Saccharomyces cerevisiae STE6 gene product: a novel pathway for protein export in eukaryotic cells

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Saccharomyces cerevisiae MATa cells release a lipopeptide mating pheromone, a-factor. Radiolabeling and immunoprecipitation show that MATa ste6 mutants produce pro-a-factor and mature a-factor intracellularly, but little or no extracellular pheromone. Normal MATa cells carrying a multicopy plasmid containing both MFal (pro-a-factor structural gene) and the STE6 gene secrete a-factor at least five times faster than the same cells carrying only MFal in the same vector. The nucleotide sequence of the STE6 gene predicts a 1290 residue polypeptide with multiple membrane spanning segments and two hydrophilic domains, each strikingly homologous to a set of well-characterized prokaryotic permeases (including $hlyB$, oppD, hisP, malK and pstB) and sharing even greater identity with mammalian *mdr* (multiple drug resistance) transporters. These results suggest that the STE6 protein in yeast, and possibly *mdr* in animals, is a transmembrane translocator that exports polypeptides by a route independent of the classical secretory pathway. Key words: MATa cells/Saccharomyces cerevisiae/STE6 gene/transmembrane translocator

Introduction

The yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae produces and responds to secreted peptide hormones. The role of these peptide signals is to induce processes that lead to conjugation between haploid yeast cells, resulting in the formation of diploid cells (for review, see Cross et al., 1988). Therefore, these secreted peptides are referred to as mating pheromones. The pheromone produced by $MAT\alpha$ haploids is called α -factor. Mature biologically active α -factor (a tridecapeptide) is produced from a much larger glycosylated precursor (prepro- α -factor) by specific proteolytic processing events that occur during transit of this precursor through the yeast secretory pathway (for review, see Fuller et al., 1988).

Unlike α -factor, mature biologically active **a**-factor is a post-translationally-modified peptide. The a-factor is 12 amino acids long (Fuller et al., 1986; Betz et al., 1987), but carries on the C-terminal Cys residue both a farnesyl moiety (attached via thioether linkage to the side chain) and a methyl group (attached via ester linkage to the carboxyl end) (Anderegg et al., 1988; Schafer et al., 1989). These same modifications also decorate both the yeast and mammalian ras proteins (Gutierrez et al., 1989; Hancock

et al., 1989; Schafer et al., 1989). Also unlike α -factor, the precursors from which a-factor is generated (MFal and MFa2 gene products) are very short (36 and 38 amino acids respectively), lack a hydrophobic N-terminal signal sequence and are devoid of sites for attachment of Asn-linked oligosaccharides (Brake et al., 1985). In further contrast to α -factor, extracellular a-factor is still produced when *MAT*a cells carrying temperature-sensitive secretion-defective (sec) mutations (Schekman, 1985) are shifted to the restrictive temperature (Steme, 1989; Sterne and Thorner, 1986, 1987; R.E.Sterne, L.C.Blair and J.Thomer, in preparation); and, based on protease susceptibility, pro-a-factor is not sequestered in a membrane-bound compartment (Sterne, 1989; R.E. Sterne, L.C. Blair and J. Thorner, in preparation). Moreover, none of the mutations that prevent proteolytic processing of prepro- α -factor block maturation of a-factor precursor (Julius et al., 1983, 1984).

Taken together, these findings indicate that a-factor is processed and released from MATa cells by ^a route that is quite distinct from the typical secretory pathway. Several mutations have been identified that cause MATa cells (but not $MAT\alpha$ cells) to be mating defective. The products of the so-called STE (for 'sterile') genes of this MATa-specific class should include cellular components involved in the synthesis of mature extracellular a-factor. Indeed, genetic and physiological studies of two such mutations, ste6 (Rine, 1979) and stel4 (Blair, 1979), suggested that these defects prevent the production of biologically active a-factor, but do not interfere with the ability of MATa cells to respond to a pheromone (α -factor) signal (Chan *et al.*, 1983). Consistent with this conclusion, transcription of the MFal and MFa2 genes is normal in ste6 and ste14 mutants (Brake et al., 1985). A third *MATa*-specific mutation, ram1 (Powers et al., 1986) (also called *dpr1* and ste16), blocks the posttranslational modification of both a-factor and yeast RAS proteins.

We have sought to clarify further the processes involved in a-factor biogenesis. Here we present biochemical and genetic evidence that the STE6 gene product catalyzes the rate-limiting step in secretion of a-factor. By determining the complete nucleotide sequence of the STE6 gene, we found that the STE6 protein is likely to be a membrane-bound transporter because it is highly homologous to a family of well-studied membrane permeases from prokaryotic cells (for review, see Ames, 1986). More intriguing still, the STE6 gene is even more closely related to the mammalian *mdr* genes which, when overexpressed or amplified, can confer multiple drug resistance (for review, see Endicott and Ling, 1989). Our findings suggest, therefore, that the true role of the *mdr* family of transporters in eukaryotic cells may be to carry out the intercompartmental translocation of peptides and proteins by a mechanism independent of the secretory pathway, as was originally speculated by Gerlach et al. (1986).

Results

Export of a-factor is blocked in ste6 mutants

We developed three tools that have allowed us to examine a-factor biogenesis. First, we raised polyclonal anti-a-factor antibodies that recognize both a-factor precursor and mature a-factor, as is documented in detail elsewhere (Sterne, 1989; R.E.Sterne, L.C.Blair and J.Thorner, in preparation). Second, we prepared the 12 residue a-factor backbone (YIKGVFWDPAC) by solid phase peptide synthesis for use in conjunction with the antibodies to definitively identify a-factor-related peptides by competition (Sterne, 1989; R.E.Steme, L.C.Blair and J.Thomer, in preparation). Third, to raise the steady-state level of processing intermediates in MATa cells, we overproduced pro-a-factor by expressing the MFal gene from a multicopy plasmid (Brake et al., 1985).

When a-factor is produced under the direction of the genomic MFal and MFa2 genes, the level of pro-a-factor synthesized is just barely detectable by immunoprecipitation, even during pulse-labeling periods from ¹ to 5 min with carrier-free $\mathrm{^{33}SO_4}^2$ at concentrations as high as 1 mCi/ml (data not shown). In contrast, when $MATa$ cells carry the MFal gene on a multicopy plasmid, intracellular pro-a-factor is readily observed either in a pulse label or during steadystate labeling (Figure 1). We have used this approach to examine the forms of a-factor present in various mutants that affect a-factor production.

The ste6-1 mutation was originally identified as a lesion which causes *MATa* cells to be mating defective (Rine, 1979). Subsequent studies suggested that the mating defect of ste6 mutants was due either to secretion of an insufficient amount of a-factor or to secretion of a non-functional a-factor (Chan et al., 1983). The availability of anti-a-factor

Fig. 1. ste6 mutants are deficient in a-factor secretion. Expontentiallygrowing cultures (2 ml) at an $OD_{600} = 2$ of a *MATa ste6* mutant (REY21-1) and its isogenic parent (W303-1A), both carrying plasmid pAB182, were either pulse labeled at 30°C with 2 mCi ${}^{35}SO_4{}^{2-}$ for 5 min in LSM+ lacking sulfate and uracil (after ^a ¹⁵ min preincubation in LSM+ lacking uracil and sulfate to deplete the endogenous sulfate pool) or labeled with $2mCi$ $35SO_4{}^2$ in the steady-state for 1 h in LSM + lacking uracil and containing 10 μ M (NH₄)₂SO₄. Intracellular ('I') a-factor was immunoprecipitated from detergent-solubilized extracts prepared by glass bead lysis of washed whole cells (Sterne, 1989; R.E.Sterne, L.C.Blair and J.Thorner, in preparation). Secreted ('S') a-factor was immunoprecipitated from the combined material present in the concentrated cell-free culture medium and an organic solvent eluate of the walls of the culture flask (Steme, 1989; R.E.Sterne, L.C.Blair and J.Thorner, in preparation). Immunoprecipitations were performed in the absence $(-)$ or presence (+) of a 200-fold excess of synthetic a-factor ('12mer'). The precipitates were solubilized, fractionated on a $10-20\%$ polyacrylamide gradient gel, and visualized by autoradiography after impregnation of the gel with ¹ M salicylate (Chamberlain, 1979). Product of in vitro translation of synthetic MFal mRNA, 'IVT'; proa-factor, 'paf; and mature a-factor, 'maf'.

antibodies allowed us to resolve this question. As revealed by immunoprecipitation after long-term labeling, the amount of extracellular a-factor produced by a ste6 mutant (ste $6\Delta N$:: TRP1) is <3% of that secreted by an isogenic $STE6⁺$ strain (Figure 1). Furthermore, the amount of proa-factor (and another intermediate) present intracellularly was reproducibly elevated over that found in the wild-type cells; and, mature a-factor was also observed, although its level was somewhat more variable from experiment to experiment. Essentially identical results were obtained when a strain (RK547-20A) carrying the original $ste6-1$ allele was compared to its isogenic $STE6$ ⁺ strain (REY547) (data not shown).

The decreased level of a-factor secreted by ste6 mutants is not due to reduced transcription of the MFal and MFa2 genes (Brake et al., 1985). Nevertheless, it was possible that ste6 mutations reduce translation of the MFal and MFa2 mRNAs. However, pulse-labeling of cells overexpressing MFal demonstrated that a ste6 mutant and an isogenic wildtype cell initially synthesize nearly identical levels of pro-afactor (Figure 1). The fact that *ste6* mutants release only barely detectable amounts of extracellular a-factor, yet synthesize normal levels of pro-a-factor and are capable of converting the precursor to mature a-factor, suggested that the ste6 mutation prevents some aspect of a-factor secretion (rather than pro-a-factor processing). Mature a-factor does not accumulate intracellularly in the ste6 mutants because it appears to be rapidly degraded (see below).

STE6 gene product is rate-limiting for a-factor transport

When normal MATa cells carry the MFal gene on a multicopy plasmid, the intracellular precursor is overproduced at least 80-fold, as judged by radiolabeling and immunoprecipitation (Figure 2); yet, when measured either by bioassay (data not shown) or by immunoprecipitation of radiolabeled peptide (Figure 2), the amount of secreted afactor is elevated only 5 to 6-fold. Therefore, it appears that some other gene product(s) are limiting the efficiency of processing and/or secretion.

Our observation that ste6 mutants accumulate pro-a-factor and generate mature a-factor intracellularly, yet produce very little extracellular pheromone, suggested that the STE6 gene

Fig. 2. Overexpression of the STE6 gene product increases the efficiency of a-factor production. Exponentially growing cultures (1 ml) of ^a wild-type MATa strain (W303-1A) carrying multicopy plasmids with no insert (YEp352) (lanes ¹ and 2), or with the MFal gene alone (pKK1) (lanes 3 and 4), or with both the MFa1 and STE6 genes (pKK16) (lanes 5 and 6), or with both the MFal and STE14 genes (pRE 10) (lanes 7 and 8), were labeled for 1 h in $LSM +$ lacking uracil and containing 10 μ M (NH₄)₂SO₄ and analyzed by immunoprecipitation, gel electrophoresis, and autoradiography, all as described in the legend to Figure 1.

product might be rate-limiting for a-factor export. To test this possibility, the STE6 gene was inserted into the same multicopy plasmid that contained the MFal gene. In this way, the amount of intracellular precursor and secreted a-factor could be measured for normal MATa cells and for the same cells overexpressing MFal alone and overexpressing both MFal and STE6. In the same way, we also examined the effect of overproducing the product of another gene that has been implicted in a-factor biosynthesis, STE14 (Blair, 1979; Chan et al., 1983). In comparison to MATa cells harboring the MFal gene alone on a multicopy plasmid, simultaneous overexpression of MFal and STE6 resulted in a marked decrease in the level of intracellular precursor and a striking increase in the amount of mature a-factor released

Fig. 3. The STE6 gene product is rate limiting for a-factor export. Exponentially growing cultures (6 ml) of a wild-type MATa strain (W303-1A) carrying (A) the MFal gene on a multicopy plasmid (pKK1), or (B) carrying both the MFal and STE6 genes on a multicopy plasmid (pKK16), were pulse-labeled with 6 mCi ${}^{35}SO_4{}^{2-}$ for 4 min in LSM + lacking uracil and sulfate. Immediately after the pulse, a 1 ml sample was withdrawn and quenched by chilling on ice and by addition of NaN₃ to a final concentration of 10 mM. The remainder of the culture (5 ml) was removed and portions (1 ml) were transferred to five separate flasks, each containing excess methionine (20 mM), cysteine (20 mM) and sulfate (1 mM) (to yield the final concentrations given in parentheses). One of the chased samples was quenched in the same way at each of the indicated times. The a-factor-related peptides in all the samples were immunoprecipitated and analyzed as descibed in the legend to Figure 1. The intensity of the bands shown in the autoradiograms of (A) and (B) were quantitated by the method of Suissa (1983) and replotted as a function of time in (C) and (D) respectively.

from the cells (Figure 2). In contrast, simultaneous overexpression of *MFa1* and *STE14* did not significantly increase
the amount of extracellular **a**-factor, even though the level

of intracellular pro-a-factor was reduced somewhat.
The effect of elevating the STE6 gene product on the kinetics of a-factor secretion was examined in more detail.

897	2689 GTTGCTCAGTTAGAAAACTGCCTGTACCAGATTGTCACTAACATTAAAACCATTAAGTGCTTACAAGCTGAATTTCATTTTCAA 2772 ValAlaGlnLeuGluAsnCysLeuTyrGlnIleValThrAsnIleLysThrIleLysCysLeuGlnAlaGluPheHisPheGln 924	
2773 925	TTGACCTACCATGACTTGAAGATAAAAATGCAACAAATTGCCTCCAAACGCGCCATTGCCACAGGATTTGGTATATCTATGACA LeuThrTyrHisAspLeuLysIleLysMetGlnGlnIleAlaSerLysArgAlaIleAlaThrGlyPheGlvIleSerMetThr 952	2856
2857 953	AACATGATTGTCATGTGTATCCAAGCTATTATTACTACTATGGCCTAAAGCTGGTTATGATTCACGAGTACACCTCAAAGGAA 2940 AsnMetIleValMetCysIleGlnAlaIleIleTyrTyrTyrGlyLeuLysLeuValMetIleHisGluTyrThrSerLysGlu 980	
981	2941 ATGTTTACGACTTTCACTTTGTTATTATTCACTATTATGTCATGCACTAGCCTAGTAAGTCAGATACCCGATATAAGTAGAGGC MetPheThrThrPheThrLeuLeuLeuPheThrIleMetSerCvsThrSerLeuValSerGlnIleProAspIleSerArqGly	3024 1008
	3025 CAACGTGCTGCCAGTTGGATCTATAGGATTCTTGATGAAAAGCATAATACCCTAGAGGTTGAAAACAATAATGCTAGAACAGTG 1009 GlnArgAlaAlaSerTrpIleTyrArgIleLeuAspGluLysHisAsnThrLeuGluValGluAsnAsnAsnAlaArgThrVal	3108 1036
3109	GGAATAGCTGGTCACACCTACCATGGCAAAGAAAAAAAACCAATCGTTTCAATTCAAAATTTGACATTTGCCTATCCATCTGCA 1037 GlyIleAlaGlyHisThrTyrHisGlyLysGluLysLysProIleValSerIleGlnAsnLeuThrPheAlaTyrProSerAla	3192 1064
	3193 CCTACCGCCTTTGTTTACAAAAACATGAATTTTGACATGTTTTGCGGACAGACGTTAGGTATCATTGGTGAATCAGGCACAGGA 1065 ProThrAlaPheValTyrLysAsnMetAsnPheAspMetPheCysGlyGlnThrLeuGlyIleIleGlyGluSerGlyThrGly	3276 1092
	3277 AAGTCTACACTTGTGCTTTTATTAACAAAACTTTATAATTGTGAAGTAGGCAAAATTAAAATAGACGGTACGGACGTAAATGAC 1093 LysSerThrLeuValLeuLeuLeuThrLysLeuTyrAsnCysGluValGlyLysIleLysIleAspGlyThrAspValAsnAsp	3360 1120
3361 1121	TGGAATTTGACAAGTTTAAGAAAAGAAATTTCAGTGGTTGAGCAAAAACCTTTATTATTCAATGGAACCATCAGAGATAACCTA TrpAsnLeuThrSerLeuArgLysGluIleSerValValGluGlnLysProLeuLeuPheAsnGlyThrIleArgAspAsnLeu	3444 1148
1149	3445 ACTTATGGTTTACAAGATGAAATACTTGAAATTGAAATGTATGATGCATTAAAATACGTAGGAATCCATGACTTTGTAATTTCA ThrTyrGlyLeuGlnAspGluIleLeuGluIleGluMetTyrAspAlaLeuLysTyrValGlyIleHisAspPheValIleSer	3528 1176
3529 1177	TCACCTCAGGGCTTGGATACACGTATTGATACAACTTTACTGTCTGGTGGACAAGCGCAAAGGCTTTGCATAGCCAGAGCACTT SerProGlnGlyLeuAspThrArqIleAspThrThrLeuLeuSerGlyGlyGlnAlaGlnArqLeuCysIleAlaArqAlaLeu	3612 1204
1205	3613 CTGAGAAAATCAAAAATTCTGATTTTAGATGAGTGTACTTCAGCCTTGGATTCTGTCAGCTCCTCTATCATCAATGAGATCGTC LeuArgLysSerLysIleLeuIleLeuAspGluCysThrSerAlaLeuAspSerValSerSerSerIleIleAsnGluIleVal	3696 1232
3697 I 12331	AAAAAAGGTCCACCTGCTCTACTAACAATGGTTATAACGCATAGTGAACAAATGATGAGGTCTTGTAACTCGATTGCAGTTCTT LysLysGlyProProAlaLeuLeuThrMetValIleThrHisSerGluGlnMetMetArgSerCysAsnSerIleAlaValLeu	3780 1260
3781 I 12611	LysAspGlyLysValValGluArqGlyAsnPheAspThrLeuTyrAsnAsnArqGlyGluLeuPheGlnIleValSerAsnGln	3864 1288
	3865 AGCAGTTAAacccaaagaaaatataaaacaaaaaactaaaacatactcaaatattcqaqactacattaataataat--3' 1289 Serser $*$	

Fig. 4. Restriction map, nucleotide sequence and deduced amino acid sequence of the STE6 gene. A shows a partial restriction map of the STE6 gene and its immediate flanking sequences. The restriction endonuclease cleavage sites most relevant to this study are indicated. Hatched box indicates coding region of the gene. Solid vertical bars indicate approximate positions of putative transmembrane segments. Open boxes indicate regions of internal homology that are also homologous to prokaryotic transport proteins and to mammalian P-glycoproteins (mdr gene products). \bf{B} shows nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequence of the gene. Nucleotide $+1$ is the A of the ATG translational start codon. Putative transmembrane segments are underlined. Consensus sites for addition of N-linked oligosaccharides (-Asn-X-Thr/Ser-) are indicated by the solid triangles. Boxed areas demarcate the regions of internal homology that are also homologous to bacterial permeases and mammalian mdr gene products.

In a 4 min pulse, MATa cells carrying the MFa1 plasmid and the $MFa1 - STE6$ composite plasmid produced virtually identical amounts of intracellular pro-a-factor (Figure 3A and B). In the cells overexpressing MFa1 alone, however, the amount of precursor steadily declined during the chase, but was not accompanied by a commensurate increase in the amount of either intracellular processed a-factor or extracellular mature a-factor (Figure 3A). We have observed this inefficient processing and secretion in several different wild-type MATa strains derived from different origins, including W303-1A, CG378 and TDY21-3D (Sterne, 1989; R.E.Sterne, L.C.Blair and J.Thorner, in preparation) (Table I). When expressed as a fraction of the pro-a-factor initially synthesized, the amount of mature a-factor secreted is only $3-5%$ of the radioactivity incorporated into the precursor (Figure 3C and D). Theoretically, if all of the precursor were processed and secreted, then half of the ³⁵S incorporated into pro-a-factor should appear in mature a-factor (because the pheromone has only one of the two sulfur atoms present in the precursor). These observations suggest that, in the absence of efficient export, intracellular precursor and/or its processed forms are subject to non-specific degradation. This proteolysis may occur in the yeast vacuole because MATa pep4 mutants which are deficient in the major vacuolar proteases (Jones, 1984) convert a significantly larger fraction of pro-a-factor into the secreted pheromone (Sterne, 1989).

In the cells overexpressing both MFal and STE6, the amount of precursor also declined steadily during the chase; but, in contrast to cells overexpressing MFal alone, the disappearance of pro-a-factor was accompanied by a concomitant increase in extracellular a-factor (Figure 3B).

The increase in extracellular pheromone over that seen in cells overexpressing MFa1 alone was nearly an order of magnitude, and approached about half the theoretical limit expected for complete conversion of the precursor initially synthesized (Figure 3C and D). Even more strikingly, when both MFal and STE6 were co-expressed from a multicopy plasmid, a-factor began to appear extracellularly during the pulse period, whereas in cells overexpressing MFal alone, extracellular a-factor could only be detected 8 min after the chase (Figure 3A and B). When plotted as a function of time (Figure 3C and D), these data indicate that overexpression of STE6 increased the rate of a-factor export nearly 5-fold. Hence, elevation of the level of the STE6 gene product increased both the rate and the extent of a-factor secretion.

Complete nucleotide sequence of the STE6 gene

To gain additional insight into the possible function of the STE6 gene product, a total of 4500 nucleotides was sequenced from the genomic DNA containing the STE6 gene, from 102 bp upstream of the SpeI site to 115 bp downstream of the SspI site (Figure 4), and has been deposited in GenBank (accession no. M26376). Within this region there is an open reading frame of 3870 nucleotides (Figure 4), which could encode a protein of 1290 amino acids (calculated mol. wt 144 774). The N-terminal sequence obtained is in complete agreement with the first 41 amino acids of the STE6 coding region which were reported previously by Wilson and Herskowitz (1986) when they determined the nucleotide sequence of 469 nucleotides from the 5' flanking region of this gene. The size of the STE6 coding region is also consistent with the length of the STE6 transcript (4 kb)

Fig. 5. Extensive internal homology in the STE6 gene product. The two hydrophilic domains (Ste6a and Ste6b) indicated (positions correspond to the boxed residues shown in Figure 4) have been aligned to maximize the number of identities (boxed). The dash symbols $(-)$ indicate single residue gaps inserted to optimize the alignment.

identified by hybridization of fragments from the coding region to poly $(A)^+$ RNA isolated from *MATa* cells (data not shown), and is in agreement with the transcript length reported previously by Wilson and Herskowitz (1984).

Hydropathy analysis of the amino acid sequence using the parameters of either Hopp and Woods (1981) or Kyte and Doolittle (1982) revealed 12 potential membrane-spanning domains (Figure 4). Further, multiple matches (14 total) to the consensus site for addition of Asn-linked oligosaccharides are found in the sequence. These features are frequently observed in polytopic membrane glycoproteins.

The STE6 gene product is a transport protein

The predicted STE6 protein contains two domains (residues $325 - 607$ and $1021 - 1290$) that share 33% identity with each other (Figure 5). The homology between these two domains is increased to $>50\%$ if standard conservative amino acid substitutions are considered. When compared with the protein sequences available in various databases, each of these domains of internal homology in STE6 was found to have significant similarity over its entire length to two different classes of known membrane-associated transport proteins (Figure 6A and B).

First, both domains of the STE6 gene product share $21-31\%$ identity with component proteins of wellcharacterized, periplasmic binding protein-dependent permeases from prokaryotic cells, including pstB (phosphate transport), malK (maltose transport), rbsA (ribose transport), hisP (histidine transport) and $oppD$ and $oppF$ (oligopeptide transport) (Ames, 1986). In general, however, the homology of STE6 is greatest $(34-37\%$ identity) with those members of this family of bacterial transport proteins that are involved in the export of polypeptides (as opposed to those involved in the uptake of ions, sugars, amino acids or other small molecules). Components of bacterial transport systems of this type include gene products involved in the secretion of: a 3300 mol. wt peptide antibiotic, microcin B17, by Escherichia coli (mcbF) (del Carmen Garrido et al., 1988); ^a ⁴⁵ ⁰⁰⁰ mol. wt calmodulin-stimulated adenylate cyclase by the whooping cough pathogen, Bordetella pertussis (cyaB) (Glaser et al., 1988); and, a 110 000 mol. wt hemolysin from pathogenic strains of E. coli (hlyB) (Felmlee et al., 1985).

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Alignments of the domains of STE6 to some of these prokaryotic gene products are shown in Figure 6A and B.

The role of these particular bacterial proteins in membrane transport appears to be as peripheral membrane components that intimately associate on the cytosolic side of the plasma membrane with separate, much more hydrophobic, integral membrane proteins (see, e.g. Gallagher et al., 1989). Strong evidence indicates that the function of these peripheral proteins is to provide energy coupling for the transport process via binding and hydrolysis of ATP. Indeed, these proteins all possess sequences highly homologous to the residues known to comprise ^a primary ATP-binding site in the β subunits of proton-translocating membrane ATPases (Futai et al., 1989); and, in some cases, these proteins can be covalently labeled by various reactive ATP derivatives (Hobson et al., 1984; Higgins et al., 1985) or transport in an in viro system can be stimulated by ATP (Bishop et al., 1989; Dean et al., 1989). The putative ATP binding regions of the prokaryotic proteins are completely conserved in both domains of the $STE6$ gene product (G x SG x GKS beginning at residues ³⁹² and 1087, and L xx DE xx SALD beginning at residues 527 and 1211).

Remarkably, the hydrophilic domains of STE6 gene product are most closely related (40% identity) to the hydrophilic domains of a second class of membrane transporters, the mammalian multiple drug-resistant (mdr) gene products (Figure 6A and B). The similarity between STE6 and the *mdr* proteins in these regions rises to $>60\%$ homology if conservative amino acid substitutions are allowed. Like the bacterial transport proteins mentioned above, the *mdr* gene products are ATP-binding proteins (Cornwell et al., 1987) and possess ATPase activity (Hamada and Tsuruo, 1988); however, like STE6, mdr proteins have two ATP-binding domains. Unlike the ATP-binding components of the prokaryotic permeases, but like the STE6 gene product, the *mdr* proteins also contain 12 potential transmembrane segments. The *mdr* gene products have been shown to be integral membrane glycoproteins, the so-called 'P-glycoproteins' (Ueda et al., 1986). No significant homology could be found by computer between the hydrophobic domains of STE6 and the integral membrane proteins that are components of the bacterial permeases. In contrast, the region of the STE6 gene product that contains the first six transmembrane segments (Ste6M1 domain) shares significant homology (22% identity) over its entire length with the corresponding membrane-spanning segments of human and mouse *mdr1* proteins; similarly, the region of STE6 containing the second set of six transmembrane helices (Ste6M2 domain) shares 20% identity with the corresponding region of human mdrl (Figure 7). Thus, the yeast STE6 gene product and the mdr proteins from mammalian cells possess significant homology throughout their entire primary sequence, are nearly identical in length, contain two ATP-binding regions, and are presumably anchored in the plasma membrane via two sets of six membrane-spanning helices.

Phenotype of cells with ste6 null mutations

The STE6 gene is normally expressed only in MATa cells (Wilson and Herskowitz, 1984), suggesting that $MAT\alpha$ cells do not require this protein for viability. To determine if the STE6 locus is an essential gene, a deletion mutation (ste6 Δ :: HIS3), in which 87% of the coding sequence was removed

TVOAQDMTLLNELKREFNDAIIMIEHDLGVVAGICDKVIMMYAGRTMDTLKARDVFYQFVHPPYSI
SIQAQVVNLLQQLQREMGLSLIFIAHDLAVVKHISDRVLMYAGRTMDTLAYDFVDLHCFLKA
TVQAQDMTLLNELKREFNDAIIMIEHDLGVVAGICDKVIMMYAGRTMDTLAKARDVFYQFVHPPYSI OppD 200

Fig. 6. The STE6 gene product is homologous to both prokaryotic and eukaryotic transport proteins. Each of the domains of internal homology (Ste6a and Ste6b) are compared separately (panels A and B respectively) to a number of known membrane bound transporters. Alignments were generated by the FASTP algorithm of Lipman and Pearson (1985). Identities are boxed. Sequences for the bacterial permeases can be found in the following citations: hisP, histidine transport (Higgins et al., 1982); oppD, oligopeptide transport (Higgins et al., 1985); oppF, oligopeptide transport (Hiles et al., 1987); and hlyB, hemolysin export (Felmlee et al., 1985). Sequences for the mammalian multiple drug resistance translocators can be found in the following citations: human mdr1 (Chen et al., 1986) and mouse mdr1 (Gros et al., 1986).

(from the Stul site to the SnaBI site, Figure 4) and replaced by the HIS3 gene, was constructed and used to transform a diploid recipient. Appropriate restriction endonuclease digestion and hybridization analysis of DNA from candidate transformants confirmed that the transformed cells possessed one homolog carrying the intact STE6 gene and the other carrying the disrupted locus (see Materials and methods).

Upon sporulation and tetrad dissection, both $MATa$ ste6 Δ :: HIS3 and $MAT\alpha$ ste6 Δ :: HIS3 spore clones were readily recovered and were obtained in equal numbers. Cells carrying the $ste6\Delta$:: HIS3 mutation displayed no obvious growth defect in either liquid or solid medium (data not shown). Thus, a functional STE6 gene is not required for either germination or viability of haploid cells.

 $#aa$ ELEGM1 26 MINTI-OTVATGLV-PAITSIITGRVFDLISVFVANGSHQGIVSQLVQRSMAVMALGAASVFMM
MMdr1M1 66 LIMLVFONMTDSFT-KARASILPSITNQSGPNSTLIISNSSLEEEMAIYAYYYTGIGAGVLIMA
HMdr1M1 67 LMMLVFORMTDIFANAGNLEILLMSNITN-RSDINDTGFFMNLLEEDMTRYAYYYSGIGA Ste6M1 90 WLSLTSMMHIGERQGFRIRSOILEANLEEKPMEMMONNEKLLGDF-HOINRCVEELRSSSAEAS
MMdrIM1 129 YIQVSIMCLAAGROIHKIROKFFHAIMNOE-IGMFDVHD--VGELNTRLTDDVSKINDGIGDKI
HMdrIM1 130 YIQVSFMOCLAAGROIHKIRKOFFHAIMROE-IGMFDVHD--VGELNTRLTDDVSKIN Ste6M1 153 AITFONLVAIOALLGTSFYYSWSLTILLEICSSPITTFFRAVDFSRMIHVYSEKPASETSKAAOLL
MMdr1M1 190 GMFFOSITTFIAGFIIOFISGWKLTIVIIAVSFILLGLSSALWAKVLTSFTWKELOAYAKAGAVA
HMdr1M1 191 GMFFOSMATFFTGFIVOETRGWKLTIVILLAISENVLGLSAADWAKILSSFTDK Ste6M1 217 TWSMMAAQ1WRLYCTORLERKKFKEIILNCNTFFTRSCFFVAANAGTLRFUTLTMFVQGFWFQS
MMdr1M1 254 EEVLAAIRTV/LAFGQQQKELERYNKNLEEAKNVGLKKAITASISTGJAY1LWYASYALAFWMQT
HMdr1M1 255 EEVLAAIRTV/LAFGQQKKELERYNKNLEEAKRIGLKKAITANISTGAAFILLIYA Ste6M2 792 VMD**ERNEVMEKLTBKNMDWFSGENNKASETSALVLNDLR**DLRSLVSEF**LSAMTSFVTVSTIGHT**
MMdr1M1 143 IHKTROKFFHAIMNOEIGWF--DVHDVQELNTRLTDDVSKINDGIGDKIGMFFOSIUTFLAGFT
HMdr1M2 785 TKR<mark>LRYMO</mark>FRSMLRODVSMEDDPKRITTGALTTRLAKUAAQVKGAIGSRLA Ste6M2 856 WALVSGWKISLVCISMFELIIEFSALYGGIDOKCETDYFTEYAQLENCLYQIVINTIKTLKCEQA
MMdr1M1 205 IGFISGWKITLVILAVSPLIGLSSALWAKVLTSFTNKELQAYAKAGAVAEEVLAAIRTIVIAFGG
HMdr1M2 849 ISFIYGWQLITLLLAIVETIAADAGVVEMKWLSGQALKDRKELEGAGKIATEAIE Ste6M2 920 EFHEQLTYHDLKIKMQQIASRRATATQFGTSMTNMIVMQIQAIIYYFQLKLVMIHEYTSKEMFT
MMdr1M1 269 QQKELERYNKNLEEAKNVGIKKATTASISTGIAYLLVYASYBLAFWYQTSLVLSNEYSIQEVIU
HMdr1M2 913 EQXEEERYYAQSLQVPYRNSLRKBHI--FGTTFSFTQADMYFSYAGCFRFGAYLVAH Ste6M2 984 --TPTLLLTTTTMSCTSDVSOFFDISRGORAASWITYRTT
MMdr1M1 333 --VFFSTLLLGTPSTGHLAPNLEAFANARGAAFELIFKLII HMdr1M2 975 LLVESAVTEGAMAVGQVSSFAPDYAKAKISAAHLIMLIF

Fig. 7. The transmembrane domains of yeast STE6 gene product and mammalian mdr proteins are homologous. Identities between the two hydrophobic domains of STE6, Ste6M1 (residues 26-317) and Ste6M2 (residues 716-1002), and the corresponding domains of mammalian mdr gene products are boxed. See text for further explanation.

However, the $ste6\Delta :: HIS3$ mutation did have two striking phenotypic consequences in *MAT***a** cells. First, this null allele prevented *MAT* a haploids from releasing any extracellular a-factor (Figure 8A). Two other deletion $$ insertion mutations we constructed (ste6 ΔN :: TRP1 and ste $6\Delta N$:: LEU2) also greatly reduced the amount of a-factor secreted (Figures 1 and 8A). Unlike the $ste6\Delta :: HIS3$ null mutation which eliminates any detectable STE6 mRNA, these latter two alleles produce copious amounts of a 3 kb transcript corresponding to the C-terminal two-thirds of the coding region (perhaps driven by promoters fortuitously created by the insertion constructions) (data not shown). Similarly, a ste6-lacZ fusion (in which lacZ has been inserted in-frame to a PstI site corresponding to codon 384 of the *STE6* sequence) also greatly reduces, but does not eliminate completely, a-factor secretion (Wilson and Herskowitz, 1984); however, this construction also expresses several transcripts complementary to the C-terminal twothirds of the STE6 gene (Wilson and Herskowitz, 1984). Given the internal homology in the STE6 sequence (Figures 4 and 5), the simplest explanation for the low level of pheromone released by $MATa$ cells carrying the ste6 ΔN :: TRP1 and $ste6\Delta N$:: LEU2 alleles (and the $ste6 - lacZ$ fusion) is that there is residual STE6 activity resulting from partial function of aberrant forms of the protein that include the C-terminal two-thirds of the molecule but are truncated at their N-terminal end.

Because of the similarity of the yeast STE6 gene product to the mammalian *mdr* proteins, we also determined whether ste6 null mutants displayed any increased sensitivity to various growth inhibitory agents. Unfortunately, the drugs typically used to select *mdr* variants in animals cells

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(including vinblastine, adriamycin and colchicine) have little or no effect on the growth of yeast cells, even at the limits of solubility of these compounds. On the other hand, we found that MATa STE6 cells are reproducibly less sensitive than isogenic *MATa STE6* Δ :: *HIS3* cells to the growth inhibitory action of a peptide antibiotic, valinomycin, that is an effective inhibitor of yeast growth when present at the millimolar level (Figure 8B). If this effect is due to the absence of *STE6* function, then cells not expressing the *STE6* gene for other reasons should also be more sensitive to valinomycin. Indeed, $MAT\alpha$ STE6 cells displayed the same sensitivity to valinomycin as the $MATa$ ste6 Δ :: HIS3 mutant (Figure 8B). Conversely, MATa cells carrying the STE6 gene on a multicopy plasmid displayed even greater resistance to valinomycin than MATa cells expressing STE6 from its normal chromosomal locus (data not shown).

In contrast, for drugs of other chemical classes that also block yeast growth (including cycloheximide and tunicamycin), there were small or no effects on sensitivity caused by either deletion or overexpression of the STE6 gene (Figure 8B).

Discussion

We have shown here that the STE6 gene product is required for, and is rate-limiting, in the release of a peptide mating pheromone, a-factor, by MATa cells of the yeast S. cerevisiae. Given that pro-a-factor appears to be synthesized and processed in the cytosol (Sterne, 1989; R.E.Sterne, L.C.Blair and J.Thorner, in preparation) and given the striking homology between the STE6 gene product and known membrane-associated transport proteins from both pro-

Fig. 8. Phenotypic consequences of a ste6 null mutation. (A) Bioassay of a-factor production. Equal numbers of cells of the indicated strains were spotted on sterile filter disks and placed on the surface of ^a YPD plate that had been covered with top agar seeded with $\sim 10^5$ cells of a $MAT\alpha$ sst2 tester strain and then incubated at 30°C for 2 days (see Materials and methods for details). (B) Bioassay of drug sensitivity. YPD plates were covered with top agar seeded with $\sim 10^5$ cells of the strains to be tested. Sterile filter disks containing different concentrations of various inhibitors dissolved in ethanol were then placed on the surface and the plates incubated at 30'C for 2 days (see Materials and methods). ch, 5 μ l of 100 μ M cycloheximide; vm, 5 μ l of 5 mM valinomycin; none, 5 μ l of ethanol.

karyotic and mammalian cells, it seems reasonable to propose that the function of the STE6 protein in a-factor production is to serve as an ATP-driven transporter that actually translocates the peptide through the plasma membrane.

If this is indeed the case, then the STE6 gene product should be an a-factor-binding protein. Yeast cells possess at least one other known a-factor-binding protein, the a-factor receptor (STE3 gene product) expressed on the surface of $MAT\alpha$ cells (Hagen et al., 1986). In fact, two segments of the STE6 sequence, each over 40 amino acids long (residues $663 - 708$ and $1002 - 1042$), possess significant similarity to regions of the STE3 protein (Figure 9A). Assuming that a-factor approaches its receptor from the external face of the plasma membrane, and given the proposed seven transmembrane helices structure of the receptor (Hagen et al., 1986), only the segment of *STE3* following the sixth putative transmembrane segment (Figure 9A) will be on the exocellular side of the membrane and thus available for a-factor recognition. Conversely, because STE6 is required for a-factor export, it seems likely that it should recognize a-factor on the cytoplasmic side of the plasma membrane. It is also likely that the two putative ATP-binding domains are also disposed on the cytosolic face of the membrane. Furthermore, because of the high net positive charge $(+5)$ of the first 25 residues of the $STE6$ sequence, the N terminus of the protein probably also resides on the cytoplasmic side of the membrane (Hartmann et al., 1989). These considerations, and analogy with the mammalian *mdr* gene products which it resembles most closely, suggest a model for the topology of the STE6 protein within the membrane (Figure 9B). This model has two additional appealing features. First, it places the only consensus site for addition of N-linked carbohydrate that exists in the N-terminal region (Figure 4) in a hydrophilic loop on the extracellular face of the plasma membrane. This site is in a position identical to the single glycosylation site found in the mammalian P-glycoproteins (Chen et al., 1986; Endicott and Ling, 1989). All the other Asn-x-Thr/Ser sites in STE6 would reside on the cytosolic side of the membrane and, therefore, would presumably remain unglycosylated. Secondly, both of the segments of similarity between STE6 protein and the a-factor receptor (Figure 9A) would lie on the cytoplasmic face of the membrane—the first just preceding the seventh transmembrane domain, and the second just following the last transmembrane domain (Figure 9B). It is not hard to envisage that tertiary folding of the STE6 protein might bring these segments into juxtaposition.

Ever since the molecular characterization of the mammalian *mdr* gene products, it has been appreciated that they bear considerable resemblance, especially in the ATP-binding domains, to constituent proteins of prokaryotic permeases of the periplasmic binding protein-dependent class of transport systems (Gerlach et al., 1986; Gros et al., 1986). This homology immediately suggested that the mechanism of multiple drug resistance conferred by the mammalian P-glycoproteins was due to their ability to pump the drugs out of the cell, thereby keeping the intracellular concentration of these agents below the threshold for their toxic or growth inhibitory effects. All *mdr* strains carry either amplified or overexpressed versions of a cellular *mdr* gene and produce the cognate P-glycoprotein at a higher than normal level, suggesting that elevation of activity is required to achieve pumping of these xenobiotic compounds, which are presumably not the natural cellular substrates for the mdr gene products. Additional support for this view of *mdr* function comes from the fact that resistance to the antimalarial drug, chloroquine, in a unicellular eukaryote, the malarial parasite Plasmodium falciparum, is attributable to amplification of an *mdr*-like gene (Wilson *et al.*, 1989).

Despite this somewhat satisfying picture, the endogenous substrates for the *mdr* class of eukaryotic transporters have remained elusive. Because the yeast STE6 gene product is required for export of an oligopetide normally produced by the cells, our finding that the STE6 gene is also clearly a member of the *mdr* class of transporters may provide the missing link in interpreting the normal physiological function of the mdr proteins in eukaryotic cells. Our results raise the possibility that the true role of the mdr gene products is to serve as transmembrane translocators of proteins via a route that is independent of the standard secretory pathway. Indeed, there are quite a number of eukaryotic proteins that are released from animals cells which have no obvious signal sequence or other strikingly hydrophobic domain and whose mechanism of secretion does not appear to involve the secretory pathway, including interleukin-l α and -1 β (March et al., 1985) and both acidic and basic fibroblast growth factors (Burgess and Maciag, 1989). For lack of a better explanation, appearance of such proteins in the extracellular

Fig. 9. Model for the STE6 gene product in the yeast plasma membrane. (A) Homology between STE6 and the a-factor receptor (STE3 gene product). Identities are boxed and conservative amino acid substitutions, derived from the PAM matrix (Lipman and Pearson, 1985), are indicated by a dot. (B) Schematic representation for the disposition of the STE6 protein in the plasma membrane. Solid line represents polypeptide chain. Solid vertical bars indicate transnmembrane helices. Dotted ball represents ^a single Asn-linked carbohydrate chain. Hatched bars just preceding the seventh membrane-spanning segment and just following the last transmembrane segment indicate the regions of homology between STE6 and the a-tactor receptor (see A). The two hydrophilic ATP-binding domains are marked by the ovals.

fluid has been attributed to damage and death of the producing cells; however, we propose that these types of proteins may exit the cell via the agency of the *mdr* transporters. This hypothesis should be readily testable.

There appears to be a small, but ever growing, family of mdr -related genes that can be identified, even within the genome of a single organism (Van der Bliek et al., 1987; Endicott and Ling, 1989). Thus, there may be different classes of plasma membrane-associated P-glycoproteins for specific types of proteins. Alternatively, *mdr* transporters may be differentially regulated, spatially or temporally or in ^a tissue-specific manner, during development. A third, even more intriguing possibility is that there may be more distantly related *mdr*-like proteins resident in cellular membranes other than the plasma membrane. These molecules could be responsible for the translocation of polypeptides between all intracellular compartments in a eukaryotic cell. Indeed, the 'machinery' responsible for transposing any polypeptide across any cellular membrane has remained, until now, uncharacterized. For example, it is clear that signal recognition particle (SRP) and SRP receptor target a secretory protein to the endoplasmic reticulum membrane (Römisch et al., 1989), and that ATP-dependent protein unfolding enzymes of the hsp70 class are required to put the secretory molecule in a transportcompetent state (Deshaies et al., 1988); but, the actual mechanism by which the polypeptide traverses the membrane has remained obscure. We propose, therefore, that members of the *mdr* gene family may serve this function.

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If this scenario is correct, there are many potential implications. For example, *mdr*-like activities could explain how soluble cytosolic proteins are imported into the lysosome-like vacuole of yeast to initiate their proteolytic degradation. In animal cells, perhaps there is an *mdr*-like protein in the lysosomal membrane that is specific for recognizing ubiquitinated proteins. It may even be possible that the secretory pathway itself may have such proteins, for example to import processed peptide antigens into the secretory system so that productive complexes with the MHC locus receptors can be formed and displayed on the surface of antigen-presenting cells.

Yeast a-factor is a lipopeptide, and the drugs carried by the *mdr* transporters are, in general, large, planar molecules with aromatic rings. Furthermore, P-glycoproteins are abundant in tissues that produce steroids and related compounds. Thus, certain mdr transporters may require that their substrates possess some hydrophobic character or, perhaps, that their substrates be conjugated (either transiently or permanently) to a lipophilic substituent to achieve efficient export.

Materials and methods

Yeast strains, growth conditions and DNA-mediated transformation

S. cerevisiae strains used in this study are listed in Table I. Synthetic medium (SD), supplemented with nutrients appropriate for maintenance of plasmids, or rich medium (YPD), were prepared as described (Sherman et al., 1986). Low sulfate minimal medium $(LSM +)$ was prepared as described previously

(Julius et al., 1983), but was supplemented with all L-amino acids [at the levels recommended by Sherman et al. (1986)] except cysteine and methionine. Top agar contained 0.75 % agar (Difco) in YPD. DNA-mediated transformation of yeast cells was performed by the lithium acetate procedure (Ito et al., 1983). Sonicated calf thymus DNA (20-50 μ g per transformation) was used as a carrier to enhance transformation efficiency. Strain construction and tetrad analysis was performed by standard procedures (Sherman et al., 1986).

Plasmids and bacterial strains

pAB182 (provided by A.Brake) consists of a 1.6 kb genomic $EcoRI-XbaI$ fragment containing the MFal gene and its promoter (Brake et al., 1985) inserted, after addition of BamHI linkers, into the BamHI site of a 2 μ m DNA-based multicopy yeast vector (pAB24) which also has the URA3 gene and the $LEU2^d$ allele (Beggs et al., 1981) as selectable markers. pRE4 was constructed by ligating a 6 kb genomic HindIII-SalI fragment containing the STE6 gene and its promoter (Wilson and Herskowitz, 1984), excised from YIp5-STE6 (provided by K.Wilson and I.Herskowitz), into the
polylinker of pGEM1TM (Promega) that had been digested with *Hin*dIII and Sall. pKK1 consists of the 1.6 kb BamHI fragment containing the MFal gene inserted into the BamHI site of YEp352 (Hill et al., 1986). pKK16 was constructed by inserting the 6 kb H indIII-Sall fragment containing the STE6 gene into pKK1 that had been digested with HindIII and Sall. pRE10 consists of a 4 kb genome BamHI fragment containing the STE14 gene (L.Blair and R.E.Sterne, unpublished results) inserted into pAB182 at a unique BgIII site that resides within the MFal-containing insert \sim 420 bp upstream from the TATA box for MFal transcription (Dolan et al., 1989). Standard methods were used for the propagation and isolation of plasmid

DNA (Maniatis et al., 1982). E.coli K-12 strains HB101, DH1, DG98, or XL-1 Blue (Stratagene) were used for manipulation and amplification of plasmids, where appropriate.

Radiolabeling, cell lysis and immunoprecipitation

The procedures used for labeling of cells with $35SO_4^2$, preparation of cell lysates, extraction of a-factor from culture medium and from the walls of the culture vessel, immunoprecipitation with anti-a-factor antibodies, electrophoresis of a-factor-related peptides in polyacrylamide gradient gels, in vitro translation of synthetic MFa1 mRNA generated by transcription of the MFal gene under control of a Salmonella typhimurium bacteriophage SP6 promoter, and analysis of the gels by autoradiography and densitometry are described in detail elsewhere (Sterne, 1989; R.E.Sterne, L.C.Blair and J.Thorner, in preparation).

Recombinant DNA methods and nucleotide sequence analysis

Restriction enzymes and DNA-modifying enzymes were obtained from New England Biolabs, Pharmacia or Boehringer Mannheim. All radiochemicals were purchased from Amersham. Cycloheximide, valinomycin, and ampicillin were from Sigma; hydrazine, dimethylsulfate, and formic acid were from Aldrich; and piperidine was obtained from Serva.

Yeast genomic DNA was isolated as described (Sherman et al., 1986). After digestion with various restriction enzymes, DNA was fractionated in 0.7% agarose gels, transferred to nitrocellulose filters (0.45 μ m pore size, Schleicher & Schuell) and hybridized to radioactively labeled DNA fragments (Southern, 1975). Total RNA and $poly(A)^+$ RNA was isolated according to Sherman et al. (1986). For hybridization analysis of RNA, poly(A)⁺ RNA (2-5 μ g) was fractionated in a 1.2% agarose gel containing 2.2 M formaldehdye (Williams et al., 1985). RNA was transferred to Hybond-CTM membranes (Amersham) and hybridized to radioactively labeled restriction fragments of STE6. Restriction fragments of STE6 used for hybridization analysis were purified on agarose gels (Maniatis et al., 1982), denatured, and labeled with $[{}^{32}P]$ dCTP using Klenow polymerase and random primers (Amersham). Unincorporated nucleotides were removed from reaction mixtures using commercially available NickTM columns (Pharmacia).

For sequence analysis of STE6, various restriction fragments were subcloned into the polylinker of Bluescript phagemids (Stratagene) and nested deletions were generated using an ExoIII/mung bean nuclease kit and conditions recommended by the supplier (Stratagene). Enzymatic sequencing of DNA (Sanger et al., 1980) was carried out on double-stranded plasmid DNA using ^a SequenaseTM kit (United States Biochemicals). The second strand was sequenced by the chemical degradation method (Maxam and Gilbert, 1980). For chemical sequencing, DNA of various subclones was end-labeled at the ³' termini of various restriction sites using reverse transcriptase and [32P]dNTPs.

Bioassays of a-factor production and drug sensitivity

a-Factor secretion by different strains was measured by replica-plating patches of the MATa cells to be tested onto indicator lawns which were prepared by spreading a suspension of $MAT\alpha$ sst2 cells on the surface of a YPD plate, or by spotting an identical number of freshly grown MATa cells onto a sterile filter disk which was then laid on the indicator lawn. a-Factor causes G_1 arrest in cells of opposite mating type. Because $MAT\alpha$ sst2 cells are - 100 times more sensitive to pheromone than wild-type cells (Chan et al., 1983) and cannot recover from pheromone-induced G_1 arrest (Chan and Otte, 1982), diffusion of a-factor in the top agar results in a clear zone ('halo') in the lawn surrounding the a-factor producers. The size of the halo, therefore, is a meausre of the amount of pheromone secreted. Indicator lawns were prepared by adding ³ ml of top agar in YPD, equilibrated at 45°C, to 0.4 ml of a suspension (OD₆₀₀ = 0.5) of $MAT\alpha$ sst2 cells and pouring this mixture on prewarmed (37°C) YPD plates.

Drug sensitivity of cells was assessed using ^a modified halo assay as follows. A lawn of the cells to be tested was prepared as decribed above and plates were left to sit on the bench until the top agar solidified. Sterile filter disks were placed on the lawn and $5-15 \mu l$ of solutions of various drugs dissolved in ethanol were spotted on the filter disk. Plates were incubated at 30° C for $24-36$ h. Clear zones surrounding the filter disks were caused by growth inhibition and the halo size reflects the apparent sensitivity of cells to different drugs (Cooper, 1963).

Gene disruptions

STE6 was deleted from its corresponding chromosomal locus by one-step gene replacement (Rothstein, 1983) as follows. pRE4 was digested with StuI and SnaBI (which both generate blunt ends) to remove a 3.4 kb fragment representing 87% of the STE6 coding region (Figure 4). The deleted segment was replaced with a 1.8 kb BamHI fragment containing the HIS3 gene, excised from pWJ79 (provided by K.Struhl) and converted to flush ends by incubation with the Klenow fragment of E coli DNA polymerase I, by blunt-end ligation, to generate plasmid pKKO6. A linear 2.6 kb SpeI/SspI restriction fragment from pKK06, bearing the ste6 :: HIS3 construct, flanked by 480 bp and 415 bp of STE6 sequence at its ⁵' and ³' ends, respectively (Figure 4), was purified on an agarose gel and used to transform a $his3/his3$ homozygous diploid strain (W303D). Integration of this deletion construct into the genome was confirmed by both DNA hybridization and tetrad analysis. Segregation of $MAT\alpha$ mating type in spores was followed by halo assay, using an MATa sst2 indicator strain (BC180 or RK512-SB).

Two other deletion constructions of STE6 were made by removing ^a portion of the promoter region and part of the N-terminal coding sequence of STE6. To do so, YIp5-STE6 was linearized with Asp718 (Figure 4) and subsequently digested with Bal31 exonuclease for various times. The products so generated were converted to flush ends by incubation with the Klenow fragment of E.coli DNA polymerase ^I and then BamHI adaptors were added by blunt-end ligation. After digestion with BamHI to remove excess linkers, and also to remove the DNA fragment extending to the BamHI site within the STE6 gene (Figure 4), the deletion plasmids were recircularized by intramolecular ligation and recovered by transformation of E. coli. The plasmid isolated from one transformant, termed pRESTE6A22, contained a $SalI - BamHI$ fragment that was 175 bp shorter than the $SalI - Asp718$ fragment in the original YIp5-STE6. Given the total number of nucleotides removed and the fact that the Asp718 site resides 100 nucleotides downstream from the translational start site (where $+1$ is the A of the ATG initiator codon), the nucleotides corresponding to the wild-type mRNA start sites at -25 and -50 (Wilson and Herskowitz, 1986) were deleted as well as \sim 1 kb of N-terminal coding sequence. An XhoI/Sall fragment from YEp13 containing the LEU2 gene was converted to flush ends with Klenow enzyme and cloned into the BamHI site of pRESTE6 Δ 22, using BgIII linkers, to yield plasmid pREste6- ΔN :: LEU2. A BgIII fragment carrying the TRP1 gene was inserted into the $BamHI$ site of $pRESTE6\Delta22$, resulting in plasmid p REste6- ΔN :: TRP1. The LEU2 and TRP1 genes were inserted in the an ti orientation, such that transcription of the marker genes was opposite to the direction of STE6 transcription. To generate linear fragments for onestep gene replacement by DNA-mediated transformation of appropriate recipients, the $ste6\Delta N :: TRP$ construct was excised by digestion with Sall and ClaI (at nucleotide 1712 in the STE6 coding sequence) and the $ste6\Delta N$:: LEU2 construct was excised by complete digestion wth HindIII and partial digestion with Sall. The structures of the resulting alleles in yeast transformants were confirmed by hybridization analysis.

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