). No differential pattern of hybridization was observed with sense-strand RNA probes. Thus, G α message is most abundant in the central nervous system, with less in the eyes. Its restriction to the cell bodies of neurons is consistent with this being the site of transcription and translation. The signal in the eye could not be localized to a particular cell type, although the photoreceptor cells themselves would be likely candidates.

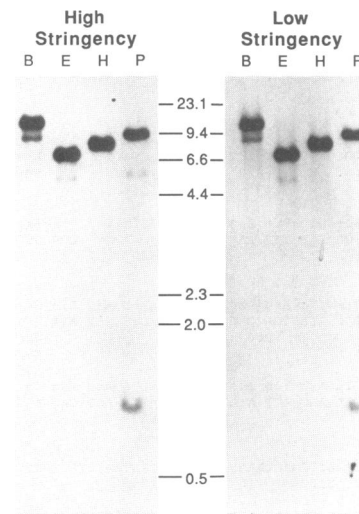


FIG. 3. Southern blot analysis. *Drosophila* DNA was cut with *Bam*HI (B), *Eco*RI (E), *Hind*III (H), or *Pst* I (P) and analyzed by hybridization to the 1.7-kb *Eco*RI fragment of λ DGs12 under high- or low-stringency conditions. Five micrograms of DNA was run in each lane. *Hind*III fragments of λ DNA were used as size (kb) markers.

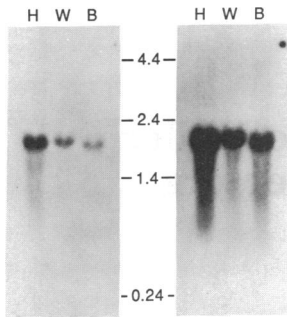


FIG. 4. Northern blot analysis of λ DGs12. Poly(A)⁺ RNA was isolated from heads (H), whole flies (W), and bodies (B). Twenty micrograms of RNA was loaded in each lane. The 1.7-kb *Eco*RI fragment of λ DGs12 was used as probe. Short and long exposures of the same blot are shown. Positions of molecular size standards (0.24- to 9.5-kb RNA "ladder," Bethesda Research Laboratories) are indicated.

Its apparent presence in eyes raises the possibility that this $G\alpha$ could participate in phototransduction to couple the absorption of light to phospholipase C, the effector that functions in this system (38). However, the relatively low level of expression in eyes (Fig. 5) and the high sequence homology to vertebrate $G_s\alpha$ suggest that this is unlikely.

The isolation of cDNA clones for *Drosophila* $G_s\alpha$ has demonstrated the strong conservation of primary sequence with the vertebrate $G_s\alpha$ subunit. *In situ* hybridization to tissue sections has localized its transcript primarily to cells of the nervous system. Recently, cDNA clones coding for *Drosophila* $G_i\alpha$ -like (ref. 39; F.Q. and M.A.F., unpublished data) and $G_o\alpha$ -like proteins (N. Thambi, F.Q., W.J.W., and M.A.F., unpublished data) have been isolated in addition to the G-protein β -subunit gene (40). A detailed genetic analysis of the function of these proteins is now possible and is expected to provide basic insights into the role of G proteins in complex, multicellular processes. Genetic manipulation of $G_s\alpha$ in *Drosophila* should be particularly interesting in this regard because alterations in the regulation of adenylate cyclase by the *rutabaga* gene and phosphodiesterase by the *dunce* gene lead to developmental and learning defects, apparently by altering cAMP levels (41–43).

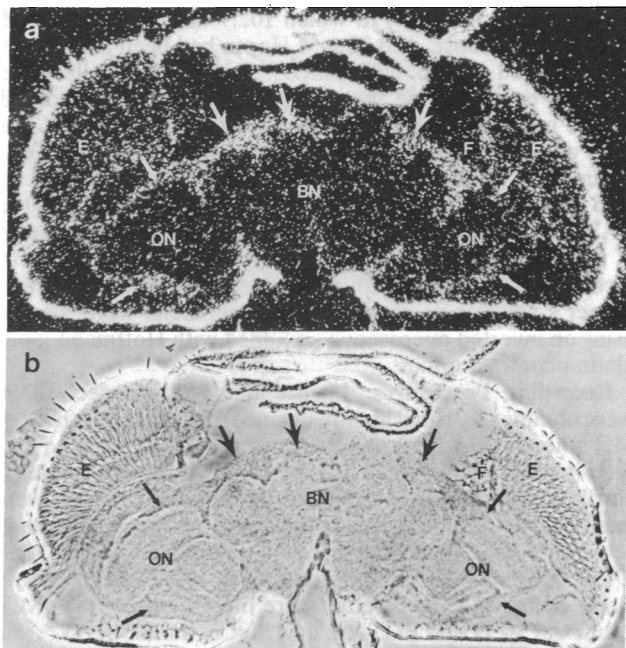


FIG. 5. *In situ* localization of $G_s\alpha$ transcript in a horizontal section of a fly head. (a) Dark-field image. (b) Phase-contrast image of the same section. Note hybridization in the cortex, which contains the cell bodies (arrows), and the eyes but not in the central neuropil. There is a nonspecific signal over the cuticle (bright line surrounding the head). E, eye; ON, optic lobe neuropil; F, fat body; BN, midbrain neuropil; little arrows, optic lobe cortex; big arrows, midbrain cortex.

This work was supported by grants from the National Institutes of Health (to M.A.F.). F.Q. is the recipient of a Canadian Medical Research Council postdoctoral fellowship.

- Stryer, L. & Bourne, H. R. (1986) *Annu. Rev. Cell Biol.* **2**, 391–419.
- Gilman, A. G. (1987) *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **56**, 615–649.
- Neer, E. J. & Clapham, D. E. (1988) *Nature (London)* **333**, 129–134.
- Robishaw, J. D., Russell, D. W., Harris, B. A., Smigel, M. D. & Gilman, A. G. (1986) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **83**, 1251–1255.
- Itoh, H., Kozasa, T., Nagata, S., Nakamura, S., Katada, T., Ui, M., Iwai, S., Ohtsuka, E., Kawasaki, H., Suzuki, K. & Kaziro, Y. (1986) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **83**, 3776–3780.
- Sullivan, K. A., Liao, Y. C., Alborzi, A., Beiderman, B., Chang, F. H., Masters, S. B., Levinson, A. D. & Bourne, H. R. (1986) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **83**, 6687–6691.
- Van Meurs, K. P., Angus, C. W., Lavu, S., Kung, H. F., Czarnecki, S. K., Moss, J. & Vaughan, M. (1987) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **84**, 3107–3111.
- Medynski, D. C., Sullivan, K., Smith, D., Van Dop, C., Chang, F. H., Fung, B. K. K., Seeburg, P. H. & Bourne, H. R. (1985) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **82**, 4311–4315.
- Nakafuku, M., Itoh, H., Nakamura, S. & Kaziro, Y. (1987) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **84**, 2140–2144.
- Nakafuku, M., Obara, T., Kaibuchi, K., Miyajima, I., Miyajima, A., Itoh, H., Nakamura, S., Arai, K., Matsumoto, K. & Kaziro, Y. (1988) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **85**, 1374–1378.
- Robishaw, J. D., Smigel, M. D. & Gilman, A. G. (1986) *J. Biol. Chem.* **261**, 9587–9590.
- Bray, P., Carter, A., Simons, C., Guo, V., Puckett, C., Kamholz, J., Spiegel, A. & Nirenberg, M. (1986) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **83**, 8893–8897.
- Beals, C. R., Wilson, C. B. & Perlmutter, R. M. (1987) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **84**, 7886–7890.
- Jones, D. T. & Reed, R. R. (1987) *J. Biol. Chem.* **262**, 14241–14249.
- Neer, E. J., Michel, T., Eddy, R., Shows, T. & Seidman, J. G. (1987) *Hum. Genet.* **77**, 259–262.
- Haga, T., Ross, E. M., Anderson, H. J. & Gilman, A. G. (1977) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **74**, 2016–2020.
- Bourne, H. R., Beiderman, B., Steinberg, F. & Brothers, V. M. (1982) *Mol. Pharmacol.* **22**, 204–210.
- Sullivan, K. A., Miller, R. T., Masters, S. B., Beiderman, B., Heideiman, W. & Bourne, H. R. *Nature (London)* **330**, 758–760.
- Masters, S. B., Sullivan, K. A., Miller, R. T., Beiderman, B., Lopez, N. G., Ramachandran, J. & Bourne, H. R. (1988) *Science* **241**, 448–451.
- Vallar, L., Spada, A. & Giannattasio, G. (1987) *Nature (London)* **330**, 566–568.
- Gawler, D., Milligan, G., Spiegel, A. M., Unson, C. G. & Houslay, M. D. (1987) *Nature (London)* **327**, 229–232.
- Carter, A., Bardin, C., Collins, R., Simons, C., Bray, P. & Spiegel, A. (1987) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **84**, 7266–7269.
- Levine, M. A., Ahn, T. G., Klupt, S. F., Kaufman, K. D., Smallwood, P. M., Bourne, H. R., Sullivan, K. A. & Van Dop, C. (1988) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **85**, 617–621.
- Rubin, G. (1988) *Science* **240**, 1453–1459.
- Sanger, F., Nicklen, S. & Coulson, A. R. (1977) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **74**, 5463–5467.
- Korneluk, R. G., Quan, F. & Gravel, R. A. (1985) *Gene* **40**, 317–323.
- Schwarz, T. L., Tempel, B. L., Papazian, D. M., Jan, Y. N. & Jan, L. Y. (1988) *Nature (London)* **331**, 137–142.
- Pardue, M. L. (1986) in *Drosophila: A Practical Approach*, ed. Roberts, D. B. (IRL, Oxford), pp. 111–137.
- Hafen, E. & Levine, M. (1986) in *Drosophila: A Practical Approach*, ed. Roberts, D. B. (IRL, Oxford), pp. 139–157.
- Kozak, M. (1986) *Cell* **44**, 283–292.
- Cavener, D. R. (1987) *Nucleic Acids Res.* **15**, 1353–1361.
- Proudfoot, N. J. & Brownlee, G. G. (1976) *Nature (London)* **263**, 211–214.
- Halliday, K. (1984) *J. Cyclic Nucleotide Res.* **9**, 435–448.
- Masters, S. B., Stroud, R. M. & Bourne, H. R. (1986) *Prot. Eng.* **1**, 47–54.
- Harris, B. A., Robishaw, J. D., Mumby, S. M. & Gilman, A. G. (1985) *Science* **229**, 1274–1277.
- Van Dop, C., Tsubokawa, M., Bourne, H. R. & Ramachandran, J. (1984) *J. Biol. Chem.* **259**, 696–698.
- West, R. E., Jr., Moss, J., Vaughan, M., Liu, T. & Liu, T. Y. (1985) *J. Biol. Chem.* **260**, 14428–14430.
- Bloomquist, B. T., Shortridge, R. D., Schneuwly, S., Perdew, M., Montell, C., Steller, H., Rubin, G. & Pak, W. (1988) *Cell* **54**, 723–733.
- Provost, N. M., Somers, D. E. & Hurley, J. B. (1988) *J. Biol. Chem.* **263**, 12070–12076.
- Yarfitz, S., Provost, N. & Hurley, J. (1988) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **85**, 7134–7138.
- Byers, D., Davis, R. & Kiger, J. (1981) *Nature (London)* **289**, 79–81.
- Livingstone, M. S., Sziber, P. P. & Quinn, W. G. (1984) *Cell* **37**, 205–215.
- Bellen, H. J., Gregory, B. K., Olsson, C. L. & Kiger, J. A. (1987) *Dev. Biol.* **121**, 432–444.