Functional Studies on the Candidate ATPase Domains of Saccharomyces cerevisiae MutLα

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Saccharomyces cerevisiae MutL homologues Mlh1p and Pms1p form a heterodimer, termed MutL α , that is required for DNA mismatch repair after mismatch binding by MutS homologues. Recent sequence and structural studies have placed the NH₂ termini of MutL homologues in a new family of ATPases. To address the functional significance of this putative ATPase activity in MutL α , we mutated conserved motifs for ATP hydrolysis and ATP binding in both Mlh1p and Pms1p and found that these changes disrupted DNA mismatch repair in vivo. Limited proteolysis with purified recombinant MutL α demonstrated that the NH₂ terminus of MutL α undergoes conformational changes in the presence of ATP and nonhydrolyzable ATP analogs. Furthermore, two-hybrid analysis suggested that these ATP-binding-induced conformational changes promote an interaction between the NH₂ termini of Mlh1p and Pms1p. Surprisingly, analysis of specific mutants suggested differential requirements for the ATPase motifs of Mlh1p and Pms1p during DNA mismatch repair. Taken together, these results suggest that MutL α undergoes ATP-dependent conformational changes that may serve to coordinate downstream events during yeast DNA mismatch repair.

The process of DNA mismatch repair (MMR) has been the focus of intense study since human MMR gene mutations were implicated in hereditary and sporadic forms of human cancer (13, 21, 39, 52). A primary role of MMR is to correct base-base mismatches and insertion-deletion loops (IDLs) resulting from DNA replication, endogenous or exogenous sources of DNA damage, and recombination (14, 36, 38, 43). In Escherichia coli, where MMR has been reconstituted in vitro by using purified proteins, a homodimer of MutS binds the mismatch, followed by the formation of an ATP-binding-dependent ternary complex with a homodimer of MutL. The latent endonuclease activity of MutH is stimulated by the ATP-dependent MutS-MutL ternary complex to nick the undermethylated strand at the nearest hemimethylated GATC site. After incision, UvrD helicase and four exonucleases excise the nascent strand some distance past the mismatch (68). The resultant single-strand gap (up to 1 kb) is filled in by DNA polymerase III, and the nick is sealed by DNA ligase (43).

In the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, the mutation avoidance functions of MMR involve multiple MutS and MutL heterodimers with partially overlapping functions (36, 38). For example, a heterodimer of Msh2p and Msh6p, MutS α , appears to be involved primarily in correcting mismatches and +1 IDL heterologies (2, 3, 12, 19, 23, 32, 33, 37, 41, 42, 48, 64), whereas, an Msh2p-Msh3p heterodimer, MutS β , functions in correction of IDLs with 1 to 14 bases (23, 37, 41, 49). The major MMR MutL activity, MutL α , in yeast is a heterodimer of Mlh1p and Pms1p (27, 51, 58, 59). An additional yeast MutL activity, MutL β , comprised of Mlh1p and Mlh3p, appears to act in conjunction with MutS β to correct a small fraction of IDLs (22).

An important clue to a possible biochemical activity of the MutL homologues was the appreciation of sequence similarity between the highly conserved NH_2 termini of the MutLs and a new family of ATPases (11, 44). The so-called GHL ATPase

family is comprised of E. coli gyrase b subunit, the Hsp90 homologues, and the MutL homologues (10, 20). The supercoiling activity of E. coli DNA gyrase is dependent on the ATPase activity of the homodimeric gyrase b subunits (65). Recently, the homodimer Hsp90 has been demonstrated to have a weak intrinsic ATPase activity required for Hsp90 function (47, 50). The crystal structures of the NH₂ termini of Hsp90 and gyrase b revealed strong structural similarity within their ATPase motifs (55, 56, 71). In addition, Hsp90 and gyrase b appear to have similar ATPase cycles, which include functionally important NH₂-terminal conformational changes (4, 25, 26, 55, 56, 71). The NH₂-terminal conformational changes for gyrase b have been associated with dimerization of the NH₂-terminal domains in the ATP-bound form (4, 55, 56, 71). Recently, the crystal structure of an NH2-terminal fragment of MutL was solved and demonstrated that MutL possesses an ATP-binding pocket homologous to the gyrase b and Hsp90 proteins. In addition, MutL appears to have the ATPase-dependent NH₂-terminal dimerization cycle found in the other GHL family member. Interestingly, Ban et al. reported that the NH2-terminal-dimerized, ATP-bound form of MutL could activate the MutH endonuclease in a MutS-independent manner (9, 10).

Our previous studies have shown the importance of the NH₂ terminus of yeast Mlh1p and Pms1p in MMR (51). The abovementioned findings for the GHL family of proteins now present a working paradigm for detailed studies of the ATPase motifs found in the eukaryotic MutL homologues. In this report, we investigate the function of predicted ATPase motifs in S. cerevisiae MutLa (Mlh1p-Pms1p). Our results suggest that yeast MutLa has structural and functional properties consistent with other members of the GHL family of ATPases. Specifically, genetic results suggest that the ATPase motifs of both Mlh1p and Pms1p are absolutely required for MMR in vivo. In addition, biochemical and in vivo findings suggest that ATP binding induces conformational changes in MutL α that are associated with heterodimerization between the NH₂ termini of Mlh1p and Pms1p. Surprisingly, our genetic results suggest differential requirements for Mlh1p and Pms1p ATPase motifs during MMR.

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Strain	Genotype	Source (reference)
GCY35	MATa his3 Δ 200 hom3-10 ura3-52 ade2-101 _{oc} trp1 met13 met4	G. F. Crouse (45)
PTY100	Same as GCY35, but <i>mlh1::URA3</i>	This study
PTY101	Same as GCY35, but pms1::hisG-URA3-hisG	This study
PTY102	Same as GCY35, but <i>mlh3::hisG</i>	This study
PTY103	Same as GCY35, but mlh1::URA3 mlh3::hisG	This study
PTY104	Same as GCY35, but pms1::hisG-URA3-hisG mlh3::hisG	This study
PTY200	Same as GCY35, but <i>mlh1-E31A</i>	This study
PTY201	Same as GCY35, but <i>pms1-E61A</i>	This study
PTY202	Same as GCY35, but <i>pms1-E61A mlh3::hisG</i>	This study
PTY300	Same as GCY35, but <i>mlh1-G98A</i>	This study
PTY301	Same as GCY35, but <i>pms1-G128A</i>	This study
PTY302	Same as GCY35, but <i>pms1-G128A mlh3::hisG</i>	This study
PTY400	Same as GCY35, but <i>mlh1-E31A pms1-E61A</i>	This study
PTY500	Same as GCY35, but <i>mlh1-E31A pms1-G128A</i>	This study
PTY501	Same as GCY35, but mlh1-G98A pms1-E61A	This study
PTY600	Same as GCY35, but mlh1-G98A pms1-G128A	This study
L40	MATa his3 $\Delta 200$ trp1-901 leu2-3,112 ade2 LYS2::(lexAop) ₄ -HIS3 URA3::(lexAop) ₈ -lacZ GAL4 gal80	S. Hollenberg (69)
AMR70	MAT_{α} his 3 $\Delta 200$ trp1-901 leu2-3,112 URA3::(lexAop) ₈ -lacZ GAL4 gal80	S. Hollenberg (69)

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and media. *E. coli* strains DH5 α and DH-10B were used for plasmid construction and amplification. *E. coli* MAX Efficiency DH-10Bac [F⁻ mcrA D(mrr-hsdRMS-mcrBC) ϕ 80dlacZDM15 Δ lacX74 deoR recA1 endA1 araD139 Δ (ara, leu)7697 galU galK λ^- rpsL nupG/bMON14272/pMON7124] was used to produce recombinant baculoviruses as described below under "Expression and purification of yeast MutL α ." The *S. cerevisiae* strains used in this study are described in Table 1. Bacterial and yeast strains were grown under conditions described previously (51). Yeast transformations were performed by the polyethylene glycol-lithium acetate method (24).

Deletions of *mlh1* Δ and *pms1* Δ in the GCY35 (45) background were created as described previously (51, 53).

Genomic *mlh1* point mutant strains used in this study (Table 1) were created by a two-step recombination procedure. Targeting constructs pYI-mlh1-31, and -98 were digested with PstI and transformed into the appropriate strains. Purified Ura+ transformants were replica plated onto yeast extract-peptone-dextrose (YPD) plates and grown overnight. YPD replica plates were replica plated to 5-fluoroorotic acid (5-FOA)-containing plates. Purified 5-FOA^R isolates were screened for retention of the *mlh1* point mutant allele by the mutator replica patch test for hom3-10 reversion, and the point mutation was confirmed by sequencing a PCR amplicon of the MLH1 gene. Both alleles were screened by using the same PCR oligonucleotides: yMLH1.S (5'-CGGGATCCCTCGAGA CAČCATGTCTCTCAĞAATAAAAGC-3') and yMLH1-F96A anchor.R (5'-G GAGTAAACGCTGTTCAAAGCTCT-3'). Alleles mlh1-E31A and mlh1-G98A were sequenced with the oligonucleotides ymlh1-98.AS (5'-GGCTAAAGCTTC AGCTCGGAATCCATACGTTTGAATCTG-3') and ymlh1-31.S (5'-CCCGTA AATGCTCTCAAAGCTATGATGGAGAATTĆC-3'), respectively. All double point mutant strains, PTY400, -500, -501, and -600, were generated by mutation of the MLH1 gene last.

Genomic *pms1* point mutant strains were created similarly by using targeting constructs pYI-pms1-61 and -128 TV II digested with *MluI* or *XbaI*. PCR oligonucleotides yPMS1-86.S (5'-GTATGTCCAGCAGTTTCCCATCAG-3') and yPMS1-1281.AS (5'-GCAAGCTTATCGGTGTATTTCCCAAGCATTC-3') were used to amplify a portion of the *PMS1* gene, and the resulting PCR product was sequenced with oligonucleotides ypms1-128.AS (5'-GAAGATAGGGCCTCAG CTCTAAACCCTAACGTCTGTACTTTAGC-3') and ypms1-61.S (5'-ACAAC TGCAGTGAAAGCTCTCGTTGATAATAGTATAGATGCG-3') for the *pms1-E61A* and *pms1-G128A* alleles, respectively.

Disruptions of $mlh_{3\Delta}$ were generated by transformation with XhoI- and SacIdigested $p\Delta$ mlh_3:hisG-URA3-hisG (1) and selection on -Ura dropout media. Targeting of mlh_{3} was confirmed by Southern analysis of EcoRV-digested genomic DNA with a PCR-generated probe by using oligonucleotides 5'-TGG TTCGCCGATCTTATC-3' and 5'-AAATACACTCCCTCTCCATCAC-3'.

Plasmid construction. All DNA manipulations were performed by standard molecular biology procedures (40). Automated DNA sequencing was done at the Vollum Institute core sequencing facilities with an ABI automated sequencer.

(i) Targeting vectors. pYI-mlh1-31 was created as follows. The *MLH1* open reading frame (ORF) and approximately 800 bp of upstream sequence were cloned into pYI-*lacZ*. The E31A mutation was generated in the resultant construct by using the Quikchange Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit (Stratagene) and the following oligonucleotides: ymlh1-31.S and ymlh1-31.AS (5'-GGAATTCTC CATCATAGCTTTGAGAGCATTTACGGG-3'). The desired mutations were detected by sequencing with oligonucleotide ymlh1-98.AS. An approximately 400-bp *KpnI* fragment containing the E31A mutation was cloned back into the

parental construct to erase the potential for second site mutations elsewhere in the construct. pYI-mlh1-98 was created in a similar fashion, except the following oligonucleotides were used instead: ymlh1-98.S (5'-CAGATTCAAACGTATG GATTCCGAGCTGAAGCTTTAGCC-3') and ymlh1-98.AS for mutagenesis and ymlh1-31.S for identification of the point mutation.

pYI-pms1-61 TV II was constructed as follows. pYI-ypms1 TV II was generated by PCR to contain 686 bp upstream of the ATG codon to position 2426 of the *yPMS1* ORF in pYI-*lacZ*. A *PstI-Bsp*MI fragment from pFB-ypms1-61 (see below) that contained the E61A codon mutation was used to replace the wildtype *PstI-Bsp*MI fragment of pYI-ypms1 TV II to create pYI-pms1-61 TV II. pYI-pms1-128 TV II was created similarly with a *PstI-Bsp*MI fragment from pFB-ypms1-128 (see below) that contained the G128A codon mutation. pYIypms1-61 and -128 TV II were both shown to be free of second site mutations in the germane regions by sequencing.

 $p\Delta mlh3::hisG-URA3-hisG$ was a kind gift from David Jacobson (Oregon Health Sciences University, Department of Molecular and Medical Genetics).

(ii) Two-hybrid vectors. All of the following constructs were sequenced to confirm that point mutations were present in the desired plasmids. pNBTM116 was a generous gift of Stanley Hollenberg (Oregon Health Sciences University, Department of Cell and Developmental Biology) and allows construction of two-hybrid "bait" fusions with the *lexA* DNA binding domain fused at the carboxy terminus of the bait protein. pNBTM-mlh1 N-354 was engineered with the oligonucleotides ymlh1 N-anchor.S (5'-CGGGATCCATGTCTCTCAGAATAA AAGCAC-3') and ymlh1 N-354.AS (5'-AGCCTCGAGCTCTGGCTTGTTTG TTGAAATTG-3') to generate a PCR amplicon that was cloned into pNBTM116 at the *Bam*HI and *XhoI* sites. Plasmid pNBTM-mlh1-31 N-354 was generated in an identical fashion, but the PCR was performed on template DNA that contained the E31A codon mutation.

pNBTM-pms1 N-401 and pNBTM-pms1-61 N-401 were generated by using a similar procedure to pNBTM-mlh1 N-354, but with oligonucleotides ypms1 N-anchorS (5'-CGGGATCCAAAATGTTTCACCACATCGAAAAC-3') and ypms1 N-401.AS (5'-AGCCTCGAGTTGTGAGCACATTCTTTTGGG-3'). The pNBTM-pms1-61, -128 N-401 double point mutant was made by using the Quikchange Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit (Stratagene) with plasmid pNBTM-pms1-61 N-401 and the ypms1-128.S and -.AS oligonucleotides.

pCAD3 analogous to pNBTM116 allows fusion of the GAL4 activation domain to the carboxy terminus of the "prey" protein (54). pCAD-mlh1 N-354 and alanine point mutant version E31A were constructed by cloning a PCR product generated from oligonucleotides ymlh1 N-anchor.S and ymlh1 N-354(*Bam*-HI).AS (5'-AGCGGATCCCTCTGGCTTGTTTGTTGAAATTG-3') into pCAD3 at a *Bam*HI site. Plasmids with the correct insert orientation were isolated for further study. The pCAD-mlh1-31, -98 N-354 double point mutant was made by using the Quikchange Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit (Stratagene) with construct pCAD-mlh1-31 N-354 and the ymlh1-98.S and -.AS oligonucleotides.

pCAD-pms1-61 N-401 was created in a likewise fashion, except that oligonucleotides ypms1 N-anchor.S and ypms1 N-401 (BamHI).AS (5'-AGCGGATCC TTGTGAGCACATTCTTTTGGG-3') were used.

(iii) Baculovirus plasmids. The $6\times$ His-MLH1 recombinant baculovirus was constructed as follows. A PCR product was generated that engineered a $6\times$ His affinity tag in frame with the *MLH1* ORF after the initiator methionine. This $6\times$ His-encoding PCR product was cloned into the *Bam*HI and *NdeI* restriction sites of pBTM-MLH1, replacing approximately 360 bp of the native gene. Automated sequencing of the construct confirmed that the $6\times$ His tag was in frame with the *MLH1* ORF and that no PCR-generated mutations arose. The $6\times$ His-

MLH1 ORF was then cloned into pFastBac DUAL (pFBD) (Life Technologies) by using polylinker sites *Bam*HI and *Sal*I. Based upon mutator assays, the $6 \times$ His epitope-tagged Mlh1p functionally complemented an *mlh1* Δ strain (data not shown).

The PMS1 recombinant baculovirus was produced as follows. The PMS1 ORF was removed from genomic clone pJH480-PMS1 by using AseI and SalI restriction enzymes and ligated to a synthetic linker containing AseI and NcoI-compatible overhangs. This PMS1 ORF ligation product was then cloned into pEAE51 at sites NcoI and SalI, replacing the MSH6 ORF (3). The PMS1 ORF was then excised with XhoI and SalI restriction enzymes and ligated into the pFastBac1 (pFB) (Life Technologies) polylinker at an XhoI site. A pFB-PMS1 construct in the desired orientation was identified and sequenced to examine the site of the synthetic linker.

Two-hybrid analysis and β-galactosidase assays. Protein-protein interactions were assessed by the two-hybrid technique. Bait and prey plasmids were transformed into L40 and AMR70 yeast, respectively (69). L40 bait strains were mated with AMR70 prey strains as described previously (67). Growth on -Ura -Trp -Leu (-UTL) plates indicated efficiency of mating, while growth on -Trp -His -Ura -Leu -Lys (-THULL) plates indicated bait-prey interaction. Expression of a subset of constructs was confirmed by Western blotting of L40 strains with the indicated bait or prey. Extracts were made from 10-ml saturated cultures by glass bead lysis for 30 min at 4°C in a mixture of 25 mM Tris (pH 7.5), 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM β-mercaptoethanol (β-ME), 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), and Complete Proteolysis Inhibitor (Roche Molecular Biochemicals) and centrifuged at 14,000 \times g for 5 min; concentrations of soluble protein fractions were determined by Bradford (Bio-Rad). Ten to 15 µg of each extract was separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) on 10% polyacrylamide gels, transferred to nylon membranes (Ambion), probed with the either anti-GAL4-TA (1:200 dilution) or anti-lexA-DB (1:200 dilution) (Santa Cruz Bio. Inc.) followed by the appropriate secondary antibody, and detected by chemiluminescence.

Diploid L40/AMR70 is homozygous for a second chromosomal lexA-GAL4A reporter system, *URA3::*(*lexAop*)₈-*lacZ*. β -Galactosidase assays were performed on –THULL plates as described previously (67). Reaction mixtures were placed at 30°C until the desired blue color development was achieved.

Measurement of mutation rates and *CAN1* mutational spectrum analysis. Briefly, strains were streak purified before the mutation rate assay, individual colonies were grown to saturation in YPD, and then various dilutions were plated onto complete synthetic medium (CSM), –Thr and +canavanine (+CAN [60 μ g/m]]) plates and colonies were counted after 2 to 3 days of growth at 30°C. Rates were determined as previously described (51). Statistical analyses were performed by using a two-tailed Mann-Whitney test with Prism 2.0a software (GraphPad Software, Inc.); *P* values of <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Canavanine resistance (Can^R) mutations were determined from genomic preparations by using the glass bead lysis method, followed by PCR of the *CAN1* gene, as described previously (66), and direct sequencing of the QIAquick (Qiagen)-purified PCR amplicon with an ABI automated sequencer.

Expression and purification of yeast MutL α . The Bac-to-Bac Baculovirus (Life Technologies) expression system was used to express MutL α in *Spodoptera frugiperda* (Sf9) cells infected with recombinant baculovirus. Recombinant baculovirus that express $6 \times$ His-Mlh1p and Pms1p were created as described in the manufacturer's instructions (Bac-to-Bac Baculovirus expression system; Life Technologies). A 200-ml culture of Sf9 cells (typically 1×10^6 to 2×10^6 cells/ml) was coinfected with recombinant baculoviruses at multiplicities of infection of 2 to 2.5 and 11 to 15 for $6 \times$ His-Mlh1p and Pms1p-expressing baculoviruses, respectively. Cells were harvested at 44 to 48 h of coinfection, frozen as cell pellets with liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80° C.

All subsequent steps were performed at 0 to 4°C, and purification was monitored by SDS-PAGE and Western blot analysis. Western blots were probed with a 1:1,000 dilution of anti-4×His monoclonal antibody (Qiagen) or a crossreacting 1:100 dilution of anti-hPms2p polyclonal antibody and then visualized by using a 1:2,000 dilution of anti-mouse immunoglobulin G (mIgG)-horseradish peroxidase mIgG-(HRP) (Pierce) or a 1:1,250 dilution of anti-rat IgG (rIgG) rIgG-HRP (Bio-Rad), respectively, and Enhanced Luminol reagent (NEN). All buffers included 0.5 to 1 mM PMSF (Sigma Chemicals), 4 to 10 µg of leupeptin per ml (Sigma Chemicals), and 4 to 10 µg of aprotinin per ml (Sigma Chemicals). Cell pellets were resuspended in 5 ml of Sf9 lysis buffer per gram of wet cell pellet (Sf9 lysis buffer: 50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.6], 5 mM β-ME, 100 mM KCl, Complete-Mini EDTA Free pills [1 pill/5 or 10 ml] [Roche Molecular Biochemicals], 1% Nonidet P-40 [NP-40] [Sigma Chemicals]). The cell lysate was then spun at $10,000 \times g$ for 10 min. The cleared lysate was incubated in a batch with 1.0 ml of a 50% slurry of Ni-nitrilotriacetic acid agarose resin (Qiagen) in buffer H (400 mM NaCl, 25 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.8], 20% glycerol, 5 mM β -ME) plus 0.6 M (NH₄)₂SO₄ and 10 to 15 mM imidazole (pH 8) for 1 h. The resin was washed in a batch three times: once with 40 ml of buffer H plus 0.6 M $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ and 25 mM imidazole and twice with 40 ml of buffer H plus 0.6 M (NH₄)₂SO₄ and 50 mM imidazole. The resin was loaded onto an Econo-column (Bio-Rad) and eluted with buffer H plus 0.5 M imidazole. Peak fractions were pooled, desalted into buffer T (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.8], 10% glyercol, 1 mM dithiothreitol) plus 100 mM NaCl and 0.01% NP-40 by using PD-10 desalting columns (Amersham Pharmacia Biotechnologies), and further purified on a 1-ml HiTrap heparin



FIG. 1. NH₂-terminal ATPase domains of GHL ATPases. ATPase motifs I to IV are designated by black boxes, and sequences are shown above motif boxes. Numbers correspond to the number of amino acids preceding or following sequence alignments. Boldface letters are the absolutely conserved residues that were substituted for with alanine in Mlh1p and Pms1p.

column by using a 20-ml gradient from 100 mM to 1 M NaCl. Peak fractions were concentrated with Vivaspin 500 (50,000 molecular weight cutoff) (Vivascience, Ltd., Brinbrook Hill, United Kingdom) as described by the manufacturers. Concentrated fractions were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80° C. MutL α protein concentration was determined by scanning densitometry of a Coomassie blue-stained gel by using bovine serum albumin standards (Pierce) and analyzed with NIH image 1.61 software.

Limited proteolysis assays. Limited proteolysis reaction mixtures (20 μ l) consisted of 150 ng of MutLa, 30 mM Tris (pH 7.6), 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, and 0.5 mM dithioerythritol with or without 5 mM ATP, adenosine 5'-(Ay-imino)triphosphate (AMP-PNP), ATP₇S, or ADP. Reaction mixtures were incubated for 15 min at 30°C, followed by the addition of 50 ng of modified trypsin (Promega Corp.), incubation at 30°C for a specified interval, addition of SDS-sample buffer, and boiling for 7 min. Processed reactions were separated on an SDS-PAGE (10% polyacrylamide) gel and transferred onto polyvinylidene difuoride membranes (Ambion), and Western blotting was performed with specified antibodies. Anti-4×His Western blots were performed as described above. The anti-Mlh1p polyclonal antibody was a kind gift of T. Kunkel (National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences) and was generated against a COOH-terminal peptide of yeast Mlh1p. The anti-Mlh1p polyclonal antibody was used to probe limited proteolysis blots at a 1:10,000 dilution and detected as described above.

RESULTS

Predicted ATPase residues of MutLa are necessary for MMR in vivo. To examine the importance of putative ATPase domains of S. cerevisiae Mlh1p and Pms1p, we examined the effects of mutations introduced at two of the ATPase motifs, I and III, conserved in the GHL family (Fig. 1). We chose to examine residues E31 and E61 of Mlh1p and Pms1p, respectively, because mutations at the homologous glutamate of MutL, gyrase B, and Hsp90 have been shown to eliminate ATP hydrolysis with little or no effect on ATP binding (9, 10, 34, 47, 50). In motif III, we focused on residues G98 and G128 of Mlh1p and Pms1p, respectively, which are modeled to affect ATP binding and/or an associated conformational change induced upon ATP binding (9, 10, 26, 47, 50). For brevity, we will refer to alanine substitution mutations at E31 and E61 of Mlh1p and Pms1p, respectively, as hydrolysis mutations and the mutations G98A and G128A in Mlh1p and Pms1p, respectively, as ATP-binding mutations.

To address whether the ATP hydrolysis and ATP-binding motifs of MutL α are necessary for mutation avoidance by MMR, double point mutants (e.g., *mlh1-E31A pms1-E61A*) were generated and examined for their spontaneous mutation rate (see Materials and Methods). We analyzed the effects of double hydrolysis and double binding mutants by using two mutator rate assays: reversion of *hom3-10* and forward mutation at *CAN1*. Relative to the wild-type strain, both the double ATP hydrolysis mutant (strain PTY400) and the double ATPbinding mutant (strain PTY600) exhibited spontaneous mutation rates similar to those observed in *mlh1* Δ and *pms1* Δ strains (Table 2, compare strains PTY400 and PTY600 with PTY100 and PTY101). The mutator phenotype of a complex double mutant, *mlh1* hydrolysis mutant plus *pms1* binding mu-

Strain ^a			Fold mutator (rate \pm SD) ^c		
	Relevant genotype	Biochemical deficiency	hom3-10 ^d	Can ^{Re}	
GCY35	Wild type		1	1	
PTY100	$mlh1\Delta$		$1,253 \pm 301$	29 ± 6	
PTY101	$pms1\Delta$		$1,212 \pm 79$	28 ± 5	
PTY102	$mlh3\Delta$		4 ± 1	2 ± 1	
PTY103	$mlh1\Delta mlh3\Delta$		919 ± 13	20 ± 2	
PTY104	$pms1\Delta mlh3\Delta$		$1,051 \pm 199$	27 ± 2	
PTY400	mlh1-E31A pms1-E61A	ATP hydrolysis ^f	715 ± 291	26 ± 8	
PTY600	mlh1-G98A pms1-G128A	ATP binding or heterodimerization ^f	831 ± 41	22 ± 2	
PTY200	mlh1-E31A	ATP hydrolysis ^g	311 ± 135	7 ± 2	
PTY201	pms1-E61A	ATP hydrolysis ^g	19 ± 8	1 ± 0.5	
PTY202	pms1-E61A mlh3 Δ	ATP hydrolysis ^g	60 ± 31	2 ± 0.8	
PTY300	mlh1-G98A	ATP binding or heterodimerization ^g	725 ± 126	22 ± 8	
PTY301	pms1-G128A	ATP binding or heterodimerization ^g	78 ± 28	4 ± 1	
PTY302	pms1-G128A mlh3 Δ	ATP binding or heterodimerization ^g	159 ± 63	5 ± 0.6	
PTY500	mlh1-E31A pms1-G128A	Complex effect $(?)^f$	681 ± 80	25 ± 14	
PTY501	mlh1-G98A pms1-E61A	Complex effect $(?)^{f}$	651 ± 104	25 ± 6	

TABLE 2. Mutation rate effects of genomic mutations altering the NH₂ termini of MutL α and MutL β

^a Similar results for strains W303 (mlh1) and MW3317-21A (pms1) (unpublished data).

^b Predicted from studies of MutL (9, 10), DNA gyrase (34), and Hsp90 proteins (47, 50).

^c Experiments repeated two to five times with 5 to 11 cultures per experiment (Materials and Methods).

^d Wild-type GCY35 rate of 9.90×10^{-9}

^e Wild-type GCY35 rate of 3.01×10^{-7} .

^{*f*} The entire MutL α heterodimer is affected.

^g Only one protomer of the heterodimer(s) is affected.

tant, or vice versa, was also similar to that of an MMR-deficient (e.g., *mlh1* Δ) strain (Table 2, compare strains PTY500 and PTY501 with PTY100 and PTY101). These data indicate that any combinations of double ATP hydrolysis and/or binding mutations affecting MutL α result in defects in the mutation avoidance functions of MMR comparable to the defects seen in *mlh1* Δ and *pms1* Δ strains.

Mutator effects of single alterations in the putative ATPase domains of S. cerevisiae MutLa. To examine the individual contributions of Mlh1p and Pms1p ATPase motifs to MutLa function, we examined the effect of single mutations on mutation avoidance. As shown in Table 2, the single mutations affecting the ATPase motifs had effects on mutation avoidance that were significantly less than the corresponding $mlh1\Delta$ and *pms1* Δ strains, with the exception of the *mlh1* binding mutant (PTY300), the effect of which was only slightly less than the $mlh1\Delta$ strain (PTY100). Interestingly, the homologous ATPase mutations made in MLH1 and PMS1 had different effects on mutation avoidance. The mlh1 hydrolysis mutant (PTY200) displayed 16-fold and 7-fold higher rates of mutation at hom3-10 and CAN1, respectively, than the corresponding pms1 hydrolysis mutant strain PTY201 (P < 0.0286 for both loci). Likewise, the mlh1 binding mutant (PTY300) showed 9- and 5.5-fold higher rates of mutation at hom3-10 and CAN1, respectively, than the corresponding pms1 binding mutant strain PTY301 (P < 0.0286 for both loci). One trivial explanation for the differential effects of homologous mlh1 and pms1 mutations on mutation avoidance was that MLH3, which is involved in a minor mutation avoidance pathway (22), compensates for the pms1 mutations. However, as shown in Table 2, pms1 point mutant strains deleted for MLH3, PTY202 (pms1-E61A $mlh3\Delta$), and PTY302 (*pms1-G128A mlh3A*) still demonstrated mutation rates significantly smaller than that observed for the respective homologous mlh1 ATPase point mutant strains PTY200 (mlh1-E3IA) and PTY300 (mlh1-G98A) (P < 0.0159)for PTY200 versus PTY202 and P < 0.0286 for PTY300 versus PTY302). These results suggest that the differences seen between homologous *mlh1* and *pms1* ATPase point mutations

with respect to mutation rate are not due to the redundant functions of *MLH3*, but rather infer an intrinsic asymmetry within the MutL α complex.

In addition to the differential effects of *mlh1* versus *pms1* mutants noted above, we also observed that ATP-binding mutations produced more severe effects on mutation avoidance than did ATP hydrolysis mutations. Both ATP-binding mutant strains PTY300 (*mlh1-G98A*) and PTY301 (*pms1-G128A*) exhibited a two- to fourfold higher rate of spontaneous mutation at *hom3-10* and *CAN1* relative to the hydrolysis mutants PTY200 (*mlh1-E31A*) and PTY201 (*pms1-E61A*), respectively (all comparisons had a *P* value of <0.0286). These results suggest that individual ATP binding mutations of Mlh1p and Pms1p produce greater effects on the mutation avoidance functions of MMR than the individual hydrolysis mutations.

To better define the effects of individual Mlh1p and Pms1p ATPase mutations on MMR, we examined the mutational spectra at the CAN1 reporter. CAN1 reports base substitutions, frameshifts, deletions, insertions, and large chromosomal rearrangements (15). As seen in Table 3, the spectra of deletion strains PTY100 (*mlh1* Δ), PTY101 (*pms1* Δ), and PTY104 $(pms1\Delta mlh3\Delta)$ and point mutant strains PTY200 (mlh1-E31A)and PTY300 (mlh1-G98A) showed a preponderance of frameshift mutations (FS) relative to base substitutions (BS), similar to previously published reports for an $msh2\Delta$ strain (66). In contrast, strain PTY301 (pms1-G128A) showed a different spectrum, namely, a majority of BS, represented in Table 3 by an FS/BS ratio of 0.8. Because the mutation rate of PTY301 (pms1-G128A) for CAN^{R} is only fourfold greater than the wild-type rate (Table 2), one-quarter of the mutations seen with PTY301 represent the wild-type spectrum. Correcting for the wild-type contribution, we still observed a majority of base substitutions (10 of 18 [56%] versus 7.5 of 13.5 [56%]). Next, because MLH3 is partially redundant with PMS1 in correcting frameshift mutations, we examined the CAN1 spectrum in a pms1-G128A mlh3 Δ strain (PTY302). As shown in Table 3, the pms1-G128A mlh3 Δ strain (PTY302) showed a spectrum at CAN1 that was indistinguishable from that of an MMR-null

Strain						
	Relevant genotype	FS		DS frequency $(0')$	Complex frequency	FS/BS ratio ^b
		Frequency (%)	% Type ^a	BS frequency (%)	(%)	
GCY35 ^f	Wild type	7/20 (35)	86:14	11/20 (55)	$2/20 (10)^{c}$	0.6
PTY100	$mlh1\Delta$	8/10 (80)	100:0	2/10(20)	$NA^{d'}$	4.0
PTY200	mlh1-E31A	12/20 (60)	75:25	8/20 (40)	NA	1.9^{e}
PTY300	mlh1-G98A	17/20 (85)	99:12	3/20 (15)	NA	5.7
PTY101	$pms1\Delta$	8/10 (80)	62:38	2/10(20)	NA	4.0
PTY104	$pms1\Delta mlh3\Delta$	8/10 (80)	62:38	2/10(20)	NA	4.0
PTY301	pms1-G128A	8/18 (44)	87:13	10/18 (56)	NA	0.8^e
PTY302	$pms1$ -G128A mlh3 Δ	18/25 (72)	94:6	7/25 (28)	NA	3.3^{e}

TABLE 3. Summary of mutation spectra at CAN1

^a Ratio of contractions to expansions.

^b FS/BS ratio, where a signature MMR-defective spectrum is ≥ 2 .

^c Duplication events that are flanked by direct repeats.

^d NA, not applicable.

^e This value is the FS/BS ratio with the wild-type spectrum contribution subtracted.

^f The spectrum of an $mlh3\Delta$ strain is similar to that of the wild type (R. D. Kolodner, personal communication).

strain (FS/BS ratio of 3.3). In contrast to the asymmetry observed with the mutation rates, the spectrum results indicate that the *mlh1* and *pms1* ATPase mutations result in the same mutational spectra.

MutLa undergoes an ATP-dependent conformational change. To investigate further the role of candidate ATP-binding or hydrolysis motifs in MutLa function, we used limited proteolysis to examine the effects of adenine nucleotides on the conformation of recombinant MutLa purified from insect cells (data not shown). We used an antibody directed against the $6 \times$ His tag at the NH₂ terminus of Mlh1p to detect NH₂terminal fragments following limited proteolysis. As depicted in Fig. 2a, the presence of ATP led to the protection of distinct NH₂-terminal fragments of Mlh1p from trypsin proteolysis. The protected NH₂-terminal fragments of approximately 42 and 38 kDa coincide with the E. coli MutL LN40 thrombin proteolytic fragment that possessed the core ATPase domain (9, 10). We did not observe any differences between MutL α in the presence or absence of ATP when using a polyclonal antibody directed against the COOH terminus of Mlh1p (data not shown), suggesting that the COOH terminus of Mlh1p does not undergo an ATP-dependent conformational change. However, we did detect an approximately 30-kDa band that was resistant to proteolysis in the presence or absence of ATP even after a 30-min incubation with 750 ng of trypsin (data not shown). This highly trypsin-resistant Mlh1p COOH-terminal fragment may represent the COOH-terminal heterodimerization domain of Mlh1p. As shown in Fig. 2b, lanes 3 to 5 demonstrate that nonhydrolyzable ATP analogs AMP-PNP and ATP_yS, as well as ADP, also protect the NH₂ terminus of Mlh1p from trypsin proteolysis. Qualitatively, the relative levels of protection from proteolysis in the presence of nucleotide are as follows: ATP \approx AMP-PNP > ATP γ S > ADP. As demonstrated for ATP, we saw no differential protection of the COOH terminus of Mlh1p in the presence of ADP, AMP-PNP, or ATP γ S by reprobing with the antibody directed against the COOH terminus of Mlh1p (data not shown). The limited proteolysis results indicate that at least the Mlh1p NH₂ terminus of MutLa undergoes an ATP-binding-dependent conformational change. We were unable to address whether the NH₂ terminus of Pms1p undergoes a similar ATP-dependent conformational change, because an antibody specific



FIG. 2. Adenine nucleotides alter trypsin sensitivity of MutL α . (a) One hundred fifty nanograms of MutL α was subjected to proteolysis with modified trypsin as described in Materials and Methods in the presence or absence of 5 mM ATP for the indicated time at 30°C. Products were treated with SDS-sample buffer, boiled, separated on an SDS-PAGE (10% polyacrylamide) gel, and detected by immunoblotting with anti-4×His antibody. Arrows denote full-length 6×His-Mlh1p, and asterisks designate NH₂-terminal (term.) fragments of 6×His-Mlh1p that are protected from proteolysis in the presence of ATP. Equal loading of samples and even transfer of the blot were demonstrated by using a polyclonal antibody raised against the COOH terminus of Mlh1p (data not shown). (b) The same analysis was performed as described for panel a, but the effects of 5 mM adenine nucleotides ADP, AMP-PNP, and ATP γ S were examined.



FIG. 3. Two-hybrid analysis detects NH₂-terminal Mlh1p and Pms1p interaction. (a) Boxes correspond to bait and prey constructs tested for interaction. The residues included in the fusions are indicated below the group I and V constructs, respectively. Amino acid substitutions designated above each construct are indicated by black bars within the construct boxes. Interaction is scored as growth on -HIS media and blue color development with the substrate X-Gal (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-β-D-galactopyranoside) as described in Materials and Methods. Group I, wild-type NH₂-terminal fusion fragments; group II, one NH₂-terminal fusion fragment contain hydrolysis point mutation; group III, both NH₂-terminal fusion fragments contain hydrolysis point mutations; and group V, positive control reaction with full-length Pms1p and Mlh1p. (b) Western analysis of L40 strains with two-hybrid constructs from panel a using anti-GAL4-TA or anti-lexA-DB monoclonal antibody as described in Materials and Methods. Lanes: 1, pCAD3 (empty vector); 2, pCAD-mlh1 N-354; 3, pCAD-mlh1-E31A N-354; 4, pCAD-mlh1-E31A, -G98A N-354; 5, pNBTM (lexA); 6, pNBTM-pms1 N-401; 7, pNBTM-pms1-E61A, N-401; 8, pNBTM-pms1-E61A, -G128A N-401. Fusion products and lexAp are indicated by arrowheads. The approximately 90-kDa band in lanes 1 to 4 may be endogenous Gal4p. The other bands present in control lanes 1 and 5 and in lanes 2 to 4 and 6 to 8, respectively, represent nonspecificity by the primary and secondary antibodies. In lanes 6 to 8, the faster-migrating specific anti-lexA-DB reacting species is unknown, but may be a pms1p(1-401)-lexAp degradation product.

for the NH_2 terminus of Pms1p antibody was not available. However, as described below, yeast two-hybrid results suggest that Pms1p also undergoes an ATP-dependent conformational change.

ATP binding promotes heterodimerization of the NH₂ termini of MutL α in vivo. ATP-binding-dependent conformational changes in other GHL family members are associated with dimerization of their NH₂-terminal ATP binding domains (9, 71). To inquire into the functional significance of the ATPdependent conformational change data described above, we used the yeast two-hybrid system to assay interactions between wild-type and mutant NH₂-terminal fragments of Mlh1p and Pms1p. Based upon sequence alignments with GHL family members, the fragments 1 to 354 and 1 to 401 of Mlh1p and Pms1p, respectively, should each contain the structural elements necessary for ATP binding and hydrolysis (9). These NH₂-terminal fragments of Mlh1p and Pms1p were fused at their COOH termini to either the lexA DNA binding domain or the GAL4 activation domain (Fig. 3a). Consistent with our previous studies (51), no interaction was seen between wildtype Mlh1p and Pms1p NH₂-terminal fragments (Fig. 3a, group I). As stated before, homologous ATP hydrolysis mutations in other GHL ATPases have been shown to abolish ATP hydrolysis activity with little or no effect on ATP binding (9, 10, 34, 47, 50). Interestingly, for an NH₂-terminal fragment of gyrase b, ATP binding was only observed in vitro for a hydrolysis-deficient form (34). Therefore, we reasoned that ATP hydrolysis mutations in the NH2 termini of both Mlh1p and Pms1p might prolong a double ATP-bound state in vivo and allow interaction to be detected by the yeast two hybrid assay. Indeed, as shown in Fig. 3a (group III), a robust interaction was seen when both Mlh1p and Pms1p NH₂-terminal fragments possessed ATP hydrolysis mutations. However, the interaction was not observed when only the Mlh1p or Pms1p fragment possessed the ATP hydrolysis mutation E31A or E61A, respectively (Fig. 3a, group II). To demonstrate that this novel interaction was dependent on the putative ATP-binding activities of Mlh1p and Pms1p, we superimposed either the mlh1-G98A or pms1-G128A ATP-binding mutation onto the hydrolysis-defective NH2-terminal fragments of mlh1p-E31A or pms1p-E61A, respectively. Supporting our hypothesis, we observed that superimposing a mutation designed to prevent the putative ATP-binding or conformational change in one fragment ablated the two-hybrid interaction (Fig. 3a, compare groups III and IV). Interestingly, the two-hybrid interaction seen in Fig. 3a, group III, was specific only for the mlh1p-E31A and pms1p-E61A NH₂-terminal fusion pairs, because the NH₂ terminus of mlh1p-E31A did not interact with itself (data not shown). The same observation was seen with the NH₂ terminus of pms1p-E61A (data not shown), suggesting that, similar to their respective COOH-terminal domains (51), the NH₂ termini of Mlh1p and Pms1p do not homodimerize. The twohybrid results of Fig. 3a are not due to ATP hydrolysis or ATP-binding mutations grossly affecting expression or stability of the fusion proteins, because Western analysis demonstrates that all fusion proteins are expressed at similar levels (Fig. 3b). Taken together, the two-hybrid results suggest that ATP binding, but not hydrolysis, by both Mlh1p and Pms1p is necessary for MutLa NH2-terminal heterodimerization.

DISCUSSION

Although clearly crucial for MMR, little information exists on the function of the major MutL activity in yeast, MutL α , composed of Mlh1p and Pms1p. Previous studies with yeast have defined COOH-terminal domains as important for Mlh1p and Pms1p interaction (51) and conserved NH₂-terminal residues as necessary for MMR activity (51, 63). Recent investigations of MutL and other members of the GHL family of ATPases have suggested guidelines for more detailed studies of MutL α function. Here, we present evidence defining yeast MutLa as a functional member of the GHL ATPase superfamily. First, residues critical for the ATPase function of GHL family members, when substituted for alanine in both Mlh1p and Pms1p, disrupt MMR. Second, adenine nucleotide binding protects the NH₂ terminus of Mlh1p from trypsin proteolysis, suggesting that MutLa undergoes ATP-dependent conformational changes. Third, results from the two-hybrid system suggest that one consequence of the ATP-induced conformational changes is an interaction between the NH₂ termini of Mlh1p and Pms1p. Finally, analysis of single *mlh1* and *pms1* ATPase motif mutants indicates a functional asymmetry within yeast MutLa.

GHL family members appear to share an ATPase cycle that is highlighted by an NH₂-terminal dimerized intermediate in the ATP-bound form (4, 9, 10, 55–57, 71). In the case of MutL, this ATP-binding-induced NH₂-terminal dimerization activated MutH endonuclease in vitro (10). The limited proteolysis and two-hybrid analyses presented here support an ATPase cycle for MutL α , composed of at least four intermediates, that is similar to those of other GHL family members (Fig. 4). Limited proteolysis suggests that MutL α undergoes a conformational change in vitro that is dependent on ATP binding, as AMP-PNP (and to a lesser extent ATP γ S) produced the same effect as ATP (Fig. 4, intermediate 2). Furthermore, we observed a specific two-hybrid interaction between Mlh1p and Pms1p NH₂-terminal fragments, each containing ATP hydrolysis mutations (Fig. 4, intermediate 3). Interaction was not



FIG. 4. A model for the yeast MutL α ATPase cycle. Briefly, intermediate 1 is the nucleotide-free state. ATP binding induces conformational changes in the NH₂ termini of Mlh1p and Pms1p, represented by a change in shape from rectangular to oval that occurs in the step(s) between intermediates 2 and 3. Intermediate 3 is heterodimerization of the NH₂ termini of Mlh1p and Pms1p in the ATP-bound state. Intermediate 4 is the ADP-bound form following ATP hydrolysis. The *mlh1-G98A* and *pms1-G128A* ATP-binding mutants were constructed to affect the transition(s) from intermediate 1 to intermediate 2 and/or intermediate 2 to intermediate 3. In contrast, the ATP hydrolysis mutations, *mlh1-E31A* and *pms1-E61A*, were modeled to prevent the transition from intermediate 3 to intermediate 4. M, the NH₂ terminus of Mlh1p; P, the NH₂ terminus of Pms1p; C, COOH termini of Mlh1p and Pms1p. Each arrow may represent multiple distinct steps. This model, which is consistent with the studies (9).

detected by a yeast two-hybrid assay with wild-type NH2-terminal fragments of Mlh1p and Pms1p, presumably because ATP hydrolysis renders the interaction transient. In further support of the existence of intermediate 3, our recent observations suggest that the double hydrolysis mutant form of MutLa is highly resistant to trypsin-limited proteolysis even without added ATP (unpublished observations). Also, that ADP provided some protection from limited proteolysis suggests the existence of an ADP-bound intermediate (Fig. 4, intermediate 4). Double mutant *mlh1 pms1* strains with alanine substitutions at ATP hydrolysis or ATP-binding residues showed increased spontaneous mutation rates indistinguishable from those of completely MMR-defective cells. This double mutant analysis suggests that the candidate ATPase domains of both Mlh1p and Pm1p and the ATPase cycle described above are required for MutL α function in yeast MMR for mutation avoidance. It is intriguing to speculate on the function of the NH2-terminal ATP-bound MutLa intermediate, because similar findings from other GHL ATPases (25, 55–57), namely MutL (10), suggest that this MutL α intermediate may play a significant role in coordinating downstream steps with known and perhaps unidentified MMR proteins. Although our data are consistent with the ATPase cycle represented in Fig. 4, further biochemical work with MutL α is required to confirm and characterize the contribution of Mlh1p and Pms1p ATP binding and hydrolysis activities to MutL α function. Similar to earlier work from the Hsp90 field (35, 61), we have not been able to specifically assign an intrinsic ATPase activity to MutLa with our current protein preparations (unpublished observations). However, similar to what is currently known for GHL ATPases (9, 10, 34, 47, 50), our

double *mlh1 pms1* hydrolysis mutant phenotype and our twohybrid results suggest a crucial role for ATP hydrolysis during mutation avoidance in yeast MMR (Table 2).

Interestingly, genetic analysis revealed a functional asymmetry with respect to the two ATPase domains of the MutLa heterodimer. Specifically, alanine substitution mutations affecting the predicted ATPase motifs of Mlh1p had a greater impact on mutation avoidance than the corresponding mutations in Pms1p. Formally, our genetic results argue that Mlh1p can compensate better for ATPase mutations in Pms1p for mutation avoidance than can Pms1p for the corresponding ATPase mutations in Mlh1p. The apparent genetic asymmetry detected for MutLa may reflect at the mechanistic level a kinetic asymmetry similar to that observed in the homodimeric ATPases, topoisomerase II from S. cerevisiae, and the γ complex from E. coli (6, 28, 29). Biologically, the genetic asymmetry observed with MutL α may represent distinct but overlapping roles of Mlh1p and Pms1p during mutation avoidance, e.g., excision tracts originating 5' versus 3' from the mismatch or IDL (18, 46) or differential roles during strand discrimination.

MutL has been referred to as a "molecular matchmaker," coupling the mismatch binding activity of MutS to the latent endonuclease MutH (60). One criterion of a molecular matchmaker that MutL has always appeared to lack was an intrinsic ATPase activity. Recent work has now identified this "missing' activity, and as suggested previously, it appears to be critical for MutL activity in MMR (5, 9, 10). Moreover, the MutL ATPase activity was responsible for coordinated interaction and activation of MutH in vitro (10). In this report, we have shown that the conserved ATPase motifs of MutLa are necessary for mutation avoidance by MMR in yeast. The role of the ATPase motifs of Mlh1p and Pms1p in other MMR-related functions, such as meiotic (7, 8, 30, 70) and homeologous recombination (16, 17, 31, 62), remains to be determined. Finally, as for MutL (9, 10), the ATP-dependent conformational changes in yeast MutL α are likely to facilitate interaction with downstream proteins in MMR. Our ability to produce a stable Mlh1p-Pms1p NH₂-terminal interaction via the yeast two-hybrid system may provide a means to identify these proteins.

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