# Mutational analysis of Yap1 protein, an AP-1-like transcriptional activator of Saccharomyces cerevisiae

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Abstract To define the essential amino acid residues of Yap1 in stress response, we generated yap1 mutations by in vitro mutagenesis, which cause defects in mediating resistance to the stress of  $H_2O_2$ , but not of  $CdCl_2$ . Sequence analysis of the mutant yap1 genes revealed three point mutations and two truncation mutations near the carboxy-terminus. The truncation mutations resulted in hyperresistance to cadmium. Northern blot analysis of stress-induced levels of TRX2 and GSH1 mRNAs indicated that the ability of the mutant Yap1 protein to induce transcriptional activation of target genes correlates well with its ability to confer stress resistance. The carboxy-terminal domain of Yap1 appears to act negatively in cadmium resistance.

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Key words: AP-1; Oxidative stress; Cadmium stress; Saccharomyces cerevisiae

#### 1. Introduction

Human transcription factor AP-1, composed of products of the proto-oncogenes c-jun and c-fos, is activated by various stimuli such as growth factors, cytokines, T cell activators, neurotransmitters, phorbol esters and UV irradiation [1–3]. The activity of AP-1 has been shown to be regulated at the transcriptional and the posttranscriptional level. However, environmental signal transduction pathways that lead to the regulation of AP-1 activity remain unclear.

In the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, the YAP1 gene was originally identified as a functional homologue to mammalian AP-1 on the basis of its ability to bind to an AP-1 recognition element (ARE) [4]. The same gene was isolated in several laboratories as a gene that confers pleiotropic drug resistance when present in high copy number and has also been named PDR4 [5], SNQ3 [6] or PAR1 [7]. The null mutant of the YAP1 gene displays hypersensitivity to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> [7], cycloheximide [6] and cadmium [8], suggesting that YAP1 is required for the adaptive responses to a variety of stress signals. In fact, various Yap1 target genes important for cell response have been identified, which include the TRX2 gene encoding thioredoxin for the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> response [9], the GSH1 gene encoding γ-glutamylcysteine synthetase [10] and the YCF1 gene encoding a MRP-type ABC superfamily protein [11] for the cadmium response, the TPS2 gene encoding trehalose phosphate phosphatase for the metabolic stress response [12] and the PDR5/YDR1/STS1 and SNQ2 genes encoding multidrug

resistance ABC superfamily proteins for the heat-shock response [13]. The mechanism that determines target specificity of Yap1 in response to various extracellular stimuli remains unclear. It was recently demonstrated that a cysteine-rich domain at the carboxy-terminus is responsible for the regulated localization of Yap1 protein to the nucleus [9].

In this report, a functional analysis of Yap1 was performed by in vitro mutagenesis to define the amino acid residues important in the adaptive response to  $H_2O_2$ . Two residues (P316 and G633) and the carboxy-terminal domain were found to be important for the  $H_2O_2$  response, but not for the cadmium response. It was also found that Yap1 truncations near the carboxy-terminus lead to increased resistance to cadmium. Northern blot analysis of stress- ( $H_2O_2$ - and cadmium-) induced levels of TRX2 and GSH1 mRNAs indicated that the ability of the mutant Yap1 protein to induce transcriptional activation of target genes correlates well with its ability to confer stress resistance. The carboxy-terminal domain of Yap1 was shown to act negatively in cadmium resistance.

## 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Yeast strains

S. cerevisiae strains W303-1A (MATa ho his3 leu2 ura3 trp1 ade2 can1-100) [14] and DHA1-7a (MATa W303 yap1::HIS3) [8] were used.

### 2.2. In vitro mutagenesis

Plasmid YCp-YAP1 carries the YAP1 gene [8] in YCp50 [15]. YCpYAP1 was mutagenized by treatment with hydroxylamine as described by Rose and Fink [16]. DNA (10 μg) was incubated with 0.8 M hydroxylamine hydrochloride at 65°C for 2 h. The efficiency of mutagenesis was estimated by the reduction in the ability of the plasmid DNA to transform an Escherichia coli host. The efficiency of transformation by hydroxylamine-treated YCp-YAP1 DNA was about 2% of that of untreated control plasmid.

# 2.3. DNA sequencing

Nucleotide sequences were determined by the method of Sanger et al. [17] using an automated DNA sequencer (ALF red DNA sequencer, Pharmacia Biotech.).

# 2.4. Construction of plasmids

Epitope-tagged Yapl was constructed as follows. The YAP1 fragment containing the XbaI site after the initiating ATG codon of the open reading frame of the YAP1 gene was generated by PCR. The 5' non-coding region of YAP1 was synthesized using primers 5'-AAAGTCGACGCTCTCCCTTATGCGA-3' (sense strand) and 5'-AAATCTAGACATGGTTTAAGAAACA-3' (antisense strand), where the SaII and XbaI sites are underlined. The N-terminal region of the YAP1 gene was synthesized using primers 5'-AAATCTA-GAAGTGTGTCTACCGCCA-3' (sense strand) and 5'-ĀAĀGGĀTCCAAATCTTGCTTTTTGC-3' (antisense strand), where the XbaI and BamHI sites are underlined. These oligonucleotides were designed in such a manner that the amplified sequence contained the initiating ATG codon before the XbaI site. A 0.7-kb amplified

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fragment of the 5' non-coding region of the YAP1 gene was subcloned into the SalI-XbaI sites of pUC119, yielding TYH1. A 0.2-kb amplified fragment of the N-terminal region of the YAP1 gene was subcloned into the XbaI-BamHI sites of pUC119, yielding TYH3. Plasmid TYH4 was constructed by integrating the 0.7-kb SalI-XbaI fragment from plasmid TYH1 into the SalI-XbaI site of TYH3. A 96-bp DNA fragment encoding three copies of an epitope sequence consisting of nine amino acid residues derived from the hemagglutinin of the influenza virus (HA1) [18] was amplified by PCR using primers 5'-AAATCTAGATACCCATACGATGTTC-3' and 5'-AAATCTA-GATCTAGCGTAATCCGGT-3', where the XbaI site is underlined. The amplified fragment was cloned into the XbaI site of plasmid TYH4, yielding TYH5. Plasmid TYH6 was constructed by integrating the 1.1-kb BamHI-SalI fragment from plasmid TYH5 into the Bam-HI-SalI site of YCp-YAP1. Plasmid TYH6 expressing the epitopetagged Yap1 was confirmed to fully complement the H2O2 and cadmium sensitivities when introduced to the yap1 disruptant. Similarly, plasmids expressing mutant Yap1 tagged with HA epitopes were constructed by integrating the 1.1-kb BamHI-SalI fragment from plasmid TYH5 into the BamHI-SalI site of each mutant yap1 gene.

#### 2.5. Immunochemical analyses

Yeast cell extracts were prepared according to Matsusaka et al. [19]. TEG buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol, 30 mM NaCl, 1 mM dithiothreitol and 2 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride) was used for cell disruption by glass beads. Glass beads and large debris were removed by centrifugation at  $5000 \times g$  for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant of the lysate was solubilized in SDS sample buffer, and separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gels. Proteins were electrically transferred onto nitrocellulose filters. For detection of the tagged Yap1 protein, monoclonal antibody 12CA5 was used [20,21]. Horseradish peroxidase-conjugated sheep anti-mouse IgG (Amersham Corp.) was used as the second antibody. Chemiluminescence (ECL system, Amersham Corp.) was used to detect bound antibody.

#### 2.6. Northern blot analysis

Cells in early exponential growth phase  $(1\times10^7~{\rm cells/ml})$  in SD-Ura medium were treated with 1 mM  ${\rm H_2O_2}$  or 7.5  $\mu{\rm M}$  CdCl<sub>2</sub>. The cells were harvested in a microcentrifuge at 4°C, and total RNA was isolated by the hot-phenol method [22]. The isolated RNA was separated on 1% agarose gel, transferred to a nylon membrane and then subjected to Northern blot analysis [23]. The probes were generated by random primed labeling of the 2.5-kb BamHI-SaII fragment of the TRXZ gene [9], the 0.6-kb BamHI-XhoI fragment of the GSHI gene [24], and the 1.1-kb XhoI-KpnI fragment of ACTI, with  $[\alpha\text{-}^{32}\text{P}]dCTP$  using a Multiprime DNA labeling kit (Amersham Corp.).

#### 3. Results

# 3.1. Isolation of mutant YAP1 alleles defective in adaptive response to $H_2O_2$ stress

Mutations were induced by in vitro mutagenesis of the wildtype YAP1 gene integrated into plasmid YCp (YCp-YAP1) by hydroxylamine treatment. Mutagenized plasmid was amplified in E. coli and about 10000 bacterial colonies were collected. Plasmid DNA was isolated from this pool and introduced into S. cerevisiae strain DHA1-7a, whose chromosomal YAP1 gene had been replaced with a yap1::HIS3 null allele [8]. From these transformants, the strains that exhibited decreased levels of resistance to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or CdCl<sub>2</sub> in comparison with the wild-type YAP1 transformant were selected. About 3000 colonies of the transformants were picked up and the sensitivity to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or CdCl<sub>2</sub> was examined by spot assay on YPD solid medium containing  $H_2O_2$  (4–5 mM) or  $CdCl_2$  (75–150  $\mu$ M). The wild-type YAP1 transformant could grow on YPD solid medium in the presence of up to 7 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or 200 µM CdCl<sub>2</sub>. Candidate mutant plasmids were recovered through E. coli and introduced into the yap1 null mutant to verify the sensitivity phenotype. In total, 19 plasmids which failed to confer resistance to  $H_2O_2$  at the wild-type level were obtained. Of these plasmids, seven failed to confer resistance only to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (class I mutants; Fig. 1), whereas eight plasmids also failed to confer resistance to CdCl2 (data not shown). None of the plasmids failed to confer resistance only to CdCl<sub>2</sub>. Surprisingly, four other transformants grew faster than the strain containing wild-type YAPI on the plate containing CdCl2, indicating that these mutations result in increased resistance to cadmium (class II mutants, Fig. 1). Mutant yap1 alleles that caused increased sensitivity to  $H_2O_2$ , but not to CdCl<sub>2</sub>, (class I and class II mutants) were further investigated.

### 3.2. Identification of yap1 mutations

First, the mutation site of each yap1 mutant allele was roughly located by constructing chimeric genes between

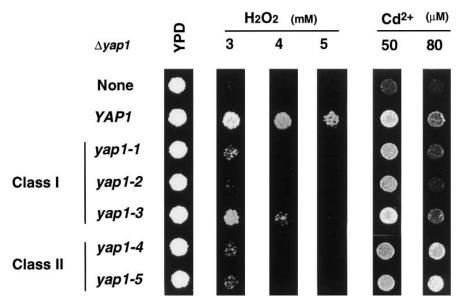


Fig. 1. Classification of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-sensitive mutant *yap1* alleles on the basis of their ability to resist CdCl<sub>2</sub>. Strain DHA1-7a (*yap1::HIS3*) was transformed with plasmids TY10 (*yap1-1*), TY17 (*yap1-2*), TY34 (*yap1-3*), TY3 (*yap1-4*) and TY29 (*yap1-5*). The strains were spotted on YPD solid medium containing various concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or CdCl<sub>2</sub> and incubated at 28°C for 48 h.

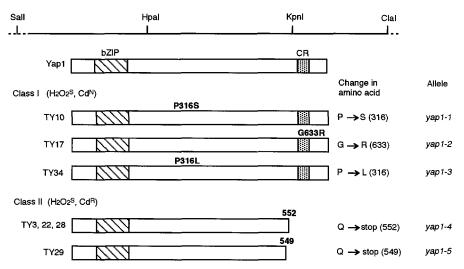


Fig. 2. Schematic representation of the mutant Yap1 proteins. The conserved basic leucine zipper region (b-ZIP) and the carboxy-terminal cysteine-rich region are indicated. The restriction sites used for constructing the chimeric genes between wild-type and mutant alleles are indicated at the top.

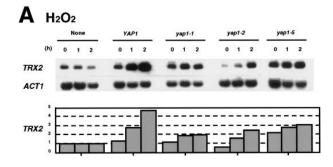
wild-type YAP1 and mutant yap1 alleles. The 1.2-kb HpaI-KpnI or the 0.6-kb KpnI-ClaI fragment of wild-type gene was replaced by the corresponding segment excised from the mutant gene (Fig. 2). Of the three restriction fragments, the SalI-HpaI fragment of the mutant was omitted from the chimera construction, because the sequences for the b-ZIP motif which is known to be essential for normal AP-1 function in the sequence-specific DNA binding is contained in this fragment, and many mutations in this motif were expected to yield nonfunctional Yap1 [25,26]. Nucleotide sequencing of the fragment which was suggested to contain the mutation site was performed. The nucleotide and the deduced amino acid changes found in the vapl mutant alleles are summarized in Fig. 2. By analysis of class I mutant alleles, three point mutations that resulted in a single amino acid substitution were identified. The yap1-1 mutant allele in plasmid TY10 carried a C to T transition at nucleotide position 946 that resulted in replacement of Pro<sup>316</sup> with Ser, the yap1-2 allele in plasmid TY17 carried a G to A transition of the nucleotide at position 1897 that resulted in replacement of Gly<sup>633</sup> with Arg and the van1-3 allele in plasmid TY34 carried a C to T transition at nucleotide position 947 that resulted in replacement of Pro<sup>316</sup> with Leu. Class II mutant alleles contained a termination codon at residue 552 in plasmids TY5 and TY52 (yap1-4) or at residue 549 in plasmids TY24 and TY31 (yap1-5), generating truncated Yap1 proteins that lack the conserved region (CR) near the carboxy-terminus.

#### 3.3. Immunoblot analysis of the mutant Yap1 proteins

To compare the levels of Yap1 proteins in various yap1 mutants, immunoblot analysis of the cell extract prepared from the cells carrying mutant yap1 alleles was performed. At the same time, to see if the stability of the mutant Yap1 proteins is altered during incubation with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or CdCl<sub>2</sub>, extracts were prepared from cells cultivated for 1 h in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or CdCl<sub>2</sub>. For this purpose, wild-type YAP1 and mutant yap1 genes encoding epitope-tagged Yap1 proteins at the amino-terminus were constructed [20]. The modified version of the wild-type YAP1 could fully complement the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and cadmium hypersensitivity of the yap1 null

mutant, indicating that HA-tagging had no significant effect on the ability of Yap1 to resist these stresses. Similarly, modified versions of mutant yap1 genes exhibited a similar phenotype as the respective original mutants (data not shown). Immunoblotting with monoclonal antibody 12CA5 against HA detected a specific band in the transformant with the plasmids (Fig. 3). The observed molecular mass of HA-tagged wild-type Yap1 (90 kDa) was higher than that deduced from the gene (75 kDa), in agreement with the observation that Yapl protein behaves anomalously on SDS-PAGE [4]. A band with similar intensity as the HA-tagged Yap1 (wild-type) was detected in cells expressing Yap1-2 and Yap1-3 mutant proteins, suggesting that expression level and stability were not significantly altered (Fig. 3). The amount of Yap1-1 and Yap1-5 protein detected was less than that of wild-type Yap1 (40% and 50%, respectively), indicating that the yap1-1 point mutation and the carboxy-terminal truncation significantly reduce protein levels in vivo (Fig. 3). Similarly, a decrease in the level of the truncated protein Yap1-4 was observed (data not shown). Similar observations were made previously with the carboxy-terminal truncations of Yap1, and it was suggested that the carboxy-terminal sequences are important for the stability of Yap1 in vivo [27,28]. The amount of the mutant Yap1 proteins in the cells incubated with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or CdCl<sub>2</sub> was similar to that of control, indicating that the stability of the

Fig. 3. Immunoblot analysis of wild-type and mutant Yap1 proteins. The yap1 null mutant strain (DHA1-7a) harboring YCp plasmids containing HA-tagged wild-type YAP1, yap1-1, yap1-2, yap1-3 and yap1-5 grown in the presence of 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (H), 7.5 μM CdCl<sub>2</sub> (C) or without an additive (–) for 1 h. Supernatant (60 μg protein) of total cell extract was subjected to SDS-PAGE (10% polyacrylamide gel) followed by immunoblotting.



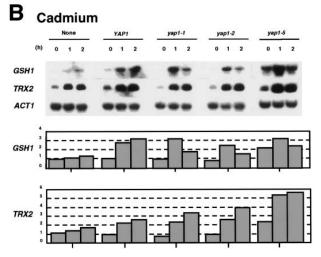


Fig. 4. Transcriptional induction of *TRX2* and *GSH1* genes in various *yap1* mutants. Total cellular RNA was prepared from the *yap1* disruptant (DHA1-7a) transformed with the indicated YCp plasmids at various times (h) after addition of 1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or 7.5 μM CdCl<sub>2</sub>. RNA (20 μg per slot) was applied to the gel. The filters were hybridized with radioactive probes containing *TRX2*, *GSH1* or *ACT1*. The intensity of mRNA was measured using a BAS-2000 Bioimaging analyzer (Fuji Photo Film Co.), and the *TRX2* and *GSH1* mRNA levels were normalized to the individual *ACT1* mRNA level.

mutant protein is not significantly altered under the stress conditions (Fig. 3).

# 3.4. Stress-induced transcriptional activation of target genes by mutant yap1 alleles

To investigate the relationship between the abilities of mutant Yap1 to confer stress resistance and to activate the expression of target genes, stress-induced TRX2 and GSH1 mRNA levels were determined by Northern blot analysis (Fig. 4). Basal transcript levels of TRX2 and GSH1 genes in the yap1 disruptant carrying control plasmid (YCp50) were similar to those of the wild-type strain, indicating that Yap1 is not responsible for basal transcription of these genes. In contrast, a weak activation of TRX2 and GSH1 transcription still occurred in the yap1 disruptant in response to cadmium stress, suggesting that additional transcription factor(s) are also involved in cadmium-induced activation of these genes. The H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced TRX2 expression was abolished in the yap1 disruptant, indicating that Yap1 plays a crucial role in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced activation of TRX2 transcription. The function of the YCF1 gene which encodes an ABC superfamily protein important for cadmium tolerance is dependent on YAP1 [11]. However, the cadmium-induced level of YCF1 transcript was not significantly dependent on YAP1 at least in our genetic background (data not shown).

The wild-type YAPI transformant exhibited a 2–4-fold increase in induced levels of TRX2 transcription in response to  $H_2O_2$  and cadmium stresses, and a 3-fold elevation of GSHI transcript level in response to cadmium stress. The level of transcriptional activation of the TRX2 gene in response to  $H_2O_2$  was significantly reduced (10–37% of wild type) in all  $H_2O_2$ -sensitive yapI transformants (yapI-I, yapI-2 and yapI-I) (Fig. 4). In contrast, induced levels of GSHI and TRX2 genes in response to cadmium stress were not significantly altered. The yapI-5 allele which caused hyperresistance to cadmium exhibited increased levels of transcription of the GSHI and TRX2 genes in response to cadmium stress (Fig. 4).

#### 4. Discussion

To identify the amino acid residues important for Yapl function in adaptive response to  $H_2O_2$  stress, yapl mutant alleles that exhibit a decreased ability to resist the stress of  $H_2O_2$ , but not cadmium, were isolated and characterized.

The defect in the ability of the mutant Yap1 protein to confer H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> resistance was caused by the single amino acid substitutions at Pro<sup>316</sup> in yap1-1 (to Ser) and yap1-3 (to Leu), and at Gly<sup>633</sup> in yap1-2 (to Arg), and truncation mutations at Asn<sup>552</sup> in yap1-4 and Asn<sup>549</sup> in yap1-5. The mutant yap1 alleles lead to decreased levels of H2O2-induced TRX2 transcription, indicating that these residues and the carboxy-terminal domains are essential for the adaptive response to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> stress. Thus, the ability of the mutant yapl alleles in the adaptive response to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> stress appears to correlate well with the ability to activate transcription of the target gene in response to the stress. It was recently shown that the conserved cysteine residues in the carboxy-terminal domain are important for regulating nuclear localization of Yap1 in response to oxidative stress, blocking nuclear transport of Yapl protein under unstressed conditions [28]. Whether the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>sensitive yap1 point mutations cause the defect of stress-induced Yap1 activation or Yap1 nuclear transport remains to be determined.

Yap1 and Yap2 proteins share two highly homologous regions, a region containing a b-ZIP motif and a region containing the carboxyl-terminal cysteine-rich sequences. Yap1 and Yap2 proteins have an overlapping function in the resistance to cadmium [8,29]. The carboxy-terminal cysteine-rich sequences of Yap1 and Yap2 may perform an analogous function in the response to cadmium stress. The class II H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>sensitive alleles (yap1-4 and yap1-5) exhibited increased resistance to cadmium in comparison with the wild-type allele even though cellular Yap1 proteins were less abundant than that of wild-type cells. Thus, the carboxy-terminal region of Yap1 appears to be responsible for regulating cadmium response negatively. Since the carboxy-terminal cysteine-rich domain of Yapl is important for regulated nuclear translocation in response to oxidative stress [28], Yap1-5 protein may lead to the increased level of TRX2 basal expression (Fig. 4). However, the mutant allele (yap1-5) is unable to stimulate TRX2 transcription by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and to confer H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> resistance to the level of the wild-type, indicating that the elevation of the basal level alone is not sufficient for the resistance to  $H_2O_2$ . An additional unknown factor seems to be required for the induction of TRX2 expression by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and this factor may be important for the adaptive response to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, the same mutant allele is able to induce TRX2 expression in response to cadmium stress and confers hyperresistance to this toxic metal. These results demonstrate that Yapl responds to the stresses caused by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and cadmium differently by specifically activating the respective target genes.

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