Molecular and Cellular Biology

Two types of RAS mutants that dominantly interfere with activators of RAS.

V Jung, W Wei, R Ballester, J Camonis, S Mi, L Van Aelst, M Wigler and D Broek *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 1994, 14(6):3707. DOI: 10.1128/MCB.14.6.3707.

	Updated information and services can be found at: http://mcb.asm.org/content/14/6/3707
CONTENT ALERTS	<i>These include:</i> Receive: RSS Feeds, eTOCs, free email alerts (when new articles cite this article), more»

Journals.ASM.org

Two Types of RAS Mutants That Dominantly Interfere with Activators of RAS

VINCENT JUNG,¹ WEN WEI,² ROYMARIE BALLESTER,³ JACQUES CAMONIS,¹† SHA MI,¹ LINDA VAN AELST,¹ MICHAEL WIGLER,^{1*} AND DANIEL BROEK²

Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, New York 11724¹; Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Kenneth Norris Jr. Cancer Hospital and Research Center, University of Southern California School of Medicine, Los Angeles, California 90033²; and Department of Biological Sciences, University of California at Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara, California 93016³

Received 20 December 1993/Returned for modification 8 February 1994/Accepted 9 March 1994

In the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, ras1 regulates both sexual development (conjugation and sporulation) and cellular morphology. Two types of dominant interfering mutants were isolated in a genetic screen for *ras1* mutants that blocked sexual development. The first type of mutation, at Ser-22, analogous to the H-ras^{Asn-17} mutant (L. A. Feig and G. M. Cooper, Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:3235–3243, 1988), blocked only conjugation, whereas a second type of mutation, at Asp-62, interfered with conjugation, sporulation, and cellular morphology. Analogous mutations at position 64 of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* RAS2 or position 57 of human H-ras also resulted in dominant interfering mutants that interfered specifically and more profoundly than mutants of the first type with RAS-associated pathways in both *S. pombe* or *S. cerevisiae*. Genetic evidence indicating that both types of interfering mutants function upstream of RAS is provided. Biochemical evidence showing that the mutants are altered in their interaction with the CDC25 class of exchange factors is presented. We show that both H-ras^{Asn-17} and H-ras^{Tyr-57}, compared with wild-type H-ras, are defective in their guanine nucleotide-dependent release from human cdc25 and that this defect is more severe for the H-ras^{Tyr-57} mutant. Such a defect would allow the interfering mutants to remain bound to, thereby sequestering RAS exchange factors. The more severe interference phenotype of this novel interfering mutant suggests that it functions by titrating out other positive regulators of RAS besides those encoded by *ste6* and *CDC25*.

Mutant versions of RAS proteins are found in a wide variety of human tumors (3). The normal vertebrate RAS regulates cellular growth, morphology, and differentiation (4). In the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, RAS is required for vegetative growth (5, 46). In the yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, RAS is involved in pathways controlling sexual differentiation and cellular morphology (19, 40, 41). In each of these diverged species, it is evident that the nucleotide-bound state of RAS proteins regulates its activity. The conversion of the inactive RAS · GDP to the active RAS · GTP is regulated by guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs) structurally and functionally related to the yeast *S. cerevisiae CDC25* gene product (13).

Previously, RAS mutants which dominantly interfere with wild-type RAS functions in the yeast *S. cerevisiae* and in animal cells, namely, H-ras^{Ala-15} or its yeast homolog RAS2^{Ala-22} (48) and H-ras^{Asn-17} (15), have been identified. The H-ras^{Ala-15} and RAS2^{Ala-22} mutants likely act by titrating out upstream RAS GEFs. Evidence for this comes from the observation that the dominant interference of either mutant expressed in *S. cerevisiae* can be suppressed by overexpression of the RAS-GEF encoded by *CDC25* (45). Furthermore, in a two-hybrid assay, yeast CDC25 was found to bind the RAS2^{Ala-22} mutant more strongly than wild-type RAS2 (38). The mechanism by which dominant interfering mutants titrate out GEFs remains unclear, but there is evidence to suggest that the interfering mutants are locked into an inactive conformation that binds to and sequesters the intracellular pool of GEFs (14, 28, 38).

The goal of our current study was to probe the function of RAS in the fission yeast S. pombe by generating dominant interfering RAS mutants. The RAS pathways in S. pombe are not mediated by adenylyl cyclase as they are in S. cerevisiae (5, 56). The organism S. pombe has a single RAS homolog, ras1 (19, 41), that is not involved in vegetative growth but rather is required for sexual differentiation and cellular morphology (40). A positive regulator of ras1, encoded by ste6 (26), is structurally and functionally related to the S. cerevisiae RAS-GEF encoded by CDC25. In S. pombe, two signals, nutrient starvation and pheromones, lead to conjugation between the two mating types h^+ and h^- . The conjugated cells then sporulate to form zygotic asci. ras1^{null} cells are viable but defective in sporulation and conjugation; such cells also are rounded, whereas wild-type cells exhibit an elongated morphology (20, 40). In contrast to ras1^{null} cells, ste6^{null} cells are defective in conjugation but are normal with respect to both sporulation and cellular morphology. Disruption of the ras1 gene, therefore, has a more pronounced effect than disruption of this upstream activator. The search for interfering mutants of ras1 in S. pombe is attractive since ras1 is not an essential gene and its protein product potentially regulates more than one pathway, as suggested by its roles in both sexual differentiation and cellular morphology. Here we describe the characterization of a novel dominant interfering mutant of S. pombe ras1 containing substitutions at Asp-62. We have made analogous mutants of S. cerevisiae RAS2 and vertebrate H-ras and have characterized their interfering properties as well.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plasmids, yeast strains, and reagents. All strains and plasmids used in this study are described in Tables 1 and 2.

^{*} Corresponding author. Mailing address: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, P.O. Box 100, Cold Spring Harbor, NY 11724. Phone: (516) 367-8376. Fax: (516) 367-8371.

[†] Present address: INSERM U-248, Faculté de Médecine Lariboisière-Saint-Louis, 75010 Paris, France.

Strain	Relevant genotype	Source or reference	
S. pombe			
SP66	h ⁹⁰ leu1-32 ade6-216	David Beach	
SP66-R1C22	h^{90} leu1-32 ade6-216 ura4::adh-SPras1 ^{Cys-22}	This study	
SP66-R1Y62	h ⁹⁰ leu1-32 ade6-216 ura4::SPras1 ^{Tyr-62}	This study	
SP593	h ⁹⁰ leu1-32 ade6-216 ras1::ras1 ^{Val-17}	David Beach	
SP870	h ⁹⁰ leu1-32 ade6-210 ura4-D18	David Beach	
SPR2A	h ⁹⁰ leu1-32 ade6-216 ura4::RAS2 ^{Ala-22}	59	
SPRU	h ⁹⁰ leu1-32 ade6-210 ura4-D18 ras1::ura4	59	
S. cerevisiae			
IR-1	MATa his3 leu2 ura3 trp1 ade8 can1 ira1::HIS3	2	
IR2.5	MATa his3 leu2 ura3 trp1 ade8 can1 ira2::ADE8	1a	
IR2.53	MATa his3 leu2 ura3 trp1 ade8 can1 ira1::HIS3 ira2::ADE8	25	
RB5	MAT his3 leu2 ura3 trp1 ade8 can1 ira1::HIS3 ira2::ADE8 cdc25::URA3	Roymarie Ballester	
SP1	MATa his3 leu2 ura3 trp1 ade8 can1	56	
STS1	MATa his3 leu2 ura3 trp1 ade8 can1 ras1::URA3 ras2 ^{ts}	48	
TK161-R2V	MATa his3 leu2 ura3 trp1 ad8 can1 RAS2 ^{Val-19}	56	

TABLE 1. S. pombe and S. cerevisiae strains used in this study

Plasmid pAAUN-ras1, expressing a cDNA for *S. pombe ras1*, was obtained from Hao-Peng Xu. Plasmid pART3-*ste6*, expressing the exchange factor for Ras1, and plasmid pUC-ral2, containing the genomic clone of *ral2*, a putative upstream regulator of Ras1 in *S. pombe* (21), were the kind gifts of M. Yamamoto. Plasmid pART1-ral2, expressing the cDNA of the *ral2* gene, was obtained by PCR using plasmid pUC-ral2 as the template and two primers containing internal *Bam*HI sites (in boldface) to facilitate cloning into plasmid pART1: 5'-CT TATTAACGTCGGGATCCTAAACAGT-3' and 5'-GATA GAGCTACGGAGGATCCAAATGCA-3'.

S. pombe SP66-R1C22 and SP66-R1Y62, containing the integrated dominant interfering mutants $SPras1^{Cys-22}$ and

SPras1^{Tyr-62}, respectively, were generated by transforming *S.* pombe SP66 with a NotI fragment derived from plasmids pVINCE1-SPras1C22 and pVIN1-SPras1Y62 (see below), respectively. *S. cerevisiae* RB5 was constructed by mating a $cdc25^{null}$ strain to an *ira1^{null} ira2^{null}* strain, sporulating, and selecting for complementation of auxotrophic markers.

Construction of mutant *S. pombe ras1* **library.** Mutagenesis of *S. pombe ras1* was carried out by PCR as described by Zhou et al. (66). The following 5' and 3' oligonucleotide primers were used: 5'-CTTAGTGTGCTTTATAGGATCCTGAA-3' and 5'-GATCGGTGCATTCACCAAAGAGCTCA-3'. These oligonucleotides contain, respectively, *Bam*HI and *SstI* sites (in boldface) for directional cloning into identical sites in the *S.*

Plasmid	Plasmid Comments	
S. pombe		
pAIS1	byr2 expression	59
pART1-byr1	byr1 expression	59
pART1	ARS, LEU2, adh promoter	35
pART1-HRY57	H-ras ^{Tyr-57} expression	This paper
pART1-HRY57S186	H-ras ^{Tyr-57, Ser-186} expression	This paper
pART1-ral2	Upstream positive regulator of ras	This paper
pART1-SPras1	S. pombe ras1 expression	Yan Wang
pART1-SPras1C22	S. pombe ras1 ^{Cys-22} expression	This paper
pART1-SPras1N22	S. pombe ras1 ^{Asn-22} expression	This paper
pART1-SPras1G62	S. pombe ras1 ^{Gly-62} expression	This paper
pART1-SPras1Y62	S. pombe ras1 ^{Tyr-62} expression	This paper
pART1-ste6	S. pombe ras1 nucleotide exchange factor	26
pVIN1	Vector for integration of genomic DNA	This paper
pVIN1-SPras1Y62	S. pombe ras1 ^{Tyr-62} expression	This paper
pVINCE1	Vector for integration and expression of cDNA	This paper
pVINCE1-HR	H-ras expression	This paper
pVINCE1-HRA35	H-ras ^{Ala-35} expression	This paper
pVINCE1-HRY57	H-ras ^{Ala-35} expression H-ras ^{Tyr-57} expression	This paper
pVINCE-HRA35Y57	H-ras ^{Ala-35, Tyr-57} expression	This paper
pVINCE1-SPras1C22	S. pombe ras1 ^{Cys-62} expression	This paper
pVINCE1-SPras1Y62	S. pombe ras1 ^{Tyr-62} expression	This paper
S. cerevisiae		1 1
pAD4∆	2µm, <i>LEU2</i>	2
pAD54	2µm, LEU2, Lerner epitope tagged	17
pAD4Δ-HRY57	H-ras ^{Tyr-57} expression	This paper
pAD4Δ-R2A22	$RAS2^{Ala-22}$ expression	This paper
pAD4Δ-R2Y64	$RAS2^{Tyr-64}$ expression	This paper
pAD54-R2Y64	Epitope-tagged RAS2 ^{Tyr-64} expression	This paper

TABLE 2 Vectors and plasmids used in this study



FIG. 1. Plasmids pVIN1 and pVINCE1 were constructed as described in the text. All sites except for XbaI are unique in the polylinker. These vectors contain the S. cerevisiae ADE2 gene, a polylinker, or an S. pombe adh promoter flanked by S. pombe ura4 segments. The entire insert can be removed by NotI digestion for transformation into S. pombe. Integration into the ura4 locus can be verified by complementation of the adenine auxotrophy and loss of uracil prototrophy.

pombe expression vector pART1 (35). A library of over 10^7 clones was generated from a pool of eight separate 50-µl PCRs.

Selection of S. pombe ras1 dominant interfering mutants. DNA from the mutant S. pombe ras1 library was isolated and transformed by the lithium acetate method (27) into wild-type S. pombe SP870. Cells were plated such that approximately 200 to 300 transformants grew per selective plate. Colonies defective for conjugation or sporulation were detected by the iodine vapor staining method (32). Plasmid DNA was isolated from these cells and retransformed into wild-type cells to confirm that the interference was due to the presence of the plasmid. The mutations in S. pombe ras1 were identified by Sanger sequencing (49) of the full length of the gene.

Construction of pVINCE1 and pVIN1. pVINCE-1 (vector for integration and cDNA expression; (Fig. 1) was designed to facilitate integration of a cDNA expressed under *adh* promoter control into the *ura4* locus of *S. pombe* and was constructed as follows. Plasmid pUCN was constructed from plasmid pUC118 by removing the polylinker with *Hind*III and *Eco*RI digestion, blunt ending with Klenow polymerase, and ligating to *NotI* linkers. The *ura4*⁺ gene was excised from vector pAIL (29) by *Hind*III digestion and treated with Klenow polymerase, and

NotI linkers were added for cloning into the vector pUCN, generating plasmid pUC-ura4. An AscI restriction site was introduced into the internal EcoRV site of ura4 by the use of linkers. AscI linkers were then added onto a HindIII-EcoRI fragment obtained from pART1 (35) containing an adh promoter with a polylinker. The fragment was cloned into the AscI site of pUC-ura4, thereby disrupting the ura4 gene and generating plasmid pura4-adh. An SphI site, just upstream of the adh promoter, was converted into a BclI site by linkers. An ADE2 gene was excised from plasmid pAZ11 (53) by restriction with BglII and cloned directly into the BclI site to generate pVINCE-1. The ADE2 gene (53) of S. cerevisiae can complement the S. pombe ade6 auxotrophy (33, 42). After cloning of the desired cDNA into the polylinker, the integrating fragment can be excised by NotI digestion for transformation. Successful disruption of the ura4 locus can be identified by growth in adenine-free plates and failure to grow in uracil-free plates.

pVIN1 (vector for integration; Fig. 1) is similar to pVINCE1 except that it was designed for integration of cloned genomic fragments. This plasmid was constructed by a partial BgIII digestion of pVINCE1 followed by PstI digestion to remove the *adh* promoter, then blunt ended by T4 polymerase, and self-religated.

The dominant interfering SPras1^{Cys-22} and SPras1^{Tyr-62} mutants were cloned into pVINCE-1, using restriction enzyme sites *Bam*HI and *Sst*I to create plasmids pVINCE1-SPras1C22 and pVINCE1-SPras1Y62, respectively.

Site-specific mutagenesis of RAS genes and cloning into expression vectors. Site-directed mutagenesis by the doubleprimer method (12) was used to modify RAS genes (Transformer mutagenesis kit; Clontech, Palo Alto, Calif.). Primer 5'-TGGACATTTTGTATACGGCAGGGCAGGAAG-3' was used to change residue 64 of S. cerevisiae RAS2, cloned into plasmid YEplac112 (23), from an aspartic acid to a tyrosine, to create plasmid YEplac112-R2Y64. Amino acid residue 57 of human H-ras in plasmid pAAU-HR (59) was changed from an aspartic acid to tyrosine, using the oligonucleotide 5'-CTGGC CGGCGGTATACAGGATGTCCAA-3' to create plasmid pAAU-HRY57. Position 35 of the effector loop (52, 64) in wild-type H-ras (H-ras^{WT}) and H-ras^{Tyr-57} was changed from a threonine to an alanine by mutagenesis of plasmids pVINCE1-HR and pVINCE1-HRY57 by using the oligonucleotide 5'-ACGAATACGACCCCGCTATAGAGGATTC-3', thereby creating plasmids pVINCE1-HRA35 and pVINCE1-HRA35Y57, respectively.

Plasmid pAL-SPras1Y62 contains the genomic *ras1* gene with a Tyr-62 mutation and was constructed by exchanging a *BsaBI-SstI* fragment of *ras1* from pART1-SPras1Y62 into plasmid pALR (59) containing a genomic clone of *ras1*. The genomic clone of SP*ras1*^{Tyr-62} was then transferred into vector pVIN1 to generate plasmid pVIN1-SPras1Y62. *RAS2*^{Tyr-64} was amplified by PCR from plasmid YEplac112-

 $R4S2^{1yr-64}$ was amplified by PCR from plasmid YEplac112-R2Y64 by using two oligonucleotides, 5'-GAAAGGAGATATA CAGAGTCGACAATGCCT-3' and 5'-GTGAAAATGGATGT GATTGTCGACTCTCTG-3', that contain internal *Sal*I sites (in boldface) for insertion into yeast expression vectors pAD4 Δ or pAD54 (2, 17) to generate plasmids pAD4 Δ -R2Y64 and pAD54-R2Y64, respectively. Plasmid pAD4 Δ -R2A22 was generated similarly, using as the template the genomic clone of the *RAS2*^{Ala-22} allele (48). The H-*ras*^{Tyr-57} mutant gene was excised as a *Bam*HI-*Ss*I fragment from plasmid pAAU-HRY57 and cloned into vectors pART1 and pVINCE1, to generate pART1-HRY57 and pVINCE1-HRY57, respectively, or as a *SalI-SstI* fragment for cloning into pAD4 Δ to generate plasmid pAD4 Δ -HRY57.

Cys-186 of the CAAX processing motif (62, 63) of H-ras^{Tyr-57} was changed to a serine by PCR-directed mutagenesis using oligonucleotides 5'-CCTCAGGATCCGAATGACGGAATATAAGCT-3' and 5'-CCATGGTCGACTCAGGAGAGCAC<u>ACT</u>CTT-3'. The *Bam*HI and *Sal*I sites (in boldface) allowed for cloning into identical sites in vector pART1 to create pART1-HRY57S186. The complement of ACT (underlined) encodes the serine mutation.

Conjugation and sporulation frequencies for *S. pombe.* After cells were transformed, the colonies were grown and starved for 1 week. Haploid cells of opposite mating types will conjugate to form zygotic asci that can be easily distinguished by their boomerang morphology, the angle representing their point of conjugation (see Fig. 2 and Results). In the case of cells that are conjugation defective, diploids can be generated by cell fusion. The sporulation of these diploidized cells generates azygotic asci (see Fig. 2D). The frequencies of zygotic or azygotic ascus formation, determined by microscopic observation, were used to calculate, respectively, the conjugation and sporulation efficiencies.

Heat shock assays for *S. cerevisiae*. The heat shock assays (50, 56) were performed by replica plating patches of cells that had been starved for 2 to 3 days onto plates that were preheated for 1 h at 52 or 55°C, incubated for 2.5, 5, and 10 min at the indicated temperature, and then transferred to 30°C for 2 to 3 days.

Two-hybrid system for studies of RAS interactions. We used the modified two-hybrid system developed by S. M. Hollenberg, H. R. Sternglanz, and H. Weintraub as described by Vojtek et al. (58) to analyze interactions of RAS with its effectors. Reporter *S. cerevisiae* strain L40 and plasmids pLexA-Ras^{WT}, pLexA-Ras^{V12}, pLexA-Ras^{A15}, pVP16, pVP16-CYR, and pVP16-RAF were the generous gifts of Anne Vojtek. The gene encoding H-ras^{Tyr-57} was amplified by PCR using the two oligonucleotides 5'-CCTCAGGATCCGA ATGACGGAATATAAGCT-3' and 5'-CCATGGTCGACTCAG GAGAGCACACACTT-3'. These oligonucleotides contain internal *Bam*HI and *SaI*I sites (in boldface), respectively, to permit cloning into vector pBTM116 (58), creating pLexA-HRY57.

Purification of H-ras proteins and guanine nucleotide binding. H-ras^{WT} and dominant interfering H-ras^{Tyr-57} were cloned into the pTrcHis Xpress System (Invitrogen, San Diego, Calif.) vectors for expression of His6-tagged proteins and transformed into Escherichia coli DH10B (Bethesda Research Laboratories, Gaithersburg, Md.). Protein was purified as described by the manufacturers except that 1 mM MgCl₂ was included in all buffer conditions. The supernatant was passed through Ni²⁺charged Sepharose ProBond resin (Invitrogen) and eluted by using step gradients of lysis buffer containing 40, 60, 100, 200, 500, and 1,000 mM imidazole. The H-ras proteins eluted at 200 mM imidazole at greater than 90% purity, as judged by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) analysis. The proteins were concentrated by Centricon (Amicon, Lexington, Mass.) centrifugation, adjusted to 40% glycerol, and stored at -20° C. Nucleotide-free H-ras proteins were prepared essentially as described by Crechet et al. (11) except that after EDTA treatment, buffer was exchanged by Centricon centrifugation.

Relative affinities for nucleotides were determined as described by Farnsworth and Feig (14) by incubating 5 pmol of purified nucleotide-free H-ras proteins in 100 μ l of binding buffer containing 0.5 μ M [³H]GDP and various concentrations of unlabeled GDP or GTP as described for Fig. 5. Bound counts were determined by a nitrocellulose filter assay (16).

Interaction of H-ras proteins with the catalytic domain of the human cdc25^{GEF}. A plasmid designed to expressed glutathione S-transferase (GST) fused to a human RAS guanine nucleotide exchange factor, $cdc25^{GEF}$ (60), was made by cloning of codons 863 to 1275 of $cdc25^{GEF}$ into vector pGEX-2T (Pharmacia, Piscataway, N.J.). Induction and binding of the GST-cdc25^{GEF} to glutathione-agarose were performed as described previously (31). Plasmids for expression of His₆-tagged H-ras^{WT} and H-ras^{Tyr-57} proteins are described above. The H-ras^{Asn-17} expression plasmid, pAT-rasH(17N), was kindly provided by C. Der. *E. coli* cells containing each of the H-ras expression plasmids were grown to an optical density at 600 nm of 0.4. Isopropylthiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) was added to a final concentration of 1 mM, and the cultures were incubated overnight at 28°C. Triton X-100-solubilized extracts were prepared as described previously (31).

To examine the interaction of the H-ras proteins with the catalytic domain of cdc25^{GEF}, suspensions of glutathioneagarose beads complexed to 30 µg of GST-cdc25^{GEF} were incubated at 4°C while rotating with 1 ml of a phosphatebuffered saline (PBS; 138 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 10 mM Na₂HPO₄, 1.8 mM KH₂PO₄ [pH 7.4]) solution containing 0.5 mM EDTA (to ensure that H-ras proteins remain nucleotide free), 1% Triton X-100, and a final 0.5-µg/ml concentration of H-ras^{WT}, H-ras^{Asn-17}, or H-ras^{Tyr-57} protein. After 2-h incubations, each of the suspensions was divided equally into three tubes and then pelleted and washed three times with 1 ml of PBS containing 1% Triton X-100 without EDTA. Proteins bound to the glutathione-agarose were eluted from one set of triplicate pellets by addition of 25 μ l of 5 mM glutathione, after which the samples were incubated at 22°C for 1 h and overnight at 4°C (sample 1 in Fig. 6). To the other two samples were added 25 µl of PBS containing 10 mM MgCl₂ and either 10 mM GTP (sample 2 in Fig. 6) or 10 mM GDP (sample 3 in Fig. 6), after which the samples were incubated at 22°C for 1 h and overnight at 4°C. After removal of the material eluted by conditions used for samples 2 and 3, the H-ras protein remaining bound to the glutathione-agarose-GST-cdc $25^{\rm GEF}$ matrix was released by treatment with 25 µl of 5 mM glutathione for 1 h at 22°C and overnight at 4°C (samples 4 and 5, respectively). Samples were analyzed by Western blot (immunoblot) analysis, using the Immunolite assay kit (Bio-Rad, Richmond, Calif.) and anti-RAS antibody A6-1 (Oncogene Sciences, Uniondale, N.Y.) as the primary antibody.

Binding of guanine nucleotides to preformed complexes of H-ras proteins and the catalytic domain of human cdc25^{GEF}. H-ras^{WT}, H-ras^{Asn-17}, and H-ras^{Tyr-57} proteins were bound to glutathione-agarose-GST-cdc25^{GEF} as described above. The final pellets were resuspended in PBS without EDTA. Aliquots of these suspensions, containing equivalent amounts of H-ras^{WT}, H-ras^{Asn-17}, and H-ras^{Tyr-57}, as judged by SDS-PAGE and Coomassie blue staining, were incubated with 1 µM [³H]GDP or [³H]GTP (10 Ci/mmol; New England Nuclear) in the presence of 5 mM MgCl₂ for 30 min at 22°C and then 5 min at 0°C. The entire reaction mixture was passed through a nitrocellulose filter as described previously (5) to determine the ³H-labeled guanine nucleotides bound to H-ras proteins. The bound counts therefore reflect the guanine nucleotides bound to H-ras proteins both complexed to and dissociated from GST-cdc25^{GEF}. At 1 μ M guanine nucleotide, there was no detectable dissociation of either H-ras^{Asn-17} or H-ras^{Tyr-57} protein from the complex with GST-cdc25^{GEF}, whereas H-ras^{WT} protein was dissociated from GST-cdc25^{GEF} to near completion (data not shown). In control reactions containing glutathione-agarose-GST-cdc25^{GEF}, less than 40 cpm of ³Hlabeled guanine nucleotides was found to bind.

RESULTS

Isolation of dominant interfering *S. pombe ras1* **mutants.** Upon starvation and stimulation by pheromones, *S. pombe* cells of opposite mating types will conjugate and then undergo



FIG. 2. Suppression of sexual and morphological development by interfering mutants of *S. pombe ras1*. The dominant interfering mutant $SPras1^{Cys-22}$ (B and E) or $SPras1^{Tyr-57}$ (C and F) was expressed in either haploid (A to C) or diploidized (D to F) wild-type *S. pombe* SP870. Wild-type cells, transformed with the control vector pART1, normally exhibit an elongated morphology (n; panel A). Wild-type haploid cells, under starvation conditions, will conjugate and then sporulate to form zygotic asci (za [A]), whereas diploid cells will sporulate to form azygotic asci (aa [D]). Wild-type cells expressing the $SPras1^{Cys-22}$ interfering mutant are defective in conjugation (B) but not sporulation (E). Wild-type cells expressing the $SPras1^{Tyr-57}$ interfering mutant are defective in conjugation (F). Furthermore, cells containing $SPras1^{Tyr-57}$ are morphologically defective. They are rounded (r) instead of elongated (n).

sporulation and ascus formation (Fig. 2A). Carbohydrate accumulation is a hallmark of the sporulation process and can be detected by staining with iodine vapor (32). Since *S. pombe* ras1 regulates conjugation and sporulation, cells with a defect in the ras1 pathway will not stain with iodine. Cells containing a hyperactivated ras1 are also defective in conjugation and will not stain with iodine (40). The iodine staining method was therefore used to isolate mutants of *S. pombe ras1* that can block the conjugation-sporulation process. An expression library for mutants of *ras1* was generated by PCR as described in Materials and Methods. Of 26,000 colonies established by transformation of wild-type *S. pombe* with the library, 69 failed to stain positively for starch accumulation by iodine vapor. Of the 69, 45 were determined microscopically to have a phenotype indistinguishable from that induced by activated *ras1* mutants. *S. pombe* cells containing an activated *ras1* allele exhibit an exaggerated sexual response characterized by heightened agglutination, the formation of elongated conjugation tubes, and a failure to conjugate under starvation conditions (20, 40). These characteristics are referred to as a hypersexed phenotype. Plasmid DNA was successfully rescued from 21 of the remaining 24 isolates. Of these, 13 were wild type on retransformation and 8 dominantly interfered with conjugation or sporulation. These eight interfering mutants were equally distributed into two phenotypically distinct categories. The first type of interfering mutants conferred a *ste6*^{null} phenotype onto wild-type *S. pombe* cells (Fig. 2B and E). *ste6* encodes the *S. pombe* homolog of *S. cerevisiae* RAS-GEF,

Strain (relevant genotype)	Expressed gene"	Morphology	Frequency ^b	
			Conjugation	Sporulation
SP1 (wild type)		Elongated	++++	++++
	SPras1 ^{Cys-22}	Elongated	_	+ + + +
	SPras1 ^{Asn-22}	Elongated	-	+ + + +
	RAS2 ^{Ala-22}	Elongated	_	+ + + +
	SPras1 ^{Gly-62}	Rounded	_	-/+
	SPras1 Tyr-62	Rounded	_	/+
	H-ras ^{Ala-35d}	Elongated	++++	+ + + +
	H-ras ^{Tyr-57}	Rounded	-	-/+
	H-ras ^{Ala-35, Tyr-57d}	Rounded	_	-/+
	H- <i>ras</i> ^{Tyr-57, Ser-186}	Elongated	+ + + +	++++
SP593 (ras1 ^{Val-17})		Hypersexed ^e	_	++++
· · · ·	RAS2 ^{Ala-22}	Hypersexed	_	++++
	SPras1 ^{Cys-22}	Hypersexed	_	++++
	SPras 1 ^{Tyr-62}	Hypersexed	_	+ + + +
SPRU (ras1 ^{null})	_	Rounded	_	-/+
. ,	SPras 1 ^{Tyr-62}	Rounded	_	-/+

TABLE 3. Effects of interfering mutants on various strains

"Genes were expressed from the vector pART1 unless otherwise specified. — indicates control vector.

^b Relative to the wild-type frequency. Each + designates an increment of 25%; -/+ indicates less than 1%.

^e For conjugation-defective cells, polyethylene glycol fusion was used to generate diploids for analysis of sporulation efficiencies. ^d Expressed from the vector pVINCE1.

^e Refers to the elongated conjugation tubes seen in strains expressing hyperactivated ras1.

CDC25, and its disruption manifests as a conjugation defect (26). The second type of interfering mutants conferred a ras I^{null} phenotype when transformed into wild-type cells (Fig. 2C and F). Similar to the first type of interfering mutants, wild-type cells transformed with the second type of mutants were also conjugation defective. However, unlike the first type of mutants, they caused additional defects: cells were rounded rather than elongated, and sporulation of diploid cells was also suppressed. Sequence analysis of the mutant ras1 genes revealed that only four of the eight clones had single missense mutations. Each of the $ste6^{null}$ or $ras1^{null}$ category of interfering mutants had two members.

There was a correlation between the positions of the mutations and the interfering phenotypes that they induced (Fig. 2). The two mutants that conferred a phenotype similar to a steb disruption were altered at amino acid 22, where a serine encoded by AGT was changed into a cysteine (TGT, transversion, $SPras1^{Cys-22}$) or into an asparagine (AAT, transition, $SPras1^{Asn-22}$). These are analogous to the Asn-17 mutation of vertebrate H-ras (15). Those interfering mutants that conferred a phenotype similar to a ras1 disruption were altered at amino acid position 62, where an aspartic acid encoded by GAC was changed to a glycine (GGC, transition, SPras1^{Gly-62}) or to a tyrosine (TAC, transversion, SPras1^{Tyr-62}). Others have previously introduced mutations into the analogous Asp-57 of H-ras, but interfering mutants were not created thereby (14, 28).

Genetic analysis of the S. pombe interfering mutants. We observed that neither the SPras1^{Cys-22} nor the SPras1^{Tyr-62} mutant blocked the hypersexed phenotype associated with an activated ras1^{Val-17} (Table 3), thereby indicating that they both interfere upstream of ras1. Position 22 of S. pombe ras1 corresponds to position 17 of vertebrate H-ras. Mutations at position 17 of vertebrate H-ras have been shown to dominantly interfere with RAS function in vertebrates (14, 15). A similar mutation at nearby position 15 of H-ras, or the analogous position 22 of S. cerevisiae RAS2, also creates a dominant interfering mutant that likely functions by sequestration of the RAS-GEF in S. cerevisiae encoded by CDC25 (38, 48). In S. pombe, the interfering property of SPras1^{Cys-22} is indistinguishable from that observed for RAS2^{Ala-22} (Table 4). We therefore predicted that the SPras1^{Cys-22} mutant might interfere with Ras1 by similarly sequestering the S. pombe homolog of the CDC25 gene product encoded by ste6. Indeed, overexpression of *ste6* in a wild-type strain containing either the dominant interfering SPras1^{Cys-22} or RAS2^{Ala-22} mutant suppressed the conjugation defect (Table 4). The conjugation defect can also be overcomed by overexpression of ras1 or the kinase that functions downstream of ras1, byr1 (39), or byr2 (59). Our genetic data therefore suggest that mutants represented by positions 15 and 17 of H-ras have as their common target the

CDC25 class of regulatory exchange factors. In contrast to SPras1^{Cys-22}, which blocked only conjugation, the SPras1^{Tyr-62} interfering mutant blocked conjugation and sporulation and interfered with cellular morphology. Overexpression of the protein kinase encoded by byr1 or byr2 in a

TABLE 4. Suppression of interference by various genes"

Strain	Expressed Morphol gene	Maaabalaaa	Frequency	
		Morphology	Conjugation	Sporulation
SPR2A	_	Elongated	_	++++
	byr1	Elongated	+ + +	+ + + +
	byr2	Elongated	+ + +	++++
	ras1	Elongated	+++	++++
	ste6	Elongated	+++	++++
SP66-R1C22		Elongated	_	++++
	byr1	Elongated	+ + +	+ + + +
	byr2	Elongated	+ + +	+ + + +
	ras1	Elongated	+ + +	+ + + +
	ste6	Elongated	+ + +	+ + + +
	ral2	Elongated	_	++++
SP66-R1Y62	_	Rounded	_	-/+
	byr1	Rounded	-	+++
	byr2	Rounded	_	+ + +
	ras1	Elongated	+ + +	+ + +
	ste6	Rounded	_	-/+
	ral2	Rounded	_	-/+

" For details, see the footnotes to Table 3.



FIG. 3. Suppression of heat shock phenotype in *S. cerevisiae* containing hyperactivated RAS2. RAS is hyperactivated in these strains either because of disruption of the GTPase-activating protein encoded by *IRA2* (strain IR2.5) or because of the presence of the activated allele $RAS2^{Val-19}$ (strain TK161-R2V). Plasmids pAD4 Δ and pAD54 are high-copy-number plasmids for expressing genes from an *adh* promoter (see Table 2).

SPras1^{Tyr-62}-containing strain was only able to suppress the sporulation defect, whereas overexpression of wild-type *ras1* was able to overcome all SPras1^{Tyr-62}-induced defects (Table 4). This suppression profile is indistinguishable from that observed for a strain with *ras1* deleted (39, 59). The ability of the SPras1^{Tyr-62} mutant to block Ras1 function more profoundly than the SPras1^{Cys-22} mutant suggests that Ras1 is regulated by other activators besides that encoded by *ste6. ral2* has been proposed to encode an alternate positive regulator of ras1, since it functions upstream of ras1 and its disruption is phenotypically indistinguishable from a *ras1* disruption (22). We observed that *ral2* overexpression did not rescue interference by SPras1^{Cys-22} or SPras1^{Tyr-62} (Table 4).

Genetic analysis of S. cerevisiae $RAS2^{Tyr-64}$. In S. cerevisiae, products of RAS genes are involved in cell growth and regulation of cellular responses to nutrient signals. They are regulated in a positive fashion by the gene product of CDC25 (6, 8), encoding its GEF, and negatively by products of IRA1 and IRA2, encoding homologs of mammalian GTPase-activating proteins (55). S. cerevisiae cells containing a hyperactivated RAS exhibit a characteristic heat shock sensitivity (47).

A mutant analogous to SPras1^{Tyr-62}, RAS2^{Tyr-64}, was made from RAS2 of *S. cerevisiae* to determine if it too has interfering properties. We found that RAS2^{Tyr-64} inhibits growth of *S. cerevisiae* cells and that this inhibition can be relieved by overexpression of elements in the RAS-adenylyl cyclase pathway. RAS2^{Tyr-64} did not inhibit the growth of a strain containing an activated $RAS2^{Val-19}$ allele, therefore showing that RAS2^{Tyr-64}, like SPras1^{Tyr-62} in *S. pombe*, functions upstream of RAS (data not shown). As further indication that the interference is upstream of RAS, RAS2^{Tyr-64} cannot attenuate the heat shock sensitivity of a RAS2^{Val-19}-containing strain (Fig. 3; Table 5).

We next tested if RAS2^{Tyr-64} can attenuate the heat shock sensitivity resulting from RAS that is hyperactivated by disruption of the negative regulators encoded by *IRA1* and *IRA2*. RAS2^{Tyr-64} was able to attenuate the heat shock sensitivity of strains deleted of either or both *IRA1* and *IRA2* (Fig. 3; Table 5). An *ira1*^{null} *ira2*^{null} strain is still heat shock sensitive when the positive regulator *CDC25* is also deleted (1). RAS2^{Tyr-64} was capable of reversing the heat shock phenotype even in a *cdc25*^{null} *ira1*^{null} *ira2*^{null} strain (Table 5). In contrast, we found that the interfering mutant RAS2^{Ala-22} can attenuate the heat shock phenotype of an *ira1*^{null} *ira2*^{null} strain but not a *cdc25*^{null} *ira1*^{null} *ira2*^{null} strain. We take this to mean that a positive

TABLE 5. Relative suppression of heat shock phenotype

Deleventeret	Suppression of heat shock sensitivity ^a			
Relevant genotype ^b	RAS2 ^{Ala-22}	RAS2 ^{Tyr-64}	H-ras ^{Tyr-57}	
ira1 ^{null}	+	+	+	
ira2 ^{null}	+	+	+	
ira1 ^{null} ira2 ^{null}	+	+	_	
cdc25 ^{null} ira1 ^{null} ira2 ^{null}	-	+	_	
$RAS2^{Val-19}$	-	-	-	

 a^{a} +, attenuation of the heat shock sensitivity relative to the same strain containing a control plasmid; -, absence of effect on heat shock sensitivity. The vector used in the control and for expression of the interfering RAS mutants, resulted in no suppression of heat shock sensitivity.

^b Heat shock assays were carried out at 55°C (*ira1*^{null} and *ira2*^{null}) or at 52°C (*ira1*^{null} *ira2*^{null}, *icd*c25^{null} *ira1*^{null} *ira2*^{null}, and *RAS2*^{Val-19}, because of the increased heat shock sensitivity of the strains).

regulator of RAS2 other than CDC25 exists in S. cerevisiae and is also the target of $RAS2^{Tyr-64}$.

Interfering properties of mammalian H-ras^{Tyr-57}. A mutation analogous to SPras1^{Tyr-62} was made in H-ras at position 57, H-ras^{Tyr-57}, and expressed in wild-type *S. pombe* or *S. cerevisiae* cells. The interference resulting from SPras1^{Tyr-62} was mimicked by H-ras^{Tyr-57} when expressed in *S. pombe* (Table 3). However, in *S. cerevisiae*, it interfered more weakly, failing to suppress the heat shock phenotype of strains deleted of both *IRA1* and *IRA2* (Table 5).

We also studied two double mutants of H-ras in S. pombe. To test if the interfering mutant was functioning via titration of upstream regulators rather than downstream effectors, we constructed a double mutant that contains both a Tyr-57 mutation and an effector loop mutation, Ala-35, that is believed to block downstream signaling from ras (52). This double mutant, H-ras^{Ala-35, Tyr-57}, still induced a *ras1*^{null} phenotype, indicating that the dominant interference is not due to blocking downstream elements of the ras1 pathway (Table 3). The H-ras^{Ala-35} mutant did not exhibit any interfering functions, which is consistent with observations by others that Thr-35 substitutions of H-ras block its own function without interfering with endogenous H-ras functions (14, 28). We also tested if membrane localization is required for the dominant interfering properties of H-ras^{Tyr-57}. It was previously shown that blocking the posttranslational addition of lipid to Cys-186 of the CAAX motif (63) for the interfering mutant H-ras^{Asn-17} abolished its interfering properties (15). Mutation of Cys-186 to an arginine in H-ras^{Tyr-57} also blocked its interfering activities when tested in S. pombe. H-ras^{Tyr-57, Arg-186} failed to inhibit sexual development or effect the cellular morphology of wild-type S. pombe cells (Table 3).

Two-hybrid analyses of interactions between H-ras proteins and its effectors. The two-hybrid system (18) has been used to study proteins that interact with H-ras (57, 58). The *S. cerevisiae* reporter strain L40 permits the detection of proteinprotein interaction by transcriptional activation of both a *HIS3* and a *lacZ* gene. As reported previously (58), both H-ras^{WT} and activated H-ras^{Val-12} interacted with the catalytic domain of *S. cerevisiae* exchange factor CDC25, indicated by complementation of host histidine auxotrophy and by a β-galactosidase color assay (Fig. 4). They also interacted with two downstream effectors of RAS, budding yeast adenylyl cyclase and mammalian RAF (Fig. 4). In contrast, both the H-ras^{Ala-15} and H-ras^{Tyr-57} interfering mutants failed to interact with the downstream effectors. Relative to H-ras^{WT}, the H-ras^{Ala-15} and H-ras^{Tyr-57} mutants interacted more strongly with CDC25, as indicated by the increased intensity from the β-galactosidase



FIG. 4. Two-hybrid analysis of H-ras and mutant interactions with effectors. The reporter strain used in this system permits for detection of protein-protein interaction through transcriptional activation of both the *HIS3* and the *lacZ* gene. Cells were transformed with the plasmids noted in panel A. (A) Growth of transformants on histidine-containing plates. (B) Growth of transformants on histidine-free plates. (C) Growth of cells on histidine-containing plates followed by assay for β -galactosidase activity.

assay (Fig. 4). This finding confirms our genetic data suggesting that the interfering mutants function through sequestration of upstream activators of RAS.

Guanine nucleotide binding characteristics of H-ras^{Tyr-57}. Previously characterized dominant interfering mutants of RAS have been shown to have altered affinities for guanine nucleotides, exhibiting a preference for binding GDP over GTP (14, 28, 45). We therefore determined if this was a property shared by the H-ras^{Tyr-57} mutant. H-ras^{WT} and H-ras^{Tyr-57} were purified as fusion proteins, and their nucleotide binding properties were determined by using a relative affinity assay as described by Farnsworth and Feig (14) (Fig. 5). Whereas H-ras^{Tyr-57} mutant exhibited less than a 10-fold preference for GDP in the presence of GTP. Therefore, H-ras^{Tyr-57}, similar to other interfering mutants, binds preferably to GDP over GTP.

Interaction of H-ras proteins with the catalytic domain of the human cdc25^{GEF}. We next determined if there were

biochemical differences between the interactions of wild-type or interfering mutant H-ras proteins and a human homolog of *S. cerevisiae* CDC25, $cdc25^{GEF}$. A GST fusion with the catalytic domain of $cdc25^{GEF}$ was constructed as described in Materials and Methods. Wild-type or mutant H-ras protein, in the nucleotide-free state, readily associates with GST-cdc25GEF bound to glutathione agarose (Fig. 6, lane 1), confirming previous observations by Lai et al. (31). The H-ras^{WT} protein could be readily released from the glutathione agarose-GSTcdc25^{GEF} complex by addition of 10 mM GTP or GDP (Fig. 6). The H-ras^{Asn-17} mutant could be only partially released from the agarose matrix by addition of 10 mM GTP or GDP. However, in marked contrast to H-ras^{WT} and H-ras^{Asn-17} proteins, 10 mM GTP or GDP allowed only a trace release of H-ras^{Tyr-57} protein (Fig. 6, lanes 2 and 3, respectively). Following elution of the H-ras proteins by GTP or GDP from the complexes, we treated each of the resulting complexes with 5 mM glutathione to determine the amounts of the various H-ras proteins remaining bound to GST-cdc25^{GEF}. Western blot





FIG. 5. Relative affinities of H-ras (Δ) and H-ras^{Tyr-57} (\bigcirc) for GDP (—) and GTP (––) were determined as described in Materials and Methods. A constant 0.5 mM [³H]GDP was used in the presence of various concentrations of unlabeled GDP or GTP. The abscissa represents the concentration of unlabeled nucleotide used divided by the fixed concentration of labeled [³H]GDP. Percentages of bound counts were determined from the ratio of bound counts attained in the presence of unlabeled nucleotide over that obtained without unlabeled nucleotides added. Results are averages of duplicate datum points which differed by no more than 20%.

FIG. 6. Guanine nucleotide-dependent release of H-ras proteins from a complex with GST-cdc25^{GEF}. H-ras proteins were bound to glutathione-agarose-GST-cdc25^{GEF} and divided into three equivalent portions. For each portion, H-ras proteins were released by 5 mM glutathione (lane 1), 10 mM GTP and 10 mM MgCl₂ (lane 2), or 10 mM GDP and 10 mM MgCl₂ (lane 3). After elution with GTP or GDP, the remaining H-ras proteins bound to the glutathione-agarose-GSTcdc25^{GEF} were eluted with 5 mM glutathione (lanes 4 and 5, respectively). The relative amounts of H-ras proteins eluted by these various conditions were determined by Western analysis as described in Materials and Methods.

NOVEL INTERFERING MUTANTS OF RAS 3715

TABLE 6. Binding of guanine nucleotides to RAS · GSTcdc25^{GEF} complexes

Protein	cpm of nucleotide bound		
	GDP	GTP	
H-ras ^{WT}	670	678	
H-ras ^{Asn-17} H-ras ^{Tyr-57}	628	526	
H-ras ^{Tyr-57}	633	709	

^{a 3}H-labeled guanine nucleotide binding to matrices containing GSTcdc25^{GEF} bound to the indicated H-ras protein was monitored in a nitrocellulose filter binding assay as described in Materials and Methods. Samples containing equivalent amounts of H-ras proteins were incubated with 1 μ M [³H]GDP or [³H]GTP as indicated at 22°C for 30 min. Values are averages of duplicate datum points which did not differ by more than 15%. Less than 40 cpm of [³H]GDP or [³H]GTP was found to bind in negative control reactions containing glutathioneagarose bound only to GST-cdc25^{GEF}. Similar results were obtained in two independent experiments.

analysis of these glutathione-released samples indicated that only trace amounts of H-ras^{WT} remained bound to the matrix, whereas significant amounts of H-ras^{Tyr-57} and H-ras^{Asn-17} proteins remained bound after GDP or GTP treatment. The defect in the ability of guanine nucleotides to release Hras^{Asn-17} or H-ras^{Tyr-57} from cdc25^{GEF} might explain how interfering mutants sequester endogenous pools of GEF to block normal RAS functions. The more severe defect apparent in H-ras^{Tyr-57} might explain why it is a stronger interfering mutant than H-ras^{Asn-17}.

Binding of guanine nucleotides to preformed complexes of H-ras proteins and the catalytic domain of human cdc25^{GEF} GDP and GTP are unable to effectively disrupt a complex of nucleotide-free H-ras^{Tyr-57} and GST-cdc25^{GEF} under conditions in which H-ras^{WT} is readily dissociated from GSTcdc25^{GEF}. This observation indicates that either the H-ras^{Tyr-57} mutant, when complexed with GST-cdc25^{GEF}, has a very low affinity for guanine nucleotides and hence remains in a nucleotide-free state tightly complexed with GST-cdc25^{\rm GEF} or that the binding of guanine nucleotides to the H-ras^{Tyr-57} · GSTcdc25^{GEF} complex does not induce the conformational changes in H-ras^{Tyr-57} necessary for its release from GST-cdc25^{GEF}. We therefore examined the ability of complexes of GST-cdc25^{GEF} and either H-ras^{WT}, H-ras^{Asn-17}, or H-ras^{Tyr-57} protein to bind ³H-labeled guanine nucleotides at a concentration of 1 µM. Previous work has shown that a GDP or GTP concentration of 1 µM is above that required for saturation of binding of the H-ras · GST-CDC25^{GEF} complex (37). At this protein is concentration of guanine nucleotides, H-ras^{wr} released to near completion (data not shown; see reference 37), whereas mutant H-ras proteins remain bound to GSTcdc25^{GEF}. Therefore, we determined the total guanine nucleotide bound to H-ras proteins both complexed to and dissoci-ated from GST-cdc25^{GEF}. There was no significant change in the ability of H-ras^{WT}, H-ras^{Asn-17}, or H-ras^{Tyr-57} protein, as a preformed complex with GST-cdc25^{GEF}, to bind guanine nucleotides (Table 6). Thus, in this assay, H-ras^{Asn-17} or H-ras^{Tyr-57} protein complexed to GST-cdc25^{GEF} does not have any apparent defect in the ability to bind guanine nucleotides. Rather, the binding of guanine nucleotides to these complexes does not allow the H-ras^{Asn-17} or H-ras^{Tyr-57} protein to dissociate from cdc25^{GEF}.

DISCUSSION

Dominant interfering mutants of *ras1* that block ras1 functions when expressed in wild-type *S. pombe* cells have been isolated. These mutants fall into two categories. Type I confers a ste6^{null} phenotype. Type II confers a ras1^{null} phenotype. Type I mutants, analogous to the previously described H-ras^{Ala-15} (48) and H-ras^{Ala-17} mutants (15), likely function by titrating out some positive regulators of RAS, e.g., the nucleotide exchange factors encoded by the *S. pombe ste6* gene and the *S. cerevisiae CDC25* gene. Evidence for this comes from our observation that the interfering phenotypes induced by the SPras1^{Cys-22} mutant or the RAS2^{Ala-22} mutant can be completely reversed by overexpression of *ste6*. In a two-hybrid protein-protein interaction experiment, the type I human H-ras^{Ala-15} mutant binds the yeast *S. cerevisiae* exchange factor, CDC25, more strongly than H-ras^{WT}. We also demonstrate that the H-ras^{Asn-17} protein binds more stably to the catalytic domain of human *cdc25* gene product, cdc25^{GEF}, at concentrations of guanine nucleotides that will effectively dissociate H-ras^{WT} from a similar complex.

The type II mutants, like the type I mutants, also function upstream of RAS and not by titrating out downstream effectors of RAS. First, SPras1^{Tyr-62} did not diminish the hypersexed phenotype of *S. pombe* cells containing activated Ras1^{Val-17}, and RAS2^{Tyr-64} did not block the heat shock phenotype in S. cerevisiae cells containing activated RAS2^{Val-19}. These observations also indicate that it is unlikely that these mutants interfere with RAS processing, as the mechanism for interference. Second, we also constructed a double mutant, H-ras² , containing an Ala-35 mutation that reduces biological activity of H-ras by disrupting interaction with the immediate downstream target (52). The double mutant maintained its ability to block ras1 function. Third, in a two-hybrid study, it was found that the H-ras^{Tyr-57} mutant was not able to interact with two downstream effectors, adenylyl cyclase and RAF, but bound CDC25 more strongly. Both the doublemutant experiment and the results from the two-hybrid system support the conclusion that the H-ras^{Tyr-57} mutant is interfering by titrating out upstream activators of RAS.

The type II mutants represent a novel class of interfering mutants with properties distinguishing them from the type I mutants. They exhibit an interference more pronounced than that observed for the type I mutants. Type II mutants can inhibit all ras1-associated phenotypes in S. pombe, whereas type I mutants, similar to a ste6 disruption, can block conjugation but cannot interfere with sporulation or cell morphology. The type I interfering mutants can be overcome by overexpression of ste6, suggesting that ste6 is its target. Interference by type II mutants cannot be overcomed by overexpression of ste6. In S. cerevisiae, a type II mutant can attenuate the heat shock sensitivity of an *ira1*^{null} *ira2*^{null} or a $cdc25^{null}$ *ira1*^{null} *ira2*^{null} strain. In contrast, a type I mutant attenuated the heat shock sensitivity of an *ira1*^{null} *ira2*^{null} strain but not a $cdc25^{null}$ ira1^{null} ira2^{null} strain. The type II mutant is also biochemically distinguishable from the type I mutant in a cdc25^{GEF} binding and release assay. We showed that a complex of H-ras^{WT}, in its nucleotide-free state, and cdc25^{GEF} can be readily disrupted in the presence of guanine nucleotides. Under identical condi-tions, a complex containing H-ras^{Tyr-57} is more severely impaired in the ability to dissociate from cdc25^{GEF} than is a similar complex containing H-ras^{Asn-17}. The more severe defect in dissociation for type II mutants may explain why it interferes more strongly than type I mutants. The more severe defect, however, does not explain the genetic data indicating that the type II mutants interfere more profoundly with RAS functions than do the type I mutants and that they do so even in the absence of the known GEFs. This suggests that type I and type II interfering mutants have different specificities, with the type II mutants targeting other activators of RAS besides

those encoded by *ste6* in *S. pombe* and its homolog *CDC25* in *S. cerevisiae*.

The type II mutants have amino acid substitutions at a site previously undescribed for a RAS dominant interfering mutant, namely, that corresponding to position 57 of human H-ras. Asp-57 of H-ras localizes to a DX₂G motif that is strictly conserved not only for the RAS superfamily but also for the GTPase superfamily (4). This indicates a structural and functional conservation of this region in this class of proteins. Ser-17, Thr-35, and Asp-57 of H-ras represent three amino acids critical for Mg^{2+} interaction (36, 43, 44). The importance of Mg²⁺ coordination in H-ras regulation is emphasized by the fact that appropriate alterations of either Ser-17 or Asp-57 can generate dominant interfering mutants. Previous reports have suggested that the deliberate manipulation of position 57 might generate interfering mutants of H-ras. Neither an Ala-57 (28) nor an Asn-57 (14) mutation proved interfering, thus indicating that the generation of interfering mutants at this position is dependent on the amino acid substitution.

The mechanism of interference is not fully understood. It has been shown that the nucleotide-free or GDP-bound form of RAS complexes more tightly to GEFs than the GTP bound form of RAS (31). Defects in the ability of RAS to bind guanine nucleotides might therefore explain how interfering mutants function. We have shown here that whereas wild-type H-ras binds GDP and GTP with similar affinities, a type II interfering mutant binds guanine nucleotides, but with a preference for GDP over GTP. This is a property shared by type I interfering mutants (14, 15, 28). Such a bias, however, is insufficient for predicting whether a RAS mutant will be interfering, since an Ala-57 mutation (28) was not interfering although it exhibited a 39-fold bias for GDP over GTP. A defect in nucleotide binding to RAS proteins also cannot account for dominant interference properties, since activated mutants of H-ras that exhibit profound defects in nucleotide binding have been described (16, 30). From the work presented here, showing that the mutants are impaired in the ability to be dissociated from $cdc25^{GEF}$ by guanine nucleotides, and the work of others (14, 28), we suggest that a common defect of dominant interfering mutants in RAS proteins may be the inability to adopt a guanine nucleotide-bound conformation necessary for release from cdc25^{GEF}-related molecules.

The discovery of type II interfering mutants opens new opportunities for further investigations. First, the high-affinity interaction between the type II mutants and GEFs might serve as a biochemical tool for purification and characterization of these alternate activators. These other activators of RAS might also be found by screening for suppressors of the type II interfering mutants in either S. cerevisiae or S. pombe. Second, since all \tilde{G} proteins contain the DX₂G motif (4) in which the type II mutation is localized, it would be useful to determine if manipulation of this conserved aspartic acid in other G proteins will constitute a general strategy for generating interfering mutants. Third, type I interfering mutants have been used to dissect RAS function in mammalian systems (7, 54). Since our genetic analyses in two yeast systems indicate that the type I mutants do not completely abolish RAS functions, a conservative interpretation of the effects of type I mutants in mammalian systems is warranted until similar mammalian studies are carried out with type II interfering mutants. The ability of the two forms of RAS mutants to interfere in a discriminatory manner with RAS pathways suggests the interesting possibility that the RAS effector is coupled with the upstream activator with which RAS associates. The presently available repertoire of RAS exchange factors isolated from mammalian cells (9, 10, 24, 34, 51, 61, 65) and the availability of these two forms of interfering RAS mutants should allow us to test this possibility.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Linda Rogers and Michael Riggs for DNA sequencing, Spencer Teplin for oligonucleotide synthesis, and Jack Brodsky and Janice Douglas for technical assistance.

This work was supported by grants from the National Cancer Institute (M.W. and D.B.), the American Cancer Society (M.W.), and the University of California Tobacco Related Diseases Research Program (D.B.). M.W. is an American Cancer Society Research Professor. S.M. is a recipient of an American Cancer Society fellowship. V.J. is a recipient of a Damon Runyon-Walter Winchell fellowship.

REFERENCES

- 1. Ballester, R. Unpublished data.
- 1a. Ballester, R., D. Marchuk, M. Boguski, A. Saulino, R. Letcher, M. Wigler, and F. Collins. 1990. The NF1 locus encodes a protein functionally related to mammalian GAP and yeast IRA proteins. Cell 63:851–859.
- Ballester, R., T. Michaeli, K. Ferguson, H.-P. Xu, F. McCormick, and M. Wigler. 1989. Genetic analysis of mammalian GAP expressed in yeast. Cell 59:681–686.
- 3. Barbacid, M. 1987. ras genes. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 56:779-827.
- Bourne, H. R., D. A. Sanders, and F. McCormick. 1990. The GTPase superfamily: a conserved switch for diverse cell functions. Nature (London) 348:125–132.
- Broek, D., N. Samiy, O. Fasano, A. Fujiyama, F. Tamanoi, J. Northup, and M. Wigler. 1985. Differential activation of yeast adenylate by wild-type and mutant RAS proteins. Cell 41:763–769.
- Broek, D., T. Toda, T. Michaeli, L. Levin, C. Birchmeier, M. Zoller, S. Powers, and M. Wigler. 1987. The S. cerevisiae CDC25 gene product regulates the RAS/adenylate cyclase pathway. Cell 48:789–799.
- Cai, H., J. Szeberenyl, and G. M. Cooper. 1990. Effect of a dominant inhibitory Ha-ras mutation on mitogenic signal transduction in NIH 3T3 cells. Mol. Cell. Biol. 10:5314–5323.
- Camonis, J. H., M. Kalekine, B. Gondré, H. Garreau, E. Boy-Marcotte, and M. Jacquet. 1986. Characterization, cloning and sequence analysis of the *CDC25* gene which controls the cyclic AMP level of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. EMBO J. 5:375–380.
- Cen, H., A. G. Papageorge, R. Zippel, D. R. Lowy, and K. Zhang. 1992. Isolation of multiple mouse cDNAs with coding homology to *Saccharomyces cerevisiae CDC25*: identification of a region related to Bcr, Vav, Dbl, and CDC24. EMBO J. 11:4007–4015.
- Chardin, P., J. H. Camonis, N. W. Gale, L. Van Aelst, J. Schlessinger, M. H. Wigler, and D. Bar-Sagi. 1993. Human Sos1: a guanine nucleotide exchange factor for RAS that binds to GRB2. Science 260:1338–1343.
- Crechet, J. B., P. Poullet, J. Camonis, M. Jacquet, and A. Parmeggiani. 1990. Different kinetic properties of the two mutants RAS2^{11e152} and RAS2^{Val19} that suppress the CDC25 requirement in RAS/adenylatecyclase pathway in *S. cerevisiae*. J. Biol. Chem. 265:1563–1568.
- Deng, W. P., and J. A. Nickoloff. 1992. Site-directed mutagenesis of virtually any plasmid by eliminating a unique site. Anal. Biochem. 200:81.
- Downward, J. 1992. Exchange rate mechanisms. Nature (London) 358:282–283.
- Farnsworth, C. L., and L. A. Feig. 1991. Dominant inhibitory mutations in the Mg²⁺-binding site of RasH prevent its activation by GTP. Mol. Cell. Biol. 11:4822–4829.
- Feig, L. A., and G. M. Cooper. 1988. Inhibition of NIH 3T3 cell proliferation by a mutant Ras protein with preferential affinity for GDP. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:3235–3243.
- Feig, L. A., B.-T. Pan, T. M. Roberts, and G. M. Cooper. 1986. Isolation of ras GTP-binding mutants using an *in situ* colonybinding assay. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 83:4607–4611.

- Field, J., J.-I. Nikawa, D. Broek, B. McDonald, L. Rodgers, I. A. Wilson, R. A. Lerner, and M. Wigler. 1988. Purification of a RAS-responsive adenylate cyclase complex from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* by use of an epitope addition method. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:2159-2165.
- Fields, S., and O. Song. 1989. A novel genetic system to detect protein-protein interactions. Nature (London) 340:245-246.
- Fukui, Y., and Y. Kaziro. 1985. Molecular cloning and sequence analysis of a ras gene from Schizosaccharomyces pombe. EMBO J. 4:687-691.
- Fukui, Y., T. Kozasa, Y. Kaziro, T. Takeda, and M. Yamamoto. 1986. Role of a ras homolog in the life cycle of *Schizaccharomyces* pombe. Cell 44:329–336.
- Fukui, Y., S. Miyake, M. Satoh, and M. Yamamoto. 1989. Characterization of the Schizosaccharomyces pombe ral2 gene implicated in activation of the ras1 gene product. Mol. Cell. Biol. 9:5617–5622.
- Fukui, Y., and M. Yamamoto. 1988. Isolation and characterization of *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* mutants phenotypically similar to *ras1⁻*. Mol. Gen. Genet. 215:26–31.
- Gietz, R. D., and A. Sugino. 1988. New yeast-Escherichia coli shuttle vectors constructed with *in vitro* mutagenized yeast genes lacking six-base pair restriction sites. Gene 74:527–534.
- Gulbins, E., K. M. Coggeshall, G. Baier, S. Katzav, P. Burn, and A. Altman. 1993. Tyrosine kinase-stimulated guanine nucleotide exchange activity of vav in T-cell activation. Science 260:822-824.
- Gutmann, D. H., M. Boguski, D. Marchuk, M. Wigler, F. Collins, and R. Ballester. 1993. Analysis of the neurofibromatosis type 1 (NF1) GAP-related domain by site-directed mutagenesis. Oncogene 8:761-769.
- Hughes, D. A., Y. Fukui, and M. Yamamoto. 1990. Homologous activators of ras in fission and budding yeast. Nature (London) 344:355–357.
- Ito, H., Y. Fukuda, K. Murata, and A. Kimura. 1983. Transformation of intact yeast cells treated with alkali cations. J. Bacteriol. 153:163–168.
- John, J., H. Rensland, I. Schlichting, I. Vetter, G. D. Borasio, R. S. Goody, and A. Wittinghofer. 1993. Kinetic and structural analysis of the Mg²⁺-binding site of the guanine nucleotide-binding protein p21H-ras. J. Biol. Chem. 268:923–929.
- Kawamukai, M., K. Ferguson, M. Wigler, and D. Young. 1991. Genetic and biochemical analysis of the adenylyl cyclase of *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*. Cell Regul. 2:155–164.
- Lacal, J. C., and S. A. Aaronson. 1986. Activation of ras p21 transforming properties associated with an increase in the release rate of bound guanine nucleotide. Mol. Cell. Biol. 6:4214–4220.
- Lai, C.-C., M. Boguski, D. Broek, and S. Powers. 1993. Influence of guanine nucleotides on complex formation between Ras and CDC25 proteins. Mol. Cell. Biol. 13:1345–1352.
- 32. Leupold, U. 1955. Metodisches zur Genetik von *Schizisaccharomyces pomb*. Schwiz. Z Allg. Pathol. Bakteriol. 18:1141–1146.
- 33. Marcus, S. Personal communications.
- 34. Martegani, E., M. Vanoni, R. Zippel, P. Coccetti, R. Brambilla, C. Ferrari, E. Sturani, and L. Alberghina. 1992. Cloning by functional complementation of a mouse cDNA encoding a homologue of *CDC25*, a *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* RAS activator. EMBO J. 11:2151–2157.
- McLeod, M., and D. Beach. 1987. The product of the mei3⁺ gene, expressed under control of the mating-type locus, induces meiosis and sporulation in fission yeast. EMBO J. 6:729-736.
- Milburn, M. V., L. Tong, A. M. DeVos, A. Brunger, Z. Yamaizumi, S. Nishimura, and S. H. Kim. 1990. Molecular switch for signal transduction: structural differences between active and inactive forms of protooncogenic ras proteins. Science 247:939–945.
- Mosteller, R. D., J. W. Han, and D. Broek. 1994. Identification of residues of the H-ras protein critical for functional interaction with guanine nucleotide exchange factors. Mol. Cell. Biol. 14:1104–1112.
- Munder, T., and P. Fürst. 1992. The Saccharomyces cerevisiae CDC25 gene product binds specifically to catalytically inactive Ras proteins in vivo. Mol. Cell. Biol. 12:2091–2099.
- Nadin-Davis, S. A., and A. Nasim. 1988. A gene which encodes a predicted protein kinase can restore some functions of the *ras* gene in fission yeast. EMBO J. 7:985–993.

- Nadin-Davis, S. A., A. Nasim, and D. Beach. 1986. Involvement of ras in sexual differentiation but not in growth control in fission yeast. EMBO J. 5:2963–2971.
- Nadin-Davis, S. A., R. C. A. Yang, S. A. Narang, and A. Nasim. 1986. The cloning and characterization of a *RAS* gene from *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*. J. Mol. Evol. 23:41-51.
- 42. Neiman, A. M., B. J. Stevenson, H.-P. Xu, G. F. Sprague, I. Herskowitz, M. Wigler, and S. Marcus. 1993. Functional homology of protein kinases required for sexual differentiation in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* and *Saccharomyces pombe* suggests a conserved signal transduction module in eukaryotic organisms. Mol. Biol. Cell 4:1107-1120.
- 43. Pai, E. F., W. Kabsch, U. Krengel, K. C. Holmes, J. John, and A. Wittinghofer. 1989. Structure of the guanine-nucleotide-binding domain of the Ha-ras oncogene product p21 in the triphosphate conformation. Nature (London) 341:209–214.
- 44. Pai, E. F., U. Krengel, G. A. Petsko, R. S. Goody, W. Kabsch, and A. Wittinghofer. 1990. Refined crystal structure of the triphosphate conformation of H-ras p21 at 1.35 A resolution: implications for the mechanism of GTP hydrolysis. EMBO J. 9:2351–2359.
- 45. Powers, S., E. Gonzales, T. Christensen, J. Cubert, and D. Broek. 1991. Functional cloning of *BUD5*, a *CDC25*-related gene from *S. cerevisiae* that can suppress a dominant-negative *RAS2* mutant. Cell 65:1225–1231.
- Powers, S., T. Kataoka, O. Fasano, M. Goldfarb, J. B. Strathern, J. Broach, and M. Wigler. 1984. Genes in S. cerevisiae encoding proteins with domains homologous to the mammalian ras proteins. Cell 36:607-612.
- 47. Powers, S., S. Michaelis, D. Broek, S. Santa Anna-A., J. Field, I. Herskowitz, and M. Wigler. 1986. RAM, a gene of yeast required for a functional modification of RAS proteins and for production of mating pheromone a-factor. Cell 47:413–422.
- Powers, S. K., K. O'Neill, and M. Wigler. 1989. Dominant yeast and mammalian RAS mutants that interfere with the CDC25dependent activation of wild-type RAS in *Saccharomyces cerevi*siae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 9:390–395.
- Sanger, F. S., S. Nicklen, and A. R. Coulson. 1977. DNA sequencing with chain-terminating inhibitors. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74:5463-5467.
- Sass, P., J. Field, J. Nikawa, T. Toda, and M. Wigler. 1986. Cloning and characterization of the high-affinity cAMP phosphodiesterase of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 83:9303-9307.
- Shou, C. S., C. L. Farnsworth, B. G. Neel, and L. A. Feig. 1992. Molecular cloning of cDNAs encoding a guanine-nucleotidereleasing factor for Ras p21. Nature (London) 358:351–354.
- Sigal, I. S., J. B. Gibbs, J. S. D'Alonzo, and E. M. Scolnick. 1986. Identification of effector residues and neutralizing epitope of Ha-ras-encoded p21. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 83:4725-4729.
- Stotz, A., and P. Linder. 1990. The ADE2 gene from Saccharomyces cerevisiae: sequence and new vectors. Gene 95:91-98.
- 54. Szeberenyi, J., H. Cai, and G. M. Cooper. 1990. Effect of a dominant inhibitory Ha-ras mutation on neuronal differentiation of PC12 cells. Mol. Cell. Biol. 10:5324–5332.
- 55. Tanaka, K., M. Nakafuku, T. Satoh, M. S. Marshall, J. B. Gibbs, K. Matsumoto, Y. Kaziro, and A. Toh-e. 1990. S. cerevisiae genes IRA1 and IRA2 encode proteins that may be functionally equivalent to mammalian ras GTPase activating protein. Cell 60:803–807.
- 56. Toda, T., I. Uno, T. Ishikawa, S. Powers, T. Kataoka, D. Broek, S. Cameron, J. Broach, K. Matsumoto, and M. Wigler. 1985. In yeast, RAS proteins are controlling elements of adenylate cyclase. Cell 40:27–36.
- Van Aelst, L., M. Barr, S. Marcus, A. Polverino, and M. Wigler. 1993. Complex formation between RAS and RAF and other protein kinases. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 90:6213–6217.
- Vojtek, A. B., S. M. Hollenberg, and J. A. Cooper. 1993. Mammalian Ras interacts directly with the serine threonine kinase Raf. Cell 74:205–214.
- Wang, Y., H.-P. Xu, M. Riggs, L. Rodgers, and M. Wigler. 1991. byr2, a Schizosaccharomyces pombe gene encoding a protein kinase capable of partial suppression of the ras1 mutant phenotype. Mol. Cell. Biol. 11:3554–3563.

- 60. Wei, W., and D. Broek. Unpublished data (GenBank accession number L26584).
- Wei, W., R. D. Mosteller, P. Sanyal, E. Gonzales, D. McKinney, C. Dasgupta, P. Li, B.-X. Liu, and D. Broek. 1992. Identification of a mammalian gene structurally and functionally related to the *CDC25* gene of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 89:7100-7104.
- Willumsen, B. M., A. Christensen, N. L. Hubbert, A. G. Papageorge, and D. R. Lowy. 1984. The p21 ras C-terminus is required for transformation and membrane association. Nature (London) 310:583-586.
- 63. Willumsen, B. M., K. Norris, A. G. Papageorge, N. L. Hubbert, and

D. R. Lowy. 1984. Harvey murine sarcoma virus p21 ras protein: biological significance of the cysteine nearest the carboxy terminus. EMBO J. 3:2581–2585.

- Willumsen, B. M., A. G. Papageorge, H. Kung, E. Bekesi, T. Robins, M. Johnsen, W. C. Vass, and D. R. Lowy. 1986. Mutational analysis of a *ras* catalytic domain. Mol. Cell. Biol. 6:2646–2654.
- Wolfman, A., and I. G. Macara. 1990. A cytosolic protein catalyzes the release of GDP from p21^{ras}. Science 248:67–69.
- 66. Zhou, Y.-H., X.-P. Zhang, and R. H. Ebright. 1991. Random mutagenesis of gene-sized DNA molecules by use of PCR with Taq DNA polymerase. Nucleic Acids Res. 19:6052.