# Deletion of <sup>a</sup> yeast small nuclear RNA gene impairs growth

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We have cloned and sequenced the single copy gene SNR10 which encodes the yeast small nuclear RNA, snR10. This species does not show obvious primary sequence homology to any previously identified small nuclear RNA. As an inital step towards determining the function of snR10, we have introduced insertions and deletions into the chromosomal copy of the gene. Strains lacking an intact copy of SNRIO are viable but considerably impaired in growth, particularly at elevated osmotic strengths or low temperatures; at 25°C the doubling time of snr10<sup>-</sup> strains is 47% greater than that of otherwise isogenic SNRIO strains. As judged by the incorporation of radioactive precursors,  $snr10^-$  strains are impaired in net RNA synthesis at low temperatures. The identification of <sup>a</sup> leaky, conditional phenotype associated with the deletion of this small nuclear RNA gene was entirely unexpected since the defect in snRl0 synthesis is complete and non-conditional. Key words: snRNA/yeast/snRNA gene/gene disruption

## Introduction

Small nuclear RNAs (snRNAs), which are contained in ribonucleoprotein particles (snRNPs) (reviwed by Busch et al., 1982), are thought to play <sup>a</sup> role in <sup>a</sup> variety of RNA processing reactions. For example, the nucleolar species U3 is found associated with 28S pre-rRNA but not with the mature species (Prestayko et al., 1970; Zieve and Penman, 1976) and specific molecular models have been proposed for the participation of U3 in the processing of pre-rRNA (Crouch et al., 1983; Bachellerie et al., 1983). The remaining U-snRNAs are nucleoplasmic, and all may be involved in the processing of pre-mRNA. The U1 snRNP has been shown to be required for splicing in vitro (Mount et al., 1983; Padgett et al., 1983; Kramer et al., 1984) and in Xenopus oocytes (Fradin et al., 1984). Recent experiments (Black et al., 1985; Krainer and Maniatis, 1985) have now shown the additional requirement for U2 RNA in intron removal. Finally, the newly identified species U7 is required for the post-transcriptional cleavage of sea urchin histone H3 pre-mRNA in Xenopus oocytes (Galli et al., 1983; Strub et al., 1984; Georgiev and Birnstiel, 1985).

While a specific molecular model has been presented for the participation of U4 in transcription termination/polyadenylation (Berget, 1984), supporting experimental evidence has yet to be provided. Still less is known about the function of U5 or U6, although since the latter occupies the same snRNP particle as U4 (Hashimoto and Steitz, 1984; Bringmann et al., 1984) it is likely that these species are involved in the same, or closely related processes.

Functional analyses have been severely hampered by the lack

of tractable genetic systems in the higher eukaryotes, from which most information about snRNAs has been obtained. For this reason we initiated <sup>a</sup> study of snRNA function in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, which contains snRNAs encoded by single copy genes (Wise et al., 1983). This finding is in marked contrast to the situation in higher eukaryotes and immediately offered the opportunity for using gene replacement techniques to test directly snRNA functions in vivo.

The first species to be analysed in this manner, designated snR3, has potential primary and secondary structural homology to mammalian U4 and U6 snRNAs (Tollervey et al., 1983). Surprisingly, cells lacking an intact copy of the gene SNR3 are not only viable but are indistinguishable from wild-type sister strains under all conditions tested, including growth competition in a chemostat. Here we report our analysis of a second yeast snRNA, snR10. Cells lacking an intact copy of the gene SNR10 have a leaky cold-sensitive phenotype and are sensitive to elevated osmotic pressures. While these results demonstrate that snRIO, unlike snR3, is required for wild-type growth, this conditional phenotype was completely unexpected, in that the inactivation of SNRIO is entirely non-conditional.

## Results

#### Sequence of SNRIO

The cloning and initial characterisation of the single copy SNRJO gene has been described (Wise et al., 1983). The gene was originally isolated as a 5-kb genomic clone from a Sau3A partial bank in YEp13; Figure 1 shows a restriction map of the plasmid YEpR1O. The approximate location of the coding sequence was first determined by Southern hybridisation using labelled cDNA to snR10. The DNA sequence was determined by di-deoxynucleotide sequencing (Sanger et al., 1977) of fragments subcloned in M13 (Messing et al., 1981). The end-points of the coding region were determined by direct enzymatic sequencing of purified snR 10, labelled either at the <sup>5</sup>' or <sup>3</sup>' end. End-labelled RNA was generated from size-fractionated RNA eluted from <sup>a</sup> preparative 6% polyacrylamide gel containing <sup>7</sup> M urea; snRlO was purified on a two-dimensional polyacrylamide gel system as described previously (Wise et al., 1983).

From these experiments we deduce that snR1O is 245 nucleotides in length. In addition to the major snRIO RNA, <sup>a</sup> less abundant species  $\sim$  20 nucleotides longer can also be observed by Northern hybridisation (see Figure 4). The end-points of this species have not yet been mapped. However, a similar observation has been made for snR3 (Tollervey et al., 1983); in this case the minor species is co-linear with the major RNA at the <sup>3</sup>' end. One plausible explanation is that these species arise as a result of heterogeneity in the site of transcription initiation, as has been observed for many other yeast genes (see, for example, Faye et al., 1981; Bennetzen and Hall, 1982).

The complete nucleotide sequence of snR10 and SNR10 together with the <sup>5</sup>'- and 3'-flanking regions is shown in Figure 2. As is the case for the previously sequenced yeast snRNA gene SNR3 (Tollervey et al., 1983), the coding sequence is preceded



Fig. 1. Restriction map of YEpR10. This plasmid contains a 5-kb Sau3A genomic clone inserted into the BamHI site of YEp13 (pBR322, LEU2, 2  $\mu$ ) (Broach et al., 1979). The location and orientation of the coding sequence of SNRIO are indicated. The 1.05-kb HindIII fragment containing SNRIO which was subcloned for use in subsequent experiments extends out of the insert into the pBR322 region of the vector.

#### HindIII

AAGCTTCTTCTATAGCGTAGAGTAAGTAGTGCCTTGTAGCCCTACCGTTTTACAATGCAT BstEII GAGGTTACCCGCACTTATTATTTTTTTCTCTTTTTTTTTTCTTAGCTATAAAAGGCAGATC AATGCAGCATTCAATTGCTTTATTTGACTTTCCTTTACTATTTATTTACTTTCCATTTCT RsaI <sup>10</sup> <sup>20</sup> <sup>301</sup> TATTTTAGTGTTATTTTATAACCAGTAACGCAAATTTAACAGCCATTCGTAACACGTACA  $m_{2,2,7}$ GpppAACGCAAAUUUAACAGCCAUUCGUAACACGUACA 40 50 60 70 80 90 GTATCTCGTCGAGGTTGAACCCCTCCGGGGCGTTCTTGACCCATGAAGAATGTGGATTGG GUAUAUCGUCGAGGUUGAACCCCUCCGGGGCGUUCUUGACCCAUGAAGAAUGUGGAUUGG ClaI 100 101 110<br>TGTTGCAATATATTATTTGGTTGGACTGGAGAACAAATTTATCGATCTTGGGTGCA<br>UGUUGCAAUAUAUUUAUUAUUGGCUUGGACUGGAACAAAUUUAUCGAUCUUGGGUGCA BglII 160 170 180 190 200 210 ACAGTCTTTCTGTCGTCTGTTTTTTAGCAGATCTAAGGGTTTACCTTCGTGTGCCCGGAT ACACUCUUUCUGUCGUCUGUUUUUUAGCAGAUCUAAGGGUUUACCUUCGUGUGCCCGGAU 220 230 240 GAGGACCGTTGCAAGGATTGATAATACAACTATATACATCATTATCGTAGTGAATTGCAC GAGGACCGUUGCAAGGAUUGAUAAUACAACU<sub>OH</sub> GAGTAACTTCTCGGCATGGGGTGAGTAAATTCATATTATGAAAGTAATTAAACTTACTAC

Fig. 2. DNA and RNA sequence of SNRIO. The upper line shows the sequence of the non-coding DNA strand, beginning <sup>206</sup> nucleotides before the <sup>5</sup>' end of snRlO and extending 149 nucleotides beyond the <sup>3</sup>' end of the RNA. The lower line shows the sequence of the RNA together with the <sup>5</sup>' cap structure (Wise et al., 1983). Sites of cleavage of restriction enzymes relevant to subsequent experiments are shown (the ClaI site can be cleaved only in DNA extracted from  $DAM^-$  strains of *Escherichia coli*).

CTAAATAAGAGGATATCTATGTCTTATTGCTTGTATATATGAGTGGCTTGGAATGCTGCA

by a presumptive 'TATA' box (TATAAAAG)  $\sim$  100 nucleotides <sup>5</sup>' to the start site, a position similar to that observed for other yeast genes transcribed by polymerase II (reviewed by Sentenac and Hall, 1982). No sequences resembling <sup>a</sup> consensus polymerase III promoter (DeFranco et al., 1980; Sakonju et al., 1980; Bogenhagen et al., 1980; Fowlkes and Shenk, 1980) are found in SNR10. These results, together with studies on snRNAs in other systems (Jensen et al., 1979; Murphy et al., 1982) indicate that SNRIO is transcribed by polymerase II. We can discern <sup>a</sup> region of homology (21/28) between SNR3 and SNRJO in the region of the 'TATA' box; sequences further upstream cannot be compared due to insufficient data for SNR3. Short sequences which mediate general amino acid control are repeated upstream from a number of co-regulated yeast genes (Donahue et al., 1983;

Hinnebusch and Fink, 1983). In this case, however, the significance is unclear since the homology is not conserved in other yeast snRNA genes (Tollervey, Simmons and Guthrie, unpublished; Patterson and Guthrie, in preparation). Interestingly, the initiating trinucleotide sequence AAC has been found at the encoded <sup>5</sup>' end of each of the five yeast snRNAs we have sequenced to date (op cit.).

No systematic attempt has been made to study the regulation of snR1O synthesis but, as judged by Northern blotting, the quantity of snRIO as <sup>a</sup> proportion of total RNA appears identical on minimal versus complete medium, on fermentable versus nonfermentable carbon sources and at growth temperatures of 25, 30 or 36°C.

The level of snR10 synthesised in a  $snr10.3$  strain carrying the low copy number plasmid YCpRIO (see below) is identical to that of SNRJO strains suggesting that the information necessary for regulation lies within 210 nucleotides of the gene. A strain transformed with the high copy number plasmid YEpRIO contains  $\sim$  20-fold more snR10 than does an isogenic strain lacking the plasmid, a value which is probably close to the average copy number of YEp13 (Futcher and Cox, 1984). The over-produced snR10 has the normal <sup>5</sup>' end and normal mobility on one- and two-dimensional gels. YEpR1O carries 4.5 kb of <sup>5</sup>'-flanking DNA and <sup>210</sup> bp of <sup>3</sup>'-flanking DNA, and it is thus likely that all the normal control regions are present. We conclude that SNR<sub>10</sub> is apparently not subject to feedback regulation. We have not detected any effect on growth resulting from the overproduction of snR10.

We have compared the sequence of snR10 with that of snRNAs from mammals, but in the absence of two-dimensional structure or other corroborative data, the alignments obtained do not provide compelling evidence for an evolutionary relationship between snRIO and a particular mammalian snRNA. Under conditions of reduced stringency, cross-hybridisation was observed to a small RNA species  $\sim$  195 nucleotides in length from the filamentous fungus Aspergillus nidulans.

## Gene replacements

To construct the insertions and deletions to be used for gene replacement experiments, a 1.05-kb HindIII fragment containing SNR10 was subcloned into pUC9 (see Figure 3). This region contains <sup>700</sup> bp of yeast DNA together with the <sup>346</sup> bp of pBR322 DNA between the  $Hind$ III and  $Bam$ HI sites. Using this subclone, fragments containing the selectable marker LEU2 were inserted into the coding sequence of SNR1O; in some cases regions of SNR10 were also deleted (see Figure 3). The three constructions shown are designated by their allele names,  $snr10.1$ ,  $snr10.2$  and snr10.3. To replace precisely the chromosomal copy of SNR10 with the copy disrupted in vitro (Rothstein, 1983), recipient strains of yeast carrying the double mutation leu2-3, leu2-112 were transformed using linear fragments of DNA with selection for the inserted LEU2 marker.

In each case it was found that the *HindIII* fragment carrying <sup>346</sup> bp of pBR322 DNA could be used successfully with this transformation technique. However, while insufficient transformants have been studied for statistical analysis, it appears that the frequency of transformation is reduced, and the proportion of transformants in which the introduced  $LEU^{+}$  marker is linked to the LEU2 locus is increased, relative to constructs in which both ends are homologous to the yeast chromosome. Presumably the pBR322 sequences are removed nucleolytically to reveal the yeast DNA; yet the success of the replacement is perhaps particularly surprising in the case of  $snr10.3$ , since in this construc-



Fig. 3. Insertions and deletions made in SNRIO. (1) Region containing SNR10 which was subcloned into pUC9. (2) Construction 1: a 3-kb region containing the yeast selectable marker  $LEU2$  is inserted into the BgIII site within the coding sequence of SNR10. (3) Construction 2: a 2.4-kb region containing LEU2 is inserted between the BgIII and ClaI sites resulting in the deletion of 40 bp of coding sequences. (4) Construction 3: a 3-kb region containing LEU2 is inserted into the BgIII site and the region between the ClaI and BstEII sites is deleted, removing 140 bp of coding sequence and 138 bp of 5'-flanking sequence.

tion there are only <sup>63</sup> bp of DNA homologous to the SNRIO locus at the non-pBR322 end of the linear fragment. Southern analysis shows that the correct constructions have been made and inserted in the yeast genome (data not shown).

Northern analysis (Figure 4) demonstrates that, in each case, the only copy of SNRIO has been disrupted. However, while the initial construction,  $snr10.1$ , fully blocks the synthesis of  $snR10$ during growth at either 25 or 36°C, this allele is associated with an apparent fusion transcript, the size of which  $(-510$  nucleotides) is appropriate for a species which originates at the SNRIO promoter and terminates at the transcription termination site in the fragment of the TYI-17 element which is carried in the inserted LEU2 region (Kingsman et al., 1981; Casadaban et al., 1983; Elder et al., 1983). To eliminate the possibility that this fusion transcript, which probably includes the 5' 195 nucleotides of snR10, is responsible for the residual growth of  $snr10.1$  strains, we constructed snr10.2 and snr10.3. In RNA extracted from snr10.2 strains, from which 40 bp of SNR10 coding sequence have been deleted, a fusion transcript of  $\sim 600$  nucleotides can be detected. If this species originates at the SNRIO promoter it should terminate within the coding region of LEU2. The snr10.3 construct deletes 140 bp of coding sequence and 138 bp of <sup>5</sup>'-flanking DNA, including the 'TATA' box; in snrl0.3 strains we can detect neither fusion transcripts nor snRlO following growth at <sup>25</sup> or 36°C (Figure 4). We conclude that at least snr10.3 is a genuine null allele.

#### Biological phenotype

Before performing the experiments just described, we first introduced snr10.1 into one chromosome of a diploid strain to test for lethality. The growth of heterozygous diploids carrying a single intact copy of SNR10 is indistinguishable from that of wildtype strains, demonstrating that the biological phenotype of  $snr10.1$  is fully recessive. When these transformants are sporu-



Fig. 4. Northern blot of strains carrying SNR10 and snr10.1, .2 or .3. RNA was prepared from strains which were isogenic except for carrying the SNR10 allele indicated, following growth at the temperature indicated, and was electrophoresed on <sup>a</sup> 8% polyacrylamide gel and transferred to Genescreen. The probe for this blot is the 160-bp BglII-RsaI fragment of SNR10 which lies to the 5' side of the LEU2 insertion in each case (see Figure 3). Southern blots (data not shown) confirm that this probe hybridises to the region remaining in snr10.2 and snr10.3, though less efficiently than with the intact gene. Northern blots probed with a 1.05-kb HindIII fragment which carries 210 bp of flanking DNA to each side of SNRIO (see Figure 1) give similar results, as do blots made from agarose/formaldehyde gels, from which high mol. wt. RNA species transfer more efficiently than from acrylamide gels.

lated, dissected and germinated at 30°C, only two spores per four spored ascus exhibit wild-type growth (Figure 5). This impaired growth is shown only by  $LEU^+$  spores; Southern analysis (data not shown) confirms the segregation of this phenotype with the  $snr10.1$  allele. Subsequently, the  $snr10.1$ ,  $snr10.2$  and  $snr10.3$ alleles were each introduced separately into the same haploid strain. In each case the resulting phenotype was indistinguishable from that of snr10.1 segregants derived from transformed diploids.

On solid media at  $36^{\circ}$ C, snrl $0^-$  strains cannot easily be distinguished from otherwise isogenic SNRIO strains, however, a very marked difference in colony size is visible at 25°C. In li-





Fig. 5. Tetrads in which SNR10 and snr10.1 are segregating. A diploid strain heterozygous for  $snr10.1$  was sporulated and the tetrads which contain the four meiotic products were dissected. The tetrads shown here were germinated and grown on YEPD medium at 30°C. The impaired growth phenotype shows complete genetic linkage to the inserted  $\dot{LU}^+$  marker in 25 tetrads tested and has been shown by Southern and Northern hybridisation to be associated with the disrupted gene copy and with the absence of detectable snRlO RNA in four tetrads.

quid media at 30°C,  $snr10^-$  strains have a doubling time 25% greater than otherwise isogenic SNRIO strains; this difference increases to 47% at 25°C but does not appear to be further increased at lower temperatures. Strains lacking snRIO are also hypersensitive to elevated osmotic strengths. Of the solutes tested, the effects are most marked in <sup>1</sup> M KCl or 20% glycerol. The effects of these solutes and reduced temperature do not appear to be additive.

The relative growth of  $snr10^-$  and  $SNR10$  strains on solid media is similar in comparisons on minimal versus complex media (YEPD), with fermentable versus non-fermentable carbon sources and at a pH range of  $3-8$ . Diploids homozygous for  $snr10.1$  show similar growth properties to  $snr10.1$  haploid strains, but sporulation, spore germination and meiotic recombination appear unaffected ( $snr10.2$  and  $snr10.3$  have not yet been tested).

Microscopic examination of exponentially growing cultures reveals that, regardless of temperature, the increased doubling times of  $snr10^-$  strains exactly correlates with an increase in the proportion of unbudded cells. It is thus likely that  $snr10^-$  strains are delayed in leaving GI (see Pringle and Hartwell, 1981). This behavior is consistent with a general metabolic defect, and inconsistent, for example, with <sup>a</sup> defect in DNA synthesis. In temperature shift experiments the growth rate of  $snr10^-$  strains relative to isogenic SNR10 strains responds promptly to either a rise or fall in temperature; that is the growth rate characteristic of a particular temperature is established well within a generation of the shift (data not shown).

As a first step in identifying the biochemical defect which underlies the observed growth phenotype, we measured the uptake of radioactive precursors into TCA-precipitable material in order to assess whether  $snr10^-$  strains are impaired in net RNA

Fig. 6. snr10.3 is complemented in trans by SNR10. The strains are shown growing on YEPD + 1 M KCl at 25°C. (1) SNR10 strain. (2)  $snr10.3$ strain. The strain shown in sector 1 was transformed to snr10.3. (3) snr10.3 strain carrying YCpR10. The strain shown in sector 2 was transformed with YCpR10. (4) snr10.3 strain after spontaneous loss of YCpR10. The strain shown in sector <sup>3</sup> was grown for 24 <sup>h</sup> without selection in YEPD liquid medium and then plated on YEPD solid medium followed by replica plating to medium lacking uracil. 23% of colonies tested had lost the plasmid URA3 marker, and all of these had returned to an  $snr10.3$  phenotype. Identical results were obtained using strains transformed to  $snr10.1$  or .2.

or protein synthesis. During continuous growth at 22°C, snrl0.2 strains have <sup>a</sup> ratio of RNA synthesis to protein synthesis <sup>23</sup> % lower than otherwise isogenic SNR10 strains; following a temperature shift from 33 to 22°C this difference increases to 38%. Strains carrying  $snr10.1$  and  $snr10.3$  have also been shown to be relatively impaired in incorporation into RNA at 22°C.

## Complementation test

Complementation tests were performed to demonstrate that the altered growth properties of  $snr10^-$  strains are actually due to the absence of snR10, and not to some polar or other effect due to the insertion of the LEU2 gene. The plasmid YCpR1O was constructed by subcloning the 1.05-kb HindIII fragment carrying the SNRIO gene (Figure 1) into the low copy number yeast plasmid YCp50 (CEN4, ARS1, URA3) (C.Mann, personal communication). This region, which contains only 210 nucleotides of flanking sequences to each side of SNRIO, is unlikely to encode another functional gene and does not hybridise to any other small RNA species.

YCpR10 fully complements  $snr10.1$ , .2 and .3 for cold sensitivity and osmotic sensitivity (Figure 6). Strains carrying the complementary plasmid spontaneously lose the plasmid marker at the expected frequency of  $\sim$  2% per generation (Fitzgerald-Hayes et al., 1982) and return to an  $snr10^-$  phenotype.

Double mutants have been constructed carrying snr10.1 and snr3::LEU2 (Tollervey et al., 1983). The growth of these strains is indistinguishable from  $snr10.1$ ; SNR3<sup>+</sup> strains. SNR10 and SNR3 are unlinked genetically.

## **Discussion**

## Relationship to other snRNAs

As discussed previously (Wise et al., 1983), snRIO and other yeast snRNAs resemble mammalian snRNAs in size, metabolic stability, possession of a 5' cap structure containing 2,2,7-trimethyl guanosine and nuclear localisation. Moreover, the group of yeast RNAs which we have been examining represents the only possible analogues to the U-snRNAs of metazoan cells (Wise et al., 1983; Guthrie et al., 1985). However, snRIO does not show convincing primary sequence homology to any of the UsnRNAs. Three explanations for this finding appear possible. (i) The yeast snRNA has so far diverged evolutionarily from its mammalian analogue as to be now unrecognizable at the level of nucleotide sequence. (ii) There is no mammalian analogue. (iii) The mammalian analogue has yet to be identified.

The hypothesis that snRIO has diverged from some mammalian snRNA beyond the point of recognition is inconsistent with phylogenic comparisons based on other RNA species (Chen et al., 1984; Gray et al., 1984; Hori et al., 1985). In the absence of knowing the role of snRlO in S. cerevisiae (see below), it is of course difficult to assess the possibility that there is no functional equivalent in metazoans. However, in that a cross-hybridising species appears to be present in the fungus A. nidulans it is probable that snR10-like snRNAs are at least not unique to yeast. The third possibility, moreover, is not unreasonable in the light of recent evidence that metazoan cells contain snRNAs other than the canonical six species  $U1 - U6$ . In addition to U7 (op cit.) Reddy and Busch (personal communication) have recently identified species designated U8, U9 and UIO. Other RNA species with properties appropriate for snRNAs but which do not appear to correspond to  $U1 - U6$  have been reported from Dictyostelium (Kaneda et al., 1983), Drosophila (Wooley et al., 1982) and mouse (Kato and Harada, 1984). It therefore seems conceivable that <sup>a</sup> snRNA with homology to snRlO may yet be identified in mammalian cells.

## Implications for snR10 function

In striking contrast to strains lacking snR3, which have growth properties indistinguishable from wild-type sister strains under the extensive set of conditions tested (Tollervey et al., 1983), the data we have presented here demonstrate that  $snr10^-$  strains are considerably impaired in growth. The goal now is to determine the underlying biochemical basis for the biological phenotypes observed. The chief difficulty is that, in principle, the primary biochemical defect might be in almost any aspect of cellular metabolism. It is, therefore, useful to attempt to determine, in general terms, the processes which might be altered.

Based on the microscopic examination of  $snr10^-$  cells, we can tentatively conclude that strains lacking snR1O are delayed in GI, presumably at the physiological step termed 'start' which entails a commitment to cell division (for a review, see Pringle and Hartwell, 1981). While this finding could be consistent with defects in many different aspects of general metabolism, it is inconsistent with defects in, for example, DNA replication or cytokinesis. The growth comparisons on minimal versus complex media and fermentable versus non-fermentable carbon sources indicates that the defect does not lie in a peripheral anabolic pathway, glycolysis, oxidative phosphorylation, the TCA cycle or any of the myriad functions required for mitochondrial maintenance.

The most intriguing aspect of the phenotype to be accounted for is its conditional and incomplete nature; that is, growth impairment is leaky at best and only measurable at or below 30°C or at high osmotic pressure. Since the shut-off in snRIO synthesis (at least in  $snr10.3$ ) is complete under all conditions, the phenotype must be a reflection of the nature of the biochemical defect in these strains.

As first described a number of years ago (Guthrie et al., 1969), cold-sensitive mutants in bacteria are frequently defective in ribosome assembly (for a review, see Jaskunas et al., 1974). One reason for considering ribosome synthesis as a possible site of biochemical lesion in strains lacking snRIO is our observation that these strains exhibit a decreased ratio of RNA: protein synthesis at low temperatures. Since the majority of cellular RNA is rRNA, it is likely that the apparent reduction in incorporation into RNA in  $snr10^-$  strains is due to a reduced rate of net rRNA synthesis. In principle such a reduction might be an indirect consequence of a defect in another aspect of metabolism. Hartwell (1967) reported that temperature-sensitive mutations not directly affecting RNA metabolism can result in <sup>a</sup> decreased ratio of RNA:protein synthesis. However, it is also possible that the absence of snR1O results in specific alterations in the rate of rRNA synthesis and/or breakdown. In any event this should be regarded only as a starting hypothesis for the detailed biochemical and genetic analyses, which we are now in a unique position to undertake, into the in vivo function of an snRNA.

## Materials and methods

#### Media and strains

YEPD medium contained <sup>10</sup> g yeast extract, 20 g Bacto peptone (Difco) and 20 g glucose per litre (with 2% agar for solid media). For testing growth on nonfermentable carbon sources, the glucose was replaced by 2% glycerol or 50 mM sodium acetate. Minimal medium contained 6.7 g yeast nitrogen base without amino acids (Difco) and 20 g glucose per litre (with 2% agar for solid media). For testing growth at different pHs this medium was adjusted to the desired pH by the addition of HCI or NaOH (for media at pH <sup>5</sup> or less, <sup>3</sup> % agar was used). Temperature shift experiments were performed using liquid YEPD medium.

The haploid strain which was used for transformation to  $snr10^-$  carried MATa, leu2-3, leu2-112, ura3-52, gal4- $\Delta$  357, gal7-2, CANIR (B.Patterson, personal communication). The diploid strain used for transformation to  $snr10.\dot{1}$  carried  $MATA/MAT\alpha$ ,  $leu2-3/leu2-3$ ,  $leu2-112/leu2-112$ ,  $his4/+$ ;  $his3/+$ ;  $leu2-3/leu2-3$ ,  $leu2-112/leu2-112$ ,  $his4/+; his3/+;$ CANIR/CANJR.

#### RNA extraction

Cultures (100 ml) were grown in YEPD medium, to  $OD_{600}$  0.8 - 1. The cells were pelleted and resuspended in 0.5 ml buffer containing <sup>100</sup> mM sodium chloride, <sup>50</sup> mM sodium acetate pH 5, <sup>20</sup> mM EDTA and 0.1% SDS to which was added 0.5 ml phenol saturated with water and 0.5 g of glass beads  $(0.45 - 0.50$  mm, B.Braun Melsungen). The mixture was agitated vigorously at room temperature for 6 min and then a further 10 ml of buffer and 10 ml of phenol were added. The mixture was incubated at 65°C for 20 min with agitation, 10 ml of chloroform was added and the aqueous phase was recovered after centrifugation. Following two further extractions with phenol/chloroform (1:1) the RNA was precipitated from the aqueous phase by the addition of 2.5 volumes of ethanol.

To prepare snR1O for sequencing, RNA of the appropriate mobility was electroeluted from <sup>a</sup> 6% acrylamide, <sup>7</sup> M urea gel onto NA45 membrane (Schleicher and Schull). The membrane was prepared by soaking for <sup>10</sup> min in <sup>10</sup> mM EDTA, followed by 5 min in 0.5 M NaOH and was rinsed several times in water. RNA was eluted by heating twice for <sup>15</sup> min at 68°C in buffer containing 1.2 M sodium chloride, <sup>10</sup> mM Tris-HCl, pH <sup>8</sup> and <sup>1</sup> mM EDTA. Following extraction with phenol/chloroform (1:1) the buffer was diluted 20% with water and the RNA recovered by ethanol precipitation.

For <sup>3</sup>' end labelling this fraction was then labelled with [5'-32P]pCp using T4 RNA ligase (England and Uhlenbeck, 1978). For <sup>5</sup>' end labelling, RNA cap structures were first removed by oxidation with sodium  $m$ -periodate and  $\beta$ -elimination with analine (Rose and Lodish, 1976); the fraction was then labelled with  $[\gamma-$ <sup>32</sup>P]ATP using T4 polynucleotide kinase. In each case snR10 was subsequently purified on two-dimensional polyacrylamide gels as described by Wise et al. (1983) except that the RNA was eluted from the second dimension via NA45 as described above.

#### DNA and RNA sequence analysis

The DNA sequence was determined by di-deoxynucleotide sequencing (Sanger et al., 1977) of fragments subcloned into M13 (Messing et al., 1981). The RNA sequence was determined by partial enzymatic digestion of end-labelled snRlO

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(Donnis-Keller et al., 1977; Donnis-Keller, 1980) using RNase U2, A and PhyM (P-L) and TI (Worthington).

#### **Hybridisations**

Southern hybridisation and Northern hybridisation from acrylamide gels were carried out as described by Wise et al. (1983). Northern hybridisation from agarose/ formaldehyde gels was carried out as described by Jensen et al. (1983). Fragments of DNA for use as probes were prepared by elution from agarose gels using NA45 membrane (Schleicher and Schüll). Radioactive probes were prepared using nicktranslation kit N 5,000 (Amersham).

## Incorporation into RNA and protein

Relative incorporation into RNA and protein was measured as described by Hartwell (1967) using otherwise isogenic SNR10 or snr10.2 strains also carrying ade 1-100 and lys2-1. Exponentially growing cultures were labelled simultaneously with [<sup>14</sup>C-8]adenine and [<sup>3</sup>H]lysine in YM5 medium (Hartwell, 1967) for 1.5 h at 22°C or immediately following a temperature shift from 33 to 22°C. Relative incorporation into RNA and protein was compared in the snrl0.2 and SNRIO strains.

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