# RAS2 of Saccharomyces cerevisiae is required for gluconeogenic growth and proper response to nutrient limitation

(yeast/oncogenes/sporulaion/storage carbohydrates)

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ABSTRACT Saccharomyces cerevisiae contains two genes with remarkable homology to members of the ras oncogene family. These two genes, RAS1 and RAS2, constitute an essential gene family since spores with disruptions of both genes fail to grow. We report here that strains containing RAS2 disruptions have three distinct phenotypes. First, they fail to grow efficiently on nonfermentable carbon sources. Second, they hyperaccumulate the storage carbohydrates glycogen and trehalose. Third, diploid cells homozygous for the RAS2 disruptions sporulate on rich media. Extragenic suppressors have been isolated that suppress the gluconeogenic defect. These suppressors fall into at least three complementation groups, mutations in two of which bypass the normal requirement of RAS for cell viability, allowing cells containing neither RAS gene to grow. The phenotype of the RAS2 mutant and extragenic suppressors implicate  $RAS$  with some function in the normal response to nutrient limitation.

Saccharomyces cerevisiae contains three genes whose protein products share homology with the mammalian ras oncogene products. YP2, located on chromosome VI (1), shares about  $40\%$  homology in the NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal 160 amino acids with mammalian ras, whereas RASI and RAS2 (2), located on chromosome XV (3, 4) and XIV (3), respectively are  $>60\%$  homologous with mammalian ras in the same region (5, 6). RASI and RAS2 constitute an essential gene family. Cells containing disruptions of either RAS gene alone are viable, but haploid spores containing disruptions of both RASI and RAS2 fail to grow (3, 4). YP2 fails to complement the double disruption and therefore encodes a separate function.

RAS1 and RAS2 code for proteins of 309 and 322 amino acids, respectively, which can be immunoprecipitated by antibodies directed against mammalian p21 (7, 8). The larger size of these proteins relative to the 21-kDa mammalian p21 is the result of a 7-amino acid extension on the  $NH<sub>2</sub>$ -terminal end of both yeast proteins and a 120- to 130-amino acid insertion in the COOH-terminal portion of the proteins. The COOH-terminal insertions are not homologous to each other and their location is analogous to the position at which the mammalian proteins show greatest divergence (amino acids 165-185).

Like their mammalian counterparts, the yeast RAS proteins bind GTP (7, 8) and, at least in the case of RAS1, have an intrinsic GTPase activity similar to that found in p21 (9). This activity is decreased or absent in RAS1 proteins containing missense mutations at amino acid positions analogous to transforming mutations in p21 (9). Functional similarities also exist between p21 and yeast RAS. The normal mammalian Harvey ras gene (10) or the viral Harvey ras (11) can substitute for both of the normal RAS genes in yeast and a modified RASI gene can transform NIH-3T3 cells (11).

Given the functional and biochemical similarities between mammalian and yeast RAS proteins, it is likely that knowledge about RAS function in yeast may have direct implications for RAS function in mammals. We report here that yeast strains lacking RAS2 function have a defect in gluconeogenic growth, accumulate excessive levels of storage carbohydrates, and sporulate prematurely. We have identified mutations in three additional genes that suppress the gluconeogenic defect. Two of these mutations allow strains without RAS to grow.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Yeast Strains. TX2-530.1.1C ( $\alpha$  leu2 ura3 trp1 lys1 lys2 his3 ras2-530) (4) was backcrossed to MCY638 (a his4-539 lys2- 801 ura3-52). MCY638 and MCY317 (a ade2-101 his4-539), derived from strain S288C, were kindly provided by Marian Carlson. Meiotic segregants of EG81, the second backcross to MCY638, were used for quantitative measurements and revertant analysis. Although backcrosses were performed to show linkage between specific phenotypes and ras2, mendelian segregation patterns for the gluconeogenic defect and glycogen hyperaccumulation were clearly observed in original transformed diploid TX2-530. Specific strains used include EG81-40A ( $\alpha$  ura3 his4 lys2), EG81-40B ( $\alpha$  ras2-530 leu2 ura3 his4 lys2 lysi), EG81-40C (a ras2-530 leu2 ura3 his4  $lvs2$  his3  $lvs1$ ?), EG81-40D (a ura3 his4  $lvs2$  his3  $lvs1$ ?), EG81-22B (a ras2-530 his4-539 lys2-801 ura3), and 112-699 [ $\alpha$  $leu2$  ura3 can1-100 ade2-1 his3 ras2-699 (His<sup>+</sup>)].

The gluconeogenic revertants described below were derived from EG81-22B. Revertants were crossed to EG72-16C  $(\alpha$  ras2-530 leu2 trp1 lys2) and all subsequent crosses between the strains containing sra mutations were done with meiotic progeny from these crosses. EG73-14D ( $\alpha$  rasl-545 leu2 ura3 lys1 his3) and EG87-2B ( $\alpha$  ras1-545 ura3 his4 lys2) were used to test if the sra mutations bypass RAS. XCO262-485 [ $\alpha$ ] rasl  $-485$  (Trp<sup>+</sup>) stell<sup>ts</sup> leu2 his4-580 his3 trp1] has been described elsewhere (7).

Media and Genetic Techniques. Unless otherwise stated, yeast cells were grown on 1% yeast extract and 2% peptone (YEP medium) containing 2% of the designated carbon source; either glucose (YEPD medium), ethanol (YEPE medium), glycerol (YEPG medium), or acetate (YEPA medium). Sporulation medium is described elsewhere (13). Genetic techniques are described by Mortimer and Hawthorne (14). Cell number determinations for the doubling time calculations of cells grown in liquid culture were made using a Klett colorimeter.

Glycogen and Trehalose Determinations. Qualitative glycogen determinations were routinely made by inverting a plate

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of cells over iodine vapors. Cells that accumulate glycogen stain brown, whereas those that don't remain yellow. Quantitative trehalose and glycogen determinations were made according to Lillie and Pringle (15).

DNA Isolation and Southern Analysis. Genomic yeast DNA was isolated according to Winston et al. (16). Gel electrophoresis, DNA blotting, and hybridization analysis are described elsewhere (4).

## RESULTS

RAS2 Is Required for Efficient Gluconeogenic Growth. RASI and RAS2 have been disrupted in diploid strains by inserting genes for selectable auxotrophic markers, URA3 and LEU2, respectively, into the coding sequences of the cloned genes and replacing the normal genes with the disrupted copies (3, 4). No phenotypic change was observed in haploid meiotic products that contained disruptions of either RAS1 or RAS2 alone, but we have now observed that yeast cells containing disruptions of RAS2 (allele ras2-530) have an impaired ability to grow on nonfermentable carbon sources such as ethanol, glycerol, acetate, and pyruvate. Five independent ras2-530 mutants showed this growth defect. The defect segregated 2:2 through meiosis with LEU2 (ras2-530) in all 52 four-spored asci tested and remained associated with ras2 through three backcrosses to a wild-type strain (MCY638). Strain 112-699 contains a RAS2 gene disrupted by the HIS3 gene and had the same defect found in ras2-530 strains (11). The congeneic RAS2 parent had no defect. No phenotypic changes have yet been associated with disruptions of RAS1, the other yeast ras homolog.

Growth on ethanol or glycerol was not completely eliminated in strains that contain ras2-530. Although they failed to grow on nonfermentable carbon sources at 37°C, significant growth was observed at lower temperatures. Doubling times for representative RAS2 and ras2-530 strains are presented in Table 1. Sister spores from tetrad EG81-40, which contained ras2-530 (EG81-40B and -40C), had longer doubling times than the wild-type spores (EG81-40A and -40D) in YEPE medium (ethanol) at 21°C and 30°C and failed to grow at 37°C (doubling time >24 hr). No difference in growth rate between the RAS2 and ras2-530 strains was observed in YEPD medium (glucose) at 21°C or 30°C, although a difference was observed at 37°C (Table 1). Transfer of EG81-40B from glucose to ethanol medium resulted in a population of largely unbudded cells, which indicated cell cycle arrest in  $G_1$ . EG81-40B also failed to grow on glycerol, acetate, or pyruvate but did grow on the fermentable sugars sucrose and raffinose. The growth defect was recessive since diploids heterozygous for ras2-530 grew well on ethanol or glycerol.

ras2-530 Causes Derepression of Sporulation and Carbohydrate Accumulation. Yeast strains containing ras2-530 consistently stained darker with iodine than wild-type strains, which suggested that ras2-530 was responsible for the increased accumulation of glycogen. Like the gluconeogenic defect, this glycogen phenotype segregated with LEU2 through meiosis in 52 tetrads and remained associated with ras2-530 through three backcrosses to a wild-type strain. Strain 112-699 (ras2-699) also stained darker than its congeneic RAS2 parent. Confirmation that the iodine stain reflected the levels of glycogen was accomplished by measuring the glycogen levels (15). EG81-40B and -40C, which contained ras2-530, had significantly higher levels of glycogen than the wild-type spore clones 40A and 40D (Table 1). Quantitative measurements of another storage carbohydrate, trehalose, showed the same trend.

We observed that diploids homozygous for ras2 sporulated on rich medium. Most strains of Saccharomyces cerevisiae only undergo the meiotic cell cycle (referred to as sporulation) on medium deficient in reduced nitrogen and containing <sup>a</sup> nonfermentable carbon source such as acetate. A series of strains, homozygous or heterozygous for either the wild-type or mutant RAS2 gene, were tested for sporulation on different media. Only the ras2 homozygous diploids (EG81-40B/EG81- 40C and EG81-44A/EG81-44B) sporulated on YEPD or YEPE medium (5-25%). Heterozygous and the homozygous wild-type strains (nine closely related strains) showed no sporulation on these media after 96 hr. Because these strains were not isogeneic, the data were not sufficient to prove genetic linkage between the derepressed sporulation phenotype and ras2. However, Toda et al. (17) have recently observed a similar phenotype from independently constructed ras2 mutations.

Increased Gene Dosage of RASI Can Suppress the Growth Defect of ras2-530. Strain XC0262-485 contains multiple copies of the RAS1 gene integrated at the RAS1 locus (allele RAS1-485) and has increased levels of RAS1 mRNA and protein (7). Strains containing both ras2-530 and RAS1-485 had no growth defect on ethanol (YEPE medium). Tetrad analysis on two strains heterozygous for both ras2-530 and RAS1485 revealed that all spore clones containing ras2-530 and RAS1-485 (Leu<sup>+</sup>, Trp<sup>+</sup>) grew on YEPE medium (total of 35), whereas all spore clones containing ras2-530 and RAS] (total of 27) failed to grow. The glycogen phenotype of  $ras2-530$  was also suppressed by the  $RAS1-485$  allele. All Leu<sup>+</sup>, Trp<sup>+</sup> spore clones stained to the same extent with iodine as the wild-type (Leu<sup>-</sup>) clones (data not shown).

The Gluconeogenic Defect Reverts at a High Frequency. Numerous growing clones arose when strains containing ras2-530 were cultured on YEPE or YEPG medium. In order to characterize the events responsible for the reversions, individual colonies of strain EG81-22B (a ras2-530) were grown to stationary phase in YEPD medium and plated on YEPG medium. After <sup>7</sup> days at 37°C, growing colonies were observed at a frequency of one colony per  $10^4$ – $10^5$  cells plated. When the revertants were crossed to EG73-14D ( $\alpha$ ras2-530), some of the resulting diploids could utilize ethanol or glycerol, whereas others could not. Thus, the mutations responsible for the reversions were either dominant or

Table 1. Doubling times and carbohydrate levels in ras2-530 strains

Strain	Relevant genotype	Doubling time, min							
		$21^{\circ}C$		$30^{\circ}$ C		$37^{\circ}$ C			
		YEPD medium	<b>YEPG</b> medium	<b>YEPD</b> medium	<b>YEPE</b> medium	<b>YEPD</b> medium	<b>YEPE</b> medium	Glycogen, $\mu$ g/mg of dry weight	Trehalose, $\mu$ g/mg of dry weight
<b>EG81-40A</b>	RAS2	240	408	90	198	117	480	9	
<b>EG81-40B</b>	ras2	215	1269	90	600	235	$>$ 2400*	93	87
<b>EG81-40C</b>	ras2	240	1231	90	855	213	>2400	106	99
<b>EG81-40D</b>	RAS2	240	426	96	198	153	450	18	

Glycogen and trehalose measurements were made on early stationary-phase cultures.

\*After an initial period of growth, the ras2 strains stopped growing at 37°C. The same growth pattern was found on glycerol-, acetate-, or pyruvate-containing medium.





\*All strains contain the ras2-530 mutation.

tGrowth on ethanol was scored after 48 hr at 30°C on YEPE medium.

 $\uparrow$ A high percentage of the spores failed to germinate (>40%) for some crosses (RX16 and RX43, for example) and therefore the data from tetrad analysis were not significant. For this reason, data from all the germinating spores were also included.

recessive. In this preliminary characterization we chose to look at only four recessive revertants.

The mutations responsible for the reversion of the gluconeogenic deficiency segregated as mendelian genes, as shown by the 2:2 segregation for ethanol growth in tetrads from strains heterozygous for the suppressors (Table 2). We have placed the mutations responsible for the suppression (designated as sra for "suppressor of ras") into complementation groups by crossing different suppressors and observing the ability of meiotic progeny to utilize ethanol or glycerol. The summary of these crosses is presented in Table 2. The suppressors in revertants R12b and Rla were in the same complementation group, whereas the suppressors in the two other revertants, R2b and R6e, fell into different complementation groups. Crosses between the suppressors in R2b, R6e, and either R12b or R1a gave rise to  $\approx 25\%$ YEPE<sup>-</sup> progeny (original SRA ras2 phenotype). These data are presented in Table 2 in crosses RX45, RX18, RX58, RX21, and RX43. We designated the suppressors in R12b, Rla, R2b, and R6e as sral-J, sral-2, sra2, and sra3, respectively.

The revertants had other phenotypes in addition to the reversion of the gluconeogenic defect. Some of these are documented in Fig. 1, in which the parent and congeneic revertants were spotted onto YEPD medium and then replicaplated onto different media. As determined by iodine staining, R12b and Rla accumulated less glycogen than the parent. R6e, however, accumulated as high or higher levels than the parent. Although all revertants grew better than the parent on YEPE or YEPG medium at 30°C, R12b failed to grow on YEPE medium at 37°C. This growth defect was not observed on YEPG (Fig. 1) or YEPA medium (data not shown). Another phenotype specific to R12b and Rla was decreased viability when grown on medium deficient in  $(NH_4)$ <sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. This was observed when the strains were replica-plated onto  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ -deficient medium, incubated for 48 hr and then plated back onto rich medium (YEPD medium). As seen in the last panel of Fig. 1, R12b and Rla, both of which contain alleles of sral, showed a decreased plating efficiency compared to the other strains. R12b and all its meiotic progeny containing sral-1 accumulated a brown pigment when incubated for extended periods of time. Spectroscopic examination of the strain (data not shown) revealed an absorption band at 580–590 nm, indicative of a porphyrin compound (18).

The pleiotropic phenotypes observed for strains that contain sral were for the most part independent of ras2-530. We obtained sral-l strains that were wild type for RAS2 and observed the same phenotypes found in the original revertant (Rl2b)-namely, accumulation of the brown pigment, lack of glycogen, and loss of viability on nitrogen-deficient media. The inability for R12b to grow on ethanol at 37°C was also shared by sral-1 strains wild type for RAS2. The failure of R12b to grow on ethanol at  $37^{\circ}$ C was not the failure of sral-l to suppress the gluconeogenic defect of ras2-530 but was rather a phenotype of sral-1 itself.





We observed that strains homozygous for sral-1 failed to sporulate. However, sral-2, which appeared to be allelic to sral-J and shared many of the same phenotypes, sporulated when homozygous or when heteroallelic with sral-1. This was consistent with the generally weaker phenotype of sral-2. Strains containing sral-2 accumulated some glycogen, did not turn as brown upon storage as sral-1, and showed slightly increased viability over  $sral-l$  on  $NH<sub>4</sub>$ )<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>deficient media (Fig. 1). We have not observed <sup>a</sup> sporulation defect in the other suppressors.

Two Extragenic Revertants Bypass the Requirement for ras. Haploid spores containing disruptions in both rasl and ras2 either fail to germinate or arrest early in the cell cycle prior to bud emergence (3, 4). Since the sra mutations suppressed the gluconeogenic defect of ras2, we asked if they could bypass the requirement for RAS altogether. This was done by crossing strains containing  $ras2-530$  (marked by LEU2) and sra with strains containing the rasl-545 disruption (marked by URA3). Haploid meiotic progeny containing both ras2 and rasl (Leu<sup>+</sup>, Ura<sup>+</sup>) will be found among the viable spore clones if the sra mutation eliminates or bypasses the requirement for both RAS genes. This was found to be the case for both sral-l and sra3, rasl, ras2 double mutants (Leu<sup>+</sup>, Ura<sup>+</sup>) were frequently found when either sral-1 or sra3 was present, which indicates that these mutations eliminated the requirement for the normally essential  $RAS$  genes. All Ura<sup>+</sup>, Leu<sup>+</sup> spore clones from the  $sral-l$  crosses had phenotypes indicative of sral-l (glycogen deficiency, pigment accumulation, and decreased viability on  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ -deficient media). They also had a cold-sensitive phenotype, growing well above 30°C but growing poorly at or below 25°C. All putative rasl ras2 sra3 strains grew poorly at all temperatures. Ura<sup>+</sup> Leu<sup>+</sup> spores were not observed when either sral-2 or sra2 was present.

We have ruled out a duplication of RASI as an explanation for the apparent bypass phenotype of sral-J and sra3 by Southern hybridization analysis. Genomic DNA was isolated from sral and sra3 strains, digested with the proper restriction endonucleases to distinguish the wild-type from mutant RAS alleles, electrophoresed through agarose, blotted onto nitrocellulose, and hybridized with nick-translated RAS] or RAS2 DNA (4). In no case did we observe additional bands of ras hybridization indicative of an additional RAS gene. The rasl, ras2 sra mutants contained only the restriction pattern of the disruption alleles (data not shown).

## **DISCUSSION**

A number of previously characterized mutations in yeast have phenotypes similar to the ones discussed here. The spd mutations described by Dawes and Calvert (19, 20) sporulate efficiently on rich medium and fail to grow effectively on most nonfermentable carbon sources. Unlike ras2, they grow well and fail to sporulate on medium containing ethanol as the sole carbon source. Two temperature-sensitive cell division cycle mutants, cdc25 and cdc35, are also derepressed for sporulation (21) as is cyrl (22), which maps very close to cdc35 and results in the loss of adenylate cyclase activity (23).

spd mutations, like ras2, revert to glycerol utilization at a high frequency, again via extragenic suppressors. The suppressors as well share some similarities to sral-l (24). They have a recessive asporogenous phenotype, decreased viability, and accumulate a brown pigment when incubated for extended periods. Unlike sral, however, the spd suppressors are dominant for suppression of the respiratory defect. Two additional mutations have similar phenotypes to sral-1. bcyl, <sup>a</sup> mutation leading to <sup>a</sup> loss of cAMP dependence in the normal cAMP-dependent protein kinase (23), shares a number of phenotypes with sral-J. bcyl has a recessive sporulation defect (22), fails to accumulate trehalose (25), and has been shown recently to bypass the requirement for RAS (17). We do not know if  $bcy1$  is allelic to sral. glc1, a mutation originally characterized for its glycogen deficiency (12), like sral, also has a recessive sporulation defect and accumulates a brown porphyrin pigment (26) but does not appear to be allelic to sral (unpublished data).

Yeast cells normally grow unrestrained unless deprived of essential nutrients. Even in situations in which the cell cycle is inhibited, such as the response of haploid cells to mating hormones, cell growth continues (27). One of the first responses to deprivation of nutrients is the accumulation of the storage carbohydrates, glycogen and trehalose. In the case of glucose limitation, this accumulation begins before the consumption of all of the glucose from the growth medium, while the cells are still growing logarithmically (15). When the carbon source is finally depleted the cells arrest in  $G_1$  of the cell cycle, giving rise to a population of largely unbudded cells. Deprivation of reduced nitrogen, phosphate, and sulfate also elicits a similar response (15). In diploid cells, the induction of meiotic cell cycle, sporulation, is also governed by nutrient levels. With many strains, nitrogen and glucose must be eliminated before sporulation can occur. Optimal sporulation occurs in an acetate buffer. Some strains can be induced to sporulate by limiting phosphate or sulfate instead of nitrogen (28).

The increased glycogen levels and derepressed sporulation in the ras2-530 strains might be taken as evidence that RAS has a function in nutritional assessment or, more specifically, that the lack of RAS2 results in a premature starvation response. If decreased RAS expression leads to a premature starvation response, overexpression might decrease or eliminate the response. Strains carrying a RAS2 missense mutation, resulting in the substitution of valine-19 for glycine-19, have a dominant phenotype consistent with an inability to respond to starvation conditions; these strains (RAS2<sup>val19</sup>) fail to sporulate (3), fail to accumulate glycogen and trehalose, and have decreased viability (17). We have confirmed these observations with a strain containing RAS2<sup>ala16val19</sup> (unpublished data). If these mutations result in a decrease in the intrinsic GTPase activity of the RAS2 protein without affecting GTP binding, as they do in the RAS1 gene product (9), the net result should be analogous to overexpression of RAS. The similarities between the *sral-1* and RAS2<sup>val19</sup> phenotypes, together with our observation that sral-1 bypasses the requirement for RAS, suggest that the *sral* gene products may be acting downstream of RAS in the same pathway.

While the phenotypes described here implicate RAS2 with a function in response to nutrient levels, the mechanism of signaling is not clear. However, cAMP metabolism appears to be involved. Strains with mutations in CYR], which are deficient in adenylate cyclase activity, hypersporulate, whereas *bcyl* mutants are asporogenous (22). There is also evidence that enzymes responsible for the synthesis and degradation of glycogen and trehalose are regulated by phosphorylation (25, 29-33). cAMP-dependent protein kinase is directly implicated in the stimulation of trehalase and phosphorylase (25, 33). Taken together, these results suggest the testable hypothesis that RAS functions as part of the mechanism regulating protein kinases.

We do not yet understand why strains lacking RAS2 have a defect in gluconeogenic growth. However, the defect has allowed us to isolate suppressors that bypass the normal requirement for RAS. Judging from the similarities in phenotypes between sral-l and a dominant RAS2 mutation, it is likely that sral-1 may function downstream in the same pathway. The recent observations that the mammalian (10) and viral Harvey  $ras(11)$  can substitute for both of the normal RAS genes in yeast and that a modified RASI gene can transform NIH-3T3 cells (11) support the hypothesis that RAS has equivalent functions in both organisms. If this is the

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case, the sra bypass mutants described above may have functional equivalents in mammals. Molecular cloning of these suppressors may allow the isolation of their mammalian counterparts and lead to further understanding of RAS function.

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