# Genetic and Biochemical Characterization of Clathrin-Deficient Saccharomyces cerevisiae

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Clathrin is important but not essential for yeast cell growth and protein secretion. Diploid Saccharomyces cerevisiae cells heterozygous for a clathrin heavy-chain gene (CHC1) disruption give rise to viable, slowgrowing, clathrin heavy-chain-deficient meiotic progeny (G. Payne and R. Schekman, Science 230:1009–1014, 1985). The possibility that extragenic suppressors account for growth of clathrin-deficient cells was examined by deletion of CHC1 from haploid cell genomes by single-step gene transplacement and independently by introduction of a centromere plasmid carrying the complete CHC1 gene into diploid cells before eviction of a chromosomal CHC1 locus and subsequent tetrad analysis. Both approaches yielded clathrin-deficient haploid strains. In mutants missing at least 95% of the CHC1 coding domain, transcripts related to CHC1 were not detected. The time course of invertase modification and secretion was measured to assess secretory pathway functions in the viable clathrin-deficient cells. Core-glycosylated invertase was converted to the mature, highly glycosylated form at equivalent rates in mutant and wild-type cells. Export of mature invertase from mutant cells was delayed but not prevented. Abnormal vacuoles, accumulated vesicles, and Golgi body-derived structures were visualized in mutant cells by electron microscopy. We conclude that extragenic suppressors do not account for the viability of clathrin-deficient cells and, furthermore, that many standard laboratory strains can sustain a CHC1 disruption. Clathrin does not appear to mediate protein transfer from the endoplasmic reticulum to the Golgi body but may function at a later stage of the secretory pathway.

Vesicular membrane traffic is thought to mediate transport of proteins between secretory organelles in eucaryotic cells. Clathrin-coated membranes and vesicles have been implicated as key intermediates in the process of transport vesicle formation. A cogent demonstration of this association is provided by studies of receptor-mediated endocytosis in mammalian cells (reviewed in references 14 and 15). Initially, receptor-bound ligands are concentrated in indented

domains (pits) of the plasma membrane which are decorated on the cytoplasmic surface with a polygonal protein lattice. The principal constitutent of the lattice is clathrin. Clathrincoated pits invaginate and bud, forming clathrin-coated vesicles which carry receptors and associated ligands. The newly formed vesicles quickly shed their coats before fusion with the subsequent membrane compartment along the endocytic pathway.

In vitro, clathrin undergoes cycles of disassembly and assembly which may reflect the in vivo events described above. The polyhedral lattice on purified clathrin-coated vesicles depolymerizes to yield three-legged clathrin "triskelions" composed of clathrin heavy chain (180 kilodaltons [kDa]) and clathrin light chains (usually two species varying in size from 30 to 40 kD) (17). Triskelions can assemble to form empty lattice cages or rebind to vesicles previously stripped of their clathrin coats (17, 40). Additional proteins have been identified that facilitate disassembly or assembly (31, 43).

Taken together, the in vitro and in vivo properties of clathrin form the basis for a model in which polymerization of clathrin triskelions into polyhedral cages drives formation of coated vesicles from coated membrane regions (17, 29). Membrane-associated clathrin has also been proposed to tether, either directly or indirectly, receptors and bound ligands to membrane domains engaged in vesicle formation (15, 27). A number of investigations suggest that these hypotheses can be extended to encompass transport of newly synthesized proteins through the secretory pathway. Clathrin-coated membranes and vesicles have been associated with protein traffic between the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and the Golgi body (1, 30), the Golgi body and lysosomes (13), and the Golgi body and the cell surface (26). However, on the basis of immunocytochemical examinations. Wehland et al. (41) have argued that clathrin-coated membranes are not involved in membrane glycoprotein export.

We initiated a genetic approach, using Saccharomyces cerevisiae, to assess directly the role of clathrin in intracellular protein transport (28). Our strategy was predicated on the observation that protein secretion is essential for yeast cell growth (38). Thus, if clathrin is required at any stage of the secretory pathway, a mutation which eliminates clathrin function will prevent protein export and thereby prove lethal to the cell. A molecular clone of the yeast clathrin heavy-chain gene (CHC1) was isolated and used to disrupt. in vivo, the single chromosomal copy of CHC1. Surprisingly, viable cells devoid of clathrin heavy chain and clathrin-coated vesicle formation is not essential for protein transport through the secretory pathway.

Several possibilities could explain the viability of clathrindeficient yeasts and belie our previous conclusions. (i) Extragenic suppressors of clathrin-deficient lethality unlinked to *CHC1* could accumulate in populations of clathrindeficient cells or the heterozygous diploid progenitors of the mutants; (ii) residual clathrin heavy-chain gene sequences

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Strain Genotype		Source or reference		
GPY1100	MATa leu2-3 leu2-112 ura3-52 his4-519 trp1 can1	Strain TD4 from G. R. Fink		
GPY1101	chc1- $\Delta 8$ ::LEU2 transformant of GPY1100	27		
GPY1103	chc1- $\Delta 8$ ::LEU2 transformant of GPY1100	This study		
GPY1110	MATa leu2-3 leu2-112 ura3-52 ade6	Strain SF838-5Aa; this laboratory		
GPY1114	chc1- $\Delta 8$ ::LEU2 transformant of GPY1110	This study		
GPY55-15B	MATa leu2-3 leu2-112 ura3-52 his4-519 trp1 prb1	This study		
GPY68	chc1- $\Delta 10$ ::LEU2 transformant of GPY55-15B	This study		
GPY60	MATα leu2-3 leu2-112 ura3-52 his4-519 trp1 prb1 pep4::URA3	This study		
PBY425A	$MATa$ ura3-52 suc2- $\Delta 9$	P. C. Bohni		
TBY100-3	MATa ura3-52 suc2-Δ9 CHC1::Ylp5-TH (URA3)	This study		
TBY50-41B	MATa leul trp5 cyh2 met13 aro2 lys5 ade5 ura3-52	This study		
GPYD1004	MATa/MATa leu2-3 leu2-112/leu2-3 leu2-112 ura3-52/ura3-52 his4/his4 trp1/TRP1 can1/CAN1 mnn4-1/MNN4 pep4-3/PEP4	28		
RC634	MATa sst1 rme1 ade2 his6 met1 ural	10		

TABLE 1. Yeast strains used in this study

present in the gene disruptions may encode heavy-chain fragments capable of partial function; (iii) a gene partly divergent from *CHC1* could produce a clathrin heavy-chain functional analog.

Here we report experiments that address each of these issues and lend further support to our original interpretations. On the basis of these conclusions we have begun to monitor protein export and cell structure to identify transport stages perturbed by the absence of clathrin heavy chain.

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Strains and media. Yeast strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Cells without plasmids were grown on YPD medium (1% yeast extract [Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Mich.], 2% Bacto-Peptone [Difco], 2% glucose). Solid medium also contained 2% agar. Diploids were sporulated on 2% agar plates containing 0.3% potassium acetate and 0.022% raffinose. Minimal medium plates used for assessing nutritional requirements were prepared as described by Sherman et al. (39). Cells with plasmids were grown in Wickerham's minimal liquid medium (42) with 2% glucose. For  ${}^{35}SO_4{}^{2-}$  labeling, sulfate salts were replaced by chloride salts and ammonium sulfate was added to the desired con-

centration. The absorbance of dilute cell suspensions was measured in a 1-cm cuvette at 600 nm in a Zeiss PMQII spectrophotometer.

Plasmids and bacteriophage.  $\lambda 7$  contains most, but not all of CHC1 (clathrin heavy chain) in  $\lambda$ gt11 as described before (28). pCHC73 and pCHC74 carry the 1-kilobase-pair (kbp) EcoRI fragments from the 5' and 3' ends of CHC1, respectively (Fig. 1). pCHCc100 was isolated as described below and consists of the yeast centromere vector YCp50 (20) plus CHCI DNA sequences extending from the left-most BglII site shown in Fig. 1 to approximately 1 kbp beyond the SalI site. pCHCc102 and pCHCe200 have the fragment shown in Fig. 1 inserted in YCp50 and the 2µ-based multicopy vector YEp24 (4), respectively. These plasmids were constructed by ligating the CHCI BamHI-to-ClaI fragment to the CHCI ClaI-to-SalI fragment and then inserting the reconstructed gene into YEp24 or YCp50 cleaved with BamHI and SalI. The probe fragments labeled A, B, C, and D were introduced into the polylinker in pGEM1 (fragments A and C) or pGEM2 (fragments B and D) (Promega Biotec, Madison, Wis.). An 867-base-pair (bp) Bg/II-to-EcoRI fragment, marked with a dot in Fig. 1, was inserted into pUC118 and pUC119 (gift from J. Viera, University of Minnesota) to



FIG. 1. CHCl gene structure, gene disruptions, and regions used for probe preparation. Abbreviations: B, BamHI; Bg, Bg/II; C, ClaI; H, HindIII; K, KpnI; P. PstI; R, EcoRI; Sa, SalI; Ss, SstI; X, XbaI. The gap in each disruption is placed beneath segments of CHCl DNA that were removed. In both cases, DNA encoding LEU2 (lined bars, not drawn to scale) was inserted in place of the deleted CHCl sequences. Antisense RNA probes used in the experiment described in Fig. 5 were prepared from regions indicated by probes A to D. The dot indicates the putative translation initiation site for CHCl. kb, Kilobase.

generate pUC118-12 and pUC119-12. pchc1- $\Delta$ 8 was described previously (28). pchc1- $\Delta$ 10 carries the yeast *LEU2* gene replacing the *CHC1* sequences between the *Bg*/II and *Eco*RI sites as shown in Fig. 1. Plasmid YIp5-TH was constructed by placing the *CHC1* 3' *Eco*RI-to-*Sal*I fragment in the integrating vector YIp5 (3). pRB58 (9) carries the *SUC2* gene encoding invertase on YEp24. Plasmid pTS15 used to disrupt *PEP4* in strain GPY60 is reported in reference 32. All DNA manipulations were done as described by Maniatis et al. (22).

Nucleic acid manipulations. Plasmid isolation, nick translation, Southern transfer, and DNA-to-DNA hybridizations were performed by the methods of Maniatis et al. (22). Yeast DNA was prepared as described before (28). Polyadenylated RNA purification was reported previously (2). RNA was electrophoresed through formaldehyde agarose gels and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (22). Antisense RNA probes were prepared from pGEM1 and pGEM2 vectors carrying fragments A to D by using T7 polymerase (Promega Biotec) as described by the supplier. RNA-to-RNA hybridization was done in 30% formamide- $6 \times$  SSC (1 × SSC is 0.15 M NaCl plus 0.015 M sodium citrate)-20 mM HEPES (N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N'-2-ethanesulfonic acid) · KOH (pH 7.4)–2 × Denhardt solution (11)–0.5% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-100 µg of salmon sperm DNA per ml for 16 to 24 h at 65°C. The filters were washed four times, 15 min each, with  $0.3 \times$  SSC-0.5% SDS at 65°C.

To isolate a molecular clone of the complete CHC1 gene, duplicate nitrocellulose replicas of bacterial colonies (Escherichia coli HB101) harboring a library of yeast DNA in YCp50 (generously provided by M. Rose, Princeton University) were probed with nick-translated CHC1 fragments from pCHC73 or pCHC74. Colonies carrying plasmids which annealed to both probes were isolated, and plasmid DNA was prepared. Restriction endonuclease analyses were used to position CHC1 in the yeast inserts, and pCHCc100 was chosen for further study.

To determine the nucleotide sequence of the BglII-to-EcoRI fragment that is dotted in Fig. 1, we subjected pUC118-12 and pUC119-12 to Bal 31 (International Biotechnologies, Inc., New Haven, Conn.) exonuclease treatment to generate an ordered deletion series. The deleted fragments subcloned in pUC118 were subjected to DNA sequence determination by the dideoxy chain termination method (34).

Genetic techniques and transformation. Methods of yeast mating, sporulation, and tetrad analysis were as described by Sherman et al. (39). Diploid cells were grown overnight on YPD plates before sporulation. Spheroplast transformation was used to insert pRB58 into GPY1100, -1101, -55-15B, and -68 (18). All other transformations used the lithium acetate procedure described by Ito et al. (19). For single-step gene transplacement (33), pchc1- $\Delta$ 8 was cleaved with *Hind*III and *Pst*I and pchc1- $\Delta$ 10 was cleaved with *Hind*III.

**Mapping CHC1.** Hybridization of a pCHC74 probe to chromosomes separated by orthogonal field alteration gel electrophoresis (8) positioned CHC1 on either chromosome 7 or 15 (filters kindly provided by Jules O'Rear, University of California). Tetrad analysis of diploids formed between a chc1- $\Delta 8$  strain and cells carrying genetic markers on chromosome 7 or 15 indicated that CHC1 was linked to *ade5* on the left arm of chromosome 7. However, because of the growth defect, the genotypes of chc1- $\Delta 8$  segregants often were difficult to establish confidently. To circumvent this problem and precisely map CHC1, the URA3 gene was integrated adjacent to CHC1. YIp5-TH was cut with HindIII

TABLE 2. Mapping data

	Segrega	Segregation (no. of tetrads) <sup>a</sup>				
Gene pair	PD	NPD	ŢŢ	distance"		
ADE5, CHC1::URA3	58	1	38	23		
LYS5, CHC1::URA3	39	1	57	33		
ADE5, LYS5	28	2	67	41		

" PD, Parental ditype: NPD, nonparental ditype: TT, tetratype.

 $^{h}$  Map distances (centimorgans) were calculated by using equation 3 of Mortimer and Schild (24). No corrections were made to the long map distances.

to target integration of the plasmid immediately 3' to CHC1. ura3-52 strain PBY425A was transformed with linear YIp5-TH, and Ura<sup>+</sup> colonies were isolated. The integration of URA3 next to CHC1 was confirmed by restriction enzyme and Southern hybridization analysis applied to DNA prepared from Ura<sup>+</sup> colonies (data not shown). One such Ura<sup>+</sup> strain, TBY100-3, was then mated to strain TBY50-41B which includes *ade5* and *lys5* mutations on the left arm of chromosome 7. Tetrad analysis of the resulting diploid is summarized in Table 2. CHC1 mapped between *ade5* and *lys5* on the left arm of chromosome 7, approximately 23 centimorgans centromere proximal to *ade5*.

Immunoblotting. Cells were grown in minimal medium plus 2% glucose to the mid-logarithmic phase. A sample (10 units at an optical density of 600 nm [OD<sub>600</sub>]) was centrifuged, and cells were washed once with minimal medium and then lysed by agitation with glass beads and 2% SDS for 90 s on a vortex mixer. Lysates were heated immediately at 100°C for 5 min, and then Laemmli sample buffer was added (2). The liquid was removed from the beads and centrifuged at 12,000  $\times$  g in a microcentrifuge (Fisher Scientific Co., Pittsburgh, PA.) for 10 min. Samples of the supernatant fraction corresponding to 0.5 OD<sub>600</sub> equivalents (approximately 40 µg of protein) were electrophoresed through SDS-polyacrylamide gels (21) and evaluated by immunoblotting (6). Preparation and characterization of antiserum specific for yeast clathrin heavy chain was reported before (28). Bound antibody was detected with <sup>125</sup>I-labeled Staphylococcus aureus protein A.

Radiolabeling, preparation of lysates, and immunoprecipitation. Cells were grown to the mid-logarithmic phase at 30°C in minimal medium plus 2% glucose and 200  $\mu$ M ammonium sulfate. Cells were harvested by centrifugation, washed once with minimal medium, and then suspended at 1.0 OD<sub>600</sub> unit per ml in minimal medium plus 0.1% glucose and 20  $\mu$ M ammonium sulfate. After 30 min of incubation at 30°C, cells were sedimented, washed as above, suspended at 2 OD<sub>600</sub> units per ml in minimal medium with 0.1% glucose without ammonium sulfate, and placed at 30°C. Five minutes later, labeling was initiated by the addition of 200  $\mu$ Ci of <sup>35</sup>SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> (1,200 Ci/mmol; ICN Pharmaceuticals Inc., Irvine, Calif.) per  $OD_{600}$  unit. After 5 min of labeling, ammonium sulfate (3 mM), cysteine (0.01%), and methionine (0.01%)were added. At designated time intervals, samples (1 to 2 OD<sub>600</sub> units) were removed and mixed on ice with an equal volume of 20 mM sodium azide. Upon completion of the time course, cells were collected by sedimentation and treated with lyticase to degrade cell walls. Spheroplast and periplasmic fractions were separated, spheroplasts were lysed with Triton X-100, and invertase was immunoprecipitated as described by Schauer et al. (36). Precipitated invertase was resolved by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and visualized by autoradiography. Autoradi-



FIG. 2. Immunoblot analysis of clathrin heavy chain in clathrindeficient strains with or without plasmid-borne CHC1. Cell extracts were prepared and analyzed by immunoblotting with antiserum specific for yeast clathrin heavy chain (see Materials and Methods). (A) Lane 1, Proteins from CHC1 strain GPY1100; lane 2, proteins from chc1- $\Delta$ 8 strain GPY1101. (B) Proteins from: lanes 1 and 2, strain GPY1100; lanes 3 and 4, strain GPY1101 carrying pCHCe200; lanes 5 and 6, strain GPY1101 carrying pCHCc102. Each lane in panel A received 0.5 OD<sub>600</sub> equivalents of cell extract. The oddnumbered lanes in panel B contained five times more cell extract (0.5 OD<sub>600</sub> equivalents) than the even-numbered lanes (0.1 OD<sub>600</sub> equivalents).

ograms were quantified by scanning with a Kratos model SD3000 spectrodensitometer coupled to a Kratos SDS300 density computer (Kratos Analytical Instruments, Ramsey, N.J.) and Hewlett-Packard 3380A integrator (Hewlett-Packard Co., Palo Alto, Calif.). To control for variations in the immunoprecipitations, values for internal core-glyco-sylated and mature forms of invertase were normalized to the value obtained for the cytoplasmic species. Cytoplasmic invertase was stable during the time course of these experiments.

**Electron microscopy.** Thin-section electron microscopy was performed on samples prepared by the method of Byers and Goetsch (7).

## RESULTS

Single-step gene transplacement in haploid cells yields clathrin-deficient strains. Initially, our strategy for eliminating CHC1 was based on the possibility that a clathrin deficiency would be lethal. Consequently, we disrupted one of the two CHC1 alleles in diploid cells (28). The resulting heterozygous CHC1/chc1 diploids were induced to sporulate and then dissected into tetrads to generate chc1 haploid cells. When the chc1 haploid cells proved to be viable, it became reasonable to consider disrupting CHC1 directly in a haploid strain. Using the single-step gene transplacement protocol (33), the chc1- $\Delta 8$ ::LEU2 disruption (Fig. 1) was introduced into *leu2* haploid strains. Two types of colonies appeared on medium lacking leucine after transformation with the altered gene. Normal size colonies appeared about 2.5 days posttransformation, and small colonies arose after about 3.5 days at 30°C. The number of large and small colonies varied from experiment to experiment depending on the strain and the particular DNA construction used for gene disruption. Commonly, severalfold more small colonies were observed. Restriction enzyme and Southern hybridization analyses of DNA obtained from the large colonies showed only the wild-type CHCl gene. These colonies likely arose owing to gene conversion of the leu2-3 leu2-112 mutations by the LEU2 sequences present in the chcl- $\Delta 8:: LEU2$  DNA. Similar analyses indicated that the small colonies were composed of cells that harbored the chc1- $\Delta 8$ disruption (data not shown). Immunoblotting experiments with antiserum specific for yeast clathrin heavy chain confirmed that the *chc1*- $\Delta 8$  disruption eliminated the expression of clathrin heavy chain (Fig. 2A).

It could be argued that the cells carried an unlinked suppressor of lethality generated by the mutagenic nature of the transformation protocol. To test this possibility, we mated one chc1- $\Delta 8$ ::LEU2 strain obtained by this approach to a leu2 CHC1 strain. The resulting heterozygous diploid was sporulated and dissected into tetrads. If the chcl haploid parent harbored a suppressor unlinked to the CHC1 locus, then the tetrads should show a 1:4:1 ratio of 4 viable:3 viable:2 viable segregants (24). However, each tetrad consisted of two normal size colonies and two small colonies (Fig. 3). The large colonies were Leu<sup>-</sup>, and the small colonies were Leu<sup>+</sup>. The other markers in the cross, pep4 (chromosome 16) and MAT (chromosome 3), segregated 2:2. Since high spore viability was observed and the genetic markers segregated normally, it appeared that the clathrindeficient cells did not carry an unlinked suppressor nor did they suffer substantial chromosome imbalances or polyploidy (24). In other crosses the number of tetrads containing 4, 3, or 2 viable segregants varied, but tetrads with four viable spores always made up the majority. An alternative interpretation of these results postulates that the parental diploid cells, heterozygous at both CHC1 and putative suppressor loci, became homozygous for the suppressor allele during propagation. This hypothesis is unlikely in light of the experiments described in the following sections which independently argue that suppressors are not responsible for clathrin-deficient cell viability. Thus, it is possible to generate clathrin-deficient strains by single-step gene transplace-



FIG. 3. Tetrads from a diploid formed by mating haploid-derived *chc1*- $\Delta$ 8 strain GPY1103 to *CHC1* strain GPY60. Each small colony was subsequently scored Leu<sup>+</sup>. Cells in the large colonies were Leu<sup>-</sup>.

ment in haploid cells. This finding allows the generation of sets of congenic CHCl and chcl partners.

Isolation of complete CHC1 gene. The original molecular clone of CHC1 was isolated from a library of yeast DNA inserted in  $\lambda$ gt11 (28). CHC1 DNA carried by the recombinant phage extended beyond the 5' limit of the gene but did not include the 3' end (data not shown). This constrained the size of deletions that could be introduced into CHC1; each disrupted version of the chromosomal CHC1 gene retained at least the 1 kbp of 3' coding information which was not present in the cloned DNA (Fig. 1, pchc1- $\Delta$ 8). A molecular clone of the complete CHC1 gene would allow construction of more extensive deletions and would further the definition of CHC1 gene structure. Probes prepared from DNA fragments representing both ends of the  $\lambda$ gt11 CHCl insert were used to screen a yeast genomic DNA library carried by the yeast centromere vector YCp50. Plasmids from positive colonies were purified and tested for the ability to restore normal growth rates to  $chcl-\Delta 8$  cells (data not shown). From one plasmid which fulfilled these criteria, the BamHI-to-SalI DNA fragment shown in Fig. 1 was subcloned into YCp50 yielding pCHCc102 and into the multicopy vector YEp24 to create pCHCe200. Two experiments indicated that this DNA fragment contained the entire CHC1 gene. First, these plasmids eliminated the slow growth phenotype of chcl cells. Second, the immunoblotting experiment shown in Fig. 2B confirmed that each plasmid encoded clathrin heavy chain. Antiserum specific for yeast clathrin heavy chain detected the 190-kD heavy chain in wild-type cell proteins (Fig. 2A, lane 1; 2B, lane 1), but not in  $chcl-\Delta 8$  cell extracts (Fig. 2A, lane 2).  $chcl-\Delta 8$  cells with pCHCc102 exhibited quantities of 190-kD heavy chain equivalent to that seen in CHCl cells (compare lanes 1 and 5, Fig. 2B). Relative to these strains, clathrin heavy chain was overproduced about 30-fold in *chc1*- $\Delta 8$  cells containing pCHCe200. Notably, these cells formed wild-type-size colonies, suggesting that this degree of overproduction was not deleterious to cell growth.

The complete clone was used to identify additional restriction endonuclease sites (Fig. 1) and to map the CHCl locus to the left arm of chromosome 7 (see Materials and Methods) (Table 1). DNA fragments from the gene were used to position approximately the transcript and coding boundaries through a combination of sequencing, Northern blot (RNA blot) hybridization experiments, and analysis of gene fusions constructed to produce immunoreactive hybrid proteins with the E. coli trpE gene (28). The CHC1 transcript did not extend beyond the distal HindIII site shown in Fig. 1. A fusion between trpE and the distal EcoRI-to-HindIII fragment produced a 43-kD hybrid protein that reacted with clathrin antibody. Since the normal trpE protein electrophoresed as a 38-kD species, CHC1 coding sequences extended less than 150 bp beyond the *Eco*RI site. A putative N-terminal translation initiation site was identified by DNA sequence analysis of the BglII-to-EcoRI fragment that is dotted in Fig. 1. A single open reading frame started with an ATG codon 202 bases after the first base of the Bg/II site and extended through the rest of the fragment. This ATG position is indicated by a dot on the restriction map in Fig. 1.

With the complete CHC1 gene, a new, more extensive disruption (pchc1- $\Delta$ 10, Fig. 1) was generated. This alteration removed more than 95% of the CHC1 coding domain including the putative initiator codon. Haploid cells carrying the *chc1-\Delta10* deletion behaved identically to *chc1-\Delta8* strains, thus reducing the possibility that an undetectable C-terminal fragment of clathrin accounted for the viability of *chc1-\Delta8* strains. The parameters examined included growth rates, cell morphology, viability of meiotic progeny from *CHC1*/ *chc1* heterozygotes, and the kinetics and fidelity of protein transport to the vacuole or cell surface. These experiments employed more than 10 separate strains from at least three different laboratories (including strain TD4 [alias GPY1100] from G. R. Fink's laboratory, strain RC634 obtained from L. Hartwell's laboratory, and strain SF838-5A $\alpha$  from our laboratory) (Table 1).

CHC1/chc1 heterozygotes do not accumulate suppressors of chc1 growth defects. During these experiments, results were reported that suggested that a genetic factor other than CHC1 could influence the viability of clathrin-deficient cells (S. K. Lemmon and E. W. Jones, Yeast 2:S208, 1986). One explanation for the discrepancy between these results and our own was the possibility that extragenic suppressors of chc1 accumulate during propagation of chc1/CHC1 hetero-zygotes. Such a phenomenon was reported in cells hetero-zygous for a disruption of the essential member of the  $\alpha$ -tubulin genes, TUB1 (35).

The functional *CHC1* gene carried on YCp50 provided a means to test this proposal. Eviction of one chromosomal *CHC1* gene in diploid cells carrying pCHCc102 would yield cells which retain two functional copies, one chromosomal and one plasmid linked. Under these conditions, populations of heterozygous cells should not experience any selective pressure that favors the growth of cells with suppressors. If selection of suppressors in the heterozygous diploids accounted for *chc1* cell viability, then, after sporulation and dissection of plasmid-bearing diploids into tetrads, segregants with a chromosomal *chc1-\Delta 10* allele but lacking pCHCc102 should be inviable (Fig. 4A)—that is, Leu<sup>+</sup> Ura<sup>-</sup> spores should not be observed. If this model was not correct, then *chc1-\Delta 10* cells without pCHCc102 would form small Leu<sup>+</sup> Ura<sup>-</sup> colonies.

Six transformants derived by single-step gene transplacement of  $chcl-\Delta l0$  into cells carrying pCHCc102 were subjected to sporulation and dissection. Two transformants gave rise to tetrads with four normal size colonies. Genetic characterization suggested that the plasmid-borne copy of CHCl was disrupted in these cells (data not shown). This was substantiated in one case by Southern hybridization analysis of total DNA prepared from the diploid cells. The other four transformants produced primarily tetrads with four viable spores that gave rise to either normal or small colonies. An example is shown in Fig. 4B. The few spores that appeared to be inviable actually gave rise to small colonies. Tables 3 and 4 presents the results of tetrad characterization. All but two of the small colony segregants that could be scored were Leu<sup>+</sup> Ura<sup>-</sup>. The other two were Leu<sup>-</sup> Ura<sup>-</sup> and most likely arose by delayed germination of wild-type spores. Such small colonies were observed at a similar frequency in tetrads of the original CHCI/CHCI diploid carrying pCHCc102. These small colonies grew normally when replated onto fresh medium. chcl cells replated as small colonies.

The pCHCc102 plasmid (Ura<sup>+</sup>) was retained in every instance (95 of 95) that cells harboring  $chc1-\Delta 10$  on the chromosome (Leu<sup>+</sup>) formed a large colony. This demonstrates that CHC1 on YCp50 complements the growth abnormality associated with a  $chc1-\Delta 10$  disruption. As a further control, diploid cells carrying YCp50 were subjected to  $chc1-\Delta 10$  gene transplacement. Tetrads from such transformants were similar to those in Fig. 3. In this case (Table 5), the plasmid segregated independently of colony size. Tables 4 and 5 show that the plasmid segregated similarly in both experiments.



FIG. 4. Clathrin heavy-chain gene disruption in a diploid strain carrying *CHC1* on a centromere plasmid. (A) Strategy used to test the possibility that clathrin-deficient meiotic progeny survive owing to suppressors that accumulate during propagation of the heterozygous diploid. When one of the two chromosomal *CHC1* alleles is evicted, four classes of spores are expected as shown in the third row of squares. Each class has a distinct phenotype when assessed for leucine or uracil auxotrophy. Prediction 1 follows from the suppressor hypothesis. If clathrin-deficient progeny are viable in the absence of suppressors, then prediction 2 is expected. See the text for details. (B) Tetrad analysis of GPYD1004 carrying pCHCc102 and a chromosomal *chc1-\Delta 10* allele. Small colonies were Leu<sup>+</sup> Ura<sup>-</sup> in accordance with prediction 2 in panel A.

These results argue strongly that *chc1* haploid cell viability was not due to suppressors that arose among the *CHC1/chc1* heterozygotes.

No CHC1-homologous transcripts are present in chc1- $\Delta 10$ strains. The construction of chc1- $\Delta 10$  haploid strains permitted assessment of the possibility that a homologous gene might substitute for CHC1. Previous Southern hybridization experiments suggested that CHC1 was unique in the yeast genome (28). The more sensitive technique of RNA-RNA hybridization (23) was applied to determine whether any transcripts homologous to CHC1 were present in chc1- $\Delta 10$ cells. Four antisense RNA probes (A to D, Fig. 1) which span most of CHC1 were prepared and annealed to RNA preparations from wild-type and chc1- $\Delta 10$  cells (Fig. 5). Under conditions of low stringency (30% formamide, 6× SSC, 65°C), no transcripts homologous to CHC1 were observed even though polyadenylated RNA from chc1- $\Delta 10$ cells (Fig. 5, odd lanes) was present at levels five times that

TABLE 3. Segregation analysis of CHC1/chc1-Δ10 strain carrying pCHCc102: LEU2 and size segregation in complete tetrads<sup>a</sup>

Size of segregant	No. of tetrads	<i>LEU2</i> segregation (no. of tetrads)			No. of small	No. of Leu <sup>+</sup> Ura <sup>-</sup>	No. of small colonies
colonies		2:2	1:3	NS <sup>*</sup>	colonies	colonies	genotypes
4 large:0 small	31	31	0	0	0	0	0
3 large:1 small	36	31	1	4	32	31	$1^c$
2 large:2 small	12	9	0	3	18	17	1°

<sup>a</sup> Viability in tetrads (number of tetrads): 4 alive:0 dead, 79; 3 alive:1 dead, 6; 2 alive:2 dead, 1.

<sup>b</sup> Some colonies were too small to assess their growth in the absence of leucine or uracil. Tetrads with such colonies are listed in this column.

<sup>c</sup> Colonies contain cells with genotype leu2 ura3.

of wild-type-cell polyadenylated RNA (Fig. 5, even lanes). Other experiments indicated that the 1-kilobase RNA detected by probe D probably originated from sequences beyond the 3' end of CHC1 that were not affected by the chc1- $\Delta 10$  deletion. At the exposure lengths and low hybridization stringency used in these studies, weak diffuse signals were occasionally obtained (for example, see Fig. 5, lane 1). The absence of discrete bands and variability from experiment to experiment suggest that these signals represent a small degree of nonspecific hybridization. The integrity of RNA in each lane was established by detection of an independent large mRNA (SEC7, 6 kilobases). It therefore seems unlikely that a CHC1 homolog exists in yeasts.

Invertase secretion is delayed but not blocked in *chc1* cells. Transport kinetics of newly synthesized invertase was monitored to assess the functional integrity of the secretory pathway. The *SUC2* gene encodes two forms of invertase (9). The cytoplasmic form is made constitutively, whereas synthesis of the secreted form is derepressed when cells are placed in medium with low glucose concentrations. The ER transit form of secreted invertase migrates in SDS-polyacryl-

TABLE 4. Segregation analysis of  $CHC1/chc1-\Delta 10$  strain carrying pCHCc102: pCHCc102 segregation in complete tetrads<sup>*a*</sup>

Size of segregant	No. of tetrads	pCHCc102 (URA3) segregation (no. of tetrads)					
colonies		4:0	3:1	2:2	1:3	0:4	NS"
4 large:0 small	31	19	1	11	0	0	0
3 large:1 small	36	0	5	26	1	0	4
2 large:2 small	12	0	0	5	0	4	3

<sup>*a*</sup> See Table 3, footnote *a*.

<sup>b</sup> Some colonies were too small to assess their growth in the absence of leucine or uracil. Tetrads with such colonies are listed in this column.

TABLE 5. Segregation analysis of  $CHC1/chc1-\Delta 10$ carrying YCp50<sup>a</sup>

Character	LEU2 and size segregation in complete tetrads	pCHCc102 (URA3) segregation in complete tetrads
Size of segregant colonies	2 large:2 small	2 large:2 small
No. of tetrads	38	38
LEU2 segregation (no. of tetrads)		
2:2	28	
NS <sup>b</sup>	10	
pCHCc102 segregation (no. of tetrads)		
4:0		7
3:1		1
2:2		10
1:3		1
0:4		4
NS <sup>b</sup>		15
Total no. of small colonies	56	
No. of Leu <sup>+</sup> Ura <sup>-</sup> small colonies	28	
No. of Leu <sup>+</sup> Ura <sup>+</sup> small colonies	28	

<sup>a</sup> Viability in tetrads (number of tetrads: 4 alive:0 dead, 38; 3 alive:1 dead, 2; 2 alive:2 dead, 2).

<sup>b</sup> See Table 3, footnote b.

amide gels as a series of bands centered at 80 kD (12). On transport to the Golgi body, invertase is converted to a more highly glycosylated species that electrophoreses with extreme heterogeneity corresponding to molecular sizes in excess of 80 kD (12). This mature form is packaged into secretory vesicles without further apparent modification and delivered to the cell surface where it is retained in the periplasmic space by the cell wall. Similar rates of enzyme appearance at the cell surface were observed after transferring *chc1*- $\Delta$ 8 and wild-type cells to low-glucose medium (28). The data did not, however, exclude a reduced rate of invertase transfer from the ER to the Golgi body or from the Golgi body to the cell surface. Transit times were measured



FIG. 5. Absence of transcripts homologous to CHC1 in chc1- $\Delta 10$ strain GPY68. Polyadenylated RNA was prepared from CHC1 strain GPY55-15B and chc1- $\Delta 10$  strain GPY68, subjected to formaldehyde agarose gel electrophoresis, and transferred to nitrocellulose. Oddnumbered lanes contained 10  $\mu$ g of poly(A)<sup>+</sup> RNA from GPY68. Even-numbered lanes contained 2  $\mu$ g of poly(A)<sup>+</sup> RNA from GPY68. Even-numbered lanes contained 2  $\mu$ g of poly(A)<sup>+</sup> RNA from GPY68. GPY55-15B. Separate nitrocellulose filters (A to D) were annealed to antisense RNA probes derived from sequences designated probes A to D in Fig. 1 under conditions of low hybridization stringency. kb, Kilobases.



FIG. 6. Invertase export from clathrin-deficient cells is delayed but not blocked. *CHC1* strain GPY1100 (A) and *chc1-* $\Delta$ 8 strain GPY1101 (B), each carrying pRB58, were pulse-labeled for 5 min with <sup>35</sup>SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and then subjected to a chase regimen. Samples were harvested at the designated times after initiation of the chase, fractionated into internal (I) and external (E, periplasmic) compartments, and invertase immunoprecipitated from each fraction. Precipitated invertase was resolved and visualized by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and autoradiography. Since the secreted form of invertase was not equally derepressed in wild-type and mutant cells, a longer exposure of the gel containing mutant-cell invertase was necessary to visualize highly glycosylated species. cyto, Constitutively expressed cytoplasmic invertase; ER, core-glycosylated invertase present in the ER; mature, highly glycosylated mature species.

accurately by subjecting cells to a radiolabel pulse-chase regimen. The multicopy SUC2 plasmid pRB58 (9) was introduced into chc1- $\Delta 8$ , chc1- $\Delta 10$ , and their congenic CHC1 partners to facilitate detection of invertase secretory intermediates. Mutant and wild-type cells were pulse-labeled in low-glucose medium for 5 min with  ${}^{35}SO_4{}^{2-}$ , and then excess unlabeled  $SO_4^{2-}$ , cysteine, and methionine were added. Samples were collected at specified time intervals, and cells were harvested and separated into intracellular and periplasmic fractions. Invertase was immunoprecipitated from each fraction and displayed by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. Figure 6 shows the results of this analysis with wild-type (Fig. 6A) and  $chc1-\Delta 8$  mutant (Fig. 6B) cells. Comparing Fig. 6A with Fig. 6B, it appeared that the ER forms in wild-type and mutant cells became more highly glycosylated at similar rates. However, a marked accumulation of internal highly glycosylated invertase was apparent in the chcl cells (Fig. 6B, lanes 1, 3, 5, and 7). Also, chcl- $\Delta 8$ 



FIG. 7. Kinetics of invertase export from  $chcl-\Delta \delta$  strain GPY1101 and CHCl strain GPY1100. Different autoradiographic exposures of the gels presented in Fig. 6 were quantified by densitometry. Symbols:  $\bigcirc$ , invertase from  $chcl-\Delta \delta$  strain GPY1101;  $\bigcirc$ , invertase from CHCl strain GPY1100. (A) Rate of conversion of invertase ER forms. (B) Kinetics of mature invertase export. Dotted lines, Internal mature invertase; solid lines, external (periplasmic) invertase.

cells exhibited a slight delay in the external appearance of invertase (Fig. 6B, lanes 4, 6, and 8 compared with Fig. 6A, lanes 4, 6, and 8). These results were quantified by densitometric analysis of different autoradiographic exposures of the gels depicted in Fig. 6 (Fig. 7). Quantitation substantiated the impression that ER invertase was converted at identical rates in mutant and wild-type cells (Fig. 7A). In contrast, at 2 min postchase, nearly 75% of the newly synthesized invertase was retained within mutant cells as the highly glycosylated species. This was seven- to eightfold more than the peak levels of internal mature invertase in wild-type cells at the initiation of the chase period. The half-time of invertase external appearance was 3.6 min in CHCl cells and 6.4 min in chcl- $\Delta 8$  cells, a delay of 1.8-fold. An analysis of congenic strains GPY68 (*chc1-\Delta 10*) and GPY55-15B (CHC1) produced similar results (data not shown). In both sets of congenic partners the mutant strains retained approximately 10% internal mature invertase at 30 min. This could represent a stable internal pool of mature enzyme, but more likely reflected a technical difficulty. Mutant cells clumped together, making it difficult to remove the cell walls completely and release the entire periplasmic contents.

These experiments revealed a transport delay in the secretory pathway at some stage after invertase reached the Golgi apparatus.

**Morphological examination of mutant cells.** Thin sections of wild-type and mutant cells were prepared and examined in the electron microscope. Examples of electron micrographs depicting a *chc1-* $\Delta$ 8 cell and a wild-type cell are presented in Fig. 8. Unlike mammalian cells, wild-type yeasts (Fig. 8A) exhibit only a low level of ER, Golgi bodies, and secretory vesicles consistent with the rapid transit times of secretory

intermediates (37). Major organelles in the micrograph of the wild-type cell (Fig. 8A) are the vacuole (va) and the nucleus (n). The chcl cell shown in Fig. 8B was representative of the population examined in the electron microscope and presents evidence of a substantial accumulation of membranebounded organelles. Both vesicles (ve) and structures similar to Berkeley bodies (Bb) were apparent. Experiments with secretory mutant cells suggested that Berkeley bodies are an abnormal form of Golgi body membranes (34). ER was also apparent, but most mutant cells did not display more ER than wild-type cells. In addition, the vacuole appeared fragmented and multivesicular in cross-section (va). Similar profiles were seen with  $chcl-\Delta 10$  strain GPY68. These results were consistent with the interpretation of Fig. 6 and 7 which suggested a transport impediment late in the secretory pathway.

#### DISCUSSION

We demonstrated previously that cells incurring a clathrin heavy-chain gene disruption are viable but grow more slowly than wild-type cells (28). Since a functional secretory pathway is necessary for cell growth, the results argued against an obligate role for clathrin in the secretory process. This unexpected conclusion contradicted the prevailing view of clathrin function, although more recent studies of mammalian cell protein transport are consistent with our findings (16, 25).

Suppressors do not account for clathrin-deficient cell viability. The experiments presented in this report address several hypothesis raised to account for the viability of clathrindeficient cells. A common feature of several proposals is that genes other than CHC1 can, after alteration, suppress the



FIG. 8. Electron micrographs of thin sections cut through CHCl strain GPY1100 (A) and chcl- $\Delta 8$  strain GPY1114 (B). n, Nucleus; er, endoplasmic reticulum; va, vacuole; ve, vesicles; Bb, Berkeley bodies. Bars, 1  $\mu$ m.

lethality of a chcl lesion. Suppression could occur by mutations in, or amplification of, single genes or by chromosomal imbalances such as disomy. The first clathrin-deficient strains were obtained from the meiotic progeny of cells heterozygous for the chcl null allele. If these chcl haploid strains rely on extragenic mutations for growth, then the suppressors may arise during expansion of the heterozygous diploid cell population. For this to occur, heterozygous diploid cell growth must be somewhat retarded to allow cells with suppressors to become a dominant component of the population. Schatz et al. (35) have described diploid yeast cells heterozygous for a TUB1 (the essential member of the two  $\alpha$ -tubulin genes) null mutation which display compromised growth and accumulate chromosomal imbalances that rescue the growth defect. After sporulation, some haploid cells harboring the TUB1 disruption are viable because they carry amplified copies of the nonessential TUB3 gene. Although obvious phenotypes are not apparent in diploids carrying chcl null alleles, careful comparisons between heterozygous and homozygous wild-type strains have not been made.

To address the possibility that chcl strains carry suppressors, we performed two experiments. First, to alleviate the postulated selective pressure, a third copy of *CHCl* on a centromere vector was introduced into diploid cells before eviction of one chromosomal *CHCl* locus so that cells would retain two functional alleles. Tetrad analysis revealed slow-growing *chcl* segregants. Second, *chcl* strains were generated by direct disruption of *CHCl* in haploid cells. Thus, propagation of heterozygous diploids and induction of meiosis is not required to acquire viable *chcl*-bearing cells. Furthermore, a diploid strain formed from the mating of a haploid-derived *chcl* mutant strain and wild-type strain gave rise to complete tetrads displaying two large and two small colonies. This result indicates that the original *chcl* strain

did not harbor an unlinked suppressor nor did it suffer substantial chromosome imbalance or polyploidy.

Lemmon and Jones (Yeast 2:S208, 1986) reported tetrad analyses of heterozygous chcl strains that implied the existence of an independently segregating gene that, in conjunction with chcl, affected spore viability. Several possibilities could account for the discrepancy with our data. First, the segregation pattern observed by Lemmon and Jones could result from a heterozygous suppressor of chcl-induced lethality arising during propagation of the CHC1/chc1 diploid cells. Our results, summarized above, argue that chcl cell growth does not depend on such suppressors. Second, since they employed a slightly different chc1 allele (elimination of the 4.5-kbp BglII fragment) from those presented here, their deletion may have generated a dominant phenotype that caused suppressor accumulation in the heterozygous diploid. This seems unlikely since we have not observed differences among chcl strains carrying deletions with four different endpoints, and the Bg/II fragment deletion removed only about 200 bp less than the *chc1-\Delta 10* disruption. Finally, a gene present in one of their haploid strains may have influenced the viability of chcl spores. Which genetic background then represents wild type: one that can sustain a chcl null mutation or one that cannot? Our findings are based on more than 10 strains from three different laboratories. Hence, it is unlikely that we examined an unrepresentative sample of genetic backgrounds. In addition, we found that chcl mutant cells are generally more sensitive to traumatic conditions such as high temperature or low pH. Perhaps the strain used by Lemmon and Jones harbors a mutation that does not alter the growth of CHC1 cells but is lethal in the presence of a *chc1* null allele.

Sequence-related homologs of clathrin are not represented in mRNA from wild-type or  $chc1-\Delta 10$  cells. Our approach, using antisense RNA probes and low-stringency conditions of hybridization, was developed by others to detect Drosophila opsin gene transcripts with a bovine opsin gene probe (44). The *Drosophila* and bovine opsins display only 22% amino acid homology, and the genes share only two 45-bp stretches with about 75% nucleotide identity. Although our findings are negative, the yeast CHC1 probes detected transcripts in HeLa cell polyadenylated RNA that are large enough to encode clathrin heavy chain (T. Hasson, unpublished data). Limited preliminary nucleotide sequence comparison (T. Kirchhausen, personal communication) shows 40 to 50% amino acid homology between yeast and rat heavy chains. Hence, if a functional analog of clathrin heavy chain exists, it cannot contain extensive nucleotide homology to CHC1. On the other hand, the topoisomerase I and II genes of yeasts, although sharing no homology, nevertheless perform partially interchangeable functions (5). Similarly, a functional replacement for clathrin heavy chain may exist.

**Perturbation of the secretory pathway in clathrin-deficient mutants.** Detailed investigation of intercompartmental protein transport in clathrin-deficient strains may provide clues to clathrin function in wild-type cells. Wild-type and mutant cells exhibit equal rates of outer chain carbohydrate addition to core-glycosylated invertase (Fig. 6 and 7). Since this modification requires transport of invertase from the ER to the Golgi body, traffic between these compartments must be clathrin independent. Evidence for a role of clathrin-coated vesicles in transport from the ER in mammalian cells is controversial (1, 30).

Transport of highly glycosylated invertase to the cell surface is delayed. This impediment could occur during transport through the Golgi membrane stacks, during packaging into secretory vesicles, or during transfer of the vesicles to the cell surface; analysis of invertase secretion does not allow distinction among these stages. Preliminary experiments suggest that mutant cells are deficient in proteolytic maturation of prepro- $\alpha$  factor (G. Payne, unpublished data). Processing normally occurs before  $\alpha$  factor appears in mature secretory vesicles. This finding points to a defect late in transport through the Golgi body.

Cytological examination reveals accumulation of vesicles and Berkeley bodies in the clathrin mutant. Berkeley bodies appear to derive from Golgi membranes (38). The presence of vesicles and Berkeley bodies is consistent with a defect late in the secretory pathway. Vacuoles in mutant cells are abnormal, exhibiting multivesicular structure and apparent fragmentation in cross-section, possibly as a result of convolution of the normally smooth vacuole membrane. The significance of the vacuolar abnormality is not clear. Transport and localization of a vacuolar protease is normal in *chc1*-bearing strains (G. Payne, D. Baker, E. van Tuinen, and R. Schekman, submitted).

Both the measurement of invertase transport rates and the electron microscopic examination monitor characteristics of cells grown continuously in the absence of clathrin. With a complete molecular clone of *CHC1*, it should be possible to construct conditional mutations. Phenotypic characterization of conditionally mutant strains should more precisely define the immediate consequences of a clathrin heavy-chain deficiency.

### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Alice Taylor and Daniela Brada for advice and assistance during the electron microscopy. We acknowledge members of our laboratory and Jasper Rine's laboratory for helpful discussions. We thank Raymond Deshaies, Linda Silveira, David Baker, and William Kimmerly for comments on the manuscript and Peggy McCutchan Smith for help in preparing the manuscript.

G.P. was a senior fellow of the American Cancer Society, California Division. This work was supported by grants from the National Institute of General Medical Sciences and the National Science Foundation.

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