Specific Saccharomyces cerevisiae Genes Are Expressed in Response to DNA-Damaging Agents

STEPHANIE W. RUBY^{+*} AND JACK W. SZOSTAK⁺

Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, and Department of Biological Chemistry, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts 02115

Received 11 June 1984/Accepted 25 September 1984

When exposed to DNA-damaging agents, the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae induces the expression of at least six specific genes. We have previously identified one damage inducible (DIN) gene as a gene fusion $(din-lacZ)$ fusion) whose expression increases in response to DNA-damaging treatments. We describe here the identification of five additional DIN genes as din-lacZ fusions and the responses of all six DIN genes to DNA-damaging agents. Northern blot analyses of the transcripts of two of the DIN genes show that their levels increase after exposure to DNA-damaging agents. Five of the din-lacZ fusions are induced in S. cerevisiae cells exposed to UV light, gamma rays, methotrexate, or alkylating agents. One of the *din-lacZ* fusions is induced by either UV or methotrexate but not by the other agents. This finding suggests that there are sets of DIN genes that are regulated differently.

Procaryotic and eucaryotic cells respond to the stresses caused by DNA damage or inhibited DNA replication in numerous ways. In Escherichia coli three inducible systems have been characterized: the SOS response, which is quickly activated after exposure to many DNA-damaging agents and replication inhibitors (53); the adaptive response to alkylation, which is elicited by certain alkylating agents (6, 43); and the adaptive response to oxidative damage such as that caused by hydrogen peroxide (12).

The SOS response involves a number of diverse functions including increased recombination and DNA repair, enhanced mutagenesis, recA protein synthesis, prophage induction, Weigle reactivation of irradiated phage, colicin production, and filamentation. At least 17 genes, some of which have been identified with specific functions, are induced during this response. These genes are coordinately regulated by the recA and lexA gene products (28, 52). The two adaptive responses result in decreased lethality caused by particular types of DNA damage. They appear to operate independently of the SOS response as they are neither under the control of the lexA and recA genes nor induced by many SOS-inducing agents. The adaptive response to alkylating agents also leads to decreases in mutagenesis by such agents as ethyl methane sulfonate (EMS) or N-methyl-N'-nitro-Nnitrosoguanidine (MNNG) (27). Although these three responses seem to be distinct, there may be some interaction among them as evidenced by the fact that at least two SOS genes are induced by MNNG (2, 39).

Analogous inducible responses to DNA-damaging agents may be present in both lower and higher eucaryotes. The existence of an inducible DNA repair system in Neurospora crassa is suggested by the finding that cells exposed to sublethal doses of UV, X ray, or nitrous acid have an enhanced ability to rescue lethally irradiated cells when fused into a heterokaryon after treatment (49). Baker (3) used a dimer specific endonuclease assay to demonstrate

both constitutive and inducible components of excision repair in N. crassa. An inducible component of UV-damage repair in Saccharomyces cerevisiae is detectable in splitdose experiments (13, 46). In both Ustilago maydis (24) and S. cerevisiae (5) the inhibition of protein synthesis by cycloheximide immediately after gamma irradiation blocks the repair of double-strand breaks and decreases cell survival. An inducible pathway of recombination would explain the increased frequency of intragenic recombination in unirradiated diploid yeast cells after mating with X-irradiated haploids (14). This induction of recombination in the unirradiated nucleus is seen even when nuclear fusion is blocked.

A large number of genes in S. cerevisiae are involved in repair, recombination, or both (16, 26). Most of these genes have been identified and studied by the isolation and characterization of mutants defective in repair, recombination, or both. These mutants often have increased sensitivity to radiation, DNA-damaging chemicals, or both. Some of the genes have been assigned to one of three epistasis groups that are named for one locus in each group; RAD3, RAD6, and RAD52. Genes of the RAD3 group are primarily involved with pyrimidine dimer excision, whereas genes of the RAD52 group are required for double-strand break repair. Mutations in genes of the RAD6 group are pleiotropic; for example, mutations in rad6 lead to decreased mutagenesis, increased spontaneous recombination, and defective sporulation.

The presence of damage-inducible functions and the existence of recombination and repair mutants suggests that yeasts, like E. coli, have many coordinately regulated DNAdamage-inducible genes. We have described previously ^a method for cloning regulated yeast genes (42). In this method, random yeast genes are fused to the E . coli lac Z gene in vitro. The fusions are made on a vector containing a truncated lacZ fragment (9) that lacks the lac promoter and the codons for the first eight amino acids of beta-galactosidase. Expression of the lac fragment in yeast cells requires the insertion of a promoter and a translational start site and results in the production of a hybrid protein with beta-galactosidase activity. The vector contains a unique restriction endonuclease site at the 5' end of the lacZ fragment, into which random fragments of yeast DNA can be inserted. The

^{*} Corresponding author.

t Present address: Division of Biology, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA 91125.

t Present address: Department of Molecular Biology, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA 02114.

ligated DNA is used to transform yeast cells to create ^a library of fusions, and the transformants are replica plated onto 5-bromo-4-chloroindolyl- β -D-galactoside (Xgal) indicator-plates to screen for productive fusions. We screened such a library for fusions induced by DNA-damaging agents and identified the dinl-lacZ fusion.

We report here that the isolation of the five additional din gene fusions from S. cerevisiae, the characterization of these genes, and their responses to various DNA-damaging agents. Our results show that several S. cerevisiae genes are specifically induced by DNA-damaging agents and suggest that there are at least two sets of DIN genes that are regulated differently.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains. S. cerevisiae A2 (α his3-11,15 leu2,112) was originally strain LL20 from L. Lau. Strain A15 (α gal mal) was originally strain S288C. Strain A110 (a met10-3/met10-5 trp1 adel) which was disomic for chromosome VI was a gift from R. Mortimer. Strain T378 is strain A2 transformed with $pSZ214$ containing the $din1-lacZ$ fusion (42). Diploid strain DA121 (a/ α his3-11,15/HIS3 leu2-2,112/leu2-2,112 $met10/MET10~trp1/TRPI~ura3/URA3~tem1/TCM1)$ has a single copy of the fusion plasmid A4P4 (his3-lacZ LEU2) (42) integrated at the his3 locus. Haploid strain TSR40-9 (α his3-11,15 leu2,112 tcm1) has the fusion plasmid $A30p2$ (his3lacZ TRPI) containing the arsI sequence. Strains DA121 and TSR40-9 were gifts from A. Murray. Strain D741-3B (a leu2-2,112 his3-11,15 trpl ura3) was constructed by crosses of strain A2 with strains A110, D234-3B (obtained from P. Brown), and T378 to obtain a strain with 95% A2 background. Strains TSR30-15 and TSR31-39 were obtained by transformation of strain D741-3B with plasmids pSR16 and pSR18, respectively (see Fig. 2). All other S. cerevisiae strains are described in the text.

 $E.$ coli 5346 (Leu⁻ Thr⁻ Thi⁻ HsdR⁻ HsdM⁻), HB101, and JA300 (Thr⁻ Leu⁻ Thi⁻ Trp⁻ Thy⁻ HsdR⁻ HsdM⁻ Str^r) were used for plasmid isolation and propagation.

Chemicals and media. Redistilled methyl methane sulfonate (MMS) was ^a gift from F. Sherman. EMS was from Eastman Kodak Co. 4-Nitroquinoline-N-oxide (NQO) (Sigma Chemical Co.) was dissolved in ethanol-acetone (8:1) at 0.5 mg/ml and stored at 0°C. MNNG which was ^a gift from P. Foster and E. Eisenstadt was originally obtained from ICN Pharmaceuticals Inc. Aliquots of ^a solution (2.5 mg/ml of 20 mM acetate buffer [pH 5.5]) were stored at -20° C and used only once after thawing on ice.

Synthetic selective and YPD media were those of Sherman et al. (45). Buffered synthetic selective medium supplemented with Xgal was as described previously (42). Thymine starvation plates and NQO plates contained buffered synthetic selective medium supplemented with Xgal (40 μ g/ml) and either methotrexate (35 μ g/ml) and sulfanilamide (5 mg/ml) or NQO (0.05 μ g/ml), respectively. Methotrexate and sulfanilamide were from Sigma Chemical Co.

Fusion libraries and screenings. The creation of the random yeast gene fusions and the libraries of yeast transformants containing the fusions have been described previously (42) . The fusions were made in vitro by ligating S. cerevisiae DNA partially digested with Sau3A enzyme to BamHIcleaved vector pSZ211 DNA. This vector contains the yeast LEU2 and arsl sequences; the pBR322 beta-lactamase and ori sequences for selection and replication in S. cerevisiae and *E. coli*, respectively; and a truncated *lacZ* fragment. Library ¹ contained nearly 20,000 transformants from a single transformation pooled into 20 groups. Each cell pool

was stored in 50% glycerol at -70° C. Library 2 contained 8,945 independent colonies from a transformation different from that used to generate library 1.

To screen for the *din2-lacZ* fusion, ca. 4,000 transformants from 19 of the library ¹ pools were grown on synthetic selective medium without leucine and then replica plated onto Xgal plates. (Pool ¹ was not screened because the dinl-lacZ fusion was identified in it.) After 1 week of incubation at 30°C, transformant colonies expressing betagalactosidase were picked, grown on selective medium, and replica plated to control Xgal plates, Xgal plates containing 0.05 μ g of NQO per ml, and Xgal plates which were subsequently exposed to a UV dose of 16 J/m^2 . The colony T671 containing this fusion was darker blue on treated plates than on control plates at ca. 48 h after replica plating.

To screen for the din3 to din6 fusions, the colonies from library 2 were patched onto master plates of selective medium, incubated for 2 days at 30°C, and replica plated onto control and methotrexate Xgal plates as well as onto Xgal plates that were subsequently exposed to either 16 J of UV per $m²$ or 50 krads of gamma irradiation. Those plates which were to be gamma or UV irradiated were incubated for 4 to 6 h before treatment. All replicas were incubated at 30°C. After 2 to 7 days, the strains of interest were streaked onto selective medium plates to obtain pure colonies for additional tests.

The fusions identified in the above screenings were further tested by quantitative assays of induced and uninduced levels of beta-galactosidase in the S. cerevisiae transformants grown in liquid culture. Cells at mid-log phase in seletive medium (without leucine) were either treated with 16 J of UV per $m²$ or given 0.01% MMS and subsequently shaken at 30°C. At every 2 h during a 10-h incubation, culture samples were assayed for cell density and beta-galactosidase activity as described below.

S. cerevisiae transformants were assayed for the mitotic stability of the plasmid *LEU2* marker as previously described (34).

Irradiation conditions. Colonies were gamma irradiated at 23° C with a ⁶⁰Co source (School of Public Health, Harvard Medical School) at a dose rate of 3.7 krads/min for a total dose of 50 krads (50% survival). Colonies or cell suspensions were UV irradiated with ^a Sylvania G1ST8 germicidal lamp which was calibrated with a model IL254 International Light photometer. Cell suspensions were washed three times with water and resuspended at 2×10^7 cells per ml of water before irradiation. The cells were continually stirred during irradiation in a petri dish $(1 \text{ ml}/3.7 \text{ cm}^2)$, after which they were filtered and resuspended at ca. 1×10^7 cells per ml of fresh medium. Suitable precautions were taken to prevent photoreactivation.

Beta-galactosidase assays. S. cerevisiae transformants were grown in synthetic selective medium (without leucine or uracil). Mid-log-phase cultures (optical density at 600 nm of 1.0 and 10^7 cells per ml) were treated by the addition of MMS, EMS, MNNG, or NQO directly to the medium or by UV irradiation at the concentrations or doses described in the text. At various times after treatments or additions, the cultures were monitored for cell density (optical density at 600) and for beta-galactosidase activity. Initially we permeabilized cells with chloroform and sodium dodecyl sulfate and immediately thereafter assayed enzyme activity with o $nitrophenyl-B-D-galactopy ranoside$ as the substrate as previously described (42). Later (all data presented here were derived from these assays unless otherwise indicated) we disrupted the cells by vortexing them in the presence of 0.5 g of acid-washed glass beads (diameter $0.45 \mu m$; Sigma Chemical Co.) in a total volume of 0.8 ml of Z buffer containing 0.01% sodium dodecyl sulfate and 300 μ M phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride. Although both types of cell preparations gave similar results, we found that the disrupted cells gave more reproducible results than the permeabilized cells for cells induced to high beta-galactosidase levels. Beta-galactosidase activities are expressed as specific activities in units (31) normalized to cell density.

DNA extractions, plasmid constructions, and restriction site mapping. Conditions for yeast and plasmid DNA minipreparations, DNA ligations, fusion plasmid isolations, and screenings of fusion expression in E. coli were as described previously (42). Large-scale plasmid preparations (10) were purified on cesium chloride gradients. Conditions for the restriction endonucleases were those of the supplier New England Biolabs.

The fusion plasmids pSR1, pSR10, and pSR25 from the S. cerevisiae transformants T8b, T16b, and T22b, respectively, were cloned in bacteria by digesting yeast DNA from each strain with ^a restriction endonuclease, ligating the DNA in ^a dilute solution to circularize the plasmids, transforming E . coli 5346, and selecting for ampicillin-resistant bacteria. Bacterial transformants were not obtained when uncut yeast DNA was used. The restriction enzymes were chosen on the basis of preliminary mapping of the fusions in the S. cerevisiae strains by Southern blot analyses with a lacZ probe (data not shown): XhoI for plasmid pSR1, BamHI for plasmid pSR25, and HindIII for plasmid pSR10. Most transformants were $Lac⁺ Leu⁺$. Their plasmids were examined by restriction mapping by standard techniques (29). The cloning of plasmid pSZ214 by transformation with HindIIlcut yeast DNA has been described previously (42).

The subcloning of fusion fragments into pBR322 or pMC1403 to generate din probes involved standard cloning techniques. The HindIII-SalI fragments containing the lacZ fragment and the adjacent yeast inserts from plasmids pSR1 and pSR3 (see Fig. 2) were ligated to HindIII-Sall-cut pBR322 to generate the ampicillin-resistant plasmids pSR8 and pSR10, respectively. Similarly, the SalI fragment from pSZ214 was cloned into the SalI site of pBR322 to obtain pSR7. The BglII-SacI fragment encompassing the yeast insert and the ⁵' portion of the lacZ sequence in pSR25 was ligated to BamHI-SacI-cleaved pMC1403 to create pSR36. Plasmids pSR7, pSR8, pSR10, and pSR36 produced betagalactosidase activity in E. coli HB101.

An integrating *lacZ* fusion vector, pSR14, containing the S. cerevisiae URA3 selectable marker, pBR322 ori and amp^r sequences, and the truncated $lacZ$ fragment was constructed with fragments from three different plasmids. The 2.6 kilobase (kb) PvuII-SalI fragment from pJT29 contained the 1.1-kb URA3 fragment which had been cloned into the pBR322 AvaI site by dGdC tailing. Plasmid pJT29 was a gift from Jim Thomas. The 6.3-kb BamHI-Sall fragment containing the truncated lacZ fragment was obtained from pMC1403. The 2.7-kb PvuII-BamHI fragment contained the pBR322 ori and *amp*^r sequences. These fragments were electrophoresed on agarose gels, eluted, ligated, and used to transform bacterial strain MB1000 to ampicillin resistance. The structure of the plasmid from an $amp^r ura⁺$ colony was confirmed by restriction mapping. Plasmid pSR15 was a derivative of pSR14 in which the single EcoRI site was destroyed by a fill-in reaction with T4 polymerase (29). The integrating plasmids pSR16 and pSR18, containing the $din1$ and $din3$ fusions, respectively, were constructed by ligating the 3-kb BamHI-SacI fragment from pSZ214 and the 2.8-kb HindIII-SacI fragment from pSR8 to the appropriately cleaved pSR15 DNA. The plasmids were cloned by transformation of strain MB1000 to ampicillin resistance.

We generated the restriction site maps of the genomic DIN genes by using data from Southern blots of strain A15 DNA probed with din fusion probes. The DNA $(2 \mu g)$ per sample) was cut with restriction endonucleases as described in the text, fractionated by size on 0.5 or 0.7% agarose gels, and then transferred to either nitrocellulose (48) or diazobenzyloxymethyl-paper (1). The din fusion probes as described in the text were restriction fragments that were extracted from agarose by electroelution onto DEAE paper or from low-melt agarose by phenol (29) and subsequently labeled by nick translation (40). The conditions for transfer and hybridization to nitrocellulose or diazobenzyloxymethyl paper blots were those used by Orr-Weaver et al. (35) or Alwine et al. (1), respectively. Autoradiography was performed with XRP-5 Kodak film at -70° C in the presence of an intensifying screen. Labeled pSZ63 plasmid DNA (containing the HIS3 gene [33]) was subsequently hybridized to the blots to monitor the completeness of the restriction endonuclease digestions of the A15 DNA. The HIS3 gene and adjacent sequences have been mapped with restriction endonucleases (50).

RNA extraction and analysis. MMS (0.01%) was added to one portion of mid-log-phase strain A2 cells in YPD medium, and the other portion was left untreated. During subsequent growth at 30°C, culture samples were quickly cooled on ice and pelleted by centrifugation, and total RNA was extracted with phenol from cells disrupted by vortexing in the presence of glass beads (17) . Total RNA $(10 \mu g$ per lane) was fractionated by size on formaldehyde denaturing agarose gels (25), transferred to nitrocellulose, and hybridized with the 32P-labeled probes described in the text. The conditions for transfer and hybridization were as described previously (42). Vesicular stomatitis virus RNAs labeled in vivo were used as molecular weight markers. Band density on the autoradiograms was measured with a Helena Laboratories Quick Scan densitometer.

RESULTS

Isolation of din-lacZ fusions. The din2- to din6-lacZ fusions were identified by screening libraries of random gene fusions in S. cerevisiae for those yielding beta-galactosidase activity inducible by DNA-damaging treatments. Previously we had constructed two separate libraries of fusions in yeasts (42). These two libraries were screened differently. Library ¹ was screened by replica plating tests on control Xgal plates, Xgal plates containing NQO, and Xgal plates that were subsequently exposed to UV. The din2-lacZ fusion was identified in ^a colony (transformant T671) that was darker blue on UV and NQO plates than on control plates. The screening for this fusion was similar to that used for the *dinl-lacZ* fusion. Library 2 was screened by replica plating tests with three different DNA-damaging agents to identify *din* fusions that might be induced only by specific agents. The three agents, methotrexate, UV, and gamma rays, differ as to the kinds of lesions they generate (21, 23). Of the 8,945 independent transformants in the library, 20 were darker blue on any two of the treated Xgal plates than on control Xgal plates. Of these 20 transformants, 4 (T8b, T16b, T22a, and T22b) containing the din3, din4, din5, and din6 fusions, respectively, gave inducible beta-galactosidase activity in subsequent quantitative assays as described above (data not shown).

^a Mid-log-phase haploid S. cerevisiae T378 was either treated once with UV and subsequently grown for ⁴ ^h or grown in MMS for ⁴ h. Each value is the mean of three determinations from a single culture.

^b Doses are measured in joules per square meter for UV and in percentages for MMS.

When we examined all six din-lacZ fusions in parallel on Xgal plates, we found that five of the six din -lac Z fusions were induced by UV, gamma rays, or methotrexate, whereas one fusion, din5, was induced by UV or methotrexate but not by gamma rays.

Induction kinetics. The responses of the six din fusions were further studied by quantitatively assaying beta-galactosidase in cells grown in liquid culture. Their expression depends on the dose and type of the DNA-damaging agent, as well as on the time after the initial treatment. We studied the effects of either UV or MMS, an alkylating agent that has many of the same effects in yeast cells as do gamma rays (23). The $din1$ -lacZ fusion was studied in greatest detail. It is strongly induced by both MMS and UV (Table 1). The optimal doses for induction have only slight effects on cell viability and growth: for example, 80% of the cells were viable after a UV dose of 16 J/m², and cells grown in 0.01% MMS were at 80% of the control cell density ⁴ ^h after the addition of MMS (generation time, ca. ² h).

The time courses of the responses of the *din-lacZ* fusions to DNA-damaging agents were determined. Beta-galactosidase activity was measured in log-phase cells after either a single UV treatment with 16 J/m² or the addition of 0.01% MMS to the growth medium. These doses are optimal for dinl-lacZ induction (Table 1). Representative data from all six din fusions are shown in Fig. 1. Five of the six fusions (din1, din2, din3, din4, and din6) have similar induction kinetics; beta-galactosidase specific activity increases within ² ^h after UV irradiation or MMS addition and continues to increase up to 6 to 8 h, at which time the cells enter stationary phase. They also are induced by both UV and MMS. The din1, din2, din3, and din6 fusions all show a twoto threefold higher induction by MMS than by UV (Fig. ¹ and Table 1). The din4-lacZ fusion is induced to approximately the same levels by either UV or MMS (fourfold induction). In striking contrast to these five fusions, the $\frac{din5}{i}$ fusion is induced by UV but not by MMS. The beta-galactosidase activity in UV-irradiated cells is slightly higher than in control cells at 4 h, increases up to 6 h, and then declines (Fig. 1). MMS causes no significant increases in beta-galactosidase levels above control levels for the *din5* fusion even at 10, 12, and 24 ^h after the addition of MMS.

The vast majority of yeast gene lacZ fusions are not induced by DNA-damaging agents. Seventeen other productive fusions from the two libraries show no significant increases in beta-galactosidase activity under these conditions (data not shown). Finally, two strains containing a his3-lacZ fusion either stably integrated into chromosomal DNA or on an autonomously replicating plasmid show no increases in enzyme activity greater than twofold when treated with either MMS or UV (Table 2).

Induction by other DNA-damaging agents. Because the din5-lacZ fusion is not induced by MMS or gamma rays, the effects of several different DNA-damaging agents (UV, NQO, MMS, EMS, and MNNG) on all the din fusions were examined. NQO is ^a potent mutagen whose effects in S. cerevisiae mimic those of UV (37). EMS and MNNG are alkylating agents. The doses used give maximum induction of the dinl-lacZ fusion and only slightly inhibit cell growth; the treated cultures grow to ca. 80% of the control cell density at the time of assay, 5 h after the start of treatment. The results of two experiments in which either permeabilized or disrupted cells were used for beta-galactosidase assays are summarized in Table 2. All the fusions except din5 are induced strongly by UV, NQO, MMS, and MNNG. EMS induces din1, din3, din4, and din6 but does not affect din2 and din5. The din5-lacZ fusion is induced by UV but

FIG. 1. Induction kinetics of the din-lacZ fusions. Haploid S. cerevisiae transformants containing the din fusions were grown to mid-log phase in selective medium. At 0 h, portions of the cultures were given 0.01% MMS (\bullet), treated with 16 J of UV per m² (\blacktriangle), or left untreated as a control (O). During further growth at 30°C, samples were removed and assayed for cell density and beta-galactosidase activity. Shown are the results for the din fusions: A, din1; B, din2; C, din3; D, din4; E, din5; F, din6.

into two classes according to their responses to alkylating agents: the din5 fusion is induced by UV but not by alkylating agents, whereas the others are induced by many agents including alkylating agents.

The din-lacZ fusions also differ from each other both in the basal levels of enzyme produced and in the maximum induction ratios attained (Fig. ¹ and Table 2). Fusions ¹ and 3 have the lowest basal levels (mean values of 0.3 and 0.1 U, respectively) and the highest induction ratios (100- to 300 and 20- to 40-fold, respectively, with most agents) of the six fusions. The four other fusions generally have higher basal levels and lower induction ratios (from 4 to 10); however, we did observe a variation in these characteristics for the din5 fusion (see below). These differences among the fusions could be due to differences in DIN gene expression, in plasmid stability or number, in fusion transcript or protein stability, or in some other property.

Expression of din-lacZ fusions reintroduced into S. cerevisiae. To determine whether plasmid stability or copy number could account for the differences in din fusion expression, we first analyzed the mitotic stabilities of the fusion plasmids in the original yeast transformants. Because the fusion plasmids contain a sequence for replication in yeast cells, they are capable of either autonomous replication or chromosomal integration. Integrated plasmids are normally quite stable mitotically and are maintained at a low copy number, whereas autonomously replicating plasmids are quite unstable and are maintained at a high copy number. The strongly induced din -lacZ fusions 1 and 3 were on mitotically stable plasmids, whereas the others were on unstable plasmids. A mitotically stable derivative of the dinS-lacZ fusion was isolated during strain passage. This derivative has a lower basal level of expression and a higher induction level (Table 2) than the unstable parent (Fig. 1).

We next cloned the fusion plasmids in E . coli as described below, reintroduced them into haploid yeast cells, and studied their expression. When the *din1-lacZ* fusion plasmid (pSZ214 in Fig. 2) is autonomously replicating, the betagalactosidase basal level in yeast cells is lower than when the plasmid is integrated (0.04 versus 0.2 U). The induction ratio, however, is the same in both cases (an average of 300-fold). When the din2 and din5 fusions are reintroduced into S. cerevisiae on replicating plasmids, their basal levels and induction ratios are the same as in the original unstable transformants. Furthermore, the $din5$ fusion in the new strain again responds to UV but not to MMS (data not shown). Thus the copy number and plasmid stability could be responsible for the differences in levels of expression of a fusion, but they do not account for the differences in the types of agents to which the fusions respond.

To compare the regulation and expression of the fusions in a more controlled manner, we constructed strains with single or multiple copies of a din fusion integrated into chromosomal DNA. Two fusions were cloned into a different lacZ fusion vector that propagates in S. cerevisiae only by integrating into genomic DNA. Each of the two plasmids (plasmids pSR16 and pSR18 in Fig. 2) was targeted to integrate into its homologous DIN locus in haploid S. cerevisiae transformants with the technique developed by Orr-Weaver et al. (34). The position and copy number of each integrated fusion in representative transformants were confirmed by Southern blot analyses (data not shown). The yeast transformants containing single or multiple integrated copies of either the *dinl* or *din3* fusion were assayed for their beta-galactosidase activities when treated with MMS or when left untreated. These two *din* fusions give nearly the same basal levels and induction ratios in these new transformants as compared with the transformants containing the original plasmids (Tables 2 and 3).

Structures of the DIN genes and fusions. The din-lacZ fusions were cloned in $E.$ coli so that their structures could be characterized and DIN gene specific hybridization probes could be generated. Since the fusions were originally constructed on a shuttle vector, E . coli transformants containing the *din-lacZ* fusions were obtained by transformation with DNA (either uncut, or cut with ^a restriction endonuclease and then ligated as detailed above) from each yeast strain and by selection for ampicillin resistance. The plasmids were

Expt	Fusion	U of beta-galactosidase induced by:						
		No agent	UV	NOO	MMS	EMS	MNNG	
$\mathbf A$	his3a	2.7 ± 0.10	2.3 ± 0.37	ND^b	3.9 ± 0.51	ND	2.7 ± 1.2	
	his3b	5.2 ± 0.12	5.7 ± 0.27	5.1 ± 0.29	6.1 ± 0.72	4.7 ± 0.81	6.2 ± 0.89	
\bf{B}	dinl	0.4	52	54	ND.	ND.	38	
	din2	1.5	3.8	7.9	ND.	1.8	8.3	
	din3	0.21	5.1	0.92	ND	0.9	1.2	
	din4	2.5	11	12 ²	ND	13	13	
	$\frac{d}{n}$	ND	ND	ND	ND.	ND	ND.	
	din6	1.1	3.4	4.5	ND.	3.7	3.6	
$\mathbf C$	din _l	0.16	19	7.9	ND.	4.2	16 ¹	
	din2	ND.	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND.	
	din3	0.07	2.7	0.51	2.9	0.27	2.2	
	din4	2.8	5.8	4.1	5.8	3.2	4.2	
	din5	0.02	1.6	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	
	din6	0.54	ND	1.0	3.2	0.71	1.3	

TABLE 2. Fusion induction by different DNA-damaging agents"

 a At 5 h after treatment either glass bead cell extracts (experiments A and B) or permeabilized cells (experiment C) were assayed. A single UV dose of 16 J/m² was given. Either 0.05 µg of NQO per ml, 0.01% MMS, 0.2% EMS, or 8.5 nM MNNG was added to the growth medium. Haploid yeast strains contained the indicated fusions. The his3-lacZ fusion was as either a single integrated copy (his3a) or multicopy on a replicating plasmid (his3b). Each value is the mean (\pm standard deviation) specific activity of three cultures. The treated cultures with the *his3-lacZ* fusions were not significantly different ($P \le 0.01$) from the control cultures except for the MMS-treated cultures in which the means were significantly different (0.01 $\leq P \leq 0.05$). Each value is the mean of three determinations from a sin-

gle culture.
^b ND, Not determined.

FIG. 2. Restriction endonuclease site maps of the din -lacZ fusion plasmids. The restriction endonuclease site maps of the din fusions din1, din3, din4, and din6 are shown. Plasmids pSZ214, pSR1, pSR25, and pSR3 were extracted from S. cerevisiae transformants as described in the text. Restriction cleavage sites are indicated: B, BamHI; Bg, BglII; R, EcoRI; H, HindIII; P, PstI; S, Sall; Sm, SmaI; Sc, SacI; St, Stul; X, XhoI. The junction of the pBR322 and S. cerevisiae LEU2 sequences is indicated (S/X). The approximate positions of the fusion junctions are indicated (S/B). pSR1 lacks PstI and BglII sites in the S. cerevisiae insert. The sites for these two endonucleases in the inserts of pSZ214, pSR3, and pSR10 have not been mapped. pSZ214 and pSR3 lack the 346-base-pair BamHI-HindIII pBR322 fragment because these plasmids were obtained from HindIII-cut yeast DNA. An XhoI site was not found in pSR1, although it was expected to be in the insert because this enzyme was used to isolate the plasmid. Plasmids pSR16 and pSR18 were constructed as described in the text and were cut with EcoRI for integrating the dinl- and din3-lacZ fusions into genomic yeast DNA by transformation.

grown preparatively in E. coli and analyzed with restriction endonucleases. The restriction maps of four din fusion plasmids (Fig. 2) are clearly different. The din2 and din5 fusion plasmids have not yet been fully characterized.

To determine that each din fusion was made to a different gene and that the yeast sequences in a fusion had not been altered during the construction of the fusions or isolation of the plasmids, each of the four mapped din fusions was used as ^a probe in DNA blotting experiments. Total S. cerevisiae genomic DNA from ^a wild-type strain lacking any plasmid or lacZ sequence was cleaved with a variety of restriction enzymes in single or double digests, electrophoresed on agarose gels, and analyzed by Southern blotting. Each din fusion was used in turn as a probe to determine the sizes of homologous fragments of genomic DNA. Fragments consist-

TABLE 3. Expression of integrated din-lacZ fusions^a

	din -lac Z	No. of	U of beta-galactosidase b		
Strain	fusion	integrated copies	$-MMS$	$+MMS$	
T30-15			0.77 ± 0.04	65 ± 0.7	
T ₃₀ -11		1	0.54 ± 0.01	52 ± 1.4	
T30-23		$2 - 4$	0.67 ± 0.12	48 ± 12	
T31-27			0.73 ± 0.17	2.3 ± 0.17	
T31-39			0.12 ± 0.06	2.2 ± 0.01	
T31-18		$2 - 4$	0.19 ± 0.04	6.1 ± 0.08	

 \degree The cultures were assayed after growing for 5 h in either 0.01% MMS or no MMS.

 b Each value is the mean (\pm standard deviation) specific activity of duplicate cultures.

FIG. 3. Restriction endonuclease site maps of the genomic DIN genes. The maps were deduced from the sizes of restriction fragments homologous to the DIN gene probes shown above each gene. The restriction enzyme cleavage sites are designated as in Fig. 2. Only the sites within or immediately adjacent to the probe could be mapped as explained in the text.

ing of 500 to 1,000 base pairs of yeast insert sequences immediately adjacent to the lacZ sequence were used as probes. These sequences (Fig. 3) were subcloned into pBR322 or pMC1403 as described above to purify them away from any unrelated yeast sequences.

The small din probes yielded simple, consistent patterns when hybridized to the Southern blots of genomic S. cerevisiae DNA (Fig. 4). None of the probes hybridized to any major repetitive sequences. The restriction fragments homologous to each of the probes from the four fusions are different, showing that each corresponds to a unique gene. For example, the din1, din4, and din6 probes each hybridized to a single EcoRI restriction fragment (of 5.2, 7.6, and 4.7 kb, respectively), whereas the *din3* probe hybridized to two EcoRI fragments (0.9 and 1.0 kb) as expected because this probe spans an EcoRI site. The patterns of hybridization also show that the sequences in each probe are normally contiguous in genomic DNA.

Data from these and other Southern blots (not shown) were used to generate restriction maps for four of the wild-type, intact DIN genes (Fig. 3). No similarities are apparent among any of the maps, again showing that the fusions represent four different genes. As suggested by the finding that there are no $BamHI$ sites at the $lacZ$ fusion junctions, there are no BamHI sites on the genomic DIN genes at locations corresponding to the junction sites. Because the mapping was done with small probes, sites removed from the region of homology may have gone undetected. For example, although the two EcoRI fragments on the DIN3 map could be placed, because of their homology to the probe and the presence of the EcoRI site in the probe sequence, other $EcoRI$ fragments within the larger $XhoI$ fragment could exist but be undetectable in the XhoI-EcoRI double digest of genomic DNA.

We limited the size of the probes used in the above mapping experiments because we often found that the yeast

FIG. 4. S. cerevisiae genomic DNA restriction fragments homologous to din fusions. The three autoradiograms are of Southern blots of S. cerevisiae genomic DNA hybridized with probes specific for din3 (A) din4 (B), and din6 (C). These probes, as illustrated in Fig. 3, were from plasmids pSR8, pSR36, and pSR10, respectively. S. cerevisiae DNA from strain A15 lacking any vector plasmid or fusion was cleaved with one or two restriction endonucleases, fractionated by size on 0.5% agarose gels, transferred to nitrocellulose paper, and hybridized with the probes. Lanes ¹ of A and C have pBR322 DNA cut with EcoRI, HindlIl and Sall, or Narl. Lanes ² to ¹⁷ of A and C have A15 DNA cut with the following enzymes (per lane): 2, BamHI; 3, BamHI and HindlII; 4, HindIII; 5, Bg/II and HindIII (partial); 6, Bg/II; 7, Ps1I and HindIII; 8, PstI; 9, Sall and HindIII; 10, Sall; 11, BamHI and Sall; 12, KpnI and HindIII; 13, KpnI (partial); 14, XhoI and HindIII; 15, XhoI; 16, EcoRI and HindIII; 17, EcoRI. Lanes 1 to 9 of B have A15 DNA cut with the following enzymes (per lane): 1, BamHI and EcoRI; 2, EcoRI; 3, EcoRI and HindIII; 4, HindIII; 5, HindIII and BgIII (partial); 6 and 9, BgIII; 7, BamHI and BgIII (partial); and 8, BamHI and BgIII. A partial digestion by an enzyme is indicated in the above list; (partial). The molecular weights in kilobase pairs of the marker DNAs are indicated.

FIG. 5. DIN gene transcripts in MMS-induced and untreated cells. Northern blots of RNA from 0.01% MMS-induced cells and untreated cells were hybridized with the ³²P-labeled *DIN1* (A) or DIN3 (B) specific probes, and the transcripts were visualized on the autoradiograms shown here. The RNA was extracted from MMStreated cells grown for 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6 h or from untreated cells grown for 2, 4, and 6 h as indicated at the top of each lane. The A2 cells used in this experiment did not have any fusion or vector sequence so that the genomic gene transcripts could be readily visualized. The thick arrows designate the 3-kb (A) or 4.4- and 1.8-kb (B) transcripts that hybridize to the DIN probes. The thin arrow indicates the 2.8-kb control transcript from a gene adjacent to the HIS3 gene (51): its levels, as well as those of the HIS3 gene transcript (not shown), do not change during the course of the experiment and thus act as internal controls and indicate the amount of RNA present in each lane. The position of the 25S ribosomal RNA is shown.

insert sequences upstream of the probe sequences were unrelated genomic sequences. The map of each fusion plasmid originally isolated (Fig. 2) differs from its DIN gene (Fig. 3) at some point upstream of the small probe sequence. When large fragments or entire inserts from ^a few of the fusion plasmids were used as probes in the Southern blotting analyses, genomic fragments equal in size to those in the fusion plasmid were not always found. These results suggested that many of the plasmid inserts contained DNA fragments that were not contiguous in the genome. This could be due either to the insertion of more than one Sau3A fragment during the construction of the fusions or to the cloning of multiple, independent restriction fragments during the isolation of the fusion plasmids.

DIN transcripts. We have characterized the transcripts of the DIN1 and DIN3 genes and studied the changes in their levels in MMS-induced cells (Fig. 5). To analyze the transcripts of intact genomic DIN genes rather than those of din-lacZ fusions, we used an S. cerevisiae strain that did not contain any fusion or vector sequences as ^a source of RNA in these experiments. The hybridization probes used to detect DIN transcripts in RNA gel blots were the same as those described above in the DNA blotting experiments.

The *DIN1* probe hybridizes to a single 3-kb transcript. Analysis of oligo(dT)-selected mRNA does not reveal any additional transcripts (data not shown). The 3-kb mRNA is detectable as early as ¹ ^h after the addition of MMS and increases in abundance with time, whereas it is undetectable in untreated cells (Fig. 5A). The induction kinetics of the DIN) transcript are similar to the induction kinetics of the dinl-lacZ fusion (Fig. 2 and 5A). The induction in MMStreated cells is similar to that in NQO-treated cells (42). The levels of HIS3 mRNA and mRNA from ^a gene adjacent to HIS3 do not change with time in either treated or untreated cells.

The same RNA preparations that were used to study the DINI transcript were used to identify the DIN3 transcript. Two transcripts, of 1.8 and 4.4 kb, hybridized to the 1.1-kb DIN3 probe (Fig. 5B). The abundance of the 1.8-kb transcript began to increase between ¹ and ³ ^h after MMS addition and remained above control levels at 6 h. The transcript shows a fivefold increase from 0 to 6 h relative to the control message as detected by densitometric scans of the autoradiogram in Fig. 5B (0.2, 0.3, 0.9, and 1.1 times the control message levels at 0, 1, 3, 4, and 6 h, respectively). The 1.8-kb transcript seems to increase temporarily at 2 h in untreated cells, although densitrometic scans show that it has the same level relative to the control message at 2 h as it does at 0 h (0.2 times). No significant change in the amount of the 4.4-kb transcript was detected in either treated or control cells. The 1.8-kb transcript is most likely a product of the DIN3 gene, and the 4.4-kb transcript is probably that of an adjacent gene. Both transcripts are present in oligo(dT)-selected mRNA and no other transcripts are seen (data not shown).

DISCUSSION

We have isolated six different S. cerevisiae gene lacZ fusions that are induced in response to DNA-damaging treatments in S. cerevisiae. The expression of the lacZ gene in each fusion is under the control of the ⁵' yeast gene sequences. Thus, S. cerevisiae probably contains a large set of genes that are transcriptionally activated as part of the cellular response to DNA damage.

Our analysis of S. cerevisiae DIN genes parallels the earlier analysis by Kenyon and Walker (20) of E. coli din genes. They used the Mu $d1(Ap^r \, lac)$ fusion vector (8) to generate a library of fusions between E . coli and lacZ genes, from which they isolated a set of damage-induced fusions. These bacterial fusions differ from our yeast gene fusions in several respects. The Mu dl phage creates fusions by transposing into genes on the E. coli chromosome. Thus, each fusion generates a mutation in the bacterial gene and is present on the chromosome in the original location as a single copy. The fusions are operon (i.e., transcriptional) fusions, so that expression reflects promoter activity only. In contrast, our S. cerevisiae gene fusions were constructed in vitro on a plasmid vector and screened after transformation into yeast cells. This method of generating fusions does not mutate the original chromosomal gene, so that autoregulated genes and genes with essential functions can be identified. The fusions can be either chromosomal and low copy or episomal and high copy. They are protein fusions and thus produce hybrid beta-galactosidase proteins.

It seems likely that all six of our fusions are joined to transcriptionally induced chromosomal DIN genes. We examined the mRNAs transcribed from the unaltered chromosomal DIN1 and DIN3 genes. In both cases, the mRNA levels increased after DNA-damaging treatments. Many

other yeast gene $lacZ$ fusions also have been shown to be regulated in the same way as their intact chromosomal genes (11, 15, 30, 36, 41, 47).

The *din-lacZ* fusions are not all coordinately regulated. Five of the six fusions are induced by most of the DNAdamaging treatments that we tested. The *din5-lacZ* fusion, however, is induced by UV and thymine starvation but not by the alkylating agents MMS, EMS, or MNNG. S. cerevisiae is known to have at least three major pathways for the repair of DNA damage. It is possible that distinctly regulated DIN genes function in the repair of specific DNA lesions. S. cerevisiae, like E. coli, may have separately regulated groups of genes involved in responses to different forms of DNA damage.

The din1- and din3-lacZ fusions have low basal levels of expression and high induction ratios, and the original isolates were mitotically stable. The subcloned fusions behave similarly when reintroduced into yeast cells by integration at the homologous genomic site. The remaining four fusions were originally mitotically unstable, and all had high basal levels of expression and low induction ratios. The fact that a mitotically stable derivative of the *din5-lacZ* fusion shows a low basal level and high induction ratio suggests that the presence of the din2, din4, din5, and din6 fusions on autonomous plasmids may affect their expression or regulation and be responsible for the high basal levels and low induction ratios. However, this possibility has not yet been directly tested by the reintroduction of the fusions into S. cerevisiae on integrating plasmids.

Since the din-lacZ fusions were created in a manner that did not mutate the chromosomal DIN genes, we have no indications of the functions of any of these genes. The S. cerevisiae DIN genes could be active in repair, recombination, mutagenesis, or general stress recovery. Nearly 100 loci involved in repair or recombination in yeasts have been identified genetically, and many of these have recently been cloned. The restriction maps of the DIN], DIN3, DIN4, and DIN6 genes are different from those of the RAD3 (18, 32), RADI (19), RAD2 (33), and RAD10 (Weiss and Friedberg, personal communication), RAD6 (38), RAD5O (22), RAD52 (44), and RADSJ, RAD54, and RAD55 (7) genes.

Several DNA damage-inducible yeast genes have recently been found by others by different techniques. McClanahan and McEntee (personal communication) screened a lambda library of yeast genomic sequences by differential plaque hybridization and isolated 10 clones representing at least six DNA damage-inducible genes. Barker (personal communication) has recently found that the CDC9 gene, which encodes DNA ligase, is induced in response to DNA damage. The restriction maps of the DIN1, DIN3, DIN4, and DIN6 genes are different from those of the DIN genes cloned by McClanahan and McEntee, and from that of CDC9 (4).

How many S. cerevisiae genes are DIN genes? Four of the DIN genes that we identified came from a library of transformants that contained fusions to ca. 500 S. cerevisiae genes. Therefore, assuming that S. cerevisiae have ca. 10,000 genes, roughly ⁸⁰ should be DNA damage inducible. This is consistent with the fact that none of our six DIN genes are the same as the DIN genes of McHanahan and McEntee, or are CDC9. In addition, some DNA repair genes are constitutively expressed (19, 32). Thus the total number of genes involved in the response to DNA damage may be significantly greater than the number of DIN genes. It appears that yeast cells, like $E.$ coli, have devoted ca. 1% of their genetic capacity to the response to DNA damage. The existence of DNA damage-inducible genes in yeast cells, ^a

eucaryote, and in E . *coli* and other procaryotes (52) suggests that such genes may be ubiquitous. Experiments on the inducibility of particular functions in mammalian cells imply the existence of DIN genes in mammals (52).

The cloned DIN genes and din-lacZ fusions will have several applications in the study of the DNA damage response. Sequencing and deletion analysis should reveal cis-acting control sequences. The fusions should be particularly useful in the isolation of mutants defective in trans-acting regulatory signals. The din-lacZ fusions also may have a practical application in a short-term assay for the detection of genotoxic and carcinogenic compounds. Most genotoxic agents induce the SOS response in E . coli, and the sfa ::lacZ fusion has been used in a screening assay (39). The S. cerevisiae din fusions could provide a similar assay in a eucaryotic host.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to C. Kenyon, M. Osley, and E. Eisenstadt for helpful discussions and to D. Schild, R. Mortimer, H. McClanahan, K. McEntee, L. Naumovski, W. Weiss, E. Friedberg, and D. Barker for communication of their results before publication. We thank A. Murray for providing strains and plasmids with the his3-lacZ fusions, G. Freeman for supplying ³²P-labeled vesicular stomatitis virus RNA, and R. Reynolds for UV-light calibrations. E. Eisenstadt, M. A. Osley, A. Reynolds, K. Struhl, S. Weller, and M. Whiteway gave many helpful suggestions during preparation of the manuscript.

This work was supported by National Science Foundation grant PCM-8208485 to J.W.S. S.W.R. was supported by Public Health Service training grants 5 T32 GM07196-07 to Harvard Medical School and T32 CA 09361-03 to Dana-Farber Cancer Institute from the National Institutes of Health.

LITERATURE CITED

- 1. Alwine, J. C., D. J. Kemp, B. A. Parker, J. Resiser, J. Renart, G. Stark, and G. M. Wahl. 1979. Detection of specific RNAs or specific fragments of DNA by fractionation in gels and transfer to diazobenzyloxymethyl paper. Methods Enzymol. 68:220-243.
- 2. Bagg, A., C. J. Kenyon, and G. C. Walker. 1981. Inducibility of ^a gene product required for UV and chemical mutagenesis in Escherichia coli. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 78:5749-5753.
- 3. Baker, T. I. 1983. Inducible nucleotide excision repair in Neurospora. Mol. Gen. Genet. 190:295-299.
- 4. Barker, D. G., and L. H. Johnston. 1983. Saccharomyces cerevisiae cdc9: ^a structural gene for yeast DNA ligase which complements Schizosaccharomyces pombe cdc17. Eur. J. Biochem. 134:315-319.
- 5. Brunborg, G., M. A. Resnick, and D. H. Williamson. 1980. Cell-cycle-specific repair in DNA of double strand breaks in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Radiat. Res. 82:547-558.
- 6. Cairns, J., P. Robins, B. Sedgwick, and P. Talmud. 1981. The inducible repair of alkylated DNA. Prog. Nucleic Acid Res. 26:237-244.
- 7. Calderon, I. L., C. R. Contopulou, and R. K. Mortimer. 1983. Isolation and characterization of yeast DNA repair genes. II. Isolation of plasmids that complement the mutations rad 50-1, 54-3, and 55-3. Curr. Genet. 7:93-100.
- 8. Casadaban, M., and S. N. Cohen. 1979. Lactose genes fused to exogenous promotors in one step using a Mu -lac bacteriophage: in vivo probe for transcriptional control sequences. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 76:4530-4533.
- 9. Casadaban, M. J., J. Chou, and S. N. Cohen. 1980. In vitro gene fusions that join an enzymatically active β -galactosidase segment to amino-terminal fragments of exogenous proteins: Escherichia coli plasmid vectors for the detection and cloning of translational initiation signals. J. Bacteriol. 143:971-980.
- 10. CIewell, D. B., and D. R. Helinski. 1969. Supercoiled circular DNA-protein complex in Escherichia coli: purification and induced conversion to an open circular DNA form. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 62:1159-1161.
- 11. Crabeel, M., R. Huygen, R. Cunin, and N. Glansdork. 1983. The promotor region of the arg3 gene in Saccharomyces cerevisiae: nucleotide sequence and regulation in an arg3-lacZ fusion. EMBO J. 2:205-212.
- 12. Demple, B., and J. Halbrook. 1983. Inducible repair of oxidative DNA damage in *Escherichia coli*. Nature (London) 304:466-468.
- 13. Eckardt, F., E. Moustacchi, and R. H. Haynes. 1978. On the inducibility of error-prone repair in yeast in DNA repair mechanisms, p. 421-423. In P. Hanawalt, E. Friedberg, and C. Fox, (ed.), DNA repair mechanism. Academic Press, Inc., New York.
- 14. Fabre, F., and F. Roman. 1977. Genetic evidence for inducibility of recombination competence in yeast. Proc. Nati. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 74:1667-1671.
- 15. Guarente, L., and M. Ptashne. 1981. Fusion of Escherichia coli lacZ to the cytochrome c gene of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 78:2199-2203.
- 16. Haynes, R. H., and B. A. Kunz. 1981. DNA repair and mutagenesis in yeast, p. 371. In J. Strathern, E. Jones, and J. Broach (ed.), The molecular biology of the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae; life cycle and inheritance. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- 17. Hereford, L. M., M. A. Osley, J. R. Ludwig, and C. S. McLaughlin. 1981. Cell cycle regulation of yeast histone mRNA. Cell 24:367-375.
- 18. Higgins, D. R., S. Prakash, P. Reynolds, R. Polakowska, S. Weber, and L. Prakash. 1983. Isolation and characterization of the RAD3 gene of Saccharomyces cerevisiae and inviability of rad3 deletion mutants. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 80: 5680-5684.
- 19. Higgins, D. R., S. Prakash, P. Reynolds, and L. Prakash. 1983. Molecular cloning and characterization of the RAD1 gene of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Gene 26:119-126.
- 20. Kenyon, C. J., and G. C. Walker. 1980. DNA-damaging agents stimulate gene expression at specific loci in Escherichia coli. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 77:2819-2823.
- 21. Kunz, B. A., B. J. Barclay, J. C. Game, J. G. Little, and R. H. Haynes. 1980. Induction of mitotic recombination in yeast by starvation for thymine nucleotides. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 77:6056-6061.
- 22. Kupiec, M., and G. Simchem. 1984. Cloning and mapping of the RAD50 gene of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Gen. Genet. 193:525-531.
- 23. Lawrence, C. W. 1982. Mutagenesis in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Adv. Genet. 21:173-254.
- 24. Leaper, S., M. A. Resnick, and R. Holliday. 1980. Repair of double strand breaks and lethal damage in DNA of Ustilago maydis. Genet. Res. 35:291-307.
- 25. Lehrach, H., D. Diamond, J. M. Wozney, and H. Boedtker. 1977. RNA molecular weight determinations by gel electrophoresis under denaturing conditions, a critical reexamination. Biochemistry 16:4743-4750.
- 26. Lemontt, J. F. 1980. Genetic and physiological factors affecting repair and mutagenesis in yeast, p. 85-120. In W. M. Generoso, M. D. Shelby, and F. J. deSerres (ed.), DNA repair and mutagenesis in eukaryotes. Plenum Publishing Corp., New York.
- 27. Lindahl, T. 1982. DNA repair enzymes. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 51:61-87.
- 28. Little, J. W., and D. W. Mount. 1982. The SOS regulatory system of Escherichia coli. Cell 29:11-22.
- 29. Maniatis, T., E. F. Fritsch, and J. Sambrook. 1982. Molecular cloning; a laboratory manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- 30. Martinez-Arias, A. E., and M. J. Casadaban. 1983. Fusion of the Saccharomyces cerevisiae leu2 gene to an Escherichia coli 3-galactosidase gene. Mol. Cell. Biol. 3:580-586.
- 31. Miller, J. 1972. Experiments in molecular genetics. Cold Spring

Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.

- 32. Naumovski, L., and E. C. Friedberg. 1982. Molecular cloning of eucaryotic genes required for excision repair of UV-irradiated DNA: isolation and partial characterization of the RAD3 gene of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J. Bacteriol. 152:323-331.
- 33. Naumovski, L., and E. C. Friedberg. 1984. Saccharomyces cerevisiae RAD2 gene: isolation, subcloning, and partial characterization. Mol. Cell. Biol. 4:290-295.
- 34. Orr-Weaver, T. L., J. W. Szostak, and R. J. Rothstein. 1981. Yeast transformation: a model system for the study of recombination. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 78:6354-6358.
- 35. Orr-Weaver, T. L., J. W. Szostak, and R. J. Rothstein. 1983. Genetic applications of yeast transformations with linear and gapped plasmids. Methods Enzymol. 101:228-244.
- 36. Osley, M. A., and L. Hereford. 1982. Identification of ^a sequence responsible for periodic synthesis of yeast histone 2A mRNA. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 79:7689-7693.
- 37. Prakash, L. 1976. The relation between repair of DNA and radiation and chemical mutagenesis in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mutat. Res. 41:241-248.
- 38. Prakash, L., R. Polakowska, and B. Slitzky. 1982. Cloning of a DNA repair gene in yeast. Recent Adv. Yeast Mol. Biol. 1:225-241.
- 39. Quillardet, P., 0. Huisman, R. D'Ari, and M. Hofnung. 1983. SOS chromotest, ^a direct assay of induction of an SOS function in Escherichia coli K-12 to measure genotoxicity. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 79:5971-5975.
- 40. Rigby, P., M. Dieckmann, C. Rhodes, and P. Berg. 1977. Labeling deoxyribonucleic acid to high specific activity in vitro by nick translation with DNA polymerase I. J. Mol. Biol. 113:237-251.
- 41. Rose, M., M. J. Casadaban, and D. Botstein. 1981. Yeast genes fused to beta-galactosidase in Escherichia coli can be expressed normally in yeast. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 78:2460-2464.
- Ruby, S. W., J. W. Szostak, and A. W. Murray. 1983. Cloning regulated yeast genes from a pool of lacZ fusions. Methods Enzymol. 101:253-268.
- 43. Samson, L., and J. Cairns. 1977. A new pathway for DNA repair in Escherichia coli. Nature (London) 267:281-282.
- 44. Schild, D., B. Konforti, C. Perez, W. Gish, and R. Mortimer. 1983. Isolation and characterization of yeast DNA repair genes. I. Cloning of the RAD52 gene. Curr. Genet. 7:85-92.
- 45. Sherman, F., G. R. Fink, and C. W. Lawrence. 1979. Methods in yeast genetics. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- 46. Siede, W., F. Eckardt, and M. Brendel. 1983. Analysis of mutagenic DNA repair in ^a thermoconditional repair mutant of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. I. Influence of cycloheximide on UV-irradiated stationary phase rev2^{ts} cells. Mol. Gen. Genet. 190:406-412.
- 47. Silverman, S. J., M. Rose, D. Botstein, and G. R. Fink. 1982. Regulation of his4-lacZ fusions in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 2:1212-1219.
- 48. Southern, E. M. 1975. Detection of specific sequences among DNA fragments separated by gel electrophoresis. J. Methods Enzymol. Biol. 98:503-517.
- 49. Stadler, D., and R. Moyer. 1981. Induced repair of genetic damage in Neurospora. Genetics 98:763-774.
- 50. Struhl, K., and R. Davis. 1980. A physical, genetic and transcriptional map of the cloned his3 gene region of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J. Mol. Biol. 136:309-332.
- 51. Struhl, K., and R. Davis. 1981. Transcription of the HIS3 gene region in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J. Mol. Biol. 152:535-552.
- 52. Walker, G. 1984. Mutagenesis and inducible responses to DNA damage in Escherichia coli. Microbiol. Rev. 48:60-93.
- 53. Witkin, E. 1976. Ultraviolet mutagenesis and inducible DNA repair in Escherichia coli. Bacteriol. Rev. 40:869-907.