kem Mutations Affect Nuclear Fusion in Saccharomyces cerevisiae

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ABSTRACT

We have identified mutations in three genes of Saccharomyces cerevisiae, KEM1, KEM2 and KEM3, that enhance the nuclear fusion defect of kar1-1 yeast during conjugation. The KEM1 and KEM3 genes are located on the left arm of chromosome VII. Kem mutations reduce nuclear fusion whether the kem and the kar1-1 mutations are in the same or in different parents (i.e., in both kem $kar1-1 \times kem1$) wild-type and $kem \times kar1-1$ crosses). $kem1 \times kem1$ crosses show a defect in nuclear fusion, but $kem1 \times kem1$ wild-type crosses do not. Mutant kem1 strains are hypersensitive to benomyl, lose chromosomes at a rate 10-20-fold higher than KEM^+ strains, and lose viability upon nitrogen starvation. In addition, kem1/kem1 diploids are unable to sporulate. Cells containing a kem1 null allele grow very poorly, have an elongated rod-shape and are defective in spindle pole body duplication and/or separation. The KEM1 gene, which is expressed as a 5.5-kb mRNA transcript, contains a 4.6-kb open reading frame encoding a 175-kD protein.

CONJUGATION in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae occurs when cells of opposite mating type are mixed. Cells agglutinate, the cell walls separating the cells degrade, and the plasma membranes fuse to form a single cell. Nuclear fusion occurs immediately upon cell fusion resulting in the formation of a diploid zygote. The sequential events leading to nuclear fusion in newly formed zygotes have been characterized by electron microscopy (BYERS and GOETSCH 1974, 1975). Movement of the two nuclei toward one another appears to be mediated by extranuclear microtubules emanating from each spindle pole body. Nuclear fusion appears to initiate at the sites of the spindle pole bodies on the nuclear envelopes.

Mutational analysis has identified several genes that are required for efficient nuclear fusion. These include KAR1, KAR2, KAR3 (CONDE and FINK 1976; FINK and CONDE 1976; POLAINA and CONDE 1982; Rose, Misra and Vogel 1989), TUB2 (THOMAS 1984; HUFFAKER, THOMAS and BOTSTEIN 1988), CDC4,CDC37 (DUTCHER and HARTWELL 1982, 1983), and BIK1 (BERLIN, STYLES and FINK 1990). The intracellular location of several of these gene products has been established, and it is clear that nuclear fusion requires the coordination of specific processes occurring in the endoplasmic reticulum, cytoplasm and nucleus. The ability of cells to properly coordinate these processes depends upon prior potentiation by mating pheromone (Rose, PRICE and FINK 1986; CUR-RAN and CARTER 1986).

The nucleotide sequence reported in this paper has been submitted to the GenBank™/EMBL Data Bank with the accession number X54717.

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Several studies demonstrate a critical role for microtubules and spindle pole body in nuclear fusion. Functional cytoplasmic microtubules are required for nuclear fusion. Benomyl, a drug which induces depolymerization of microtubules, inhibits nuclear fusion (Delgano and Conde 1984). Cold-sensitive mutations in the β-tubulin gene TUB2 (Thomas 1984; Huffaker, Thomas and Botstein 1988) block nuclear fusion. The BIK1 gene product is a microtubule associated protein (Berlin, Styles and Fink 1990). KAR3 encodes a kinesin homolog that associates with cytoplasmic microtubules (Meluh and Rose 1990).

The KAR1 gene product is thought to be a component of a multimeric complex, most likely the spindle pole body, because either under or over production of KAR1 results in an abnormally enlarged but unduplicated spindle pole body (Rose and Fink 1987). kar1 mutations result in the aberrant proliferation of both intra- and extranuclear microtubules. Overproduction of KAR1 leads to cell cycle arrest and a spindle plaque morphology similar to that observed in arrested cdc31 mutants (BYERS 1981). Quantitative mating studies with kar1-1 strains have shown that the frequency of diploid formation during mating is reduced by 85-90% as compared with KAR1 × KAR1 crosses (Conde and Fink 1976). Only 10–15% of Karzygotes from either $KAR1 \times kar1-1$ or $kar1-1 \times$ kar1-1 crosses fuse nuclei to form fully functional diploids (i.e., the kar1-1 mutant defect is unilateral).

We isolated new mutations, called *kem* (Kar⁻ enhancing mutations), that reduce or abolish the residual nuclear fusion of the *kar1-1* mutation. These mutations define at least three genes, KEM1, KEM2 and KEM3. Mutations in KEM1 affect several cellular func-

tions in addition to nuclear fusion, leading to reduced chromosome stability and defects in spindle pole body duplication and/or separation. Furthermore, mutant *hem1* yeast strains lose viability under conditions of nitrogen starvation and homozygous diploids are unable to sporulate.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains: The yeast strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Isogenic KEM1 and kem1-1 strains (JK204 and JK205) were derived from kem1-1 strain JK336 by the two step gene replacement method described by BOEKE et al. (1987). Strain JK336 was transformed with integration plasmid pJI61, and Ura Kem (JK204) and Ura kem (JK205) strains were obtained by counterselection on medium containing 5-fluoroorotic acid. KEM1 and kem1-5 strains (IK190) and JK191) were derived from kem1-5 strain JK335 by the same method. Though each pair of KEM1 and kem1 strains was made isogenic by transformation, the original kem1-1 and kem1-5 strains (JK336 and JK335) are not isogenic. Isogenic KEM1 and kem1 null (kem1 Δ 2::URA3, kem1\Delta3::LEU2) strains were derived by replacing the wildtype KEM1 segment on the chromosome with a disrupted copy of kem1 by gene replacement (ROTHSTEIN 1983). A linear BamHI-XhoI DNA fragment of pJI112 was transformed into KEM1 strain JK251 to construct kem1\Delta2::URA3 strain JK245. Similarly, a linear BamHI-XhoI DNA fragment of pJI113 was transformed into KEM1 strain JK251 to construct $kem 1\Delta 3:: LEU2$ strain JK246. $[\rho^0]$ segregants were obtained by growing $[\rho^+]$ strains in synthetic dextrose (SD) medium plus required amino acids containing 10 μg/ml ethidium bromide (SHERMAN, FINK and LAWRENCE 1979). Only nonsuppressive $[\rho^0]$ strains were used. Escherichia coli strains HB101 (BOYER and ROULLAND-DUSSOIX 1969) and JM109 (YANISCH-PERON, VIERA and MESSING 1985) were used for plasmid progagation and phagemid production.

Media and genetic analysis: Yeast media, culture conditions and tetrad analysis were as described by SHERMAN, FINK and LAWRENCE (1979). Genetic map distances were calculated according to MORTIMER and SCHILD (1981). Cycloheximide medium is YPG containing 3% glycerol as the sole carbon source and 3 µg/ml cycloheximide. Benomyl medium is YEPD containing either 10 or 15 μ g/ml benomyl. This medium was made by slowly adding a stock solution of benomyl (10 mg/ml in dimethyl sulfoxide, stored at -20°) to warm YEPD medium with vigorous swirling to prevent precipitation. Benomyl was a generous gift from E. I. Du Pont deMours and Co., Inc. Canavanine medium is synthetic complete (SC) without arginine to which 60 µg/ml canavanine sulfate has been added. Nitrogen starvation medium contained 0.17% Difco yeast nitrogen base (without amino acids and ammonium sulfate) and 2% glucose. Sporulation medium contained 1% potassium acetate with or without 0.1% glucose. Bacterial media were made as described by DAVIS, BOTSTEIN and ROTH (1980).

Transformation and DNA manipulation techniques: Yeast transformation was carried out by the lithium acetate method (ITO et al. 1983) using 50 µg of sonicated calf thymus DNA per transformation as carrier. Yeast transformants were selected by plating cells on appropriate selective media. Escherichia coli transformations were performed by either the procedure of MANDEL and HIGA (1970) or the method of HANAHAN (1985). Plasmid DNA from E. coli was obtained by the boiling lysis method (HOLMES and QUIGLEY 1981). Plasmids from yeast were isolated and passaged through E. coli as described by HOFFMAN and WINSTON (1987). Yeast

TABLE 1
Yeast strains used

Strain	Genotype
JK77	MATa ura3 leu1 ade2 can1 cyh2
JK78	MATa ura3 ade2 can1 cyh2 kar1-1
JK130	MATα ura3-52 his4-29 kem3-1 kar1-1
JK132	MATα ura3-52 his4-29 kar1-1
JK136	MATα ura3-52 his4-29 kem3-1
JK137	MATα ura3-52 his4-29
JK156	$MAT\alpha$ his 4-29 kem 1-1
JK158	MATα his4-29 ade2 can1 kem1-1 kar1-1
JK190	MATα ura3-52 his4-29 cyh2
JK191	MATα ura3-52 his4-29 cyh2 kem1-5
JK196	$MAT\alpha \ ura3-52 \ his4-29 \ cyh2 \ [ho^0]$
JK197	$MAT\alpha\ ura3-52\ his4-29\ cyh2\ kem1-5\ [ho^0]$
JK200	MAT a /MATα ura 3-52/ura 3-52 trp1-1/trp1-1 lys2-801/
	lys2-801
JK204	MATα ura3-52 his4-29
JK205	MATα ura3-52 his4-29 kem1-1
JK217	MATa trp1-1 ade2 leu2-3,112 cyh2 $[\rho^{\theta}]$
JK218	MATa trp1-1 ade2 leu2-3,112 cyh2 kar1-1 [ρ^0]
JK219	$MAT\alpha trp 1-1 ade2 cyh2 [\rho^0]$
JK245	MATα ura3-52 his4-34 leu2-3,112 kem1Δ2::URA3
JK246	MATα ura3-52 his4-34 leu2-3, 112 kem1Δ3::LEU2
JK251	MATα ura 3-52 his 4-34 leu 2-3,112
JK278	MATα ura3-52 his4-34 leu2-3,112 (pJI98)
JK280	MATα ura3-52 his4-34 leu2-3,112 hem1Δ3::LEU2 (YEp24)
JK282	MATα ura3-52 his4-34 leu2-3,112 kem1Δ3::LEU2
	(pJI98)
JK301	MATα ura3-52 his4-29 ade2 cry1 kem2-1
JK306	MATα ura3-52 lys5 kem1-1
JK311	MATa his4-29 cyh2
JK313	$MAT\alpha$ his 4-29 cyh2 kem 1-5 $[\rho^0]$
JK314	MATa leu1 ade2 kem1-5
JK315	MATa leu2-3,112 his1 can1
JK316	MATa leu2-3,112 his1 can1 kem1-5
JK326	$MATa/MAT\alpha \ ura3-52/+ \ trp1-1/+ \ +/leu2-3,112 \ +/$
****	his 1 + / can 1
JK327	$MATa/MAT\alpha \ ura3-52/+ \ trp1-1/+ \ +/leu2-3,112 \ +/$
waaa	his 1 + /can 1 + /kem 1 - 1
JK328	$MATa/MAT\alpha \ ura3-52/+ \ trp1-1/+ +/leu2-3,112 +/$
11/900	his1 +/can1 +/kem1-5
JK329	$MATa/MAT\alpha$ ura 3-52/+ trp1-1/+ leu2-3,112/leu2-
IV 9 9 O	3,112 + his1 + can1 kem1-1/kem1-1
JK330	$MATa/MAT\alpha + /ura3-52 + /his4-29 + /cyh2 leu2-3,112/$ + $his1/+ can1/+ kem1-5/kem1-5$
JK331	$MATa/MAT\alpha$ $ura3-52/+$ $trp1-1/+$ $leu2-3,112/leu2-$
JK331	$3,112 + /his1 + /can1 \ hem1-1/hem1-5$
JK335	MATα ura3-52 his4-29 cyh2 kem1-5
JK336	MATα ura3-52 his4-29 leu1-1 kem1-1
JK340	MATα his4-29 cyh2 kem1-1
6947-2B	MATa leu2-3 lys1-1 met3
7523-6A	MATα leu2-3 lys1-1 kar1-1
5916-6a	MATa his4-29
F760 ^b	MATa ura3-52 trp1-1 lys2-801

^a Strains designated JK were constructed for this study.

DNA was prepared as described by BOEKE et al. (1985). Restriction endonuclease analysis and agarose gel electrophoresis were carried out as described in MANIATIS, FRITSCH and SAMBROOK (1982).

Isolation of mutants: Two schemes for isolating mutants were used. In scheme 1, strain JK77 (Kar⁺) cells were

b Obtained from D. BOTSTEIN.

mutagenized with ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) as described by FINK (1970). Cells were diluted and spread on YEPD plates such that after incubation at 30° for 3 days 200 colonies formed per plate. Colonies were mated to a lawn of strain 6947-2B (KAR1) and to a lawn of strain 7523-6A (kar1-1). Mating plates were incubated at 30° for 4 h, and then diploids were selected by replica-plating these mating plates onto minimal SD medium. Colonies which formed diploids at the wild-type level in KAR1 crosses but not in kar1-1 crosses were considered putative mutants and characterized further.

In scheme 2, strain JK78 (kar1-1) cells were mutagenized and spread on YEPD plates as described in scheme 1, but plates were incubated at 24°. Colonies were mated to a lawn of strain 6947-2B (KAR1) at two different temperatures, 24° and 34°. After incubation, mating plates were replicaplated onto minimal SD media and diploids were allowed to grow at 24°. Colonies unable to form diploids at 34° were picked and rescreened by microscopic examination to eliminate steriles. Colonies capable of forming zygotes were considered putative kem mutants.

Assays of cytoduction, chromosome loss and mitotic recombination: Cytoduction assays (DUTCHER 1982) were performed using yeast strains with the desired Kem and Kar genotypes in either of the following genetic backgrounds; $MAT\alpha$ Cyh^s[ρ^+] or Mata Cyh^r[ρ^0]. The appropriate strains were then crossed, and Cyh^r[ρ^+] cytoductants were selected on medium containing a nonfermentable carbon source and cycloheximide. The presumed cytoductants were considered to be haploid if they had the nutritional requirements of the parental MATa strain and could mate with $Mat\alpha$ tester strains. Only haploid cells were counted as cytoductants. The frequency of diploid formation was monitored by assaying the complementation of auxotrophic markers present in the haploid parents.

The frequency of chromosome loss and mitotic recombination on chromosome V was measured by the method of HARTWELL and SMITH (1985). In this method chromosome V is marked on one arm with the can1 mutation, which confers recessive resistance to canavanine, and on the other by the auxotrophic marker his1. A strain is constructed which is heterozygous for can1 and his1, and therefore, phenotypically Can's His+. Loss of chromosome V results in Can'His cells, whereas mitotic recombination on one arm results in Can'His⁺ cells. Three clones of each diploid strain from SD media were streaked on SC medium and incubated at 30°. Six to eight colonies (about 10⁶ cells per colony) were assayed from each diploid strain. Individual colonies were cut from the plate on a block of agar, resuspended in 1 ml of 0.85% saline, and sonicated to disrupt clumps of cells. Appropriate dilutions were plated onto SC medium to determine the total number of viable cells and onto canavanine medium to select for canavanine resistance cells. The canavanine resistant colonies arising on canavanine medium were replica-plated onto histidine dropout medium (SC without histidine) to obtain the frequency of His (chromosome loss) and His+ (mitotic recombination and chromosome loss) colonies.

Cloning of KEM1: The KEM1 gene was isolated by its ability to complement the benomyl sensitivity and nuclear fusion defect of a kem1 strain. Strain JK336 (ura3-52, his4-29, leu1, kem1-1) was transformed with DNA from a plasmid yeast genomic library constructed in the YCp50 vector (Rose et al. 1987). Ura+ transformants were selected at 30° then replica-plated onto benomyl medium and incubated overnight at 26°. Two of 16,000 transformants were identified as being benomyl-resistant. Both benomyl-resistant transformants formed diploids when crossed with a kar1-1

strain. Plasmids pJI43 and pJI44 were recovered from these benomyl-resistant strains. Each plasmid complemented both *kem1-1* and *kem1-5* alleles. Restriction endonuclease analysis of pJI43 and pJI44 identified a 9.2-kb overlapping yeast DNA fragment.

Plasmid constructions: Plasmid pJI82 was constructed by inserting the 5.8-kb PvuII-HindIII fragment of KEM1 into BamHI and HindIII digested YCp50 (JOHNSTON and DAVIS 1984); the BamHI site was regenerated. Plasmid pJI74 contains the 7.5-kb PvuII-NruI fragment of KEM1 inserted into BamHI and NruI digested YCp50; the BamHI site was regenerated. A high copy vector containing KEM1, pJI98, was constructed by inserting the 8.2-kb BamHI-XhoI fragment into BamHI and SalI digested YEp24 (BOTSTEIN et al. 1979). The integration plasmid, pJI61, was constructed by inserting the 9.1-kb BamHI-NruI fragment of KEM1 into BamHI and NruI digested YIp5 (BOTSTEIN et al. 1979). A URA3 marked gene disruption plasmid pJI90 ($hem 1\Delta 1::URA3$) was constructed by replacing the internal KEM1 1.6-kb PvuII-BstEII fragment in plasmid pJI74 with a 1.1-kb HindIII fragment containing the URA3 gene. Disruption plasmid pJI112 (kem1Δ2::URA3) was constructed by replacing the internal KEM1 3.3 kb SnaBI fragment in plasmid pJI74 with a 1.1-kb HindIII fragment containing the URA3 gene. Plasmid pJI113, containing a LEU2 marked gene disruption of KEM1 (kem $1\Delta3::LEU2$), was constructed by inserting a SalI-XhoI fragment containing the LEU2 gene between the SnaBI sites of plasmid pJI74.

DNA sequencing: The 5.8-kb BamHI-HindIII fragment from plasmid pJI82, which corresponds to the 5.8-kb PvuII-HindIII genomic DNA fragment (Fig. 4), was subcloned in both directions into the SmaI site of pUC118 (VIERA and MESSING 1987). Nested deletions of the insert fragment were generated by digestion with ExoIII as described by HENIKOFF (1984) except that ExoVII was substituted for S1 nuclease. Single stranded phagemid DNA was prepared as described by VIERA and MESSING (1987) and sequenced by the dideoxy chain termination method of SANGER, NICKLEN and COULSEN (1977).

Preparation and analysis of RNA: Total nucleic acid was prepared by the method of ELDER, LOH and DAVIS (1983). Formaldehyde denatured RNAs were fractionated by electrophoresis through a 1.2% agarose gel and transferred to nitrocellulose as described by MANIATIS, FRITSCH and SAMBROOK (1982). RNA blots were washed and hybridized with labeled probes (FEINBERG and VOGELSTEIN 1983) under conditions of high stringency following protocol b as described by DAVIS, BOTSTEIN and ROTH (1980). Band sizes were determined by comparison to a RNA ladder from Bethesda Research Laboratories (Life Technologies, Inc., Gaithersburg, MD), 25S and 18S rRNA bands. S1 mapping was carried out with uniformly labeled single stranded cDNA under conditions described by WEAVER and WEISSMAN (1979).

Protein manipulations: Total yeast protein was obtained by trichloroacetic acid precipitation as described by OHASHI et al. (1982). Total and insoluble E. coli proteins were extracted according to KOERNER et al. (1990). Protein extracts were fractionated by electrophoresis through gels containing a 7–12.5% linear gradient of acrylamide stabilized within a 3–12% sucrose gradient as described by LAEMMLI (1970), except that SDS was omitted from gel and lower electrode buffer. Fractionated proteins were electrophoretically transferred to nitrocellulose sheets by the method of TOWBIN, STAEHELIN and GORDON (1979). Immunoblots were blocked for 4 hr with a solution containing 5% instant nonfat milk, 0.2% Tween 20 in PBS (137 mm NaCl, 3 mm KCl, 7 mm Na₂HPO₄, 1.5 mm KH₂PO₄) and

rinsed with 0.2% Tween 20 in PBS. Rinsed blots were incubated 4 hr with antiserum diluted 1:500 in 0.2% Tween 20 in PBS. The blots were then washed five times with blocking solution containing 0.1% Triton X-100, 0.02% SDS and 1 mm EDTA. Immunoreactive bands were visualized after incubation with protein A-gold and subsequent silver enhancement (Bio-Rad Laboratories).

Preparation of antibody to the KEM1 gene product: An inframe gene fusion between the E. coli trpE gene and KEM1 was made by ligating the 3' ClaI-HindIII fragment of KEM1 into the ClaI site of pATH10 (KOERNER et al. 1990). The resulting plasmid encoded a hybrid protein containing the first 324 amino acids of the TrpE protein and 18 polylinker amino acids fused to the carboxy-terminal 408 amino acids of the Kem1 protein. Induction of the trpE operon with indoleacrylic acid (SPINDLER, ROSSER and BERK 1984) resulted in the overexpression of a 79-kD fusion protein, a size in accord with the predicted molecular mass of the hybrid fusion protein based on known sequence data. The trpE-KEM1 fusion protein was recovered in the insoluble protein fraction as described by KOERNER et al. (1990) and partially purified by preparative electrophoresis (LAEMMLI 1970). Gel strips containing the fusion protein were forced through an 18 gauge needle and incubated overnight at 65° in 10 ml of 25 mm Tris, 190 mm glycine and 0.1% SDS. The fusion protein, which was quantitatively recovered in the supernatant and two subsequent washes of the gel matrix, was concentrated by ultrafiltration using a PM30 centricon filtration unit (Amicon Div., W. R. Grace & Co., Danvers, Massachusetts). Forty microgram of fusion protein was emulsified in synthetic adjuvant (RIBI Immunochem Research, Inc., Hamilton, Montana) and injected intraperitoneally into mice. After three weeks a similar injection was given as a boost and blood was collected six days later.

Staining of nuclei with DAPI: DAPI (4',6'-diamino-2-phenylindole, Accurate Chemical and Scientific Corp., Westbury, New York) was used to reveal the position of the nucleus in newly formed zygotes. Cells were prepared as described by DUTCHER (1982). A sample of 1×10^7 cells were suspended in 1 ml of Carnoy fixative (3:1, methanol:glacial acetic acid) and fixed at room temperature for 30 min. The cells were washed twice with 0.85% saline, resuspended in 1 ml of 1 μ g/ml DAPI solution and incubated at room temperature for 45 min. The cells were washed twice with 0.85% NaCl, sonicated briefly to disrupt clumps of cells and examined by fluorescence microscopy.

Immunofluorescence: Microtubules were visualized by indirect immunofluorescence microscopy using antitubulin antibodies as described by ADAMS and PRINGLE (1984) with some modifications. Cells $(1-5 \times 10^7)$ were resuspended in 10 ml of 0.1 M potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.5, and fixed at room temperature for 2 hr after the addition of 1 ml of 37% formaldehyde. Cells were washed twice with 0.1 M potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.5, after which cells were washed and resuspended in 1 ml of buffer A (1.2 M sorbitol, 0.1 M potassium phosphate buffer, pH 6.5). Five microliters of β -mercaptoethanol and 30 μ l of zymolyase (10 mg/ml, 60K activity, Kirin Brewing Co., Japan) were added to the cell suspension in order to digest cell walls. After 1.5hr incubation at 30° with gentle shaking, cells were washed once and resuspended in 3 ml of buffer A. Fifteen microliters of cell suspension was applied to a well of a polylysine coated slide (8-well slides, Flow Laboratories, Inc., McLean, Virginia). After 20 min, the wells were gently aspirated and the slides were immersed in cold methanol (-20°) for 6 min and placed immediately into cold acetone (-20°) for 30 sec. The cells were washed with buffer B (10 mg/ml bovine serum albumin, 1.2 m sorbitol, 0.1 m potassium phosphate,

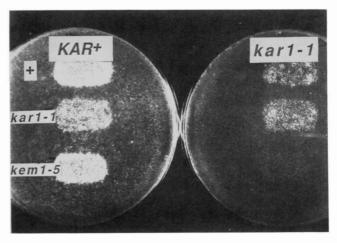


FIGURE 1.—The nuclear fusion defect in *kem* mutants as measured by a plate mating assay. Patches of strains grown on a YEPD plate were mated to a lawn of *KAR* or *kar1-1* cells. After incubation at 30° for 4 hr, plates were replica-plated onto YNB plates to select for diploids. From the top, the patches are *KEM1 KAR1* (JK137), *KEM1 kar1-1* (JK132), and *kem1-5 KAR1* (JK191). Strains on the plate on the left were mated with a *KAR1* lawn (6947-2B) and strains on the plate on the right were mated with a *kar1-1* lawn (7523-6A).

pH 6.5) and 15 μl of a 1:40 dilution of YOL1/34 (rat antitubulin antibody, Accurate Chemical and Scientific Corp.) in buffer B was added to each well. The slides were then incubated in a moist chamber at room temperature for 1 hr. Cells were washed four times with buffer B and 15 μl of a 1:500 dilution of rhodamine-conjugated anti-rat antibodies (Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals) in buffer B was added to each well. After incubation at room temperature in the dark for 1 hr, cells were washed four times with buffer B and 15 μl of a 1 mg/ml DAPI solution was added to stain nuclear DNA. After 5 min, cells were washed with buffer A and coverslips were mounted with *p*-phenylenediamine in 90% glycerol. Cells were examined by fluorescence microscopy.

RESULTS

Isolation of kem mutants: Mutations called kem (Kar enhancing mutations) were isolated that lower the ability of kar1-1 cells to form diploids. Since KEM kar1-1 cells form diploids at a discernible frequency, mutants exhibiting a reduced ability to form diploids can be identified by a simple replica plate mating assay (see Figure 1). Two screens were used to identify kem mutants. In the first screen, Kar+ cells were mutagenized and mutant isolates that lowered the frequency of diploid formation in crosses with kar1-1 cells were identified. In the second, mutagenized kar1-1 strains were screened and kem kar1-1 double mutants which lowered the frequency of diploid formation in crosses with KAR1 cells were obtained. Eight independent kem mutants were isolated in screens of 26,000 EMS mutagenized cells. Four of these strains were examined further because they exhibited a reduction in diploid formation that could be followed easily in subsequent crosses. The Kem⁻ phenotype associated with these four strains segregated 2.2 in tetrads, indicating in each case that the Kem⁻ phenotype resulted from a single nuclear mutation. In a KAR1 background, all the Kem⁻ mutants are defective in diploid formation in crosses with kar1-1, even though one of the mutants (kem3) was isolated in a kar1-1 background (scheme 2). Strains carrying kem3-1 are temperature sensitive for growth at 37° on complete medium. The temperature sensitivity of kem3-1 cosegregates with the defect in diploid formation (examined at 34°) suggesting that KEM3 encodes a vital function.

kem mutations define three genes: Functional tests were assessed by constructing diploids that were capable of mating; KEM/kem diploids for dominance tests and hemx/hemy diploids for complementation tests. These strains were derived from diploids heterozygous for the cry1 allele (cry1 is recessive and tightly linked to the MAT locus). Diploids homozygous for the mating locus were selected on cryptopleurine plates (YEPD containing 1 μ g/ml cryptopleurine). Once these strains were constructed, the Kem phenotype of each of these diploids was determined; failure to give a mating response with a kar1-1 strain was diagnostic of the Kem⁻ phenotype. The four kem mutations analyzed are recessive. kem1-1 and kem1-5 mutations failed to complement, whereas kem2 and kem3 complemented each other as well as kem1-1 and kem 1-5 mutations. These results suggest that there are at least three KEM complementation groups and that kem1-1 and kem1-5 are functionally identical. Subsequent tetrad analysis indicated that the KEM1, KEM2 and KEM3 complementation groups represent three distinct genetic loci.

Mapping of KEM1 and KEM3: Both KEM1 and KEM3 were initially mapped by hybridization to whole yeast chromosomes separated by pulse field electrophoresis (CARLE and OLSON 1985). Full length chromosomes, isolated from yeast strains with fragmented chromosomes VII (VOLLRATH et al. 1988) were electrophoretically separated, transferred to a nitrocellulose filter, and hybridized with radioactively labeled probes specific to either KEM1 or KEM3 (see subsequent section for cloning of KEM1 and see KIM (1988) for cloning of KEM3). Both probes hybridized to DNA sequences located on the left arm of chromosome VII.

To determine the precise chromosomal location of *KEM1* and *KEM3*, we carried out crosses involving known markers on the left arm of chromosome *VII* and analyzed the resulting tetrads. Mapping data presented in Table 2 establish the gene order and map distances (centimorgans) as follows: *CEN VII-met13*-(16 cM)-*kem3*-(22 cM)-*lys5*-(16 cM)-*kem1*.

kem mutations reduce nuclear fusion: To verify that decreased diploid formation in $kem \times kar1-1$

TABLE 2
Genetic mapping of kem1 and kem3

	Segre (nun	Map distance		
Gene pair	PD	NPD	TT	(cM)
kem 1-lys 5	60	0	27	16
lys5-kem3	112	2	67	22
kem 1-kem 3	30	7	36	53
kem3-met13	32	0	15	16

^a PD, parental ditype; NPD, nonparental ditype; TT, tetratype.

crosses results from enhancement of the Kar- defect rather than from a defect in zygote formation or zygote viability, we assayed failure of nuclear fusion directly. Failure to complete nuclear fusion would result in the formation of cytoductants, haploid progeny which contain the nuclear genotype of one parent and the cytoplasmic components of both parents. The ratio of cytoductants to diploids is an indication of the efficiency of nuclear fusion during mating. We measured the cytoductants as $cyh^r[\rho^+]$ cells in a cross of $\cosh[\rho^+] \times \cosh[\rho^0]$ cells. Table 3 summarizes the results of quantitative cytoduction experiments with a set of kem strains. The cytoductant to diploid ratio in crosses with kar1-1 strains was found to be between 5 and 6 (Table 3; lines 1 and 2), consistent with previously reported values (DUTCHER 1982, DUTCHER and HARTWELL 1982). In crosses of kem \times kar1-1 or kem $kar1-1 \times KAR$, the cytoductant to diploid ratio increased substantially (Table 3; lines 3-5 and 6-7, respectively). The kem1 and kem3 mutations lead to elevated cytoduction frequencies whether or not they are in the same nucleus as kar1-1 (Table 3; compare lines 3 and 6, lines 5 and 7). In crosses to a wild-type strain the kem mutants do not show a significant reduction in nuclear fusion. These results confirm that kem mutations reduce the residual diploid formation of the kar1-1 mutation primarily by reducing nuclear

Further evidence that kem mutations reduce nuclear fusion was obtained by direct microscopic observation. Mutant kem \times kar1-1 or kem kar1-1 \times KAR crosses were incubated for 3-4 hr after which cells were fixed and stained with DAPI. Zygote formation (cell-cell fusion) in mutant crosses occurred at rates observed in wild-type crosses (data not shown). The number of zygotes with a single nucleus and the number of zygotes with two unfused nuclei were counted (Table 4). In $kem \times kar1-1$ or $kem kar1-1 \times KAR$ crosses, fewer than 1% of the zygotes contain nuclei that have fused (Table 4, lines 3-6). Fifteen percent of zygotes resulting from KEM kar1-1 crosses have visibly fused nuclei (Table 4, lines 1 and 2). The results obtained by the direct visualization of nuclear fusion supports the conclusions obtained from mating tests (Figure 1) and

TABLE 3
The ratio of cytoductant to diploid formation in crosses of kem and kar1-1 mutants

	$MATa\ cyh^{r}\ [ho^{0}]$ parent		
$MAT\alpha \ CYH^{s} [\rho^{+}]$ parent	KAR (JK217)	kar1-1 (JK218)	
1. KEM KAR ([K137)	$0.001 (0.0006/0.6)^a$	5.0 (0.10/0.02)	
2. kar1-1 (JK132)	5.0 (0.15/0.03)	6.3 (0.19/0.03)	
3. kem 1-1 (JK156)	0.005 (0.0009/0.19)	200 (0.10/0.0005)	
4. kem2-1 (JK301)	0.001 (0.0003/0.25)	40 (0.10/0.0025)	
5. kem3-1 (JK136)	0.007 (0.002/0.28)	26 (0.18/0.007)	
6. kem1-1 kar1-1 (JK158)	180 (0.09/0.0005)	800 (0.08/0.00001)	
7. kem 3-1 kar 1-1 (JK130)	28 (0.11/0.004)	32 (0.16/0.005)	

^a Data in parentheses are frequencies of cytoductant and diploid formation. Cytoductant frequency = (Cyh^r [ρ ⁺] colonies/total colonies). Diploid frequency = (prototrophic colonies/total colonies).

TABLE 4

Percentage of zygotes with a single nucleus in crosses of kem and kar1-1 mutants as measured by DAPI staining

	$MATa [\rho^0]$ parent		
$MAT\alpha \left[\rho^{+} \right]$ parent	KAR1 (JK217)	kar1-1 (JK218)	
1. KEM KAR (JK137)	$98 (197)^a$	16 (118)	
2. kar1-1 (JK132)	15 (213)	14 (79)	
3. kem 1-1 (JK156)	90 (136)	0 (205)	
4. kem 3-1 (JK136)	100 (125)	1 (139)	
5. kem 1-1 kar 1-1 (JK 158)	0 (139)	0 (62)	
6. kem3-1 kar1-1 (JK130)	0 (109)	0 (48)	

^a The number of zygotes examined are shown in parentheses.

measurement of the frequency of cytoduction (Table 3).

kem1 has a bilateral nuclear fusion defect: Nuclear fusion defects are defined as bilateral, if both mating partners of a cross must be mutant for nuclear fusion to fail, or unilateral, if only one partner must be mutant for nuclear fusion to fail. Strains carrying kar1-1 show a unilateral defect (Conde and Fink 1976), whereas β-tubulin mutants exhibit a bilateral fusion defect (Huffaker, Thomas and Botstein 1988). Nuclear fusion occurs normally in KAR $kem1 \times KAR$ KEM1 crosses, and thus kem1 mutations do not appear to have unilateral defects (see Tables 3 and 4).

In order to determine whether the kem1 mutations exhibited mating defects independent of kar1-1, KAR kem1 strains were intercrossed. Examination of the distribution of nuclear DNA in zygotes by fluorescence microscopy showed that nuclear fusion is defective in $kem1 \times kem1$ crosses, whereas nuclear fusion is normal in crosses of $kem1 \times KEM1$. Zygotes from crosses of $kem1 \times KEM1$ (Figure 2, panels C and D) appeared similar to those from the wild-type cross $KEM1 \times KEM1$ (Figure 2, panels A and B). Matings in these crosses resulted in a zygote with a single bright DAPI staining region. However, in $kem1 \times kem1$ crosses approximately 20–30% of zygotes appeared to have unfused nuclei (Figure 2, panels E-

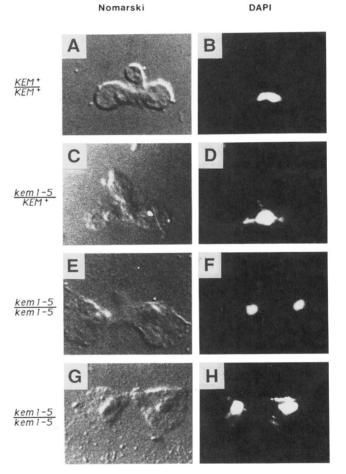


FIGURE 2.—Photomicrographs of zygotes from $KEM1 \times KEM1$ and $kem1 \times kem1$ crosses. Each row of photomicrographs represents the same zygote observed by Nomarski optics and DAPI staining. Zygotes are from the following crosses: $KEM1 \times KEM1$ (JK219 \times JK311) panels A and B; $kem1-5 \times KEM1$ (JK313 \times JK311) panels C and D; $kem1-5 \times kem1-5$ (JK313 \times JK314) panels E–H.

H). These results suggest that *kem1* has a bilateral nuclear fusion defect.

The ratio of cytoductant to diploid formation was measured in crosses of $KEM1 \times KEM1$, $kem1-5 \times KEM1$, and $kem1-5 \times kem1-5$ (Table 5). In a $kem1-5 \times kem1-5$ cross the cytoductant to diploid ratio is increased 20-fold as compared to the ratio observed in

TABLE 5

The ratio of cytoductant to diploid formation in crosses of *kem1-5* mutants

Cross	Relevant genotype	Cytoductant frequency ^a	Diploid frequency ^b	Cytoductant/ diploid
$JK196 \times JK315$	$KEM1 \times KEM1$	0.0008	0.45	0.002
$JK196 \times JK316$	$KEM1 \times kem1-5$	0.0009	0.28	0.003
$JK197 \times JK315$	$kem 1-5 \times KEM1$	0.001	0.31	0.005
$JK197 \times JK316$	$kem 1-5 \times kem 1-5$	0.02	0.18	0.11

JK196 and JK197 are isogenic strains; JK315 and JK316 are derived from sister spores.

^b Prototrophic colonies/total colonies.

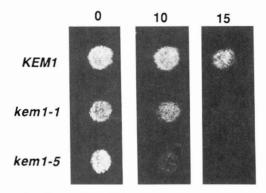


FIGURE 3.—Benomyl sensitivity of kem1 strains. Growth of KEM1 (JK204), kem1-1 (JK205), and kem1-5 (JK191) yeast strains on media containing 0, 10, and 15 μ g/ml of benomyl. The plates were incubated for 2 days at 30° and photographed.

a $kem1-5 \times KEM1$ cross. These results are consistent with our cytological observations (Figure 2) and provide quantitative genetic evidence that kem1 has a bilateral nuclear fusion defect. It is important to emphasize that kem1 mutations have no apparent effect on the frequency of cell fusion.

KEM1 mutants are benomyl sensitive and lose chromosomes: The growth of kem1 mutants was compared with that of an isogenic KEM1 wild-type strain at various concentrations of benomyl to determine whether there was any differential sensitivity. Benomyl inhibits the growth of kem1 mutants at concentrations (10 μ g/ml) that do not affect the growth of the wild-type strain (Figure 3). The benomyl hypersensitive phenotype and the kem1 mutation cosegregate 2:2 in tetrads from a $kem1 \times KEM1$ cross (results not shown).

Benomyl sensitivity has been associated with mutations that increase the frequency of chromosome loss (Huffaker, Hoyt and Botstein 1987; Huffaker, Thomas and Botstein 1988; Hoyt, Stearns and Botstein 1990). We measured the frequency that mitotically growing diploid cells lose chromosome V (Table 6). Wild-type and heterozygous kem1 diploids (KEM1/KEM1, KEM1/kem1-1,and KEM1/kem1-5) lost chromosome V at a frequency of $1-3 \times 10^{-5}$. kem1-1/kem1-1, kem1-1/kem1-5, and kem1-5/kem1-5 diploids lost chromosome V at a frequency of $20-30 \times 10^{-5}$. These results indicate that there is a 10-20-fold in-

TABLE 6
Frequency of chromosome loss and mitotic recombination in
kem1/kem1 diploids

Diploid strain	Chromosome loss ^a	Mitotic recombination ^t
KEM1/KEM1 (JK326)	1.2	2.30
KEM1/kem1-1 (JK327)	1.1	0.93
KEM1/kem1-5 (JK328)	3.2	1.61
kem 1-1/kem 1-1 (JK329)	22.9	1.18
kem 1-5/kem 1-5 (JK330)	16.4	1.87
kem 1-1/kem 1-5 (JK331)	27.7	1.51

Numbers listed are averages of 6–8 independent experiments.

^a (Number of Can^r His⁻ cells)/(total number of diploid cells) × 10⁵

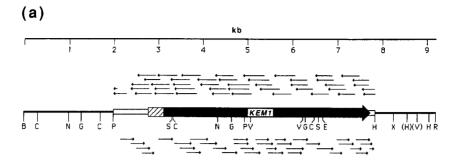
crease in the frequency of chromosome loss in *kem1* homozygous diploids and that this phenotype is recessive. Mitotic recombination in either *KEM1/kem1* or *kem1/kem1* strains occurred at frequencies similar to that observed in *KEM1/KEM1* diploids.

Cloning of *KEM1*: We cloned the *KEM1* gene by complementation of the benomyl sensitivity of *kem1* strains. A *kem1* strain was transformed with a genomic yeast library and two benomyl resistant transformants were obtained. These transformants simultaneously gained benomyl resistance and the ability to form stable diploids when crossed with a *kar1-1* strain. Plasmids from these strains were recovered in *E. coli* and purified. These plasmids complemented both *kem1-1* and *kem1-5* alleles upon retransformation. The restriction map of the 9.2-kb overlapping DNA fragment is shown in Figure 4a.

To demonstrate that the cloned sequence contains the *KEM1* gene, we determined whether this DNA sequence could integrate along with the plasmid vector at the *KEM1* chromosomal locus by homologous recombination. The 9.2-kb *BamHI-NruI* fragment was subcloned into the integrating vector YIp5 (pJI61). This vector carries the *URA3* marker as well as the pBR322 sequence and can only give stable transformants by integration into the genome. Ura⁺ transformants, obtained by transforming strain F760 (*KEM1 ura3-52*) with plasmid pJI61, were crossed to a strain of genotype *kem1-1 ura3-52* (JK336) and to a

^a Cyh^r [ρ^+] colonies/total colonies.

 $[^]b\,({\rm Number~of~Can^r~His^+~cells})/({\rm total~number~of~diploid~cells}) \times 10^4.$



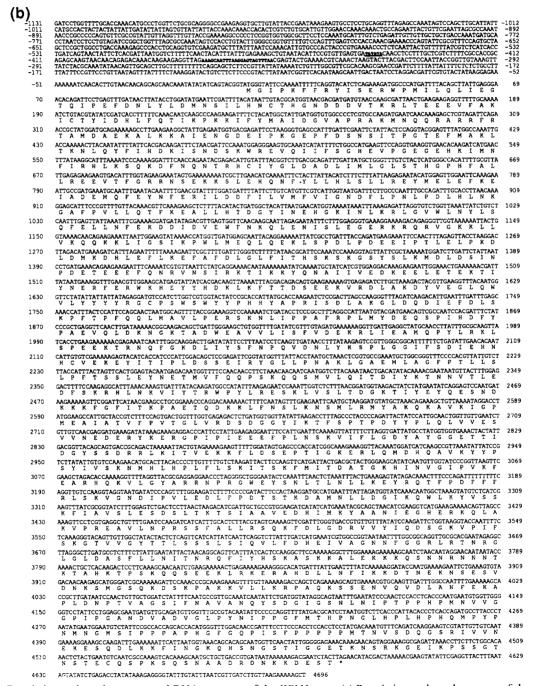


FIGURE 4.—Restriction endonuclease map and DNA sequence of the KEM1 gene. (a) Restriction endonuclease map of the 9.2-kb BamHI-NruI genomic DNA fragment containing the yeast KEM1 gene. The 5.8-kb PvuII-HindIII DNA fragment was sequenced (open boxed

strain of genotype kem1-5 ura3-52 (JK337). Diploids from each cross were sporulated and 20 tetrads from each cross were dissected. In each tetrad, the two Ura+ spores were benomyl-resistant and the two Ura- spores were benomyl sensitive. These results demonstrate that the cloned sequence complementing the kem1 mutations had integrated at the KEM1 locus by homologous recombination, and confirm that the cloned DNA fragment contained the authentic KEM1 gene.

Portions of the isolated genomic fragment were subcloned into the YCp50 vector. The smallest fragment of DNA tested that maintained full complementing activity was a 5.8-kb PvuII-HindIII fragment (pJI82). Construction of frameshift mutations at the NcoI site and a BstEII site within this fragment destroyed complementing activity, as did deletion of the 1.6-kb BglII fragment. Therefore, the NcoI, BglII, and BstEII sites are internal to the complementing gene.

DNA and predicted protein sequences of KEM1 gene: The nucleotide sequence of the KEM1 gene was determined by DNA sequence analysis of the 5.8-kb genomic PvuII-HindIII fragment (Figure 4b). An open reading frame of 4,583 base pairs beginning with the initiation codon ATG was found. The location and directionality of the open reading frame corresponds to that predicted by insertional-mutagenesis (data not shown) and restriction endonuclease mapping data. The KEM1 open reading frame is capable of encoding a protein comprised of 1528 amino acids with the predicted molecular mass of 175 kD and a pI = 7.19 (FINER-MOORE et al. 1989). KEM1 showed no significant homology with any proteins in the National Biomedical Research Foundation (NBRF) protein data bases and the GenBank nucleic acid data base using homology comparison programs FASTA and TFASTA (PEARSON and LIPMAN 1988).

KEM1 mRNA and protein analysis: RNA blothybridization analysis revealed a single RNA species in total RNA isolated from strains containing a functional KEM1 gene (Figure 5). The observed 5.5-kb transcript is substantially longer than the identified 4.58-kb KEM1 open reading frame. S1-nuclease protection experiments with two independent single stranded DNA probes each with complementary sequences 5' to the KEM1 open reading frame, one

beginning within the open reading frame at nucleotide +148 and the other beginning at nucleotide -100, identified a region in which transcription of KEM1 mRNA initiates (data not shown). This region, nucleotides -372 to -337, is approximately 90 nucleotides downstream from a putative TATA box (Figure 4b). The amount of KEM1 RNA observed was proportional to the copy number of KEM1 gene (compare lanes 1, 3 and 5 of Figure 5). RNA isolated from kem1 deletion strains did not contain sequences that hybridized to the KEM1 probe.

The observed molecular weight of the KEM1 protein correlates well with that predicted by DNA sequence analysis. The KEM1 protein can be overproduced and visualized upon SDS-polyacrylamide electrophoresis of total yeast protein. An intensely stained band of approximately 165-kD molecular mass was observed in strains containing the KEM1 gene in high copy (JK278 and JK282). Immunoblot analysis, using antiserum raised against a trpE::KEM1 encoded fusion protein, detected the same 165-kD band in total yeast protein extracts from strains with one or multiple copies of KEM1 (data not shown). The amount of protein observed was proportional to the amount of KEM1 RNA (Figure 5). Overproduction of KEM1, at the levels we observed, did not have deleterious effects on growth.

Disruption of KEM1: Diploid yeast strain JK200 was transformed with a linear BamHI-XhoI fragment derived from plasmid pJI90. Ura+ diploid transformants were selected, sporulated and tetrads dissected. All four spores derived from this diploid were viable, however, two spore derived colonies from each tetrad grew extremely slowly. The bottom array in Figure 6 shows the 2:2 segregation of this slow growth phenotype. The URA3 disruption marker and the slow growth phenotype co-segregated indicating that the slow growth phenotype is due to disruption of the KEM1 gene. This result was confirmed by Southern blot analysis of DNA obtained from the slow growing spore derived colonies. Genomic DNA was prepared from strain JK200, a Ura+ diploid transformant and each of the four spores from a single tetrad. The altered DNA pattern co-segregated with the slow growth phenotype (data not shown). Southern blot experiments with genomic yeast DNA at both low and high stringency indicate that the KEM1 gene is present

region), the phagemid templates from which sequence data was obtained are diagramed above and below the map. The 5' and 3' flanking regions that have not been sequenced are depicted as thin solid lines. The 4.58-kb KEM1 open reading frame is shown as a solid arrow, and the 5' untranslated sequence present in KEM1 mRNA is shown as the cross-hatched region. Restriction endonuclease sites are labelled as follows: B, BamH1; C, Cla1; E, BstEII; G, BglII; H, HindIII; N, NcoI; P, PvuII; R, NruII; S, SnaBI; V, EcoRV; X, XhoI. The positions of restriction sites enclosed within parentheses are approximated. (b) Nucleotide sequence of the KEM1 gene and the deduced amino acid sequence. Nucleotide residues are numbered relative to the ATG (+1) that initiates the open reading frame. KEM1 mRNA transcription starts within a region -372 to -337 bp (bold face nucleotides with reduced font size) 5' from the initiation codon (data not shown). The identified region of the mRNA start site is approximately 90 nucleotides downstream from a putative TATA box (underlined bold face nucleotides with reduced font size).

KEM+/KEM+

and photographed.

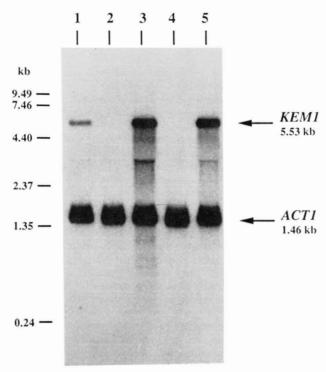


FIGURE 5.—Northern analysis of RNA isolated from exponentially growing yeast strains with zero, single and multiple copies of KEM1. Multiple copies of KEM1 were introduced by transforming cells with the 2µ based plasmid pII98. Five micrograms of total RNA were added in each lane. KEM1 and ACT1 transcripts were detected by hybridization to 1.28 kb EcoRV KEM1 fragment and 1.65-kb BamHI/HindIII ACT1 fragment (GALLWITZ and SURES 1980; NG and ABELSON 1980), respectively. The 1.4-kb actin mRNA was used to standardize RNA loading. Lanes contain RNA prepared from isogenic strains as follows: lane 1, JK251 KEM1 (single copy); lane 2, JK246 kem1 \Delta 3::LEU2 (zero copy); lane 3, JK278 KEM1 (pJI98) (multiple copy); lane 4, JK280 kem1 Δ3::LEU2 (YEp24) (zero copy, vector control); lane 5, JK282 kem1Δ3::LEU2 (pJI98) (multiple copy).

as a single copy in the haploid yeast genome (data not shown). Although the KEM1 gene is not essential, the slow growth phenotype associated with the disruption allele suggests that the KEM1 gene product is important for vegetative growth.

A kem1 null mutation affects spindle pole body duplication, cell viability upon nitrogen starvation, and sporulation: Strains carrying a kem1 null allele, kem1\Delta2::URA3, exhibit altered cell morphology during mitotic cell growth. About 80% of kem1Δ2::URA3 cells have an elongated rod shape and the size of these cells is roughly twice that of wild-type cells. In budding wild-type cells when the daughter bud is half the size of the mother cell, the spindle pole body appears duplicated and both spindle pole bodies appear connected by microtubules. When wild-type cells have progressed to the stage when mother and bud are of equal size, the nucleus is elongated and separated by long intranuclear microtubules (Figure 7a, A-F). In kem1\Delta2::URA3 strains, many large-budded cells contained a single focus of antitubulin staining (Figure

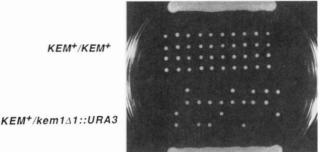


FIGURE 6.—Tetrad analysis of spores from control KEM1/KEM1 (upper array) and KEM1/kem1\Delta1::URA3 (lower array) diploid strains. The upper array is tetrads from JK200 (KEM1/KEM1). The lower array of tetrads is from a Ura+ transformant of diploid strain JK200 transformed with a linear BamHI-XhoI DNA fragment derived from pJI90 (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). The resulting strain has a single intact and disrupted copy of the KEM1 gene (KEM1/kem1\Delta1::URA3). The plate was incubated for 2 days at 30°

7b, G-I). This stained region presumably represents a single unduplicated spindle pole body or duplicated but unseparated spindle pole bodies. Ten percent of $kem 1\Delta 2::URA3$ cells contain two nuclei in one cell body (Figure 7b, J-O). We never observed two nuclei in one cell body in budding wild-type cells.

We examined and compared the ability of wild-type diploids and diploids homozygous for kem 1-1, kem 1-5, or $kem1\Delta2::URA3$ to sporulate. Diploid strains were transferred onto sporulation media, changes in cell morphology and nuclear DAPI-staining were monitored microscopically for a period of five days. A minimum of 200 cells from each diploid strain were examined. During the period of observation, 40-60% of wild-type diploid cells sporulated. Under the same conditions diploid strains homozygous for kem1-1, kem 1-5, or $kem 1\Delta 2::URA3$ failed to sporulate. Diploids heterozygous for kem 1 sporulated as efficiently as wildtype strains, indicating that the sporulation defect is recessive. The sporulation phenotype cosegregated 2:2 with the kem1 mutation.

kem1 mutant cells $(kem1-1, kem1-5, kem1\Delta2::URA3)$ lose viability upon prolonged incubation on minimal media lacking nitrogen. Loss of viability was assayed qualitatively by replica plating colonies grown on nitrogen starvation medium for 4 days at 30° onto SC medium. The loss of viability phenotype cosegregated 2:2 with the kem1 mutation. The response of kem1 mutant cells to nitrogen starvation was also examined quantitatively by growing cells to log phase and then shifting them from YEPD rich medium to minimal media lacking nitrogen. Under this regime, wild-type cells complete their cell cycle, arrest uniformly as unbudded cells, and remain viable in this state for long periods of time. The initial response of the kem 1 mutants during the first 20 hr after the shift to medium without nitrogen was the same as that of wildtype cells; 90-95% of the cells arrested as unbudded

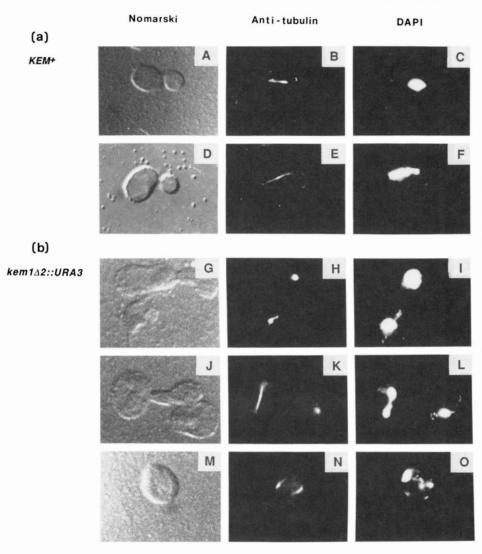


FIGURE 7.—Nuclear and microtubule staining of large-budded cells of *KEM1* and *kem1*Δ2::*URA3* cells. Exponentially growing cells were fixed, the microtubules were visualized by immunofluorescence using anti-tubulin antibodies, and the nuclear DNA was stained with DAPI. Each row of photomicrographs represents the same cell observed by Nomarski optics, anti-tubulin and DAPI staining, respectively. (a) Two cells (A–C and D–F) from strain JK251 (*KEM1*) are shown. (b) Three cells (G–I, J/L and M/O) from strain JK245 (*kem1*Δ2::*URA3*) are shown.

cells with no loss in viability. However, upon further incubation *kem1* mutants lost viability, whereas *KEM1* cells did not (Figure 8).

DISCUSSION

New mutations that enhance the nuclear fusion defect in kar1-1 crosses define at least three genes: KEM1, 2 and 3. Some of these mutations have a dramatic effect on nuclear fusion. For example, the ability of kar1-1 cells to form diploids is reduced more than 100-fold by mutations in the KEM1 gene. One striking aspect of kem mutations is that they reduce nuclear fusion whether the kem and the kar1-1 mutations are in the same or in different parents (Tables 3 and 4). This observation suggests that failure of nuclear fusion in $kem \times kar1-1$ crosses, but not in $kem \times$ KAR1 crosses, must be a consequence of the unusual nature of the residual nuclear fusions that occur in a kar1-1 cross. One explanation for the successful, albeit reduced, nuclear fusion in kar1-1 strains is that the kar1-1 allele is leaky. This leakiness could lead to the formation of an unstable, partially functional, spindle pole body. Perhaps during conjugation a few of the cells in the *kar1-1* population have spindle pole bodies with sufficient stability to complete nuclear fusion successfully. The partial spindle pole body stability in these competent *kar1-1* cells could require two intact copies of each *KEM* gene (one from each parent) to retain sufficient structural integrity.

Mutations in the *KEM1* gene have a number of diagnostic phenotypes in the absence of the *kar1-1* mutation: (1) *kem1* mutations cause a bilateral nuclear fusion defect, (2) *kem1* strains are hypersensitive to benomyl, a microtubule destabilizing reagent, (3) *kem1/kem1* diploids show a defect in mitotic chromosome stability, (4) *kem1* strains are sensitive to nitrogen starvation and (5) homozygous *kem1* diploids fail to sporulate. A null mutation of *KEM1* displays all these phenotypes and in addition leads to extremely slow growth, defects in spindle pole body duplication and/ or separation, and aberrant nuclear division. Despite these defects *kem1* null mutants are alive.

Although we did not detect a genetic interaction between kem 1-1 and mutations in either β - or α -tubu-

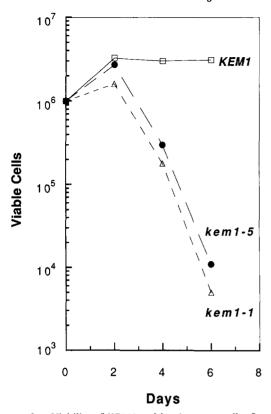


FIGURE 8.—Viability of *KEM1* and *kem1* mutant cells after nitrogen starvation. Exponentially growing cultures of *KEM1* (JK204), *kem1-1* (JK205), and *kem1-5* (JK191) were centrifuged, washed and resuspended at a cell density of 1×10^6 cells/ml in nitrogen starvation medium. After various incubation periods at 30° , samples were removed from cultures and aggregated cells were dispersed by sonication. Cell viability was determined by spreading appropriately diluted cell suspensions on YEPD plates, incubating plates 3-4 days at 30° and counting the number of colonies that formed.

lin genes (tub2-104, Thomas, NEFF and BOTSTEIN 1985; tub1-1, STEARNS, HOYT and BOTSTEIN 1990, respectively) when double mutant strains were constructed, the kem1 mutants are hypersensitive to the antimicrotubule drug benomyl (Figure 3). In S. cerevisiae, mutations conferring resistance to relatively high concentrations of benomyl occur almost exclusively in the β -tubulin gene TUB2 (THOMAS, NEFF and BOTSTEIN 1985). Conversely, certain mutations in α tubulin genes (cold-sensitive mutations in TUB1 or a null allele of TUB3) result in hypersensitivity to benomyl (SCHATZ, SOLOMON and BOTSTEIN 1986; STEARNS, HOYT and BOTSTEIN 1990). Similarly, in Aspergillus nidulans, mutations in the β -tubulin gene were isolated by selecting for resistance to benomyl (SHEIRR-NEISS, LAI and MORRIS 1978) and hypersensitivity mutations were found in an α -tubulin gene (OAKLEY and MORRIS 1974). The benomyl-sensitive phenotype of kem1 mutants implies that the KEM1 gene may be required for normal microtubule func-

Many of the defects of *kem1* mutants could be explained by assuming that *KEM1* is a structural com-

ponent required for proper assembly of the spindle. This model could explain the enhanced frequency of chromosome loss during mitotic cell division (Table 6) and the block in nuclear fusion (Figure 2 and Table 5). Alternatively, KEM1 may influence spindle function or assembly in an indirect way. The sporulation defect and increased sensitivity to nitrogen starvation of kem1 mutants (Figure 8) closely resembles the phenotypes of mutants implicated in the RAS/adenylate cyclase pathway ($RAS2^{val19}$ and bcy1) (KATAOKA et al. 1984; Uno, Matsumoto and Ishikawa 1982; Toda et al. 1987) as well as that of the ypt1 mutant (SEGEV and BOTSTEIN 1987). Studies with a cold-sensitive ypt1 mutation (SEGEV and BOTSTEIN 1987) and galactose regulated YPT1 (SCHMITT et al. 1986) have shown that a reduced concentration of functional YPT1 protein results in aberrant arrangements of microtubules. These observations support the notion that the function of microtubules can be influenced by intracellular signals concerning nutritional conditions. According to this view, the KEM1 gene may specify a signaling or sensing function, relaying nutritional and/or developmental signals to the spindle pole body, which is required for proper microtubule function during conjugation and mitotic cell growth.

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