Genetic analysis of the Kirsten-ras-revertant 1 gene: Potentiation of its tumor suppressor activity by specific point mutations

(transformation suppressor gene/site-directed mutagenesis/HT1080 cells/ras genes)

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ABSTRACT Kirsten-ras-revertant ¹ (Krev-1) cDNA encodes a ras-related protein and exhibits an activity of inducing flat revertants at certain frequencies (2-5% of total transfectants) when introduced into a v-K-ras-transformed mouse NIH 3T3 cell line, DT. Toward understanding the mechanism of action of Krev-l protein, we constructed a series of point mutants of Krev-1 cDNA and tested their biological activities in DT cells and HT1080 human fibrosarcoma cells harboring the activated N-ras gene. Substitutions of the amino acid residues in the putative guanine nucleotide-binding regions (Asp¹⁷ and Asn¹¹⁶), in the putative effector-binding domain (residue 38), at the putative acylation site (Cys^{181}) , and at the unique Thr⁶¹ all decreased the transformation suppressor activity. On the other hand, substitutions such as Gly^{12} to Val^{12} and Gln^{63} to Glu^{63} were found to significantly increase the transformation suppressor/tumor suppressor activity of Krev-1. These findings are consistent with the idea that Krev-1 protein is regulated like many other G proteins by the guanine triphosphate/ guanine diphosphate-exchange mechanism probably in response to certain negative growth-regulatory signals.

Kirsten-ras-revertant ¹ (Krev-1) cDNA was recovered from one of the flat revertants isolated from populations of a v-Kras-transformed NIH 3T3 cell derivative, DT, following transfection with ^a human fibroblast cDNA expression library (1). When transfected into DT cells, the plasmid expressing Krev-1 cDNA induces flat revertants at certain frequencies (2-5% of total transfectants), and relatively high levels of expression seem to be required to induce morphological reversion (2). Krev-1 (also known as rap 1A and smg p21) encodes a guanine-nucleotide binding protein with a molecular weight of 21,000 whose amino acid sequence shares strong similarity (around 50% amino acid identity) with the products of the classical ras protooncogenes-namely, H-ras, K-ras, and N-ras (2-4). Similarities are especially high in the essential regions known in H-ras protein as guanine nucleotide-binding regions, the effector-binding region, and the C-terminal acylation site (see Fig. 1 for locations), which have been determined by *in vitro* mutagenesis (5–10) and later by x-ray crystallography (11, 12).

The classical ras oncoproteins are also known to be activated by specific point mutations, such as amino acid substitutions at residues 12, 59, 61, and 63, to become highly transforming (reviewed in refs. 13 and 14). These mutations are believed to somehow disturb the guanine triphosphate (GTP)-hydrolyzing (GTPase) activity associated with ras proteins, thereby arresting these proteins in their active, GTP-bound form. In Krev-1 protein, some of the critical target amino acids for mutational activation of ras are identical $\left(\frac{Gly^{12}}{2}\right)$ and Thr⁵⁹), and others are distinct from the corresponding amino acids in normal ras proteins $\text{Thr}^{61}/$ Gln⁶³ in Krev-1 vs. Gln⁶¹/Glu⁶³ in ras) (2).

In this study we took advantage of the strong structural similarity between Krev-1 protein and H-ras protein to investigate the similarity and the difference between the functional organizations of these biologically counteracting proteins. We have introduced a series of point mutations in Krev-1 cDNA; some correspond to those that inactivate ras, and others correspond to those that activate ras. The mutant cDNAs were expressed in DT cells and HT1080 human fibrosarcoma cells known to harbor the activated N-ras gene (15, 16), and the growth properties of the resulting cells were examined. Through this approach, we have identified five amino acid residues in Krev-1 protein that are essential for its transformation suppressor activities: Ser^{17} , the putative Mg²⁺-binding site (12, 17); Asp³⁸ within the putative effector-binding region; the unique Thr^{oi} residue; Asn¹¹⁶ in one of the putative guaninebinding regions; and $Cys¹⁸¹$, the putative acylation site. We have also found that mutations at residues 12 (Gly to Val) and 63 (Gln to Glu, Lys, etc.) significantly potentiate the suppressor activity of Krev-1. Our observations suggest that although Krev-1 and ras proteins have mutually counteracting biological activities, they seem to be regulated by similar biochemical mechanisms that probably involve the GTP/guanine diphosphate (GDP)-exchange reaction.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Site-Directed Mutagenesis. The 2-kilobase (kb) BamHI fragment of pKrev-1 (2) was subcloned into pBluescript (SK+; Stratagene), in the sense orientation with respect to the T7 promoter, and the resulting plasmid, pBK1, was used for mutagenesis utilizing the oligonucleotide-directed in vitro mutagenesis system (Amersham). The oligonucleotides used for mutagenesis were as follows [mismatching nucleotide(s) is indicated by underline]: TTGGTTCAGIAGGCGTTGG (Val¹²); GAGGCGTTGGGAAGGATGCTCTGACAGTTC $(Asp¹⁷)$; AACGATAGAA A ATTCCTACAG $(Asn³⁸)$; ACG-ATAGAAGCTTCCTACAGA (Ala³⁸); CTGGATACTACAG-GGACAG (Thr⁵⁹); TGGATACTGCAGGGCAAGAG-CAATTTACAG (Gln⁶¹); ACTGCAGGGAAAGAGCAATTT (Lys⁶¹); AGGGACAGAGGAATTTACAGC (Glu⁶³); TTT-GGTTGGCCATAAATGTGA (His¹¹⁶); ATGAGATAT-TTTATACCCTGGTCAGACAGA (Thr¹⁶⁰); ACAGATAAA-TGGGAAAACACC (Gly'67); AAAGAAATCAAGTCTGCT-GCT (Ser¹⁸¹); AGGGACAGAGNNNTTTACAGC (NNN: AAA for Lys⁶³, CGA for Arg⁶³); AGGGACAGAGNNNTT-TACAGCAATG (NNN: GAC for Asp⁶³, GGA for Gly⁶³, GTA for Val⁶³, ACA for Thr⁶³, TAT for Tyr⁶³); GGGACAGAG-CAAT<u>A</u>TACAGCAATGAGG (Tyr⁶⁴); ACTGCAGGGACA-GAGTTTACAGCAATGAGG (63 deleted).

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Abbreviations: Krev-1, Kirsten-ras-revertant ¹ gene; GTPase, guanosine triphosphatase; GAP, GTPase-activating protein. [‡]To whom reprint requests should be addressed.

Mutant plasmids were screened by the dideoxy-sequencing method using Sequenase (United States Biochemical). Mutant cDNAs were excised from the plasmids with BamHI, blunt-ended, and inserted into the blunt-ended $EcoRI$ site of pcEXV-1 vector containing simian virus 40 early promoter (a gift from Allan Hall, Institute of Cancer Research, London). These DNA manipulations were performed as described by Maniatis et al. (18).

Biological Assays. The origin and the method for maintenance of DT cells have been described elsewhere (19). HT1080 cell line was a gift from Seong-Jin Kim (Laboratory of Chemoprevention, National Cancer Institute). The protocol for transfection assay optimized for DT cells has been described (1, 2) and was also applied for HT1080 cells in this study. Transfectants were selected in medium containing G418 (1 mg/ml) (Sigma); total G418-resistant colonies were counted on day 4 or day 5 after replating, and flat colonies were counted on day 14 or day 15 without knowing which DNA had been placed on the cells. Frequency of reversion in DT cells is defined as the ratio (%) of morphologically flat colonies to total G418-resistant colonies. Doubling times and saturation densities of the cells were determined by the method described by Crow et al. (20). Soft agar assay and tumorigenicity assay were performed as described (1).

RESULTS

In Vitro Mutagenesis. Mutations resulting in single amino acid substitutions were introduced in 10 codons of Krev-1 cDNA (Fig. 1) using oligonucleotide-directed in vitro mutagenesis, and their effects on the revertant-inducing activity were examined. The mutations can be divided into four categories: (i) from normal ras type to activated ras type (Val¹², Thr³⁹), (*ii*) from normal ras type to inactivated ras type $(Asp^{17}, Ala^{38}, Asn^{38}, His^{116}, Gly^{167}, Ser^{181}), (iii) from$ Krev-1-specific type to normal ras type $(Gln⁶¹, Glu⁶³, Thr¹⁶⁰)$, and (iv) from Krev-1-specific type to activated ras type (Lys61). The mutant cDNAs were inserted into a eukaryotic expression vector, pcEXV-1, and cotransfected with a marker plasmid (pL2neo) (21) into DT cells. Transfectant colonies were selected in medium containing G418, and the proportion of flat colonies to the total G418-resistant colonies was scored (Fig. 1).

The revertant-inducing activity of Krev-1 was significantly increased by one of the category 1 mutations, Thr^{39} (5.0-fold), and by another mutation, Val^{12} , to a smaller extent (1.8-fold). On the other hand, the activity is more or less diminished by

the category 2 mutations, which indicates that these conserved amino acid residues probably play similar, if not identical, roles in the regulation of Krev-1 protein and of ras proteins. Also, the results with Ala^{38} and Asn^{38} mutants, together with the fact that Krev-1 protein and ras proteins share an identical amino acid sequence in the so-called effector-binding domain, suggest that these proteins might interact with a common, or structurally related, effector molecule(s) with this domain (residues 32-40). On the other hand, two category 3 mutations, Glu^{63} and Thr¹⁶⁰, increased the frequency of reversion. It is interesting that wild-type Krev-1 has threonine at amino acid 61, because the Thr 61 mutant of H-ras is known to be weakly transforming (22). In this experiment, two mutations at amino acid 61, the normal ras type (Gln) and the strongly activated ras type (Lys), decreased the frequency of reversion, indicating the importance of the unique Thr^{61} residue for the transformation suppressor activity of Krev-1.

Phenotypes of the Transfectants. To further explore the biological activities of the activated Krev-1 mutants, we isolated individual revertant clones from the transfected DT populations and examined the growth properties of each clone in vitro and in vivo (Table 1). Independence of each clone was confirmed by the uniqueness in the pattern of DNA blot that was hybridized to the Krev-1-specific probe (Fig. 2A). We also estimated the levels of expression of the exogenously introduced Krev-1 and v-K-ras by RNA blotting technique (indicated pKrev-1 and v-K-ras, respectively, in Fig. 2B).

Two clones of flat revertants (WT-1 and -2) were isolated after transfection with wild-type Krev-1 (Table 1). WT-1 grew slowly and formed small colonies at a low frequency in soft agar but did not form tumors in nude mice under the conditions used. On the other hand, WT-2 was initially flat after cloning but threw off morphologically transformed cells with some frequency, and by the time we obtained enough cells for analysis the majority had become apparently transformed and formed large colonies in soft agar. Although the WT-2 cells do contain transfected Krev-1 DNA, the level of Krev-1 mRNA was very low, and this fact may explain the observed phenotypic instability of this clone. Three independent and reasonably stable revertants (12V-1 to -3) were isolated from DT cells transfected with $Krev-1(Val¹²)$. Although these revertants grew faster than WT-1 cells and formed more colonies with larger sizes in soft agar, their tumorigenic activity was greatly suppressed as compared to DT cells. Four stable revertants (59T-1 to -4) and one unstable (59T-5)

Table 1. Properties of the DT cell clones harboring Krev-1 mutants

	mRNA		Doubling	Soft agar colony*		Tumorigenicity [†]		
	pKrev-1	v-K-ras	time, hr	%	Size	Day 10	Day 20	Day 30
NIH 3T3			17	0.1		0/3	0/3	0/3
DT		$+ + +$	10	105	L	$2/3$ (SS)	$3/3$ (LLM)	$1/1$ (L) [‡]
$WT-1$	$++$	$+ +$	22	17	S	0/3	0/3	0/3
WT-2	$+$	$+ + +$	17	97	L	ND		
12V-1	$+ + +$	$+$	19	88	M	0/3	$2/3$ (SS)	$2/3$ (SS)
12V-2	$++$	$+ + +$	14	58	M	0/3	$1/3$ (S)	$0/2$ §
12V-3	$++$	$+ + +$	18	16	M	0/3	0/3	$1/3$ (M)
59T-1	$++++$	$++$	30	17	S	0/3	$1/3$ (S)	$1/3$ (S)
59T-2	$++$	$++++$	29	16	S	0/3	0/3	0/3
59T-3	$++$	$+$	26	5.2	S	0/3	0/3	0/3
59T-4	$+ + +$	$+ + +$	33	< 0.1		0/3	$1/3$ (M)	0/3
59T-5	$+$	$++$	19	8.6	S	0/3	$2/3$ (SS)	$3/3$ (SSM)
63E-1	$+ + +$	$+ + +$	18	12	M	0/3	$1/3$ (S)	$1/3$ (L)
63E-2	$++$	$+ + +$	23	70	S	0/3	0/3	0/3
63E-3	$++$	$++++$	22	95	M	0/3	0/3	$1/3$ (S)

ND, not done.

*Ratio (%) of soft agar colonies to viable cells, measured by colony-formation assay in liquid medium. Average sizes of the colonies are indicated as follows: large (L), >500 cells; medium (M), 100-500 cells; small (S), <100 cells per colony on day 14.

The approximate size of each tumor (v) was estimated by multiplying the width (w) , length (l) , and height (h) of the tumor ($v = w \times l \times h$, in mm) and is indicated as follows: S, $v < 300$; M, $300 < v < 1000$; L, $1000 < v$.

*Two animals were dead with large necrotic tumors.

§One animal was dead with a small tumor.

revertant were isolated with Krev-1(Thr⁵⁹). All of the stable clones expressed moderate to high levels of Krev-1 mRNA and grew very slowly. Growth in soft agar and tumorigenicity in nude mice were strongly suppressed in these revertants. The instability of 59T-5 cells may be explained by its low level expression of Krev-1 mRNA. Three stable revertants (63E-1 to -3) obtained with Krev-1(Glu⁶³) exhibited phenotypes similar to those with $Krev-1(Val¹²)$. In summary, these revertants are not only flat in morphology but also exhibit reduced malignancy in vitro and in vivo as compared to parental DT cells. Also, ^a balance between the expression of Krev-1 and of v-K-ras seems to correlate with the phenotypic stabilities of these clones.

Biological Activities of Krev-1 and Its Mutants in HT1080 Cells. Since activation of endogenous ras genes is known to be involved in many human malignancies, it was of particular interest to see whether Krev-1 has any effects on the growth or the tumorigenicity of naturally occurring tumors. As an initial attempt to answer this question, we transfected the Krev-1 cDNA or some of its mutants along with the pL2neo plasmid into a human fibrosarcoma cell line, HT1080, and examined the growth properties of the transfectants (Table 2). Because HT1080 cells exhibit flatter morphology than DT cells, and there is a considerable degree of morphological heterogeneity among the individual colonies, it was impossible to determine the frequency of morphological reversion after the transfection in this case. Instead, we determined the growth rate, the colony-forming ability in soft agar, and the tumorigenicity in nude mice of the pooled transfectants that had survived G418 selection. Wild-type Krev-1 seems to slow the growth of HT1080 cells, although the cells remain tumorigenic. The same is true with $Krev-1(Thr^{59})$. Consistent with its lack of activity in DT cells, Krev-1(Asn³⁸) did not slow the growth of HT1080 cells. Krev-1(Ser¹⁸¹) reproducibly exhibited some residual activity in the assay in vitro and in $vivo$, and presently the reason for this phenomenon is unknown. On the other hand, $Krev-1(Val^{12})$ and $Krev-1(Glu^{63})$ had prominent effects on the growth of HT1080 cells in vitro as well as in vivo. The cells harboring Krev-1(Val¹²) grew very poorly in soft agar, and they only formed a nodule in one of three nude mice inoculated. This nodule was small and

regressed afterward. The growth rate of the cells harboring $Krev-1(Glu^{63})$ was slower than those harboring wild-type Krev-1, and they formed fewer colonies in soft agar. These cells initially formed small nodules in nude mice but failed to establish tumors. Thus, the Val¹² and the Glu⁶³ mutants of Krev-1 exhibited strong tumor suppressor activities in this human sarcoma cell line harboring the activated, endogenous N-ras gene.

Effects of Mutations in Codon 63. Fasano et al. (24) have discovered a unique activating mutation of H-ras, Glu⁶³ \rightarrow Lys⁶³, induced by random mutagenesis. Effects of substitutions at this site to other amino acids in ras proteins are unknown. Krev-1 and closely related genes, Dras 3, rap 1B, and rap 2, have a glutamine residue at this site (3, 25), and the pentapeptide sequence surrounding this site $(Thr^{61}-Glu-$ Gln-Phe-Thr⁶⁵) is characteristic of these members of the ras supergene family. This fact prompted us to speculate on the importance of this region for the unique biological activity of Krev-1 and to further study the effects of other mutations in codon 63. We have constructed and tested nine Krev-1 mutants carrying single amino acid changes at codon 63 and one mutant at codon 64 (Table 3). Deletion of the amino acid 63 abolished the revertant-inducing activity of Krev-1. Among the eight substitutions tested, three (Glu 63 , Asp⁶³, and Arg⁶³) were found to significantly potentiate the revertant-inducing activities, whereas the Val⁶³ mutation abolished the activity. Little effect was observed with the other substitutions. Thus, substitutions of codon 63 to certain charged amino acids seem to be effective in potentiating the Krev-1 activity.

DISCUSSION

We have observed that $Krev-1(Val^{12})$ and $Krev-1(Glu^{63})$ exhibited substantial tumor suppressor activities in HT1080 cells, whereas wild-type Krev-1 exhibited only a small effect on the growth properties of these cells. Similarly, wild-type Krev-1 induced reversion only in ^a small fraction of DT cells, whereas $Krev-1(Val^{12})$ and $Krev-1(Glu^{63})$ induced reversions at higher frequencies. These results are reminiscent of earlier observations that normal ras can transform NIH 3T3 cells only when overexpressed (26, 27), whereas ras carrying

Probe

FIG. 2. Occurrence and expression of the transfected Krev-1 gene in the flat revertant clones. (A) Total DNA extracted from DT (D), R16 (R), or flat revertants induced with either wild-type Krev-1 (WT, 1-2), Krev-1(Val¹²) (12V, 1-3), Krev-1(Thr⁵⁹) (59T, 1-5), or Krev-1(Glu⁶³) $(63E, 1-3)$ was digested with BamHI and Bgl II and analyzed by the Southern DNA blot hybridization technique using the 2.0-kb BamHI fragment of pKrev-1 plasmid (2) as a probe. (B) Total RNA (15 μ g) extracted from the same set of cell lines was analyzed by the Northern blotting technique. The same blot was probed sequentially with the following three probes: 2.0-kb BamHI fragment of pKrev-1 (Krev-1 probe), 0.39-kb Sac II/Xba I fragment of Kirsten murine sarcoma virus provirus (K-ras probe), and 1.7-kb Pst I fragment of pA1 (23) (β -actin probe). Blotting and hybridization were performed as described (2).

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certain point mutations such as Val¹² or Leu⁶¹ exhibit potent transforming activities.

In this study, we are assuming that the point mutations described here do not affect the levels of protein expression. This assumption has not been rigorously proven mainly because of the lack of specific antibodies available at this moment. However, we anticipate some difficulty in interpreting data even if we were able to measure the levels of mutant proteins in the transfectants, because there might be

Table 3. Revertant-inducing activities of Krev-1 cDNAs carrying various mutations in codons 63 and 64

$Krev-1$ mutant	Nature of the amino acid	Frequency of reversion,* %	
Vector		< 1.2	
Gln ⁶³ (WT) [†]	Polar	2.9 ± 0.3	
63 deleted		< 1.4	
Glu ⁶³	Acidic	13.5 ± 3.4	
Asp ⁶³	Acidic	4.0 ± 1.3	
Lys^{63}	Basic	10.1 ± 1.8	
Arg ⁶³	Basic	7.7 ± 0.4	
Gly ⁶³	Polar	4.3 ± 1.0	
Thr^{63}	Polar	3.7 ± 0.5	
Tyr^{63}	Polar	4.0 ± 2.9	
Val ⁶³	Nonpolar	< 0.5	
Tyr ⁶⁴	(H-ras type)	4.8 ± 0.2	

The amino acid sequences around this site are

Krev-1: $\text{Gly}^{60}\text{-}\text{Thr-Glu-Gln}^{63}\text{-}\text{Phe-Thr-Ala}^{66}$;

H-ras: Gly⁶⁰-Gln-Glu-Glu⁶³-Tyr-Ser-Ala⁶⁶.

Values are expressed as mean ± SD.

*Combined data from three separate experiments.

tWild type.

a selective pressure against the cells overexpressing these potentially growth-inhibitory proteins. For these reasons, it seems reasonable to interpret our biological data on the above assumption, at least, for the moment.

We observed that only ^a fraction of DT cells could be reverted, even with the activated form of Krev-1 genes, whereas strong effects were observed on the malignancy of HT1080 cells in the bulk transfection assay with these genes. In fact, when we inoculated a pooled DT cell population that had been transfected with the activated Krev-1 cDNA followed by G418 selection, we failed to see any differences in the rate of tumor formation as compared to the control DT cells harboring vector DNA (data not shown). Although we do not know the reason for this apparent discrepancy between the results with these two systems, the following facts should be taken into account in interpreting the results: (i) DT cells have much higher tumorigenicity in nude mice $(10³$ cells per site may form a tumor) than HT1080 cells (at least 106 cells per site are needed to obtain a tumor); (ii) HT1080 cells have ^a fairly stable karyotype, whereas DT cells, as parental NIH 3T3 cells, have unstable and hyperploid karyotypes; (iii) the species differences-namely, we are looking at the effects of human Krev-1 cDNA on mouse DT cells and human HT1080 cells; and (iv) the transcription of v-K-ras is driven in DT cells by mouse leukemia virus long terminal repeat, a strong promoter in rodent cells, whereas that of N-ras is driven by its native promoter in HT1080 cells. The transcription of Krev-1 cDNAs used in this study is driven by the simian virus 40 early promoter whose efficiency is known to

Table 2. Growth properties of the HT1080 cells transfected with wild-type or mutant Krev-1

DNA	G418 ^R colonies*	Soft agar colonies, %	Doubling time, hr		Tumorigenicity [†]	
				Day 15	Day 32	Day 45
Vector	79	69	23	$3/3$ (SSS)	$3/3$ (LMS)	$3/3$ (LLM)
Wild type	39	76	34	$2/3$ (MS)	$3/3$ (LLM)	$3/3$ (LLL)
Val ¹²	51	10	32	0/3	$1/3$ (S)	0/3
Asn^{38}	95	75	23	$3/3$ (MSS)	$3/3$ (LLL)	$3/3$ (LLL)
Thr^{59}	108	41	36	$3/3$ (SSS)	$3/3$ (LLM)	$3/3$ (LLL)
Glu ⁶³	81	28	42	$2/3$ (SS)	$1/3$ (S)	0/3
Ser ¹⁸¹	105	62	35	$1/3$ (M)	$2/3$ (MS)	$3/3$ (LMS)

*One microgram of pL2neo DNA and 5 μ g of pcEXV-Krev-1 DNA were cotransfected into about 10⁶ HT1080 cells, $G418$ -resistant $(G418^R)$ cells were selected for 16 days, and total $G418$ -resistant colonies were pooled and expanded. Three biological assays (soft agar assay, growth curve determination, and tumorigenicity assay) were performed using the same batches of cells.

[†]The size of each tumor is designated as described in footnote \dagger to Table 1.

be higher in human cells than in rodent cells. Therefore, the ratio of the levels of expression of ras and of Krev-1 may be quite different between these two systems.

It has been proposed that ras proteins are regulated by the GTP/GDP-exchange mechanism analogous to that for other well-characterized G-proteins (reviewed in refs. 14 and 28) namely, a hypothetical upstream signal stimulates the protein to release GDP and to bind with GTP. Only this active, GTP-bound form of the protein is able to interact with its effector molecule whose nature in mammalian cells is currently unknown (see below). The system is switched off by a specific GTPase-activating protein (GAP), which converts the GTP-bound ras protein to the inactive, GDP-bound form, by potentiating the intrinsic GTPase activity of ras proteins. The activating mutations in ras are thought to inactivate the intrinsic GTPase activity and/or to decrease the affinity to GAP. In light of this model, one could speculate that Krev-1/GTP-complex, which is expected to be stabilized by the activating mutations such as $Val¹²$, may bind to the ras effector and inhibit the transduction of the downstream growth signal. We have recently found by using chimeric Krev-1/H-ras genes that a region (residues 1-59) including the conserved putative effector-binding domain (residues 32-40) is responsible for the transformation suppressibility of Krev-1 (unpublished data), which is consistent with this model. However, an alternative model that Krev-1 protein is involved in a negative signal transduction pathway that is separate from the positive pathway for ras protein seems equally probable at this moment.

In the three-dimensional structure of H-ras protein reported by Pai et al. (12), residues 61-64 form a highly mobile loop sticking out from the globular surface of this protein, and the preceding amino acid (Gly^{60}) has a direct interaction with the γ -phosphate of GTP (12). Der *et al.* (22) have shown earlier that substitutions of codon 61 of H-ras to various other amino acids led to the reduction of its GTPase activity and the potentiation of its transforming activity. From these observations, one could speculate that the highly mobile loop (i.e., residues 61-63) in ras proteins may play an important role in the regulation of its GTPase activity and that changes in the amino acid sequence in this loop may not necessarily destroy or alter the overall structures and functions of these proteins. This hypothesis is consistent with our findings that various types of codon 63 mutants of Krev-1 exhibited increased transformation suppressor activity (Table 3).

McCormick (28) has proposed that GAP may be the effector itself for ras proteins, since the GAP-binding domain in ras coincides with the genetically identified effectorbinding domain, and the enzymatic activity of GAP is consistent with the model if one assumes that the effector receives and terminates the signal. Kikuchi et al. (29) have recently reported that they could detect in the bovine brain two distinct species of GAP specific to smg p21, the bovine homologue of Krev-1, and that the smg p21 GAPs failed to activate the GTPase activity of H-ras protein, whereas the original ras GAP failed to activate smg p21 GTPase. These findings indicate that, at least, the switching off mechanisms for ras and for Krev-1 are separate. Recently, Molloy et al. (30) have reported evidence that platelet-derived growth factor receptor kinase phosphorylates ras GAP and alters its subcellular localization from the cytosol to the plasma membrane, providing a potentially important insight into the nature of the upstream signal for ras protein(s). The main conclusion of the present study that the mode of regulation for Krev-1 protein is probably very similar to that for ras proteins raises the possibility that Krev-1 protein may also be regulated by certain upstream, negative growth-regulatory signals.

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