The Yeast GTP-Binding YPTI Protein and a Mammalian Counterpart Are Associated with the Secretion Machinery

Nava Segev,' Jon Mulholland, and David Botstein Department of Biology Massachusetts Institute of Technology Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139

Summary

A yeast GTP-binding protein, the YP7Y gene product, has been found to function early in the secretion pathway. The ypt1-1 mutation causes a phenotype reminiscent of early secretion-defective mutants, including accumulation of membranes and vesicles as well as a partial defect in secretion and incomplete glycosylation of invertase. lmmunofluorescence localization studies using affinity-purified antibody directed against the YPTl protein showed punctate staining of the cytoplasm of growing yeast cells and very intense staining of small buds, where membrane growth and secretion are most active. The punctate cytoplasmic staining is changed in a mutant (sec7) under conditions that cause aberrant Golgi structures to accumulate. The pattern of immunofluorescence obtained when mouse cells were stained with the antibody coincided closely with the pattern observed with wheat germ agglutinin, suggesting that a mammalian counterpart of the yeast YPT1 protein is located in the Golgi apparatus. These results are interpreted as suggesting that GTP-binding proteins may act to direct intracellular vesicle traffic.

Introduction

The secretion process involves the orderly progression of materials from the cytoplasm to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), through the several levels of the Golgi apparatus and ultimately to the final destination (Palade, 1975). A central problem in understanding cell growth concerns the biosynthesis of the membranous parts of the cells and the sorting of proteins into or through these membranes. It is likely that most, if not all, of the steps in the progression after the insertion into the lumen of the ER occur through the intermediacy of membranous vesicles that form at the surface of the "donor" compartment (e.g., the trans Golgi) and fuse specifically with the next "recipient" compartment (e.g., the plasma membrane) with the result that the contents of the vesicles are transported to the recipient compartment (Pfeffer and Rothman, 1987).

One can reasonably ask what might be the basis for the specificity of fusion of vesicles with the correct compartment: fusion of vesicles to membranes is normally restricted to the target membrane, suggesting strongly that there is a system that "labels," through some physical or chemical distinction, the different types of vesicles as well as the different organelle membranes.

* Present address. Department of Blochemlstry, Stanford Unlverslty School of Medicine, Stanford, California 94305.

In this paper, we present a candidate gene product for such a system of vesicle labeling, the YPT1 gene product of yeast (Saccharomyces cerevisiae). The YPT7 product is a particularly attractive candidate as a component of a system of vesicle labeling because it is a member of the superfamily of GTP-binding proteins that includes the G-proteins and the ras proto-oncogenes (Gallwitz et al., 1983; Schmitt et al., 1986). Many members of this family have already been shown to act in the transduction of signals across the plasma membrane (Gilman, 1987).

Previously, we had shown that the YPT1 gene product is required primarily during the period of the cell cycle when bud growth is maximal (Segev and Botstein, 1987). In Saccharomyces cerevisiae, it has become clear that the cell growth and protein sorting are coupled and occur mainly in the bud (for review, see Schekman and Novick, 1982). We show here that a conditional-lethal mutant (ypt1-1) has a phenotype that includes improper membrane growth and a partial defect in protein secretion. Further, the gene product is concentrated in the growing bud in normal cells. Finally, we show, through the use of specific antibodies, that the yeast YPT1 gene product has a homolog in animal cells that is localized primarily in the Golgi apparatus.

There is precedent for involving a YPTl-like protein very late in the secretion process. In mammalian cells, the effect of GTP and GTP-analogs on exocytosis has led to the suggestion of the existence of two putative G-proteins (Gp and Ge) that are involved in this process (for review, see Burgoyne, 1987). In Saccharomyces cerevisiae, the SEC4 gene product has recently been shown to be a close homolog of the YPT7 gene product (Salminen and Novick, 1987) and located on the plasma membrane and the secretory vesicles (P. Novick, personal communication). The sec4 mutant defect is late in secretion, and mutants accumulate vesicles that would normally fuse with the plasma membrane (Novick et al., 1981).

Our results suggest that YPT7 is involved in an earlier step in the chain of intracellular transport. We interpret our results as supporting a general role for the G-protein superfamily in regulating intracellular vesicle traffic by serving to label vesicles according to their origin, content, and/or destinations.

Results

Accumulation of Aberrant Membranes in the ypt1-1 Mutant

We showed previously that the ypt1-1 mutant cannot undergo mitosis at the nonpermissive temperature. Immunofluorescence microscopy showed aberrant nuclear and microtubular staining within one or two generations after the shift to nonpermissive temperature; these could be a consequence of the mutant's inability to undergo mitosis (Segev and Botstein, 1987). In order to understand the primary defect better, we studied ypt1-1 mutant cells by electron microscopy. Cells grown at the nominally permis-

Figure 1. Thin Section Electron Microscopy of Wild-Type and ypt1-1 Mutant Cells

Cells were grown overnight at 30°C and then shifted to 14°C for various periods of incubation. Cells were processed for electron microscopy, and thin sections were prepared and photographed. (A) Wild-type (DBY1034), 12 hr at 14°C; (B) ypt1-1 (DBY1803), at 30°C; (C) and (D) ypt1-1, 8 hr at 14%. (Magnification: A, B, C, 20,000x; D, 15,000x)

sive temperature (30°C) were shifted to nonpermissive temperature (14°C) and incubated in growth medium. Samples taken at intervals were prepared for electron microscopy and examined as described in Experimental Procedures.

At the permissive temperature the mutant cells seem relatively normal, although they contain more membranes than wild-type controls; in addition, the vacuole is usually fragmented in the mutants (Figures 1A and 1B). At the nonpermissive temperature, an abundance of aberrant membrane structures of two principal types are seen. The first type looks like long stacks of apparently cylindrical membranes (Figure 1C) that might represent accumulated abnormal endopasmic reticulum (ER) structures. The second structure is an accumulation of membranous vesicles (Figure 1D) that are sometimes reminiscent of "Berkeley bodies," i.e., abnormal structures that accumulate in sec mutants that show defects in Golgi functions (Novick et al., 1980).

These changes start appearing after 4 hr of incubation

at 14°C (the wild-type generation time is 12 hr at this temperature). Upon longer incubation at the nonpermissive temperature, the aberrant structures appear in more cells and become more severe. The images shown in Figures 1C and 1D are of mutant cells that were incubated for 8 hr at 14°C, at which time virtually all the cells contain significant amounts of these aberrant structures.

The observation of structures resembling the "Berkeley bodies" stimulated us to determine whether lower glucose concentration during growth affects the morphology of these structures, as it does the structure observed with sec7 mutants (Novick et al., 1981). We found no significant difference in the appearance of the aberrant Golgi-like structures accumulated by ypt1-1 mutant cells at the nonpermissive temperature (data not shown).

Preliminary immunoelectron microscopy studies suggest that the vesicles we observe in the ypt1-1 mutant cells at the nonpermissive temperature are indeed abnormal Golgi structures (J. Mulholland and N. Segev, unpublished data). Antibody against a mannan antigen that ac-

Figure 2. Invertase Secretion and Accumulation

Cells were grown overnight in YEPD medium. At time zero, the cells were shifted to derepression medium (YEP medium containing 0.1% glucose) and incubated either at 30°C (A, B); or at 14°C (C, D). At time points, aliquots were removed and assayed for external and internal pools of invertase. Upper panels show external levels (A, C); bottom panels show internal levels (B, D). The strains used are: wild-type (DBY1034); ypt1-1 (DBY1803); and ypt1-1 complemented by YPT1 on a centromere containing plasmid.

cumulates in aberrant Golgi structures in sec7 mutants stains specifically the aberrant vesicular structures we see in the ypt1-1 mutant.

The ypt1-1 Mutant Is Partially Defective in lnvertase Secretion

The accumulation of membranes shown above resembles the phenotypes of several of the sec mutants (Novick et al., 1980), and prompted us to look carefully at the possibility that the ypt1 phenotype might include a frank secretion defect. We studied the secretion of the enzyme invertase, the product of the SUC2 gene. SUC2 encodes two transcripts: a constitutively synthesized transcript whose product remains soluble in the cytoplasm and a regulated transcript that is repressed by growth in glucose (Carlson and Botstein, 1982). The protein product of the regulated transcript carries a signal sequence that enables it to be inserted into the lumen of the ER, the first step in its secretion (Carlson et al., 1983). In the ER, the invertase is glycosylated first by attachment of nine carbohydrate units to asparagine residues. This partially glycosylated invertase precursor is transferred to the Golgi, where the carbohydrate cores are extended by addition of many "outer chain" mannose residues (Esmon et al., 1981). The fully glycosylated protein is packaged into small vesicles that, upon fusion with the plasma membrane, release the enclosed invertase, which remains associated with the cell surface, accessible to its substrate.

Secretion of invertase was followed in the ypt1-1 mutant and wild-type control cells after derepression (by reducing glucose concentration in the medium) either at permissive (30°C) or nonpermissive (14°C) temperature. External invertase was assayed in intact cells; the internal pool was assayed after enzymatic digestion of the cell wall with zymolyase, removal of the wall and any associated invertase, followed by lysis of the resulting spheroplasts.

The results (Figure 2) show that even at permissive temperature, the amount of internal invertase activity is approximately 2.5 times higher in the ypt1-1 mutant than in wild-type cells, although there is almost a normal amount of invertase secreted to the surface. At the nonpermissive temperature the phenotype is the same, except that there is now a more visible slowness in secretion of invertase to the surface in the mutant.

These results are consistent with a partial defect in secretion, as was observed, for example, in actin-defective mutants (Novick and Botstein, 1985). If the defect is early in secretion, for example at the level of transfer from ER to Golgi, one might expect that the accumulated internal invertase might be incompletely glycosylated. To test this possibility, we examined the mobility of the invertase by immunoblotting after separation of proteins in denaturing SDS-polyacrylamide gels. The invertase from ypt1-1 cells, derepressed at either 30°C or 14°C, runs faster than invertase from wild-type cells (Figure 3A). In order to show that the altered mobility of the invertase in the mutant was indeed entirely due to differences in the degree of glycosylation and not, for example, to proteolysis, another experiment in which the invertase was deglycosylated with endoglycosidase H was performed. As can be seen in Figure 38, the invertase made in mutant and wild-type cells at both 14°C and 30°C has the same electrophoretic mobility after deglycosylation.

The invertase secretion phenotype of *ypt1-1* (i.e., partial

Figure 3. Invertase Analysis on Denaturing Acrylamide Gels

Cells were grown and induced for invertase as described in Figure 2. The cells were incubated either at 30°C for 1 hr or at 14°C for 8 hr. Samples were removed, boiled in sample buffer, treated (or not) with endoglycosidase H, and then analyzed on denaturing acrylamide gel using immunoblotting with anti-invertase antibodies.

(A) Wild-type (DBY1034) cells are compared with ypt1-1 mutant (DBY1803) cells or with mutant cells also carrying a centromere plasmid expressing the normal YPTl protein. Lanes a and d contain wild-type; lanes b and e, the mutant; and lanes c and f, the complemented mutant. (B) The effect of treatment with endo H is measured against standards including wild-type (lane a: DBY1034; lane g: NY13) and the *vpt1-1* mutant (lane b: DBY1803) untreated invertase proteins as well as invertase extracted from sec18 cells at nonpermissive temperature (lane h: NY431). The treated proteins are in lanes c (DBY1034 grown at 30°C), d (DBY1803 grown at 30°C), e (DBY1034 at 14°C), and f (DBY1803 at 14°C). The figure

shows lanes from a single gel with Irrelevant samples excised. Lanes a, b. and g were exposed approximately twice as long as were the other lanes.

secretion and incomplete glycosylation) can be completely complemented if the wild-type copy of the YPT7 gene is present in the mutant cells on a low copy number plasmid (Figure 3A, see also Figure 2). This shows that the secretion phenotype is entirely due to the ypt1-1 mutation. However, there is very little effect of temperature on the phenotype, a subject to which we return in the Discussion.

Similar degrees of glycosylation were obtained with samples from mutant cells that had been fractionated so that the invertase on the surface was largely removed (data not shown), suggesting that the internal pool of partially secreted invertase has a degree of glycosylation similar to the entire cell's content of invertase. For this reason, and simply from the fact that most of the enzyme is eventually secreted in the mutant, we conclude that virtually all of the invertase in *ypt1-1* cells is incompletely glycosylated. It is also worth noting that the amounts of invertase made by the mutant and wild-type are comparable when estimated in Figure 36 from the lanes containing endo H-treated samples; this observation supports the finding of comparable invertase activity (Figure 2).

Comparison of the mobility of the invertase in the ypt1-1 mutant with the invertase made by a well-characterized secretion-defective mutant (sec78) that accumulates coreglycosylated invertases shows that virtually all of the invertase in the ypt1-1 mutant migrates more slowly (Figure 38). Thus, the observed range of molecular size (85-115 kd) characteristic of the ypt1-1 mutant lies between the size characteristic for wild-type (100-140 kd) and core glycosylated (approximately 80 kd; Esmon et al., 1981).

The extent of glycosylation observed is thus consistent with the idea that the $ypt1-1$ mutant is defective either in the transfer of material from the endoplasmic reticulum to the Golgi or within the Golgi. Both ideas would be consistent with the finding of accumulation of aberrant membrane structures in the mutant.

Localization of the YPTl Protein in Yeast Cells

In the hope that localization of the YPT7 gene product might shed more light on its function, antibodies against a fusion of this protein with the bacterial trpE protein were raised. The fusion protein was purified on polyacrylamide gels and the purified material was used to immunize rabbits, polyclonal antibodies in the rabbit serum were affinity-purified as described in Experimental Procedures. The anti-YPT1 antibodies were prepared first by collecting protein that failed to bind a trpE affinity resin but later bound to a column containing immobilized fusion protein. As controls, antibodies from the same serum that were affinity-purified twice on the trpE column were used.

The affinity-purified antisera were characterized by immunoblot analysis (Figure 4). which shows the reaction of the crude serum proteins, the purified anti- $YPT1$ antibodies, and the control (anti-trpE) antibodies with total yeast and E. coli proteins. Clearly, the purified anti-YPT1 serum recognizes one size species very strongly and specifically and another three or four species weakly. The strongly reacting band is likely to be the YPT1 protein since it has the right apparent molecular weight (23 kd). In confrrmation, it is more abundant in cells that contain the YPT7 gene on high copy number plasmid than it is in wild-type

Figure 4. Affinity Purification of Anti-YPT1 and Anti-trpE Antibodies Protein extracts were prepared from yeast (a, b. c) or bacteria induced for trpE (d, e, f). Antibodies used for immunodetection (at dilution of 1:200) are: original anti-trpE-YPT1 serum (a, d); affinity-purified anti- $YPTI$ antibodies (b, e); and affinity-purified anti-bacterial trpE antibodies (c. f).

Yeast Bacterial Bacterial cells (data not shown). It is worth noting that the anti-YPT1 a b c d e f antibodies do not react with the bacterial trpE protein. The affinity-purified anti-trpE antibodies react with the trpE protein in bacterial extracts and not with the YPT1 protein in yeast extracts.

> We used these affinity-purified antibodies for immunofluorescence microscopy of growing normal yeast cells. - 75 The results (Figure 5) were that the cells stained with anti bodies against the YPT1 protein showed a punctate pattern in the cytoplasm. Cells with very small buds showed very intense staining of the buds. This result is consistent BR WITH STATE WITH OUR PREVIOUS finding that the YPT1 gene is involved

> > In order to test the idea that the punctate staining with anti-YPT1 antibodies might represent organization of the protein in Golgi-like structures, a mutant (sec7; Novick et al., 1981) known to produce aberrant Golgi structures was stained with the antibody. The result (Figure 6) was that the mutant under restrictive conditions displayed apparently aggregated structures; the same strain at permissive temperature showed the punctate pattern observed with wild-type. Other sec mutants defective at other points in the secretion pathway were tested (data not shown). One

Figure 5. Localization of YPT1 Protein in Yeast Wild-Type Cells

Yeast wild-type cells (JPQP1) were grown at 30°C. fixed, and stained for fluorescence microscopy wtth DAPI for nuclear staining (A), and with affinity-purified anti-YPT1 antibodies (at 1:200 dilution) (B). The cell outlines are visible by Nomarski.

Figure 6. Localization of YPT1 Protein in Yeast sec7 Cells That Are Defective in Golgi Function and Structure

Mutant (sec7) cells (DBY2357) were grown in YEPD medium at 26°C (A), shlfted to YEP medium containing 0.1% glucose, and incubated at 37°C for 2 hr (B). The cells were fixed and stained for fluorescence microscop with affinity-purified anti-YPT1 antibodies (at 1:200 dilution).

of these (sec78) is defective in structure and function of the endoplasmic reticulum, while the other (sec1) accumulates secretory vesicles characteristic of the latest stages of the secretion process. In both cases, the pattern of staining with anti-YPT1 antibody of cells grown at restrictive temperature was not different from the pattern displayed by wild-type. This result shows that the alteration in anti-YPT1 antibody staining observed with the sec7 mutant is specific, allowing the suggestion that it is the consequence of changes in the Golgi structures and not the consequence of a secretion defect per se.

It is worth noting the evidence that the YPT1 protein is not associated with the plasma membrane. First, in the immunofluorescence microscopy with affinity-purified anti-YPT7 antibodies (Figure 5), we did not observe staining of the cell surface. Second, in preliminary cell fractionation experiments, the YPT1 protein did not follow the plasma membrane marker (plasma membrane ATPase: N. Segev, G. Joud, P. Novick, and D. Botstein, unpublished data).

Localization in Mammalian Cells of a Protein Closely Related to YPTl

We used the affinity-purified anti-YPT1 antibodies characterized above to look for cross-reacting proteins in other eukaryotes. The antibodies reveal one major (approximately 66 kd) and two minor (approximately 23 and 95 kd) species in fission yeast (Schizosaccharomyces pombe). In Xenopus laevis egg protein extracts, the antibody recognized a single species with an apparent molecular weight of 21 kd (data not shown). In mammalian cells, the pattern we observed was more complicated: among the proteins we detected was a 23 kd species that, in preliminary experiments, appears to fractionate with crude Golgi fractions. The data for identification of this protein are not shown because two papers have appeared during the preparation of this paper that describe in some detail mammalian homologs of the yeast YPT1 gene product (Touchot et al., 1987; Haubruck et al., 1987). The apparently closest homolog has 71% of its residues identical to the yeast YPT1 protein, and it has a similar molecular size (about 23 kd).

We used our affinity-purified anti-YPT1 antibodies in immunofluorescence microscopy with two mouse fibroblast cell-lines, L cells (Figure 7), and NIH-3T3 (not shown). In these two cell lines, the antibody stains a region adjacent to one side of the nucleus. The control serum (affinitypurified anti-trpE) gave only faint uniform background staining (not shown). As an additional control, we successfully blocked staining by preincubating the antibody with trpE-YPT1 fusion protein, but were unable to block with comparable amounts of trpE protein (not shown).

In order to strengthen the supposition that the staining observed in Figure 78 represents Golgi localization, cells were doubly stained with anti-YPT7 antibodies and a Golgispecific reagent, wheat germ agglutinin (Virtanen et al., 1980). The antibody was visualized with a fluoresceinconjugated second antibody while the wheat germ agglu-

Figure 7. Localization of YPT1-Related Protein in Mouse Fibroblast Cells

Mouse L cells were fixed and stained for fluorescence microscopy with DAPI for nuclear staining (A) , affinity-purified anti- $YPTT$ antibodies (at 1:200 dilution) (B), and wheat germ agglutinin for Golgi staining (C).

tinin was conjugated with rhodamine. As can be seen in comparison of the two images (Figures 78 and 7C), the staining patterns were very similar, but not identical. Since wheat germ agglutinin stains primarily but not exclusively

and not completely the Golgi apparatus (Tartakoff and Vassalli, 1983), this result is fully consistent with the idea that a close mammalian relative of the YPT1 protein is present in or in the immediate vicinity of the Golgi apparatus.

Discussion

In this paper, we have presented evidence that the yeast YPT1 gene product is involved in the coupled processes of bud growth and protein secretion in yeast. The genetic pieces of that evidence are the appearance of obviously aberrant membranous structures soon after shift of the ypt1-1 mutant to nonpermissive conditions and a partial defect in the secretion and incomplete glycosylation of invertase. The concentration of the gene product in the new buds of growing normal cells and the localization of the gene product and a mammalian relative in what are likely to be Golgi structures completes the evidence now available that links the YPT7 gene and the secretory apparatus.

The link between the YPT1 gene and the various mutant phenotypes is made secure by our observation that the entire phenotype of the ypt1-1 mutant is suppressed by the presence of a low copy plasmid containing only an intact YPT1 gene. However, despite the fact that the ypt1-1 mutation is a cold-sensitive lethal mutation, there is little effect of temperature on the secretion phenotype. It must be remembered that by many other criteria the cells do not grow normally even at temperatures that allow colony formation: their growth rate is reduced (2.5 instead of 1.5 hr generation time), they fall to sporulate and respond normally to nutrient limitation (Segev and Botstein, 1987), and they accumulate some aberrant internal membranes even at the nominally permissive temperature. Thus, the secretion defect might be seen as something that occurs at all temperatures, but results in lethality only at lower temperatures. Alternatively, the mutant may be leaky, an idea supported by the finding that null (disruption) mutations are lethal at all temperatures (Segev and Botstein, 1987; Schmidt et al., 1986). Finally, the method of assessment of the secretion defect may have contributed: the temperature was shifted simultaneously with the removal of glucose to start derepression of invertase production. No matter how one interprets the temperature lethality, the fact remains that the secretion defect, along with all the other phenotypes, is the consequence of the mutation in the YPT1 gene.

The connection between the YPT1 protein in yeast and bud growth is supported as well by previously published evidence from our laboratory that the ypt1-1 mutant specifically affects the cell cycle at the point of maximum bud growth (Segev and Botstein, 1987). In mammalian cells, the connection between such a protein and secretion rests almost entirely upon our current finding that affinity-purified anti-YPT7 protein antibodies recognize a mammalian homolog (presumably the one described by Touchot et al., 1987 and Haubruck et al., 1987) that is apparently localized to the Golgi apparatus.

These connections all support the notion that the YPTl protein plays a role relatively early in the secretion/membrane biosynthesis pathway. Thus we are led to propose a mechanistic role for this protein based on its membership in a large family of proteins known to bind guanine nucleotides and often seen playing a role in signal transduction through membranes (Gilman, 1987; Barbacid, 1987). We suppose that the YPT1 protein and its mammalian counterpart are involved in vesicular traffic as "labels" that signal the vesicles origin, destination, and/or contents. In this way, the major problem posed by the multiplicity of vesicles in the cell bound for disparate destinations might be understood.

Although we cannot yet prove directly this view of the role of YPT1 protein function, there are considerable bits of precedent for this kind of role for G-proteins. Since the G-proteins have generally been regarded as involved only in stimulated signal transduction through the plasma membrane (Styer and Bourne, 1986), most of these precedents are very recent, and most are results involving the plasma membrane itself. In mammalian systems, it has been proposed, on the basis of studies with guanine nucleotides and analogs, that two G-proteins, Gp and Ge, are involved in exocytosis (Burgoyne, 1987). The proposed new G-proteins are thought to be plasma membrane-or granular vesicle-associated (Gompart, 1986). In another connection, Bar-Sagi and Feramisco (1986) reported that microinjection of ras proteins induces membrane ruffling and pinocytosis.

A recent precedent has been reported for involvement of a YPT1 homolog in a late step of secretion in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Salminen and Novick (1987) showed that the yeast SEC4 gene, known to be involved in the fusion of the secretory vesicles with the plasma membrane, is a ras homolog.

In each of these previous cases, it had been assumed that the role of the GTP-binding protein was related to the involvment of the plasma membrane. Our results, implicating as they do earlier steps in secretion, suggest instead that the reason for involvment of GTP-binding proteins must be sought elsewhere. Another difference between the cases in mammalian systems and yeast is that it had previously been assumed that the signals transduced by GTP-binding proteins were simulated from the outside, and not constitutive. On the basis of our results, it would seem that the YPT1 protein and its mammalian counterpart must transduce without external stimulus, based on their intracellular localization. Salminen and Novick (1987) also suggested the possibility that the SEC4 protein works constitutively in controlling or aiding vesicle fusion to the plasma membrane.

Two recent in vitro studies support the idea that GTPbinding proteins might be involved at several different and early steps in secretion in animal cells. First, translocation-competent binding of ribosomes to the ER membrane has been reported to require GTP or a nonhydrolyzable analog (Connoly and Gilmore, 1986). Second, GTP analogs were recently shown to inhibit transport between two Golgi compartments (Melancon et al., 1987).

Although the localization of the mammalian YPT1-like protein to the vicinity of the Golgi apparatus is quite clear from our results, the localization of the protein in yeast is less clear. From the functional defect in glycosylation of invertase by the ypt1-1 mutant, Golgi is indicated. The electron microcopic evidence from the mutant and the preliminary immunolocalization results are consistent with either ER or Golgi or both; the same can be said for the staining with anti-YPT1 antibodies of the aberrant membranous structures that accumulate in the sec7 mutant. The observation of intense staining in young buds suggests a structure concentrated in such buds: unfortunately it is not yet known when after bud emergence functional Golgi structures can be found in the bud. The important point here is that all the evidence suggests steps of secretion and membrane growth well before the final fusion with the plasma membrane. Previously we and others observed that microtubule organization is aberrant in the prolonged absence to YPT1 gene product (Segev and Botstein, 1987; Schmitt et al., 1986). Our current results support the idea suggested previously (Segev and Botstein, 1987), that this effect is secondary to the defect in bud growth. Such a secondary consequence is fully consistent with the dependency in the yeast cell cycle of later morphological changes on earlier events in the cell cycle (Pringle and Hartwell, 1981).

In conclusion, our results are compatible with the view that the YPT1-like GTP-binding proteins may be present at all stages of the secretion pathway in mammalians cells as well as in yeast. The role of these proteins is as yet uncertain, although the idea that different variant proteins might label the membrane they occupy so that vesicle traffic will be orderly is particularly attractive at this time.

Experimental Procedures

Cells, Plasmids, and Growth Conditions

S. cerevisiae strains used are: wild-type, DBY1034; ypt1-1, DBY1803 (Segev and Botstem, 1987); sec7, DBY2357 (MATa, ura3-52, /eu2-3, leu2-112, suc2-); sec18-1 and its isogenic wild-type were NY431 and NY13, respectively both are MATa and ura3-52, obtained from Peter Novick. The wild-type tetraploid strain is JPQP1 (Adams and Pringle, 1984).

Plasmids used are: pRB319, a CEN plasmid that contains the YPT1 gene, and pRB320, a 2 um plasmid that contains the YPT1 gene (Segev and Botstein, 1987). The plasmid that contain the fusion protein trpE-YPT1 is pRB578. This plasmid was constructed for this study by insertion of the 0.765 kb EcoRI-BamHI fragment from pRB301 (Segev and Botstein, 1987), which contains the YPT1 gene without the first 50 nucleotides, into pRB535, which contains the bacterial trpE gene. pRB535 is a pATH3 plasmid that was kindly given to us by Dr. A. Tzagoloff. The E. coli strain that was used for transformation with the fusion plasmid is RR1 (leu, hsdR, hsdM).

Mammalian cell lines used in this study are: mouse fibroblast L cells (from H. Eisen at MIT) and mouse NIH3T3, given to us by Dr. K. Mostov (Whitehead Institute).

Media and growth of yeast cells were described by Sherman et al (1974)

Thin Section Electron Microscopy

Approximately 2×10^8 cells were processed for electron microscopy as described by Novick and Botstein (1985) except for the cell wall removal, which was done by treatment with glusulase diluted 19 times in 41 mM of potassium phosphate, 8 mM sodium citrate buffer (pH 5.8) for 2 hr at 37°C. Sections were cut by diamond knife and stained with lead citrate.

Measurement of lnvertase Activity

Cells at an absorbance of 0.2 at 600 nm were harvested, resuspended

in 10 mM sodium azide, and kept at 4°C. External invertase was assayed using intact cells as described by Goldstein and Lampen (1975). Internal invertase activity was measured in spheroplast lysates; 50 µl of the cell suspension (absorbance 600-10) was mixed with 450 μ l of solution containing 2.8 M sorbitol, 50 mM potassium phosphate (pH 7.5), 50 mM 2-mercaptoethanol and 50 µg/ml Zymolyase 60,000. After 1 hr at 14"C, the spheroplasts were centrifuged and then lysed by addrtion of 50 μ I of 0.5% Triton X-100. N-ethylmaleimide, 0.2 mM, was added to the second stage of the assay to prevent interference by residual 2-mercaptoethanol. Units of activity are nanomoles of glucose released per minute

Preparation of Affinity Purified Anti-YPT1 Antibodies

The trpE-YPT1 fusion protein was prepared from the E. coli strain that contain the plasmid pRB578. The cells were grown and induced for high expression of the fusion protein, and the insoluble fraction was prepared as described by Haarer and Pringle (1987).

For immunization approximately $200-400$ μ g of the fusion protein band was cut from acrylamide gels, crushed in PBS buffer, mixed with Freund adjuvant (complete adjuvant for the first two injections, and incomplete adjuvant for the third injection), and injected into New Zealand White rabbits. Boosters were given twice, 3 and 5 weeks after primary immunization. Blood collection was begun 12 days after the third booster, and every 1 or 2 weeks thereafter.

Affinity-purified anti-YPT1 and anti-bacterial trpE antibodies were prepared from the crude anti-trpE-YPT1 antiserum using affinity columns. The bacterial trpE column was prepared by coupling of 6 mg of the insoluble fraction, prepared from E. coli containing the trpE plasmid (pRB535), with 2 ml of CNBr-activated Sepharose-4B (Pharmacia). Coupling was performed as suggested by the manufacturer, but in the presence of 0.1% SDS. The trpE-YPT1 fusion column was prepared by coupling 1.85 mg of acrylamide gel-purified fusion protein with 1.5 ml of the same resin.

Affinity purification was done as described by Pfeffer et al. (1983). The anti-YPT1 antibodies were prepared by first collecting the flowthrough that did not bind to the bacterial trpE column, and then bound to the tprE-YPT1 fusion column. This purification was repeated twice. As a control we prepared anti-bacterial $trpE$ (non-YPT1) antibodies from the same serum, by affinity purifying twice on the bacterial-trpE column.

Preparation of Protein Extracts and lmmunoblotting

Yeast cells protein extracts were prepared by harvesting approximately 2×10^7 cells, washing in 10 mM sodium azide in 25 mM Tris buffer (pH 7.5), resuspending in Laemmli sample buffer, adding the same volume of glass beads and vortexing for 1 min. The sample was boiled immediately for 2 min, and the supernatant was loaded on the gel. E. coli protein extracts were prepared by boiling the cells in Laemmli sample buffer for 5 min. For invertase blots, with and without prior deglycosylation with endo H, 10 ml of cells at absorbance 600-0.2 were harvested, prepared, and assayed as described by Kaiser et al (1987).

SDS-polyacrylamide gels (10%) and the Laemmli buffer system (Laemmli, 1970) were used for all protein electrophoresis. Proteins were electroblotted to nitrocellulose and radiographic detection was done by incubation with antibodies and ¹²⁵l-protein A (Burnette. 1981).

lmmunofluorescence Microscopy and Photography

Yeast cells were fixed and stained as described by Kilmartin and Adams (1984)

Mammalian cells were grown on glass slides to approximately 50% confluency The cells were rinsed wtth PBS buffer and fixed in 3.7% formaldehyde in the same buffer. After 30 min at room temperature, the cells were washed and then stored in PBS at 4°C. Permeabilization was done by succesive incubations in aceton:water: 50% for 2 min. 100% for 5 min, and 50% for 2 min at -20°C. Indirect immunofluorescence was done as described for yeast cells.

Nuclear staining was done with 4'.6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) (Williamson and Fennel, 1975); 10 min for yeast cells and 5 sec for mammalian cells. Golgi-specific staining was done using rhodamine-conjugated wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) (Molecular Probes) at 50 µg/ml for 10 min. Microscopy and photography procedures were as described by Novick and Botstein (1985).

Acknowledgments

We are especially grateful to Alison Adams, Kevin Hennessy. and David Drubin for many helpful discussions. We thank Chris Kaiser and Daphne Preuss for advice and assistance in assaying and analyzing invertase. We thank Jean-Girard Guillet, Vivian Igres, and Keith Mostov for supplying the mammalian cell-lines and assistance in growing them. We thank Frank Solomon and his associates for help and advice on mammalian cells immunofluorescence techniques.

The costs of publication of this article were defrayed in part by the payment of page charges. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. Section 1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Received October 27, 1987; revised January 28, 1988.

References

Adams, A. E. M., and Pringle, J. R. (1984). Relationship of actin and tubulin distribution to bud growth in wild-type and morphogeneticmutant Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J. Cell Biol. 98, 934-945.

Barbacid, M. (1987). ras genes. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 56, 779-827.

Bar-Sagi. D., and Feramisco. J. R. (1986). Induction of membrane ruffling and fluid-phase pinocytosis in quiescent fibroblasts by ras proteins. Science 233, 1061-1068.

Burgoyne, R. D. (1987). Control of exocytosis. Nature 328, 112-113.

Burnette, W. N. (1981). "Western blotting": electrophoretic transfer of proteins from sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gels to unmodified nitrocellulose and radiographic detection with antibody and radioiodinated protein A. Anal. Biochem. 112, 195-203.

Carlson, M., and Botstein, D. (1982). Two differentially regulated mRNAs with different 5' ends encode secreted and intracellular forms of yeast invertase. Cell 28, 145-154.

Carlson, M., Taussig, R., Kustu, S., and Botstein, D. (1983). The secreted form of invertase in Saccharomyces cerevisiae is synthesized from mRNA encoding a signal sequence. Mol. Cell Biol. 3, 439-447. Connolly. T., and Gilmore. R. (1986). Formation of a functional ribosome-membrane junction during translocation requires the participation of a GTP-binding protein. J. Cell Biol. 103, 2253-2261.

Esmon, B., Novick, P., and Schekman, R. (1981). Compartmentalized assembly of oligosaccharides on exported glycoproteins in yeast. Cell 25. 451-460

Gallwitz, D., Donath. C., and Sander. C. (1983). A yeast gene encoding a protein homologous to the human C-has/bas proto-oncogene product. Nature 306. 704-707.

Gilman. A. G. (1987). G proteins: transducers of receptor-generated signals. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 56, 615-649.

Goldstein, D., and Lampen. J. (1975). Beta-D-fructofuranoside fructohydrolase from yeast. Meth. Enzymol. 42, 504-511.

Gompart. B. D. (1986). Calcium shares the limelight in stimulussecretion coupling. Trends Biochem. Sci. 11, 290-292.

Haarer. B. K.. and Pringle. J. R. (1987). Immunofluorescence localization of the Saccharomyces cerevisiae cdc12 gene product to the vicinity of the 10-nm filaments in the mother-bud neck. Mol. Cell. Biol. 7. 3678-3687

Haubruck. H., Disela. C., Wagner, P., and Gallwitz. D. (1987). The rasrelated ypt protein is an ubiquitous eukaryotic protein: isolation and sequence analysis of mouse cDNA clones highly homologous to the yeast YPT1 gene. EMBO J. 6, 4049-4053.

Kaiser, C. A., Preuss. D., Grisafi, P., and Botstein, D. (1987). Many random sequences functionally replace the secretion signal sequence of yeast invertase. Science 235. 312-317.

Kilmartin, J. V., and Adams. A. E. M. (1984). Structural rearrangements of tubulin during cell cycle of the yeast Saccharomyces. J. Cell Biol. 98, 922-933

Laemmli, U. K. (1970). Cleavage of structural proteins during the assembly of the head of bacteriophage T4. Nature 227, 680-685

Melancon, P., Glick, B. S., Malhotra. V., Weidman. P. J., Serafini, T. Gleason, M. L., Orci, L., and Rothman. J. E. (1987). Involvement of Novick. P., and Botstein. D. (1985). Phenotypic analysis of temperaturesensitive yeast actin mutants. Cell 40, 405-416.

Novick, P., Field. C., and Schekman, R. (1980). Identification of 23 complementation groups required for post-translational events in the yeast secretory pathway. Cell 21, 205-215.

Novick. P., Ferro. S., and Schekman, R. (1981). Order of events in the yeast secretory pathway. Cell 25. 461-469.

Palade. G. (1975). Intracellular aspects of the process of protein secretion, Science 189, 347-358

Pfeffer, S. R., and Rothman, J. R. (1987). Biosynthetic protein transport and sorting by the endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 56. 829-852.

Pfeffer, S. R., Drubin, D. G., and Kelly, R. B. (1983). Identification of three coated vesicles as u - and β -tubulin linked to a phosphorylated 50.000- dalton polypeptide. J. Cell Biol. 97, 40-47.

Pringle, J. R., and Hartwell, L. H. (1981). The Saccharomyces cerevisiae cell cycle. In The Molecular Biology of the Yeast Saccharomyces, Volume 1, J. N. Strathern, E. W. Jones, and J. R. Broach, eds. (Cold Spring Harbor, New York: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory), pp. 97-142.

Salminen, A., and Novick, P. J. (1987). A ras-like protein is required for a post-Golgi event in yeast secretion. Cell 49, 527-538.

Schekman, R., and Novick, P. (1982). The secretory process and yeast cell-surface assembly. In The Molecular Biolgy of the Yeast Saccharomyces, Volume 2, J. N. Strathern, E. W. Jones, and J. R. Broach, eds (Cold Spring Harbor, New York. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory), pp. 361-398.

Schmitt, H. D., Wagner, P., Pfaff, E., and Gallwitz, D. (1986). The rasrelated YPT1 gene product in yeast: a GTP-binding protein that might be involved in microtubular organization. Cell 47, 401-412

Sherman, F., Fink. G., and Lawrence, C. (1974). Methods in Yeast Genetics (Cold Spring Harbor, New York: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory)

Segev, N., and Botstein, D. (1987). The ras-like yeast YPT1 gene is itself essential for growth, sporulation and starvation response. Mol. Cell Biol. 7, 2367-2377.

Stryer. L., and Bourne, H. R. (1986). G proteins: a family of signal transducers. Annu. Rev. Cell Biol. 2, 391-419.

Tartakoff, A. M., and Vassalli, P. (1983). Lectin-binding sites as markers of Golgi subcompartment: proximal-to-distal maturation of oligosaccharides. J. Cell Biol. 97, 1243-1248.

Touchot, N., Chardin, P., and Tavitian, A. (1987). Four additional members of the ras gene superfamily isolated by an oligonucleotide strategy: molecular cloning of YPT-related cDNAs from a rat brain library, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 84, pp. 8210-8214.

Virtanen, I., Ekblom, P., and Laurila, P. (1980). Subcellular compartmentization of saccharide moieties in cultured normal and malignant cells, J. Cell Biol. 85, 429-434.

Williamson, D. H., and Fennel, D. J. (1975). The use of fluorescent DNA-binding agent for detecting and separating yeast mitochondrial DNA. Meth. Cell Biol. 12, 335-351.