# RSRI, a ras-Like Gene Homologous to Krev-1 (smg21A/rap1A): Role in the Development of Cell Polarity and Interactions with the Ras Pathway in Saccharomyces cerevisiae

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The Saccharomyces cerevisiae ras-like gene RSR1 is particularly closely related to the mammalian gene Krev-1 (also known as smg21A and rap1A). RSR1 was originally isolated as a multicopy suppressor of a  $cd24$ mutation, which causes an inability to bud or establish cell polarity. Deletion of RSR1 itself does not affect growth but causes <sup>a</sup> randomization of bud position. We have now constructed mutant alleles of RSRI encoding proteins with substitutions of Val for Gly at position 12 (analogous to constitutively activated Ras proteins) or Asn for Lys at position 16 (analogous to a dominant-negative Ras protein). rsrl<sup>Val-12</sup> could not restore a normal budding pattern to an rsr1 deletion strain but could suppress a  $c\bar{d}c24$  mutation when overexpressed. rsr1<sup>Asn-16</sup> could randomize the budding pattern of a wild-type strain even in low copy number but was not lethal even in high copy number. These and other results suggest that Rsrlp functions only in bud site selection and not in subsequent events of polarity establishment and bud formation, that this function involves a cycling between GTP-bound and GDP-bound forms of the protein, and that the suppression of cdc24 involves direct interaction between Rsrlp[GTP] and Cdc24p. Functional homology between Rsrlp and Krev-1 p21 was suggested by the observations that expression of the latter protein in yeast cells could both suppress a cdc24 mutation and randomize the budding pattern of wild-type cells. As Krev-1 overexpression can suppress ras-induced transformation of mammalian cells, we looked for effects of RSR1 on the S. cerevisiae Ras pathway. Although no suppression of the activated RAS2<sup>var-19</sup> allele was observed, overexpression of *rsrl* <sup>var-12</sup> suppressed the lethality of strains lacking RAS gene function, apparently through a direct activation of adenylyl cyclase. This interaction of Rsrlp with the effector of Ras in S. cerevisiae suggests that Krev-1 may revert ras-induced transformation of mammalian cells by affecting the interaction of ras p21 with its effector.

Ras proteins are important regulators of cell proliferation and, when deregulated, can cause neoplastic transformation. They bind and hydrolyze GTP, working as molecular switches in transducing growth or differentiation signals (4, 19). The oncogenic transformation induced by activated K-ras can be suppressed by overexpression of another GTP-binding protein, the product of the Krev-1 gene (also known as smg21A and rap1A), whose sequence is  $\sim$ 53% identical to that of the K-ras product (31, 33, 42). This sequence similarity includes an exact conservation of the putative effector domain (amino acids 32 to 42 [4, 24, 51]). The mechanism by which Krev-1 suppresses ras-induced transformation is unclear and could involve either direct interference with the effector function(s) stimulated by ras p21 or activation of an alternative pathway that leads to growth inhibition. It has been reported that Krev-1 p21 binds tightly to ras GTPase-activating protein (GAP) in vitro (18,

24); although the GTPase activity of Krev-1 p21 is not activated by ras GAP, Krev-1 p21 acts effectively as a competitive inhibitor of the stimulation of ras GTPase activity by ras GAP (18). These observations suggest that Krev-1 antagonizes ras-induced transformation by sequestering ras GAP or some other protein(s) that is needed for Ras function.

Because of the extent of functional conservation between yeast and mammalian cells, Saccharomyces cerevisiae has been an invaluable tool in the analysis of Ras function. In this yeast, the  $RASI$  and  $RAS2$  gene products play a central role in growth control and function, at least in part, by stimulation of adenylyl cyclase (19, 60). The CDC25 and IRA gene products are involved in the regulation of Raslp and Ras2p activity. Cdc25p is a positive element that promotes formation of the active Ras-GTP complex, probably by acting as a nucleotide exchange factor (11, 16, 28, 34, 46). Iralp and Ira2p are negative elements that promote the formation of the Ras-GDP complex, probably by stimulating ras GTPase activity (54, 56-58). The Ira proteins share significant amino acid sequence similarity with mammalian ras GAP in its catalytic domain, and ras GAP can complement the loss of *IRA1* and *IRA2* (3, 57).

In the past few years, it has become clear that eukaryotic cells contain a large number of Ras-related proteins, which apparently serve a wide variety of roles in cell physiology (8, 9, 21). One recent addition to this Ras superfamily is the

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TABLE 1. S. cerevisiae strains

<b>Strain</b>	Genotype	Source or reference
Y308	$MAT\alpha$ ura3 leu2	Segregant from Y246 (5)
SY1229	MATa ura3 leu2 his3	6
Y301	$MAT\alpha$ rsrl::URA3 ura3 leu2 his3	
Y419	$MAT\alpha$ rsrl::ura3 ura3 leu2 his3	Y301 rendered Ura <sup>-</sup> by growth on 5- fluoroorotic acid
Y147	$MATa$ $cdc24-4$ $ura3$ $leu2$ his3	5
<b>TK161-R2V</b>	MATa RAS2 <sup>Val-19</sup> ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade8 can1	60
T50-3A	MATa cyrl-2 ura3 leu2 trp1 his3	29
<b>RS60-15B</b>	MATo RAS2Val-19.Ala-22 ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade2 ade8	Segregant from RS16-4C $\times$ STS13 (44)
<b>KMY208-3C</b>	MATa cdc25-1 ura3 leu2 trp1 ade2	Derived from strain 321 (23)
<b>TT1A-1</b>	$MATa$ cdc $25::URA3$ ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade8 $[pCDC25(TRPI)-1]$	11
<b>KMY401-4D</b>	MATa iral::LEU2 RAS2Val-19.Ala-22 ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade2 ade8	Derived by several crosses from RS60-15B and KT7 (56)
KT62-2D	$MAT\alpha$ ira2:: $HIS3$ ura3 leu2 trp1 his3	K. Tanaka; derived from KT27 (58)
RRY8-5B	$MAT\alpha$ iral::LEU2 RAS2 <sup>Val-19,Ala-22</sup> ura3 leu2 trpl his3 ade2	Segregant from KMY401-4D $\times$ KT62-2D
<b>RRY8-14B</b>	$MAT\alpha$ ira2::HIS3 RAS2 <sup>Val-19,Ala-22</sup> ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade2	Segregant from KMY401-4D $\times$ KT62-2D
<b>RRY8-4A</b>	MATa iral::LEU2 ira2::HIS3 RAS2Val-19.Ala-22 ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade8	Segregant from KMY401-4D $\times$ KT62-2D
<b>KMY45-2D</b>	MATa rasl:: URA3 ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade8	K. Matsumoto
<b>KMY401-5A</b>	MATa RAS2Val-19.Ala-22 ura3 leu2 trp1 lys2 ade2	As for KMY401-4D
<b>RRY5-29B</b>	MATa rasl:: URA3 RAS2Val-19.Ala-22 ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 lys2	Segregant from KMY45-2D $\times$ KMY401-5A
<b>KMY45-2A</b>	MATa rasl:: HIS3 ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade8	K. Matsumoto
$KNY46-4Bp$	$MAT\alpha$ ras2::URA3 ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade8 [YEp(rsr1 <sup>val12</sup> )]	Transformant of KMY46-4B (K. Matsumoto) with $YEp(rsr1val12)$
<b>RRY9-19B</b>	MATa ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade8	Segregant from KMY45-2A $\times$ KMY46-4Bp
<b>RRY9-2D</b>	MATa rasl:: HIS3 ras2:: URA3 ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade8 [YEp(rsr $1val 12$ )]	Segregant from KMY45-2A $\times$ KMY46-4Bp
<b>RRY9-26A</b>	MATa rasl:: HIS3 ras2:: URA3 ura3 leu2 trp1 his3 ade8 [YEp(rsr1 $val(12})$ ]	Segregant from KMY45-2A $\times$ KMY46-4Bp

product of the S. cerevisiae RSRJ gene, which was originally identified as a multicopy suppressor of a temperature-sensitive cdc24 mutation (5). The CDC24 product is involved in the morphogenetic events of the S. cerevisiae cell division cycle, including the selection of a nonrandom budding site and the subsequent polarization of secretion and localization of cell wall deposition to the bud (53). Deletion of RSRJ itself has no effect on growth rate but randomizes the selection of budding sites, suggesting that Rsrlp may be necessary for selection of the normal budding site but not for subsequent events in the establishment of cell polarity and bud formation  $(5, 15)$ . Among the members of the Ras superfamily, Rsrlp is most similar to the mammalian Krev-1 gene product, with which it shares 65% identity over the first 125 amino acids and 57% identity over the entire length (184 amino acids) of Krev-1 p21 (5), including a complete identity with the putative effector-binding domains of both ras p21 and Krev-1 p21.

In this report, we explore further the role of RSR1 in morphogenesis through the construction and analysis of mutant alleles designed to be analogous to ras alleles that result in constitutive activation or a dominant-negative effect. In addition, we characterize further the similarity of Rsrlp to Krev-1 p21. In this respect, we show that the two proteins share some functional homology and that overexpression of a mutant rsrl allele affects the yeast Rasmediated starvation response pathway by interacting with adenylyl cyclase, the Ras effector in this organism.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains, plasmids, and culture conditions. The S. cerevisiae strains used in this study are described in Table 1, and the plasmids used are described in Table 2. Yeast cells were grown on standard rich (YPD or YM-P), defined minimal (SD), defined complete (SC), or sporulation medium (35, 50) at various temperatures as noted below. Selective media for isolation of transformants and for determination of auxotrophic requirements were SC lacking the appropriate requirement.  $SD+His$  medium was SD containing 25  $\mu$ g of histidine per ml; SD+His+Sorb medium was SD+His containing <sup>1</sup> M sorbitol.

Recombinant DNA and genetic procedures. Except as noted, standard procedures were used for recombinant DNA manipulations, propagation of plasmids in Escherichia coli, yeast transformations, and yeast genetics (26, 48, 50). To create the rsrl  $\frac{1}{2}$  and rsrl<sup>Asn-16</sup> alleles, a 1.6-kb SacI-BgIII fragment containing all of  $RSRI$  (5) was inserted into SacI-BamHI-cut M13mpl9 (63) to create phage ABM5. Point mutations were then created in ABM5 by using synthetic oligonucleotides and the Bio-Rad (Richmond, Calif.) Muta-Gene kit. The oligonucleotides used were <sup>5</sup>'-G GGT GCT GTT GGT GTC G-3', which should change RSRI codon 12 (GGT, Gly) to GTT (Val), and 5'-GTC GGT AAT TCC TGC TT-3', which should change RSRJ codon 16 (AAA, Lys) to AAT (Asn). By using DNA sequencing (49), two independent DNAs containing each of the mutations were identified.

Plasmid	Characteristics	Source or reference
YCp50	URA3, ARS1, CEN4 (low copy number)	47
YEp13	LEU2, $2\mu m$ ARS <sup>a</sup> (high copy number)	10
pSL113	$LEU2$ , $2\mu$ m ARS (rearrangement of YEp13; high copy number)	5
YEp24	$URA3$ , 2 $\mu$ m ARS (high copy number)	7
pKT10	$URA3$ , $2\mu$ m ARS, $TDH3$ (glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase) promoter (high copy number)	K. Tanaka (25, 38, 55)
pPB117	RSRI in YEp24	Original isolate from $YEp24$ library $(5)$
YCp(RSR1)	RSRI in YCp50	This study (see text)
YEp(RSR1)	RSRI in pSL113	This study (see text)
YCp(rsr1 <sup>val12</sup> )	rsrl <sup>Val-12</sup> in YCp50	This study (see text)
YEp(rsr1 <sup>val12</sup> )	rsrl <sup>Val-12</sup> in pSL113	This study (see text)
pPB410	rsrl <sup>Val-12</sup> in YEp24	This study (see text)
$YCp(rsr1^{asn16})$	rsrl <sup>Asn-16</sup> in YCp50	This study (see text)
$YEp(rsr1^{asn16})$	rsr1Asn-16 in pSL113	This study (see text)
pKTsmg21A	EcoRI fragment containing bovine $smg2IA$ cDNA (31) inserted at the EcoRI site of pKT10 (and hence under control of the TDH3 promoter)	This study
pKTCsmg21	As for pKTsmg21A, except that most smg21A 3' noncoding sequences (everything 3' to the $Bg/I$ site [31]) have been deleted	This study
YCpADH-RASI	YCp50 containing RAS1 fused to the ADH1 (alcohol dehydrogenase) promoter	20, 37
YCpADH-RAS2	YCp50 containing RAS2 fused to the ADH1 promoter	20, 37
YCpADH-RAS2[Ala-18, Val-19]	YCp50 containing $RAS2^{Ala-18,Val-19}$ fused to the <i>ADH1</i> promoter	37
AAH5-Ha-ras	LEU2, $2\mu$ m ARS, wild-type human ras gene fused to the ADHI promoter (high copy number)	17, 20, 37
AAH5-Ha[Val-12, Thr-59]-ras	Like AAH5-HA-ras except mutant human ras gene	20, 37, 52
YEpRAS2-1	$RAS2, LEU2, 2\mu m ARS$ (high copy number)	43
pRAS2val19	RAS2 <sup>Val-19</sup> , <i>LEU2</i> , 2 $\mu$ m ARS (high copy number)	11
YEpRHOI	RHOI, URA3, $2\mu$ m ARS (high copy number)	pWT of reference 36
$pCDC25$ (TRP1)-1	CDC25, TRP1, ARS1	11
YCpN1	TRPI, ARSI, CEN3 (low copy number)	41
YCpRAS2val19	RAS2 <sup>Val-19</sup> , URA3, TRP1, ARS1, CEN4 (low copy number)	K. Tanaka
YEpTPKI	$TPK1$ , $LEU2$ , $2\mu m$ ARS (high copy number)	59

TABLE 2. Plasmids

<sup>a</sup> ARS, autonomously replicating sequence.

The mutant alleles were then cloned into YCp50, pSL113, and YEp24 by cutting the mutated ABM5 with BglII (0.55 kb away from the polylinker) and with  $Sall$  (in the polylinker) and in erting the resulting fragments into BamHI-SalI-cut YCp50, pSL113, or YEp24. Plasmid YCp(RSR1) was constructed similarly, using YCp50 and nonmutagenized ABM5. To construct plasmid YEp(RSR1), nonmutagenized ABM5 was cut with BglII and HindIII (in the polylinker), and the resulting fragment was inserted into BamHI-HindIII-cut pSL113.

Morphological observations. To visualize bud scars, cells were stained with Calcofluor and observed by fluorescence microscopy as described previously (45).

cAMP assay. Glucose-induced cyclic AMP (cAMP) formation was determined in stationary-phase cells as described previously (40), using the cAMP determination kit (Amersham, Arlington Heights, Ill.).

### RESULTS

Functional characterization of rsrl mutants. Rsrlp appears to be necessary for the normal selection of nonrandom budding sites but not for subsequent essential events in polarity establishment and bud formation (see the introduction). However, it is also possible that the nonlethality of the rsrl deletion reflects functional redundancy of Rsrlp. To investigate this possibility and to explore further the role of Rsrlp in bud site selection, we used oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis to create two *rsrl* alleles that we thought might have dominant-negative effects. In one mutant, glycine 12 was replaced by valine, producing a mutant Rsrlp analogous to the constitutively activated products of the human ras  $\frac{var12}{2}$  and S. cerevisiae RAS2 $\frac{var12}{2}$  alleles (4, 30). In the second mutant, lysine 16 was replaced by asparagine, producing a mutant Rsr1p analogous to Ha-ras  $p2\tilde{1}^{Asn-16}$ , a protein that binds guanine nucleotides  $\sim$ 100-fold less well than does the wild type and has dominant-lethal effects when expressed in yeast cells (52).

When either mutant allele was introduced into the rsrl deletion strain Y419 (Table 1) on a low-copy-number plasmid  $[YCp(rsr1<sup>val12</sup>)$  or  $YCp(rsr1<sup>asn16</sup>)$ ; Table 2], the transformants grew well but still displayed the randomized budding pattern characteristic of strains lacking Rsrlp (Fig. 1C and data not shown). In contrast, Y419 cells harboring a similar plasmid containing the wild-type  $RSRI$  gene  $[YCp(RSR1)]$ displayed the normal unipolar budding pattern of haploid cells (Fig. 1A and B). When  $YCp(rsr1<sup>val12</sup>)$  or  $YCp(rsr1<sup>asn16</sup>)$ was introduced into the wild-type strain Y308, the transformants appeared to grow normally but displayed a randomized budding pattern (Fig. 1D and E); transformation of Y308 with YCp(RSR1) or YEp(RSR1) produced no such effect (data not shown). Introduction of either mutant allele at high copy number [strain Y301 transformed with plasmid YEp(rsrl<sup>val12</sup>) or strain SY1229 transformed with plasmid  $YEp(rsr1^{asn16})$ ] produced essentially the same phenotype: the cells grew well at 12, 30, and 37°C, but the budding pattern was randomized. These results indicate that neither



FIG. 1. Budding patterns in cells of different genotypes. Cells were grown at 23°C and observed by fluorescence microscopy after staining with Calcofluor. (A) Wild-type strain Y308 harboring control plasmid pKT10; (B) rsrl deletion strain Y419 harboring plasmid  $YCp(RSR1)$ ; (C) strain Y419 harboring plasmid  $YCp(rsr1<sup>var12</sup>)$ ; (D) strain Y308 harboring plasmid YCp(rsr1val12); (E) strain Y308 harboring plasmid YCp(rsr1<sup>asn16</sup>); (F) strain Y308 harboring plasmid pKTCsmg21. Strains and plasmids are described in Tables 1 and 2.

 $rsrI<sup>Val-12</sup>$  nor  $rsrI<sup>Asn-16</sup>$  can supply Rsr1p function for normal bud site selection; indeed, the mutant proteins interfere with the function of the normal Rsrlp. Although this interference is observed even at low copy numbers, there is no pronounced effect on viability or growth rate even when the

mutant alleles are present at high copy numbers.<br>We also tested the ability of  $rsr1^{\text{Val-12}}$  and  $rsr1^{\text{Asn-16}}$  to suppress a cdc24(Ts) mutation. When introduced into strain Y147, plasmid YEp(rsr1 $\text{val12}$ ) or pPB410 produced effective suppression (Fig. 2 and data not shown). In contrast, YCp(rsr1<sup>val12</sup>), YCp(rsr1<sup>asn16</sup>), and YEp(rsr1<sup>asn16</sup>) all failed to suppress effectively when introduced into the same strain (data not shown). Indeed,  $rsr1^{Asn-16}$  interfered with the suppression of *cdc24* by *RSR1*; that is, Y147 cells containing both YEp(rsrl<sup>asn16</sup>) and pPB117 failed to grow at 35°C even in the presence of 1 M sorbitol (Fig. 2). In contrast,  $rsr1^{Asn-16}$ did not interfere with the suppression of  $cdc24$  by rsrl<sup>VaI-12</sup>: Y147 cells containing both  $YEp(rsr1^{asn16})$  and pPB410 could grow at  $35^{\circ}$ C (Fig. 2).

Functional homology of RSR1 and K-rev-1. To determine whether the similarity in amino acid sequence between Rsrlp and Krev-1 p21 is associated with functional homology, we first examined whether expression of Krev-1 p21 in yeast cells could suppress the randomized budding pattern of the rsrl deletion strain. Transformation of strain Y419 with plasmid pKTsmg2lA produced no detectable correction of the abnormal budding pattern (data not shown), indicating that Krev-1 p21 cannot supply normal Rsrlp function. However, introduction of pKTsmg2lA or the related plasmid pKTCsmg2lA into the wild-type strain Y308 produced a randomization of the budding pattern (Fig. 1F and data not shown). This is not a general effect of overexpressing



FIG. 2. Suppression of temperature sensitivity in a cdc24 strain by wild-type and mutant RSRJ. Strain Y147 was transformed with pSL113 or with YEp(rsr1<sup>asn16</sup>). Each of the two resulting strains was transformed with pPB117 or with pPB410. For each of the four resulting strains, two independent transformants were grown to saturation in SD+His at 23°C, diluted 1:10 with SD, and spotted onto duplicate SD+His+Sorb plates. One plate was incubated at 23°C for 3 days, while the other was incubated at 35°C for 2 days. The plasmids present are (1) pPB117 and pSL113, (2) pPB410 and pSL113, (3) pPB117 and YEp(rsrl<sup>asnio</sup>) and (4) pPB410 and YEp(rsrl<sup>asmio</sup>). Plasmids are described in Table 2.

ras-like genes in yeast cells, as no such effect was seen when Y308 was transformed with plasmid YCpADH-RASJ, YCpADH-RAS2, or YCpADH-RAS2[Ala-18, Val-19], while only a slight effect on budding pattern (occasional cells showing apparent bipolar budding) was seen with plasmid AAH5-Ha-ras. These results suggest that Krev-1 p21 can interact with at least some of the proteins with which Rsrlp normally interacts in the pathway that determines bud position.

This conclusion was supported by the ability of Krev-1 to suppress a  $cdc24$ (Ts) mutation. As in the case of RSRI itself, the suppression was effective on YPD medium at 35°C (Fig. 3A) but not at 37°C (Fig. 3B). As with the effect on bud position, this effect of Krev-1 was not a general property of ras-like genes, as plasmids YCpADH-RASJ, YCpADH-RAS2, YCpADH-RAS2[Ala-18, Val-19], YEpRAS2-1, pRAS2<sup>vans</sup>, AAH5-Ha-ras, AAH5-Ha[Val-12,Thr-59]-ras, and YEpRHOI had little or no effect on the temperature sensitivity of the cdc24 strain.

Suppression by RSRI of mutations that inactivate the yeast Ras pathway. Overexpression of Krev-1 can suppress trans-



FIG. 3. Suppression of temperature sensitivity in a cdc24 strain by Krev-1. Strain Y147 was transformed with various plasmids, and cells were patched onto YPD medium in duplicate and grown for <sup>3</sup> days at 35°C (A) or 37°C (B). Plasmids tested were (1) YEp24, (2) pPB117, (3) pKT10, and (4) pKTsmg2lA. Plasmids are described in Table 2.



FIG. 4. Suppression of mutations of the Ras pathway by RSR1 and  $rsr1<sup>VaI-12</sup>$ . Strains T50-3A [cyrl(Ts); row 1], RS60-15B  $[RAS2(Ts); row 2], and KMY208-3C$   $[cdc25(Ts); row 3]$  were transformed with plasmids YEp13 (A), YEp(RSR1) (B), and  $YEp(rsr1<sup>var12</sup>)$  (C) and tested for growth at 35°C as described in the legend to Fig. 3. Strain T50-3A was transformed only with plasmid  $Y$ Ep(rsr $1^{max}$ ).

formation caused by activated ras alleles in mammalian cells. As RSRI seems to have at least some functional homology to Krev-1, we tested whether overexpression of RSRI could suppress the phenotypes caused by the activated  $RAS2<sup>Val-19</sup>$  allele, such as sensitivity to heat shock and nitrogen starvation, failure to arrest in the  $G_1$  phase of the cell cycle, and failure to sporulate (30, 60). However, neither plasmid YEp(RSR1) nor plasmid YEp(rsr1<sup>van2</sup>) was able to suppress the phenotypes due to  $RAS2<sup>Val-19</sup>$  when introduced into strain TK161-R2V (data not shown). On the other hand, overexpression of RSRJ did suppress a cdc25(Ts) mutation, which causes a defect in the activation of Ras at high temperatures (Fig. 4A and B, row 3). To test whether RSRJ could suppress a complete loss of CDC25 function, we introduced plasmid YEp(RSR1) into cdc25:: URA3 cells that carried the wild-type CDC25 gene on a TRPI-containing plasmid (strain TT1A-1; Table 1). We then examined whether the RSRI plasmid could confer viability to these cells in the absence of the CDC25 plasmid. However, when growth in rich medium was followed by replica plating to selective media, no Leu<sup>+</sup> Trp<sup>-</sup> colonies were observed, indicating that overexpression of RSRI could not suppress a deletion of CDC25. Overexpression of RSR1 also failed to suppress a RAS2(Ts) allele (Fig. 4B, row 2), which is a dominant-negative allele believed to sequester Cdc25p while being unable to activate adenylyl cyclase at the restrictive temperature (44). However, overexpression of the  $rsrV^{a1-12}$ allele caused a stronger effect: plasmid YEp(rsrl<sup>val12</sup>) could suppress the growth defects not only of the cdc25(Ts) mutation (Fig. 4C, row 3) but also of the cdc25 deletion mutation (data not shown) and of the RAS2(Ts) mutation (Fig. 4C, row 2). However, YEp(rsr1val12) could not suppress the adenylyl cyclase-defective cyrl(Ts) mutation (Fig. 4C, row 1), suggesting that the effect of Rsrlp on the Ras pathway is at or upstream of the activation of this enzyme.

One possible explanation for the suppression of Ras pathway mutations by RSRI and rsrl<sup>Val-12</sup> is that Rsr1p may bind to and sequester the Ira proteins, thus allowing the Ras proteins to accumulate in their active GTP-bound state and bypassing the requirement for Cdc25p (Fig. 5A). In accord with this model, we found that the growth defect of the  $RAS2(Ts)$  mutant, like that of a  $cdc25$  mutant (56), could be suppressed by disruption of both IRA genes (Table 3). Another possibility is that Rsrlp may directly activate adenylyl cyclase in the place of the Ras proteins (Fig. SB). In



FIG. 5. Models for suppression of a  $cdc25$  defect by  $rsr1^{\text{Val-12}}$ . Solid boxes and arrows indicate active proteins and processes; hatched boxes and arrows indicate defective proteins and processes. See text for additional explanation. Similar models could be considered for the suppression of  $RAS2(Ts)$  by  $rsr1<sup>var12</sup>$ ; suppression through interaction with the Ira proteins (A) would be mediated by Raslp.

accord with this model, the growth defect of rasl RAS2(Ts) cells was also suppressed by the  $rsrI<sup>Val-12</sup>$  plasmid (Table 3).

To investigate the second model further, we tested whether *rsrl*<sup>val-12</sup> could suppress the lethality caused by a complete lack of both RAS genes; such suppression would be expected only under the second model (Fig. 5). A rasl strain (KMY45-2A) was crossed to a ras2 strain carrying  $r s r l^{\text{Val-12}}$  on a high-copy-number plasmid (KMY46-4Bp), and the haploid progeny obtained by tetrad analysis were analyzed for the genetic markers corresponding to the ras mutations and to the plasmid. Table 4 shows that the segregants predicted by meiotic recombination were obtained and that, as expected, spores carrying both ras mutations were mostly nonviable. The only viable *rasl ras2* segregants observed carried the *rsrl* <sup>vai-12</sup> plasmid. To confirm that growth was indeed dependent on the  $rsr1<sup>Val-12</sup>$ plasmid, we transformed these segregants either with the TRPJ-containing control plasmid YCpN1 or with the TRPIcontaining plasmid  $YCPRAS2<sup>var19</sup>$  and tested the ability of

TABLE 3. Suppression of RAS2(Ts) by ira mutations or by rsrl<sup>val-12</sup> overexpression<sup>a</sup>

Strain	Relevant genotype	Growth at 37°C
RRY8-5B	<i>iral RAS2(Ts)</i>	
<b>RRY8-14B</b>	ira2 RAS2(Ts)	
<b>RRY8-4A</b>	<i>iral ira2 RAS2(Ts)</i>	
<b>RRY5-29B</b>	rasl RAS2(Ts) [YEp(rsr1 <sup>Val12</sup> )]	

" The strains used are described in Table 1. Suppression of the  $RAS2(Ts)$ temperature-sensitive growth phenotype was tested by streaking cells on both rich and selective media and incubating them for <sup>3</sup> days at 37C.

TABLE 4. Rescue of rasl ras2 mutants by  $YEp(rsr1<sup>val12</sup>)<sup>a</sup>$ 

	No. of spores		
Genotype	Viable	Nonviable	
<b>RASI RAS2</b>			
rasl RAS2	22	0	
RASI ras2	22	0	
rasl ras2	O		
rasl ras2 [YEp(rsr1val12]			

<sup>a</sup> Strains KMY45-2A and KMY46-4Bp (Table 1) were crossed, and <sup>15</sup> tetrads containing three or four viable spores were analyzed. The genotypes of viable spores were assigned by scoring the selectable markers associated with the gene disruptions or with the plasmid; the genotypes of nonviable spores with inferred from the genotypes of their sister segregants. The presence or absence of plasmid is indicated only for the rasl ras2 segregants.

the transformants to segregate the plasmids upon growth in rich medium. With the transformants carrying the control plasmid in addition to the rsrl<sup>VaI-12</sup> plasmid, we found no Leu<sup>-</sup> segregants although Trp<sup>-</sup> segregants were obtained in the expected frequency (Table 5). In contrast, when the  $RAS2^{\text{Val-19}}$  plasmid was present in addition to the rsrl<sup>VaI-12</sup> plasmid, Leu<sup>-</sup> as well as Trp<sup>-</sup> segregants were observed (Table 5). However, no Leu<sup>-</sup> Trp<sup>-</sup> clones were obtained. Thus, the cells could segregate either the rsrI<sup>Van-12</sup> plasmid or the  $RAS2<sup>van-19</sup>$  plasmid, but not both, indicating that the viability of *rasl ras2* cells was indeed supported by the rsrI<sup>val-12</sup> plasmid.

A similar experiment showed that wild-type RSRJ did not suffice for suppression of the *rasl ras2* double mutation. When RRY9-2D in which  $YCPRAS2<sup>val19</sup>$  had been substituted for  $YEp(rsr1<sup>val12</sup>)$  (see above and Table 5) was transformed with YEp(RSR1) and grown on rich medium, Leusegregants but no Trp<sup>-</sup> segregants were observed (data not shown).

Stimulation of adenylyl cyclase by  $rsr1^{\text{Val-12}}$ . To confirm that  $rsrI<sup>Val-12</sup>$  has a direct effect on the adenylyl cyclase complex, we tested the ability of the rasl ras2 cells carrying the rsrl<sup>Val-12</sup> plasmid to produce cAMP. In two steps of plasmid swapping like that of Table 5, the rsrl value plasmid of strain RRY9-2D was replaced first by YCpRAS2<sup>val19</sup> and then by YEpTPKI, which carries gene TPKI (encoding one isoform of the catalytic subunit of cAMP-dependent protein kinase). Overexpression of TPKI is known to support growth of cells lacking both RAS genes by activating events downstream of the cAMP formation step (13, 59). As reported previously (56), cAMP was not detectable in such downstream-activated cells (Fig. 6B). In contrast, rsr1<sup>Val-12</sup> conferred on these cells the ability to produce cAMP to levels about half those of wild-type cells (Fig. 6). Thus,  $rsrI<sup>Val-12</sup>$  can support the growth of rasl ras2 cells by directly stimulating the adenylyl cyclase complex and thereby bypassing the normal requirement for the Ras proteins.

#### DISCUSSION

Roles of Rsrlp and related proteins in cellular morphogenesis. Analysis of the *rsrl*<sup>val-12</sup> and *rsrl*<sup>Asn-16</sup> mutants has provided some significant insights into the normal roles of Rsrlp and functionally related proteins. First, the observation that a wild-type strain harboring a low-copy-number  $rsrI<sup>Asn-16</sup>$  plasmid shows the same phenotype (random budding pattern) as an rsrl deletion strain indicates that the  $rsrI<sup>Asn-16</sup>$  allele encodes a dominant interfering protein, as

TABLE 5. Dependence of rasl ras2 mutants on either  $rsr1<sup>Va1-12</sup>$ or  $RAS2<sup>Va1-19</sup>$  for viability<sup>*a*</sup>

Strain	Additional plasmid	Proportion of colonies that were:	
		$Leu^-$	$Trp^-$
RRY9-2D	YCpN1	0/300	60/300
	YCpRAS2val19	76/370	54/370
RRY9-26A	YCpN1	0/400	80/400
	YCpRAS2val19	146/277	13/277

" Two rasl ras2 [YEp(rsrlval12)] segregants from the cross of KMY45-2A to KMY46-4Bp (Tables <sup>1</sup> and 4) were transformed with the additional plasmids indicated (Table 2), grown for several generations in YPD medium at 25°C, and tested by replica plating for the loss of YEp(rsrl<sup>val12</sup>) (Leu<sup>-</sup> colonies) or of the additional plasmid  $(Trp -$  colonies).

expected. More important, the viability of this strain, and even of a strain harboring *rsrl*<sup>ASn-16</sup> on a high-copy-number plasmid, suggests that the nonlethality of the rsrl deletion cannot be explained simply by functional redundancy of RSRI; if this were the case, the dominant interfering protein would presumably be lethal. In other words, RSRI appears to function only in bud site selection, not in the subsequent essential steps of polarity establishment and bud formation. This role contrasts with those of CDC24 and CDC42. Mutation (CDC24) or overexpression (CDC42) of these genes can also randomize bud position (27, 53), but a loss of either gene product leads to a lethal inability to establish cell polarity (1, 23, 27, 53). One attractive model is that Rsrlp is one of a set of proteins (14, 15) that communicates the positional information for normal bud site selection to a second set of proteins that includes Cdc24p and Cdc42p; these latter proteins would then direct the formation of the polarized cytoskeletal assemblies necessary for bud formation. In the absence of the normal positional information, the Cdc24p/ Cdc42p set of proteins would simply direct cytoskeletal assembly to a random site on the cell surface.

Second, the observation that an  $rsrI<sup>Val-12</sup>$  plasmid does not correct the random budding pattern of an rsrl deletion strain suggests that the normal function of Rsrlp depends on a cycling between GTP-bound and GDP-bound states and not simply on having a sufficient fraction of the protein in an active (GTP-bound) conformation. The observation that  $r s r l^{\text{Val-12}}$  plasmids can interfere with bud site selection even in a wild-type strain further supports this view. In this respect, Rsrlp appears to resemble GTP-binding proteins involved in vectorial processes (8, 9), such as Sec4p and Yptlp, more than it does Ras proteins. One plausible model is that the switch from the GDP-bound to the GTP-bound form might signal the successful completion of one stage (and/or readiness for the next stage) in the assembly of a prebudding protein complex at the prospective budding site.

Finally, the observation that a high-copy-number rsrl  $\frac{var_{12}}{var_{22}}$  plasmid suppresses the lethal  $cdc24$  mutation sheds some light on the relationship between Rsrlp and Cdc24p. As  $R\$ STip<sup>Val-12</sup> appears not to have normal  $R\$ STip function (see above), it does not appear that this suppression can be explained by the hypothesis that a constitutive activation of Rsrlp bypasses the need for Cdc24p function (as might be the case if Rsrlp functioned downstream of, or was activated by, Cdc24p). This conclusion is supported by the observation that high-copy-number rsrl actually suppresses less well than does high-copy-number RSRJ (data not shown). A plausible alternative hypothesis is that the suppression of cdc24 results from the increased amount of Rsrlp



Time (min)

FIG. 6. Restoration of cAMP levels in rasl ras2 double mutants by rsrl<sup>Val-12</sup>. Cells of strain RRY9-2D (Table 1) were grown to stationary phase in YPD liquid medium at 25°C. One aliquot of this culture was then plated on YPD medium; when colonies appeared, they were replica plated onto selective media to confirm the dependency of growth on the  $rsrV^{a1-12}$  plasmid. A second aliquot of the same culture was washed twice with water and then incubated for 2 h at 25°C in a buffer containing 10 mM morpholine ethanesulfonic acid (pH 6.5) and 0.1 mM EDTA. Glucose was then added to a final concentration of 25 mM, and after various periods of time 0.5-ml aliquots were transferred to 0.5 ml of 10% (wt/vol) trichloroacetic acid. The cAMP contents were then measured as described in Materials and Methods. The data shown (B; El) are from a single analysis but are representative of results obtained in repeated experiments with RRY9-2D as well as with strain RRY9-26A (Table 1). Similar experiments were performed with the congenic wild-type strain RRY9-19B (Table 1) (A) and with a derivative of RRY9-2D in which the rsrl<sup>Val-12</sup> plasmid had been replaced by the TPKI-containing plasmid YEpTPKI (see text and Table 2) (B;  $\blacktriangle$ ).

(either wild type or the Vall2 form) stabilizing an enfeebled Cdc24p by direct protein-protein interaction. This hypothesis is consistent with the observation that suppression of cdc24 by either RSRI or  $rsr1<sup>var12</sup>$  is dosage dependent: low-copy-number RSRJ plasmids suppress less well than do high-copy-number RSRI plasmids (4a, 5), and low-copynumber  $rsrI<sup>Val-12</sup>$  plasmids suppress little or not at all (see Results). Such an interaction between Rsrlp and Cdc24p could, of course, be a component of the mechanism for communicating positional information, as suggested above. Perhaps it is the complex of Cdc24p and the GTP-bound form of Rsr1p (as presumably represented by  $Rsr1p<sup>Va1-12</sup>$ ) that normally participates in the next stage in the assembly of the prebudding complex; with wild-type Rsrlp, the Cdc24p-Rsrlp[GTP] complex would form only at the proper site. In this regard, it is also of interest that  $rsr1^{Asn-16}$  cannot suppress the  $cdc24$  mutation. It seems likely that Rsr1p<sup>Asn-16</sup> is unable to interact with Cdc24p (thus explaining its inability to suppress) but can still compete with Rsrlp for binding to other elements of the position-signalling apparatus (thus explaining its dominant effect on budding pattern). The ability of  $\sqrt{r}$ srl<sup>Asn-16</sup> to interfere with the suppression of cdc24 by RSRI could be explained if this competition prevents Rsrlp from being switched to the GTP-bound form and if only Rsrlp[GTP] is competent to interact with Cdc24p. The observation that *rsrl*<sup>Asn-10</sup> cannot interfere with the suppression of  $cdc24$  by  $rsr1<sup>var12</sup>$  is consistent with this interpretation.

Functional homology between Rsrlp and Krev-1 p21. Two lines of evidence suggest that the structural similarity between Rsrlp and Krev-1 p21 is reflected in a functional homology. First, expression of Krev-1 in yeast cells can randomize the budding pattern of wild-type cells, presumably by interacting with one or more normal components of the machinery for bud site selection and thus interfering with this process. Second, expression of Krev-1 p21 can suppress a cdc24 mutation. Although overexpression of the GTPbinding protein Cdc42p can also both randomize bud position  $(27)$  and suppress a  $cdc24$  mutation  $(5)$ , such effects are

not generic consequences of overexpressing Ras-like proteins in yeast cells, as no similar effects were observed with plasmids containing a variety of other ras-like genes (see Results).

The two effects noted for Krev-1 expression in yeast cells might actually have a common basis; that is, binding of Krev-1 p21 to Cdc24p (stabilizing the mutant Cdc24p and potentiating subsequent steps in the assembly of the prebudding complex) might occur without reference to the positional signals that would normally be necessary (perhaps by promoting the exchange of GTP for GDP) for the binding of Rsrlp to Cdc24p. Such an effect would be enhanced if Krev-1 p21 were not subject to control by the (putative) Rsrlp GAP. This would cause the mammalian protein to accumulate in its GTP-bound state and thus behave more like Rsr1p<sup>VaI-12</sup> than like wild-type Rsr1p. Such a lack of control would be similar to the inability of yeast Ras GAP (the products of the IRA genes) to affect the intrinsic GTPase activity of mammalian Ha-ras p21 (54, 57). Regardless of the detailed interpretation, the observations cited do appear to indicate a functional homology between Rsrlp and Krev-1 p21.

Mechanism of Krev-1 reversal of ras-induced transformation. Given the apparent functional homology between Rsrlp and Krev-1 p21, we examined whether Rsrlp could interact with the Ras pathway in S. *cerevisiae*. Although no suppression of the activated  $RAS2<sup>var-19</sup>$  allele was observed, overexpression of rsrl<sup>val-12</sup> could suppress various mutations that inactivate the Ras pathway. The observation that  $rsrI<sup>Val-12</sup>$  was more effective in this suppression than was RSRI parallels the observation that in mammalian cells, the tumor suppression activity of Krev-1 is potentiated by substitution of Val for Gly at position 12 (32), a modification analogous to that in  $\text{Rsrlp}^{\text{var12}}$ . The  $cyr/(Ts)$  defect was not suppressed by *rsrl*<sup>val-12</sup>, indicating that the suppression involved a direct effect on the Ras pathway rather than an activation of an independent growth-stimulating pathway. Indeed, the stimulation of cAMP formation in the absence of the Ras proteins showed that Rsrlp can directly activate the

adenylyl cyclase complex. In addition, the suppression of the RAS2(Ts) mutation by elimination of both Ira proteins raises the possibility that Rsrlp might also affect the Ras pathway by interacting with and blocking the action of the Ira proteins. Such an interaction would not be surprising given the exact conservation between Rsrlp and the Ras proteins of the "effector domain", which is believed to be the site of interaction between ras p21 and ras GAP in mammalian cells (2, 12). However, as yet we have no experimental evidence that bears on this possibility.

The ability of  $Rsr1p<sup>Va1-12</sup>$  to stimulate adenylyl cyclase, the Ras effector in S. cerevisiae, suggests that Krev-1 may suppress ras-induced transformation in mammalian cells by competing with ras p21 for an effector. This effector might or might not be ras GAP (22, 39, 61), which has been reported to bind tightly to Krev-1 p21 in vitro (18, 24). It is interesting that Krev-1 can suppress the effects of ras activation in mammalian cells, whereas in yeast cells it is a loss of Ras pathway function that is suppressed by RSR1 (or  $rsr1<sup>Val-12</sup>$ ). This difference appears similar to that observed in a recent study of the expression of Krev-1 in S. cerevisiae and Schizosaccharomyces pombe (62). In S. cerevisiae, Krev-1 was observed to interfere with RAS2 function, whereas in S. pombe, Krev-1 p21 could stimulate some of the Ras effectors. Taken together, these results suggest that a variety of cross-pathway effects involving closely related members of the Ras family are possible. However, the precise direction of these effects is difficult to predict in individual cases. In particular, the interaction with Ras effectors may sometimes be stimulatory and sometimes inhibitory. Presumably, detailed comparative studies of the effector-binding domains of the various proteins will eventually rationalize these differences.

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