Cloning of a Cryptococcus neoformans Gene, GPA1, Encoding a G-Protein α -Subunit Homolog

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Received 18 January 1994/Returned for modification 9 April 1994/Accepted 20 April 1994

We have isolated a gene, GPA1, from Cryptococcus neoformans by the PCR technique. DNA sequencing of the $GPA1$ clone suggested that it encodes a protein homologous to the G-protein α -subunit family. Comparison of the deduced amino acid sequence of the GPA1-encoded protein revealed that it is about 45% identical to several mammalian Gi α subunits and 48% identical to the G α protein Gpa2 from Saccharomyces cerevisiae. G α proteins are known to be involved in mating of other yeasts, such as S. cerevisiae and Schizosaccharomyces pombe. Southern analysis demonstrated that GPA1 is present in a single copy within the Cryptococcus genome. Isolation of the cDNA for GPA1 confirmed that the gene contains six introns within the coding region. The GPAI transcript was identified by Northern (RNA) analysis as ^a 1.6-kb RNA present in exponentially growing cells of both the α and a mating types. Moreover, the abundance of this transcript increased in cells shifted to starvation medium. Coincubation of α and a cells on starvation medium is required for mating of cryptococcal cells. Thus, our results are consistent with the involvement of C. neoformans GPA1 in mating.

Cryptococcus neoformans, an opportunistic yeast pathogen, causes meningitis in immunocompromised hosts, such as patients with AIDS (20, 23, 39). However, the normal habitat of C. neoformans is nonhuman; it is found worldwide in pigeon droppings, and one variety has been found associated with one species of eucalyptus (10, 23, 32). C. neoformans' life cycle has been elucidated, and a sexual stage has been identified (19). It is a heterothallic basidiomycete with two haploid cell types called the a and α mating types. Mixtures of these two cell types on an appropriate starvation medium results in mating to form the hyphal phase, during which nuclear fusion occurs, followed immediately by meiosis and spore formation. The starvation medium must be deficient in both the carbon-energy source and a nitrogen source; mixtures of cells on rich media do not result in hypha formation.

Genetic analysis of C. neoformans has suggested a correlation between the α mating type and increased virulence; however, no morphological or biochemical attributes accounting for this difference have been found (21). Therefore, an understanding of the mating process in C. neoformans may be important for understanding virulence. In particular, the molecular mechanisms underlying starvation-induced mating in C. neoformans have not been elucidated.

The control of the a and α mating types is found at a single genetic locus (called *MAT*) (25). Cells of the α mating type contain about 40 kb of unique DNA ($MAT \alpha$ allele) at this locus, which is lacking in a mating type cells, which contain the MATa allele. The MAT α locus has been found to contain a putative pheromone gene. These findings support the hypothesis that C. neoformans has a mating type system similar to that of other yeasts, such as Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mating in S. cerevisiae (often called the pheromone response) has been extensively studied and involves a minimum of 24 genes (for reviews, see references 4, 14, and 24). Strikingly, many of these components are conserved across great evolutionary distances and are structurally and functionally homologous to genes

involved in signal transduction in higher eucaryotes, including mammals. Also as in its mammalian counterparts, the pheromone response pathway controls cell proliferation, and yeast pheromones may be considered negative growth factors. This makes the pheromone response pathway an attractive system for controlling yeast growth.

Hypothesizing that an S. cerevisiae-like pheromone response pathway is conserved in C. neoformans, we began a search for cryptococcal homologs to genes involved in the pheromone response in S. cerevisiae and other yeasts. In particular, the S. cerevisiae pheromone response pathway requires the activity of ^a heterotrimeric GTP-binding protein (G protein). G proteins are apparently ubiquitous among eucaryotes and are highly conserved (for reviews, see references 2, 3, 12, 17, 36, and 38). We have taken advantage of the high level of conservation among G proteins to clone a C. neoformans gene encoding a homolog of a G-protein α subunit (G α) by using the PCR method. The cryptococcal $G\alpha$ protein, although related to several yeast G α subunits, is actually more homologous to various mammalian proteins. We found that the expression of the cryptococcal G α gene (called GPA1) varies with the growth medium in a way that is consistent with a role in mating.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

C. neoformans strains and media. The strains used in this study are described in Table 1. Strains were maintained on YPD (1% yeast extract, 2% Bacto Peptone, 2% glucose). Strains were grown in SD (synthetic glucose medium containing [per liter] 1.7 g of Bacto Yeast Nitrogen Base [without amino acids and ammonium sulfate], 4.0 g of ammonium sulfate, and 20 g of glucose). Starvation medium (mating leucine [ML]) was based on Mating Agar (American Type Culture Collection [ATCC]) and contained (per liter) 2.0 g of sucrose, 100 g of KH_2PO_4 , 0.5 g of MgSO₄, 0.1 g of CaCl₂, 0.1 g of NaCl, 0.03 g of leucine, and 5.0μ g of biotin (pH 6.2).

Cloning and sequencing of the $GPAI$ gene. First, we chose a small region that is highly conserved in $G\alpha$ proteins from both yeast and mammalian cells (for reviews, see references 2, 3, 12, 17, 36, 38). A sequence of this region, which is believed to be involved in guanine nucleotide binding, includes the following

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TABLE 1. C. neoformans strains used in this study

Strain	Genotype	Source
42163	$MAT\alpha$	ATCC; from self-fertile isolate (purified with 42164)
42164	MATa	ATCC: from self-fertile isolate (purified with 42163)
JEC ₂₀	MATa	J. Edman ^a ; congenic with JEC21
JEC21	MATα	J. Edman; congenic with JEC20
JEC ₃₄	MATa ura5	J. Edman; derived from strain JEC20
JEC43	$MAT\alpha$ ura5	J. Edman; derived from strain JEC21

^a University of California, San Francisco.

amino acids: N'-RKKWI . . . 53 amino acids . . . LFLNK-c'. We then devised degenerate, synthetic-oligonucleotide primers to these two pentapeptides, which are identical in several yeast and mammalian proteins. These primers were used in ^a PCR with Taq DNA polymerase (Perkin-Elmer) with genomic DNA from strain 42163. Genomic DNA was isolated by using ^a variation of a previously described method (8). All PCRamplified bands were cloned into the pT7Blue vector (Novagen) and sequenced by the dideoxynucleotide method of Sanger et al. (35). Primers exactly homologous to the regions near the ends of the first PCR clone were synthesized and used for inverse PCR with genomic DNA cut with BamHI and BglII (a BglII site was found just downstream of one primer) and self-ligated. A band of ⁵⁵⁰ bp was amplified, cloned, and sequenced. We used this general approach of creating primers based on sequences near the ⁵'- and 3'-most ends of previously cloned fragments and inverse PCR to clone three more inverse-PCR fragments. In all, five overlapping fragments, covering about 2.0 kb of DNA, were amplified, cloned, and sequenced. During the initial PCRs, two fragments were obtained, one corresponding to the gene we cloned in its entirety and the other presumably another G α -related fragment. The only differences between these two fragments were in the intron sequences; the deduced amino acid sequences were identical. The primers we used and the restriction enzyme digestions of the genomic DNA for subsequent PCR amplifications were such that only one of the genes would be amplified (because of differences in the genomic DNA corresponding to the primers and differences in the restriction sites used for inverse PCRs). Each of the five PCR fragments was sequenced in both directions to obtain the entire sequence of the cryptococcal G α protein, which we named GPA1. The GPA1 gene was subsequently cloned in its entirety as a 1.7-kbp fragment by PCR.

Southern analysis. Genomic DNA was isolated from strains 42163, 42164, JEC34, and JEC43 and used for Southern analysis (37). For each sample, about 50 μ g of DNA was cut with a given restriction enzyme, precipitated with ethanol, resuspended in deionized H_2O , and run in a 0.7% agarose gel. The DNA samples were transferred from the gels to Nytran membranes (Schleicher & Schuell) during ^a 2-h period by using a vacuum transfer machine. The resulting blot was probed with ^a digoxigenin (DIG)-labeled GPAI DNA fragment labeled by a random-primer reaction in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions (Genius; Boehringer Mannheim). The probe was a 560-bp fragment (G5-G11) homologous to portions of exons 2 and ³ and to intron II. The DIG-labeled GPA1 probe was hybridized to the Southern blots in $5 \times$ SSC (1 \times SSC is 0.15 M NaCl plus 0.015 M sodium citrate) at 65°C for 16 h. Hybridization was followed by treatment with anti-DIG antibody coupled to alkaline phosphatase (this was an anti-DIG Fab fragment conjugated to alkaline phosphatase). The membrane carrying the hybridized probe and bound antibody conjugate was reacted with Lumi-Phos 530 (a chemiluminescent substrate for alkaline phosphatase) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions and then exposed to X-ray film to record the chemiluminescence signal.

Northern analysis. Strains 42163 and 42164 were grown in 50 ml of minimal SD to the mid-exponential phase ($\sim 0.8 \times 10^7$) cells per ml), harvested by centrifugation, washed with deionized H_2O , and resuspended in 50 ml of fresh medium (SD or ML). Cells were then incubated for 3 h at 30°C with vigorous shaking and harvested, and total RNA was extracted. Cells were harvested by centrifugation, washed once, and resuspended in ice-cold RNA buffer (0.5 M NaCl, ²⁰⁰ mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], ¹⁰ mM EDTA in diethylpyrocarbonate [DEPC] treated H_2O). Cells were broken open by vortexing with glass beads $(0.45 \text{-} \mu \text{m}$ diameter). Cell lysate was extracted twice with phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (25/24/1) by vortexing for 2 min, followed by ethanol precipitation overnight at -20° C. The nucleic acid pellet was washed with 75% ethanol and resuspended in DEPC-treated H_2O . The RNA was preferentially precipitated by addition of an equal volume of ⁴ M LiCl at 4°C overnight. The RNA pellet was washed with ² M LiCl, resuspended in DEPC-treated H_2O , and precipitated a second time with LiCl. The second LiCl-RNA pellet was resuspended in DEPC-treated H₂O and then precipitated at -20° C with ethanol in the presence of 0.3 M Na acetate. The RNA was stored as an ethanol precipitate at -20° C.

For Northern analysis, approximately 15 μ g of total RNA per sample was loaded into an agarose (0.8%)-formaldehyde gel. The RNA samples were transferred to Schleicher & Schuell Nytran filters by blotting overnight with $5 \times$ SSPEformamide. The blots were probed simultaneously for both the URA5 and GPA1 transcripts by using ³²P-labeled probes. The URAS probe consisted of the entire CIP3 (8) plasmid labeled by random-primer labeling. The GPA1 probe consisted of the 560-bp G5-G11 fragment, which was also labeled by random priming.

Cloning the GPA1 cDNA. Total RNA from ^a mixed culture of strains ⁴²¹⁶³ and ⁴²¹⁶⁴ incubated in ML for ³ ^h as described above was precipitated with ³ M sodium acetate (pH 7.0) overnight at 4°C. The RNA pellet was resuspended in ²⁰ μ l of DEPC-treated H₂O and treated with RNase-free DNase for 15 min at 37°C; this was followed by extraction with chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (24:1) by 2 min of vortexing. The aqueous RNA phase was removed, and the RNA was ethanol precipitated. The RNA pellet was resuspended in 50 μ l of DEPC-treated $H₂O$ and its concentration was determined spectrophotometrically. Approximately 30 μ g of RNA was mixed with ²⁰⁰ U of Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (RT). The RT reaction was primed with 600 μ g of a synthetic oligonucleotide specific for the ³' end of the GPA1 transcript (22 to 40 bases downstream of the putative translation stop codons). The RNA and primer were mixed, heated at 65°C for ¹⁵ minutes, and cooled on ice. The RT reaction was carried out in accordance with the manufacturer's (Promega) instructions. The reaction product (cDNA) was extracted with chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (24:1) and ethanol precipitated. The cDNA pellet was resuspended in 20 μ l of deionized H_2O and used as a substrate for PCR with the same ³' primer used in the RT reaction along with ^a ⁵' primer complementary to bases -18 to -1 upstream of the putative translation initiation codon. The resulting PCR products were run in a gel, and a band of an approximately 1.4-kb fragment was cloned and sequenced, confirming that the GPAI cDNA had indeed been produced. The sequence of the cDNA clone

FIG. 1. (A) Schematic of the PCR-generated fragments used to clone GPAJ. The first PCR-generated fragment, G3-G2, was amplified by standard PCR using degenerate primers. The remaining fragments were amplified by inverse PCR (invPCR) using completely homologous primers based on the sequences of previously isolated fragments. (B) Sequencing scheme of the GPAJ clone. DNA sequencing was performed by using a combination of PCR-generated fragments and synthetic oligonucleotides. The numbers indicate distances in base pairs.

was compared to that of the genomic DNA to reveal the locations of six introns within the coding region. This comparison also demonstrated that the GPAI sequence derived from five genomic PCR fragments was authentic, intact GPA1.

RESULTS

Identification of a heterotrimeric G-protein gene in C. neoformans. Heterotrimeric G proteins are apparently ubiquitous in eucaryotic cells. Such G proteins have three different subunits, α , β , and γ . We hypothesized that C. neoformans should also have ^a G protein, and in particular, it should have a gene encoding a G α subunit. G α subunits are particularly well conserved among eucaryotes. This conservation allows genes encoding them to be cloned by PCR. Synthetic, degenerate-oligonucleotide primers based on conserved amino acid sequences from α subunits of other yeasts and mammalian cells were devised. We began by selecting ^a small region believed to be involved in guanine nucleotide binding, which is highly conserved in all $G\alpha$ proteins, from yeast to mammalian cells. From within this region, we chose the amino acids N'-RKKWI ... 53 amino acids .. LFLNK-c' and devised degenerate, synthetic-oligonucleotide primers to the two pentapeptides. Genomic DNA from C. neoformans 42163 was isolated and used as the template for PCR using the degenerate primers. A band of ²⁸⁰ bp, slightly larger than the size needed to encode the predicted 63 amino acids, was amplified. No open reading frame spanned the fragment; however, stretches of base pairs at the ⁵' and ³' ends of the clone could potentially encode peptides homologous to various $G\alpha$ proteins. Assuming the presence of two small introns, the clone had the potential to encode a peptide highly homologous to the consensus peptide, as anticipated. By using the sequence of this fragment, we had synthesized complementary primers that could be used in the inverse-PCR technique. In this way, we cloned another DNA fragment surrounding the first clone. In three more cycles of inverse PCR, we cloned additional overlapping fragments covering the entire gene (Fig. 1). The

FIG. 2. DNA and deduced amino acid sequences of the C. neoformans GPA1 (G α -subunit) gene. The putative translational initiator codon and tandem translational stop codons are at bases $+1$ to 3 and +1607 to 1612, respectively. Intron sequences are underlined and numbered ^I to VI.

five overlapping PCR fragments were sequenced in both directions to generate the complete nucleotide sequence of this gene (Fig. 2), which we call $GPA1$. PCR was subsequently used to clone the entire gene in a single fragment from strain 42163. The same PCR primers and reaction conditions were used to amplify the same-size fragment from strain JEC34; however, sequencing of this GPA1 gene was not done. When analyzing the genomic sequence, we assumed the presence of six introns (confirmed by cDNA analysis [see below]) and found that a protein homologous to the G_{α} -subunit family could be encoded. Figure 2 shows the deduced Gpal amino acid sequence. Figure 3 shows the alignments of the C. neoformans α subunit and those of seven other α subunits, including two from S. cerevisiae, one from Candida albicans, one from Schizosaccharomyces pombe, and three from mammalian cells. C. neoformans Gpa1 is very homologous to various Gi α proteins (e.g., 45% identical to both human Gi α and rat Gi α) and also to a yeast G α protein (48% identical to S. cerevisiae Gpa2) but is less homologous to Gs α (36%) identical to rat $Gs\alpha$). The homologies to several other yeast G α proteins are as follows: S. cerevisiae Gpa1, 39% identical; S. pombe Gpal, 32% identical; C. albicans Cagl, 38% identical. These homologies were determined in the absence of the various peptide inserts found in nearly every subunit (the insert sequences are described in the legend to Fig. 3). C. neoformans G α has a single peptide insert of 67 amino acids very near its N' end that is not present in any other $G\alpha$ protein. This peptide, which is present in the most variable region of $G\alpha$ proteins, is not related to the inserts found in any of the other yeast or mammalian subunits. Furthermore, the cryptococcal protein does not have any inserts corresponding to those of the other four yeast G α subunits. Thus, overall, C. neoformans G α more closely resembles mammalian than yeast $G\alpha$ subunits.

Identification of the positions of the six introns in GPAI. The DNA sequence of the GPA1 gene was assumed to have six introns. Identification of the positions of these introns was based on an attempt to maintain homology between the deduced Gpa1 amino acid sequence and various other $G\alpha$ subunits, as well as the need to maintain an open reading frame. The initial positioning of the introns was arbitrary and based on the limited homology that is believed to occur for yeast ihtron splice junctions. To position the introns precisely, we made cDNA from extracts that contained the GPAI mRNA. The cDNA was made with ^a primer specific for the GPA1 mRNA. RNA from ^a mixed culture of strains ⁴²¹⁶³ and ⁴²¹⁶⁴ that was incubated in ML was used as ^a template with RT. The RT reaction was primed with ^a synthetic oligonucleotide complementary to the ³' end of the GPA1 gene 22 to 40 bases downstream of the tandem termination codons. Thus, theoretically only the GPAI mRNA should have been reverse transcribed into cDNA. The use of specific primers in the RT reaction and PCR allowed us to isolate nearly the entire length of the GPAI transcript; however, this method was not usable for identification of the transcription initiation or termination site nor the presence of introns in the nontranslated regions. The reaction mixture containing the GPAI cDNA was then used as ^a template in ^a PCR with the ³'-end primer used to make the cDNA plus ^a ⁵'-end primer corresponding to bases -18 to -1 upstream of the putative initiator AUG. Thus, this PCR should amplify the entire cDNA. A band of the appropriate size was amplified, cloned, and sequenced. The sequence revealed the seven exons with the six introns spliced out. Comparison of the cDNA sequence with the genomic sequence allowed us to position the six introns exactly (shown in Fig. 2). We aligned the six introns to reveal homologies (Fig. 4). The sizes of the introns ranged from 47 to 64 bp; however,

INFECT. IMMUN.

FIG. 3. Comparison of amino acid sequences of $G\alpha$ subunits. The single-letter amino acid code is used. Sequences: 1, C. neofornans Gpa1; 2, S. cerevisiae Gpa1 (28); 3, S. cerevisiae Gpa2 (29); 4, rat $Gi2\alpha$ (15); 5, rat Gsa (15); 6, C albicans Cagl (34); 7, S. pombe Gpal (30); 8, human Gi α , $(1, 6)$. Symbols: \sim , insert the sequence KKTAET KQVPSTSTSSRPPQASTSATATAAGAGTSAANGTANGIKGDT TATNRVGTSGGQGLAAALA in C. neoformans Gpal; *, insert the sequence YINASVAGGDSFLNDYVLKYSERYETRRRVQSTGRA KAAFDEDGNISNVKSDTDRDAETVTQNEDADRNNSSRIN LQDICKDLNQEGDDQMFVRKTSREIQGQNRRN in S. cerevisiae Gpal; #, insert the sequence PQKTVRTVNTANQQEKQQQR RQQQPSPHNVKDRKEQNGSINNAISPTATANTSGSQQINID SALRDRSSNVAAQPSLSDASSGS in S. cerevisiae Gpa2; ^, insert the sequence GGEEDPQAARSNSDG in rat Gs α ; +, insert the sequence EPGEDPRVTRAK in rat Gsa; @, insert the sequence QIDASVAG GTDFLNDFVVKYSEENKNKRRLKSTGTTDIWGKDDDSNINS DAINQAIELSLNKDSEEQ in C. albicans Cag1; %, insert the sequence RVPVLENWLNIVLRGKPQNVESSGVRVKGNSTSG in S. pombe Gpa1; \bullet , insert the sequence FVQTQCPLADNAVRS in S. pombe Gpa1. Note that extra large inserts have been removed from six of the protein sequences.

all but one were in the range of 47 to 50 bp. The average size of the introns was approximately 49 bp.

Copy number analysis of the GPA1 gene. We analyzed genomic DNAs from strains 42163 (α mating type) and 42164 (a mating type), which were purified from the same self-fertile isolate. The genomic DNAs were subjected to restriction digestion with three enzymes and Southern blotted. The blot was probed under stringent conditions with an internal fragment of the *GPA1* gene. Figure 5 shows that genomic DNA

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GPA1			
Consensus			
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c	c c		
Eucarvotic Consensus			
TACTAAC (S. cerevisiae) or polypyrimidine (mammals) .CAG Sequences : GTATGT			

FIG. 4. Sequencing of GPA1 cDNA reveals the locations of six introns. Total RNA was isolated from ^a mixed culture of strains ⁴²¹⁶³ and ⁴²¹⁶⁴ incubated in ML and subjected to reverse transcription with a primer specific for the ³'-nontranslated region of the GPAJ transcript. The resulting cDNA was used for PCR with the same 3'-specific primer along with a primer specific for the 5'-nontranslated region of GPAI. The amplified fragment was cloned and sequenced. The positions of the introns and exons are shown in Fig. 2, while the alignment of the introns is shown here.

from 42164 cells produced a single band after digestion with ClaI, BgIII, and EcoRV, suggesting a single copy for the GPA1 gene. However, two bands (one corresponding to that seen with 42164 DNA) were produced after digestion of 42163 DNA with these same enzymes, suggesting two related genes. To test whether the copy number difference between 42163 and 42164 was due to the different mating types or to natural variation between wild-type isolates, we examined the GPAI copy number in two strains (JEC34 and JEC43) which are believed to be congenic, differing only in mating type. Figure 5 shows ^a Southern analysis of genomic DNAs from these strains probed with the same $GPA\bar{I}$ fragment, proving that a single copy of the GPAI gene is present in cells of both the a and α mating types.

Expression of GPAI. The first step in understanding the function of GPA1 is to examine its transcriptional activity. Changes in transcription under specific physiological condi-

FIG. 5. Restriction enzyme digestion patterns of C. neoformans DNA probed for GPAI. The strains used were JEC34 (a mating type), JEC43 (α mating type), 42163 (α mating type), and 42164 (a mating type). Genomic DNA from each strain was digested with the indicated enzyme (note the different orders for a and α), run in agarose gels, and blotted to Schleicher & Schuell Nytran membranes. The blots were probed with ^a DIG-labeled GPAJ DNA fragment (560 bp corresponding to portions of exons 2 and 3 and intron II) and then treated with anti-DIG antibody coupled to alkaline phosphatase. The membranes carrying the hybridized probes and bound antibody conjugates were reacted with Lumi-Phos 530 (a chemiluminescent substrate for alkaline phosphatase) and exposed to X-ray film to record the chemiluminescence signal.

FIG. 6. Transcription of GPA1. Total RNA was isolated from strains 42163 and 42164 grown separately or as a mixed culture and strains JEC20 and JEC21 grown separately or mixed. The RNAs were analyzed by Northern blotting with ³²P-labeled GPA1 and URA5 probes.

tions can shed light on potential functions. Total RNA was isolated from cryptococcal cells, run in an agarose gel, transferred by the Northern blot procedure to a nylon membrane, and probed for the GPAJ transcript. Cells of strains 42163, 42164, JEC20, and JEC21 were grown separately overnight in minimal SD to the early exponential phase, shifted to fresh media, and incubated for ³ ^h prior to RNA isolation. The shifted cells were either incubated separately as pure cultures or mixed together in two pairs (42163 plus 42164 and JEC20 plus JEC21). Total RNA was isolated from each culture, run in an agarose gel, and blotted onto nylon paper. These Northern
blots were probed simultaneously with ³²P-labeled DNAs from both the GPA1 and URA5 genes. The URA5 transcript was probed as ^a control to normalize the amount of RNA loaded in each lane. Thus, the level of the GPA1 transcript was compared to that of the URA5 transcript from the same RNA sample. A single GPA1 transcript, with an approximate size of 1.6 kb (Fig. 6), was identified in cells growing exponentially in SD for all four strains incubated separately or in mixed pairs. Expression of GPAJ was similar in the four strains tested. The abundance of the GPA1 transcript was also examined in cells shifted to a medium used for mating of cryptococcal cells. After ³ ^h of incubation in starvation medium, total RNA was isolated, Northern blotted, and probed. The resulting Northern blot was autoradiographed and scanned by densitometry (data not shown). The level of the GPAI transcript increased more than threefold relative to the URA5 control transcript in 42163 and 42164 cells incubated separately and in a mixed culture, consistent with transcriptional induction of GPAJ during incubation in the mating-starvation medium.

DISCUSSION

We have isolated the C. neoformans GPA1 gene, which encodes a Ga-subunit homolog. The Gpal deduced amino acid sequence was compared to the PIR data base and found to be homologous to the family of $G\alpha$ proteins. Surprisingly, Gpa1 is slightly more homologous to various mammalian $G\alpha$ proteins than to most other yeast $G\alpha$ subunits. Specifically, Gpa1 is nearly 45% identical to human Gi α (1, 6) and rat Gi2 α (15) and has a similar level of homology to several other mammalian Gi α subunits. C. neoformans Gpa1 is also 39, 48, 38, and 32% identical to the yeast $G\alpha$ subunits encoded by the S. cerevisiae GPA1 (7, 28) and GPA2 (29), C. albicans CAGl (34), and S. pombe GPAl (30) genes, respectively. Importantly, the cryptococcal G α protein lacks any peptide corresponding to the peptide inserts present in each of these other yeast $G\alpha$ subunits; however, it does contain a 67-amino-acid insert very near the N-terminal end within a hypervariable region. The insert in the cryptococcal protein is not related to inserts found in either mammalian. or yeast subunits. The identities calculated above do. not include these peptide sequences and are, therefore, not entirely reflective of the true homologies. For example, the identity with the S. cerevisiae Gpa2 protein is reduced to 39% when the extra 84-amino-acid peptide, not present in other $G\alpha$ proteins, is considered. Despite the rather high level of homology within the conserved G_{α} domains of the cryptococcal Gpal and S. cerevisiae Gpa2 proteins, their distinct inserts suggest that they have very distinct functions. Interestingly, with the exception of Gpa2, cryptococcal Gpal is much more homologous to many mammalian $G\alpha$ proteins than it is to other yeast subunits. The high level of homology to mammalian subunits is restricted to the G i α subfamily; however, there is no indication that this homology is related to the function of Gpal.

Like the S. cerevisiae Gpal and Gpa2, S. pombe Gpal, and C. albicans Cag1 proteins, C. neoformans Gpa1 does not contain ^a cysteine residue near the C terminus, which is ADP-ribosylated by pertussis toxin in some mammalian $G\alpha$ proteins. It does, however, have the conserved arginine residue that is ADP-ribosylated by cholera toxin in mammalian $Gs\alpha$ proteins. The fact that cryptococcal Gpal is more related to mammalian Gia proteins, on the basis of size and sequence identity, than to other yeasts is consistent with the notion that this basidiomycete is evolutionarily distant from these yeasts. The C. neoformans $G\alpha$ gene is the first such gene isolated from a basidiomycete. It will be interesting to compare the homologies of other important signal transduction proteins from basidiomycetes and mammals to see how widespread this similarity is.

The GPA1 gene was found to be present in a single copy in congenic α and a mating type strains (JEC34 and JEC43) that differ only in mating type. These congenic strains have been genetically characterized. It is also present in one copy in ATCC 42164 (a mating type). In contrast, in ATCC 42163 (α) mating type), a second GPAl-related gene was present. Strains 42163 and 42164 were obtained from a single self-fertile isolate. These results underscore the difficulty in studying wild-type isolates; each clinically or environmentally derived strain may differ from the next because of dramatic differences in their genomes. Such genomic variability is not rare in other organisms nor, apparently, in cryptococci. Recent studies that presented blots of complete or amplified chromosomal fragments have shown that large chromosomal rearrangements exist for different cryptococcal strains (31, 40). Our results indicate that such variations can include changes in gene copy number.

The structure of the cryptococcal $G\alpha$ gene itself is also significantly different from that of its yeast relatives in that the coding region is punctuated by six introns. None of the other yeast $G\alpha$ genes contain introns. The presence and splicing of introns from precursor mRNAs occur in all eucaryotic cells (for reviews, see references 13, 26, and 33). Although there is conservation in splicing among all eucaryotes, from yeasts to mammals, there are some important distinctions. There are three short sequences within introns that are required for

proper splicing. The ⁵' and ³' sites are similar in yeasts and mammals; however, the branch point sequence is significantly different. In the yeast *S. cerevisiae*, the branch point sequence UACUAAC is highly conserved and mutations in this sequence inactivate the intron. Mammalian cells have very degenerate branch point sequences but require a polypyrimidine tract between the branch point sequence and ³' splice site, a feature which is not required in S. cerevisiae. Moreover, S. cerevisiae has few introns, usually one near the ⁵' end of the mRNA, while mammalian cells tend to have numerous introns scattered throughout the mRNA. The six GPA1 introns are positioned throughout the gene and range in size from 47 to 64 bp, with an average of 49 bp. The ⁵' and ³' splice sites are fairly conserved and are related to the yeast and mammalian consensus sequences. Sequences related to the consensus UAC-UAAC sequence are present in each of the introns, which also contain polypyrimidine tracts; however, these tracts may be nonfunctional in such small introns. Generally, the C. neoformans GPA1 introns are similar to those of S. pombe.

G proteins are essential components of mating pathways in S. cerevisiae and S. pombe, where they are coupled to membrane-bound pheromone receptors $(7, 16, 27, 30, 41)$. The yeast G proteins act analogously to mammalian G proteins involved in such diverse signal transduction pathways as those that respond to light or hormones. When an extracellular pheromone binds to its cognate receptor in the cytoplasmic membrane, the receptor is believed to activate ^a G protein, which dissociates from the receptor into the α subunit bound to GTP and the $\beta\gamma$ dimer. In S. cerevisiae, the α subunit (encoded by $GPA1$) is a negative regulator while the $\beta\gamma$ dimer transmits the pheromone signal intracellularly. In contrast, in S. pombe, which has a single G α -protein gene, gpal, that α subunit appears to be a positive regulator of pheromone signal transduction and thus functions more like the mammalian $G\alpha$ subunits. S. pombe gpal is required for both mating and sporulation. The S. cerevisiae GPAI transcript is present in exponentially growing cells and is induced about threefold upon pheromone exposure. Similarly, exponentially growing haploid and diploid S. pombe cells contain the gpal transcript, which increases in abundance three- to fourfold in diploid cells that are nitrogen starved. Thus, for both of these yeasts, the $G\alpha$ gene transcription is induced under mating and sporulation conditions.

The mating physiology of C. neoformans is less well understood than that of S. cerevisiae or S. pombe. Some of the important basic features of cryptococcal cell mating have been determined (19). First, C. neoformans is a heterothallic yeast, apparently lacking the complex mating type switching mechanism found in S. cerevisiae (25). Mating of cryptococcal cells requires coincubation of α and a cells on a starvation medium with reduced carbon and nitrogen sources. Such conditions are somewhat like those required for mating of S. pombe cells, which must receive a pheromone signal, as well as be nitrogen starved, to allow mating (9). However, *S. pombe gpal* appears to be required for pheromone signal transduction but not for monitoring of nitrogen starvation (30). S. pombe pheromones have been identified along with a receptor (5, 11, 18, 22). The pheromone receptors are believed to be members of the serpentine class of receptors which are coupled to G proteins. It is presumed that the \overline{S} . pombe $G\alpha$ protein is coupled to these pheromone receptors analogously to the G-protein-pheromone receptor coupling in S. cerevisiae.

The level of the C. neoformans GPA1 transcript increased more than threefold in cells shifted to the starvation medium used for mating of a and α cells. The medium conditions necessary for mating vary among different yeasts. S. cerevisiae

cells need only be mixed together to allow exposure to the constitutively secreted pheromones to initiate mating, which occurs even on rich media. In contrast, S. pombe cells, which also constitutively synthesize pheromones, must be starved for nitrogen before mating can occur. Cryptococcal cells also must be incubated on starvation medium to allow mating. Furthermore, C. neoformans is also believed to have a pheromone gene, but it is not clear whether the pheromone is constitutively expressed. Thus, it may be necessary to incubate cryptococcal cells on starvation medium to induce pheromone synthesis and/or perhaps just to allow a response to pheromones analogous to the behavior of S. pombe cells. The presence of the GPAJ transcript in cells growing in rich medium and the increased level of that transcript in cells shifted to starvation medium are consistent with the latter possibility.

By analogy with the S. cerevisiae and S. pombe mating systems, it is likely that the cryptococcal $G\alpha$ protein functions during mating. Confirmation of this hypothesis requires the existence of mutations in the GPAJ gene. No such mutation exists, and it is not possible to make gene disruptions like those in other yeasts. We are currently testing the possibility of eliminating GPAJ expression by using antisense RNA.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank J. Edman for providing strains and plasmid DNA. We thank T. Kozel for helpful discussions and for instigating the use of C. neoformans as a research focus.

Portions of this work were supported by U.S. Public Health Service NCDDG-OI program cooperative agreement U01-AI-31696.

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