The Yeast *KRE9* Gene Encodes an O Glycoprotein Involved in Cell Surface β-Glucan Assembly

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The yeast KRE9 gene encodes a 30-kDa secretory pathway protein involved in the synthesis of cell wall $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan. Disruption of KRE9 leads to serious growth impairment and an altered cell wall containing less than 20% of the wild-type amount of $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan. Analysis of the glucan material remaining in a $kre9\Delta$ null mutant indicated a polymer with a reduced average molecular mass. $kre9\Delta$ null mutants also displayed several additional cell-wall-related phenotypes, including an aberrant multiply budded morphology, a mating defect, and a failure to form projections in the presence of α -factor. Double mutants were generated by crossing $kre9\Delta$ strains with strains harboring a null mutation in the KRE1, KRE6, or KRE11 gene, and each of these double mutants was found to be inviable in the SEY6210 background. Similar crosses with null mutations in the KRE5 and SKN1 genes indicated that these double mutants were no more severely affected than $kre5\Delta$ or $kre9\Delta$ single mutants alone. Antibodies were generated against Kre9p and detected an O glycoprotein of approximately 55 to 60 kDa found in the extracellular medium of a strain overproducing Kre9p.

The yeast cell wall is an extracellular matrix of insoluble chitin, glycoproteins, and β-glucan polymers, cross-linked into a complex structural array at the cell surface. Fungal cell walls perform a number of essential roles in growth and morphogenesis (25), and Saccharomyces cerevisiae enables cell surface assembly to be studied at the genetic and biochemical levels. Although biochemical analyses have been useful in separating and characterizing the main structural components of the yeast extracellular matrix, identification of components involved in the biosynthesis of cell wall polymers has come predominantly from genetic approaches. The synthesis of chitin in S. cerevisiae is well understood, and a family of three homologous synthases are involved in assembly of the polymer. Disruption of the CHS1 gene removes most of the chitin synthase activity in vitro (7); however, the product of the CAL1 (CHS3) gene appears to be responsible for the synthesis of the majority of the chitin found in the cell wall periphery (36). CHS2 has been shown to be required for the development of a proper septum between mother and daughter cells (35). Additional mutations have identified the CSD3 and CSD4 genes, which also appear to be required for chitin synthesis in vivo (6).

Mannoproteins represent a large fraction of the yeast cell wall, and many genes implicated in protein glycosylation have been identified and have provided insights into the stepwise synthesis of both O- and N-linked oligosaccharides (2, 15). The mannoprotein composition of the cell wall has also been studied biochemically, and several abundant glycoproteins that appear covalently cross-linked to extracellular matrix polysaccharides have been characterized (37), although their biological roles remain unclear.

The β -glucans are an additional class of abundant yeast cell surface polysaccharides, which represent approximately half of the total cell wall dry weight. In a simplified view, these glucans are composed of $(1\rightarrow 3)$ - β -linked polymers averaging 1,500 residues in length and smaller, highly branched $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucans with a degree of polymerization

of approximately 150 to 200 residues. The cross-linked

Whereas a number of components appear to be specifically involved in the assembly of extracellular matrix polysaccharides, genes that may be associated with the initiation or regulation of new cell wall growth have also been described. Mutations in the *PKC1*- and *BCK1* (*SLK1*)-encoded protein kinases display conditional lysis phenotypes which are suppressed by osmotic support (9, 19, 24). A large network of genes involved in cell morphogenesis including *SPA2*, the *BUD* and *BEM* genes, and a number of components of the cytoskeleton have been shown to be involved in initiating bud site selection and bud emergence (10), but how these components may also be involved in localizing the cell wall biosynthetic machinery to the site of a newly forming bud is not yet known.

Several genes involved in cell surface assembly have been identified through mutations that confer resistance to the K1 killer toxin protein, which kills sensitive yeast cells following binding to cell wall $(1\rightarrow6)$ - β -glucan. Thus, cells with mutations that disrupt the normal synthesis of the $(1\rightarrow6)$ - β -glucan receptor were identified by their ability to grow in the presence of toxin. The cloning and characterization of several killer resistance (KRE) genes have provided insight into the biosynthesis of this polymer. The earliest known step in the pathway for $(1\rightarrow6)$ - β -glucan assembly in yeast cells involves a luminal endoplasmic reticulum protein encoded by the KRE5 gene. Cells harboring deletions of this locus fail to synthesize $(1\rightarrow6)$ - β -glucan, and they display severely impaired vegetative growth (22). Two genes, KRE6

arrangement of these polysaccharides to each other and to chitin in the cell wall renders a large fraction of the glucan material insoluble in alkali, which has facilitated its isolation and structural analysis (12). The $(1\rightarrow 3)$ - β - and $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -linked cell wall glucans have classically been further subdivided on the basis of size, linkage composition, and solubility in alkali (20, 21), although the solubility in alkali of most of the total cell wall glucan in *cal1/chs3* mutants suggests that the conventional subclasses of glucan polymers may simply result from their differential cross-linking to chitin (30).

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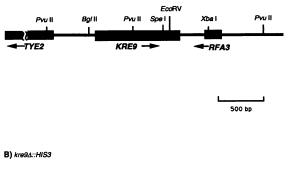
TABLE 1. Yeast strains used in this study

Strain	Genotype	Source or reference
SEY6210	MATα leu2-3,112 ura3-52 his3-Δ200 lys2-801 trp1-Δ901 suc2-Δ9	S. D. Emr
SEY6211	MATa ade2-101 leu2-3,112 ura3-52 his3-Δ200 trp1-Δ901 suc2-Δ9	S. D. Emr
HAB251-15B	SEY6210 autodiploid, MATa/MATα leu2-3,112/leu2-3,112 ura3-52/ ura3-52 his3-Δ200/his3-Δ200 lys2-801/lys2-801 trp1-Δ901/trp1-Δ901 suc2-Δ9/suc2-Δ9	28
TA405	Autodiploid, MATa/MATa his3/his3 leu2/leu2 can1/can1	39
HAB522	MATα kre9-1 in SEY6210	5
HAB556	MATa kre9-4 in SEY6210	5 5 5
HAB635	MATa kre1 2::HIS3 in SEY6210	5
HAB751	MATa kre9-1 ura3-52 leu2-3,112 his3-Δ200 trp1-Δ901 suc2-9Δ	5
HAB806	MATα krel1Δ::URA3 in SEY6210	5
HAB811	MATα kre9Δ::HIS3 in TA405 haploid	This work
HAB812	<i>MAT</i> a <i>kre</i> 9Δ:: <i>HIS3</i> in TA405 haploid	This work
HAB813	MATα kre9Δ::HIS3 in SEY6210	This work
HAB814	MATa kre9Δ::HIS3 ade2-101 leu2- 3,112 ura3-52 his3-Δ200 trp1- Δ901 suc2-Δ9 generated from HAB813 backcrossed to SEY6211	This work
TR93	MATa kre6Δ::HIS3 in SEY6210	29
TR178	MATα skn1Δ::LEU2 in SEY6210	29
ML267	MATα kre2Δ::TRP1 in SEY6210	M. Lussier
YDK5-3B	MATa kre5Δ::HIS3 in TA405 haploid	22

and SKN1, that also appear to be involved in the early steps of $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan synthesis have been identified (28, 29). The predicted amino acid sequences of their products indicate two highly homologous integral membrane proteins with putative type II topology. Deletion of both KRE6 and SKN1 leads to a reduction in the cell wall $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan levels to 10% of those of isogenic wild-type strains. On the cytoplasmic side of the membrane, the product of the KRE11 gene may act as a regulatory component of a membraneassociated $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan synthase complex (5). Disruption of KRE11 leads to a 50% reduction in cell wall $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β glucan levels. The product of the KRE1 gene is probably plasma membrane associated through its hydrophobic C terminus, where it appears to be involved in a late stage of $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan assembly (3). Structural analysis of the glucan remaining in a $kre1\Delta$ mutant suggests a role for Kre1p in the addition of linear $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan side chains onto a core glucan backbone, allowing synthesis of the mature glucan polymer. Thus, an analysis of killer toxin-resistant mutants has identified genes in a pathway for $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan assembly, with products that are cytoplasmic, luminal, or membrane associated.

We have previously reported the isolation of strains with recessive kre9 mutations and the mapping and cloning of the KRE9 gene (5). The slow growth, killer resistance phenotype, and $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan reduction observed in mutants harboring the kre9-1 or kre9-4 alleles indicate defective cell surface assembly. Here we show that KRE9 encodes a soluble secretory-pathway protein required for normal cell wall synthesis and growth. Antibodies specific for Kre9p

A) KRE9 Wild type



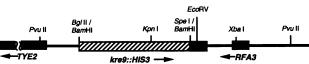


FIG. 1. Restriction map of the KRE9 locus and schematic representation of the disruption construct. (A) Restriction map of the wild-type KRE9 locus with respect to the adjacent open reading frames of the TYE2(SWI3) and RFA3 genes. The solid boxes indicate the positions of the open reading frames, and arrows show the directions of transcription. (B) Schematic representation of the xe90:xe90:xe90:xe90 deletion construct which replaces the N-terminal 230 amino acids of Kre9p encoded between the xe90 and xe90 restriction sites with the complete xe90 gene.

identified an O-glycosylated protein, which, when overproduced, was detected extracellularly in the culture medium.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Yeast strains and procedures. The yeast strains used in this work are listed in Table 1. Cultures were grown under standard conditions as previously described (8). Routine transformations were carried out by the lithium acetate method (17), and yeast genetics and sporulation followed established procedures (34).

Plasmids and recombinant DNA techniques. Miniprep plasmids were purified from *Escherichia coli* MC1061 by the boiling method (32). Restriction endonucleases, Klenow and T4 DNA polymerases, and T4 DNA ligase were purchased from Bethesda Research Laboratories, Inc., Gaithersburg, Md.; Pharmacia LKB Biotechnology, Piscataway, N.J.; and New England BioLabs, Beverly, Mass., and were used as specified by the manufacturers.

Subcloning and sequencing KRE9. Series of nested deletions were generated for both strands of the BgIII-XbaI region of KRE9 (Fig. 1A) by using the Erase-a-Base System (Promega Corp., Madison, Wis.). Sequencing was carried out by the dideoxy method (33) with the Bluescript universal and reverse primers complementary to the pRS316 polylinker and synthetic oligonucleotides to specific regions of KRE9. The Sequenase Kit (U.S. Biochemicals, Cleveland, Ohio) was used for single-strand synthesis with $[\alpha$ -35S]dATP as a substrate (Amersham Canada Limited, Oakville, Ontario, Canada). The complete sequence of KRE9 (Fig. 2) was determined for both strands. The KRE9 gene was also subcloned into the yeast multicopy vectors YEp351 and YEp352 as a 7-kb SmaI-SstI fragment excised from the original pRS316-based genomic clone.

Disruption of KRE9. To generate a disruption of KRE9, an 821-bp Bg/II-Spe I fragment of the KRE9 locus (Fig. 1A) was

-190 AGATCTTCAAGGA -177 TAATACAGGAATAGAACAGGAGTCTCAAAGCATTCTTGAAGCCAGATTTGCTCCAGTTT -118 GATAGTTCCAAGAAGCGCTAAAAGTGGCAGTTCACACTTTGTTTTGATTACTAGGAATC TACTCTTTCGCTTTTTACTTCCTTCTCAGAGAATCAGCAACTGTGACATATTATAGATA -59 ATG CGT TTA CAA AGA AAT TCC ATC ATA TGT GCT TTG GTG TTT TTA 46 GTC TCA TTT GTG CTG GGA GAT GTG AAT ATT GTT TCC CCC AGC TCC 16 L G D N I AAG GCA ACA TTC AGT CCA AGT GGT GGT ACT GTC TCT GTT CCC GTT 91 GAA TGG ATG GAT AAT GGG GCA TAT CCC TCG TTA AGC AAG ATT TCA 136 46 N G 181 ACT TTC ACG TTC AGT CTT TGT ACT GGT CCT AAT AAC AAC ATT GAC 61 226 TGT GTG GCC GTA CTT GCC AGT AAA ATT ACT CCA AGT GAG CTA ACA 76 L A SKIT CAA GAT GAT AAA GTT TAC TCT TAC ACA GCT GAG TTT GCT TCG ACC 271 91 V Y S Y T A E TTA ACT GGG AAC GGT CAA TAT TAC ATT CAA GTT TTT GCC CAG GTG 316 106 G O GAC GGT CAA GGT TAC ACT ATC CAT TAT ACA CCA AGA TTC CAG TTG 361 121 Н 406 ACT TCC ATG GGC GGT GTT ACG GCT TAT ACA TAT AGT GCC ACA ACT 136 451 151 GCC CAA GCC ACT ACT ATT GAC AGT CGT TCA TTT ACT GTT CCG TAC 541 ACC AAG CAG ACT GGT ACG TCG CGT TTC GCT CCA ATG CAA ATG CAG 181 586 CCA AAT ACT AAA GTG ACC GCT ACC ACA TGG ACA AGG AAA TTT GCC 196 A T W ACT AGT GCT GTG ACA TAT TAC TCT ACC TTT GGG TCA TTG CCA GAG 631 211 \boldsymbol{T} Y Y s T 676 CAA GCA ACT ACG ATA ACT CCT GGC TGG TCT TAT ACG ATA TCA TCG 226 P G s GGA GTA AAC TAC GCT ACT CCT GCA TCT ATG CCT TCA GAT AAT GGT 721 241 P A S M P 766 GGT TGG TAC AAA CCA TCC AAG AGA TTG TCT TTG TCT GCA AGG AAA 256 K R ATC AAC ATG AGA AAA GTA TGA AAAATAGACGGCTTCTACTATCATCATTACA 811 271 V STOP 863 922 981 TACAATTTTTTTAGAAATGGAATTTATTATATGAAGGGAAGACATATAGAGGCAACAGT 1040 ACATAAAGGTAAGAATAAAAGCGATTTTAGCTAGTATATTTCTGGGTATTTCTTACATA 1099 GTCTCTGTAAAGCAACCACACGTTTAAGCTTAAATCTTCGTTCTCCTTGAATTTGCAT 1158 CTCATACCACGAGTCGATCTCAAATGTTTTATTCATAGATACACGAATATTGTTCAACG 1217 TAATCATTTCAACCTCGCTGCCGTTTTTCGATGATATGGTTGGCGATTGTAAAATCAAC 1276 TGAGATTCAGTGGGTTGTGATTTGATTTGCGCTATTATCCTAAACACAGGAGCATTGAC 1394 GTTGGAGATTTCTGTGGGGTCAACTCTTGGTGTTTCGCTGGCCATTTT

FIG. 2. Nucleotide and predicted amino acid sequences of KRE9. An 828-bp open reading frame is shown along with the predicted 276 amino acids of Kre9p. The positions of nucleotide sequences which correspond to the Bg/II (-190 to -185) and SpeI (631 to 636) restriction sites used for the kre9\(\text{2}\):HIS3 disruption construct (see Materials and Methods and Fig. 1B) are indicated in boldface type. A potential site for cleavage by signal peptidase would be after the G at amino acid residue 21 (38).

removed from a pRS316 plasmid containing a wild-type copy of the gene and the termini were rendered blunt with Klenow DNA polymerase. A 1.7-kb BamHI fragment containing the complete HIS3 gene was also treated with Klenow fragment and then blunt ligated into the vector to create kre9Δ::HIS3. A linear 3.6-kb PvuII fragment containing the HIS3 gene, flanked on either side by KRE9 targeting sequences, was excised from this construct and used to disrupt the KRE9 locus in strains HAB251-15B and TA405 by single-step gene replacement (31). Correct integrations were confirmed by genomic Southern blots (32).

(1 \rightarrow 6)-β-glucan isolation, quantitation, and structural analysis. (1 \rightarrow 6)-β-Glucan was isolated and quantified as previously described (3). Structural analysis was performed on glucan isolated from 2 liters of a wild-type TA405 culture or

5 liters of a HAB811 kre9Δ::HIS3 culture, harvested in late-logarithmic phase. Gel filtration chromatography of glucans (~1 mg) was carried out on a Sepharose CL-6B (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals, Piscataway, N.J.) column (109 by 1 cm) with 0.1 M NaOH as the eluant, as described previously (5). Carbohydrate was measured as hexose by the borosulfuric acid method of Badin et al. (1). Proton-decoupled ¹³C-nuclear magnetic resonance (¹³C-NMR) spectra were generated for glucan samples as previously described (5) with a WH 400 spectrometer (Bruker Instruments, Billerica, Mass.) operated in the Fourier transform mode at 100.615 MHz with external dioxane at 67.4 ppm as a reference peak.

Electron microscopy. Exponentially growing wild-type and kre9\(\Delta\::HIS3\) cells were fixed for electron microscopy with 3% glutaraldehyde followed by 1% OsO₄, as described by Boone et al. (3). Sections were viewed on an EM410 electron microscope (Philips, Eindhoven, The Netherlands) operating at 80 kV.

Additional cell wall analyses. Cell wall chitin was observed by fluorescence with calcofluor white (30), and alcian blue binding was performed by the method of Friis and Ottolenghi (13). As a measure of cell wall integrity, stationary-phase cultures of wild-type or $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 cells were subjected to digestion with a $(1\rightarrow 3)$ - β -glucanase preparation. Cultures were adjusted to a concentration of 10^7 cells per ml in 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5) and incubated in the presence of $100 \mu g$ of Zymolyase 100T (ICN Biochemicals, Cleveland, Ohio) per ml at 30° C with rotation. Aliquots were removed at 15-min intervals, and the optical density at 600 nm was measured. Glycogen levels in cell colonies were qualitatively assessed by using iodine vapors (11).

Quantitative mating and pheromone response. Wild-type and kre9-disrupted yeast strains were tested for their ability to conjugate by the procedure used by Raymond et al. (27), with strains SEY6210, SEY6211, HAB813, and HAB814. Matings were performed in triplicate by mixing approximately 10⁷ cells from each of the appropriate strains in 1 ml of liquid yeast extract-peptone-dextrose (YEPD) and incubating the mixture for 3 h at 30°C. Serial dilutions were then plated onto YEPD to assess the total number of cells and onto yeast nitrogen base (YNB) selective media to determine the number of diploids present. The mating efficiency was calculated as the number of diploids capable of growth on selective media divided by the total number of cells on VEPD.

*MAT*a haploid strains with disruptions at *kre9* were tested for their ability to respond to synthetic α -mating pheromone (Sigma, St. Louis, Mo.) Exponentially growing wild-type or *kre9* Δ ::*HIS3* strains were incubated in the presence of α -factor at final concentrations of either 2 or 4 μ g/ml in liquid YEPD at 30°C and were viewed by light microscopy.

Antibody production and purification. Polyclonal anti-Kre9p antibodies were generated in rabbits against a synthetic multiple-antigen peptide (Research Genetics, Huntsville, Ala.) with the sequence of the extreme C-terminal 15 amino acid residues of Kre9p (NH₂-KRLSLSARKINMR KV-COOH). Rabbits were initially injected with ~0.5 mg of the peptide in Freund's complete adjuvant, followed by five boosts with equivalent amounts of peptide in Freund's incomplete adjuvant at 2- to 3-week intervals. The Kre9p synthetic peptide (~1 mg) was coupled to cyanogen bromide-activated Sepharose CL-6B (Pharmacia) as specified by the manufacturer and used in a column with a total bed volume of 2 ml to affinity purify antiserum as described by Raymond et al. (26).

Western immunoblotting. Total-cell extracts were prepared from approximately 10^7 cells from exponentially growing cultures grown in YNB selective medium by lysis with glass beads. Membrane fractions were prepared from 50 ml of exponentially growing cultures by the method of Nakayama et al. (23) by centrifuging lysates at $10,000 \times g$ for 20 min at 4°C (low-speed pellet) and at $100,000 \times g$ for 1 h at 4°C (high-speed pellet). Extracellular proteins were concentrated from 100 ml of late-log-phase culture grown in YNB selective medium containing 5% (vol/vol) glycerol, using Amicon Centriprep-10 concentrators (W. R. Grace & Co., Danvers, Mass.). Protein samples were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis by the method of Laemmli (18). After transfer to nitrocellulose, blots were incubated with affinity-purified anti-Kre9p antibodies diluted 1/500 and then with a horseradish peroxidase-coupled donkey anti-rabbit antibody (Amersham International, Amersham, United Kingdom) diluted 1/500 to 1/1,000 and developed with the 4-chloro-1-naphthol reagent.

Nucleotide sequence accession number. The DNA sequence in Fig. 2 has been deposited in GenBank under accession number L22517.

RESULTS

KRE9 sequence and map position. The KRE9 gene was previously cloned and mapped to the left arm of chromosome X (5) (Fig. 1A). Sequencing of a Bg/II-XbaI region of KRE9 revealed an open reading frame of 828 bp (Fig. 2) encoding a 30-kDa serine-plus-threonine rich protein of 276 amino acid residues. The hydrophobic N-terminal region of Kre9p resembles that of eukaryotic signal sequences, with a predicted cleavage site after amino acid 21 (38). A cluster of Lys and Arg residues (7 of 18) occurs at the extreme C terminus of the protein. No predicted sites for N-linked glycosylation exist, although the high proportion of serine and threonine residues (27%) offers many potential sites for O glycosylation. Searches with the predicted amino acid sequence of Kre9p failed to detect significant homology to proteins in the current GenBank and EMBL data bases.

We had previously mapped KRE9 physically to λ clone 6699 in the library of mapped yeast genomic DNA fragments prepared by L. Riles and M. V. Olson (27a) and genetically to a position 19 cM from the *yur1* locus, in a region approximately 50 kb centromere-distal to tif2 on the left arm of chromosome X (5). KRE9 has also been independently sequenced by C. Loehning, C. Mueller, K. Freidel, and M. Ciriacy (GenBank accession number X56792) and identified as a small essential open reading frame (ORF831) juxtaposed between ORF369 and the TYE2 (SWI3) gene. ORF369 is identical to the RFA3 gene (GenBank accession number X59750), which was also found to hybridize to λ clone 6699 but had not been mapped further (4). Thus, the nucleotide sequence and mapping of the KRE9 locus locates the RFA3 and TYE2 genes on the left arm of chromosome X (Fig. 1A).

Disruption of KRE9. A kre9Δ null mutation was generated by removing the N-terminal ATG start codon and 630 bp of the KRE9 open reading frame from a wild-type copy of the gene and replacing it with a fragment containing HIS3 (see Materials and Methods) (Fig. 1B). One of the chromosomal copies of KRE9 was disrupted by single-step gene replacement in each of the diploid strains HAB251-15B and TA405. Integrations at the KRE9 locus were confirmed for both these strains by genomic Southern hybridizations (Fig. 3). The resulting His⁺ diploids were sporulated, and tetrads were dissected. kre9Δ::HIS3 null mutants appeared as mi-

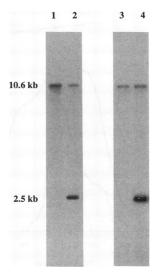


FIG. 3. Southern blot analysis of $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 disruptions. Total DNA isolated from parental diploid strains HAB251-15B (lane 1) and TA405 (lane 3) and strains HAB251-15B and TA405 heterozygous for the $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 deletion (lanes 2 and 4, respectively) was digested with KpnI and probed with a labeled 1.3-kb XbaI-KpnI ragment from the cloned KRE9 gene (5). The presence of a KpnI site in the HIS3 gene at the $kre9\Delta$ locus is detected as a 2.5-kb fragment.

crocolonies after 8 to 10 days on YEPD at 30°C, as indicated by the 2:2 cosegregation of His⁺ prototrophy, slow growth, and killer resistance for 50 tetrads examined. Thus, formally, *KRE9* is not an essential gene in these strains under these conditions. The *kre9*Δ::*HIS3* deletion removed 186 bp upstream of the predicted start codon of *KRE9*; however, this region does not appear to be required for *TYE2* expression. Subclones of *TYE2* beginning with the *BgI*II restriction site used for the disruption (Fig. 1) fully complemented *tye2* mutations (8a).

(1 \rightarrow 6)-β-Glucan alterations. The slow growth, killer resistance, and glucan reduction previously found in kre9-1 and kre9-4 strains (5) strongly implicate the KRE9 gene product in the synthesis of (1 \rightarrow 6)-β-glucan. To establish that the more severe phenotype observed in $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 deletion mutants was also caused by a cell wall defect, we measured the levels of (1 \rightarrow 3)-β- and (1 \rightarrow 6)-β-glucan polymers from wild-type haploid strains and strains disrupted at the kre9 locus. The total amount of alkali-insoluble (1 \rightarrow 3)-β- plus (1 \rightarrow 6)-β-glucan was not significantly different among the strains (Table 2); however, the levels of (1 \rightarrow 6)-β-glucan

TABLE 2. Glucan levels in kre9 mutants

Strain	KRE allele	(1→6)-β-Glucan (µg/mg [dry wt]) ²
SEY6210	Wild type	35.8 ± 0.8
HAB522	kre9-1	13.7 ± 2.6
HAB556	kre9-4	14.7 ± 0.6
HAB813	kre9∆::HIS3	8.1 ± 1.1

^a The (1 \rightarrow 6)-β-glucan levels in *kre9* mutant strains and an isogenic wild-type parental strain were analyzed by the method of Boone et al. (3). Values for the *kre9-1* and *kre9-4* mutants were as previously described (5). Total alkali-insoluble glucan levels were not significantly different in any of these strains, with an average of 184 \pm 20 μg/mg (dry weight). Error represents 1 standard deviation.

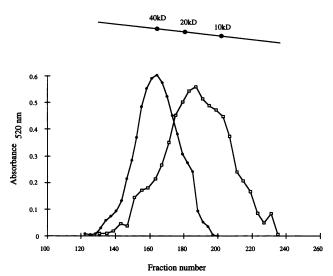


FIG. 4. Gel filtration chromatography of $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan purified from wild-type and $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 strains. The average molecular mass of $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan purified from either the wild-type strain (\bullet) or the $kre9\Delta$::HIS3-deleted strain HAB811 (\square) was determined by using a Sepharose CL-6B column and known dextran standards. Approximately equal amounts of material (\sim 1 mg) were loaded onto the column. Dextran blue eluted at fraction 94, indicating a column void volume of 30.5 ml.

were reduced in $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 mutants to 10 to 20% of the wild-type level (Table 2). These results suggest that kre9 null mutations lead to a more severe growth and $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan alteration than the original alleles.

A large-scale purification of the residual $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan from a $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 mutant was performed to examine possible structural modifications to the $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan polymer. Gel filtration chromatography of the $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan isolated from the mutant strain indicated a polymer with an average molecular mass of 10 to 20 kDa, which is smaller than the \sim 40-kDa $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan isolated from a wild-type strain (Fig. 4). ¹³C-NMR spectroscopy of the mutant glucan material also indicated a polymer that appeared structurally distinct from the wild type and probably contained an altered proportion of $(1\rightarrow 3)$ - β - and $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -linkages (Fig. 5B). Many of the resonance peaks from the spectrum could not be definitively assigned, although the polymer did appear to retain major signals characteristic of a $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -linked glucan (Fig. 5A).

Additional cell wall analyses. $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 disrupted cells displayed an aberrant growth morphology and were often found as large, multiply budded aggregates that could not be separated by gentle agitation (Fig. 6B). To test whether the defect in $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 cells was specific to $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan or represented a pleiotropic effect on cell wall synthesis, we examined the other major cell wall components. Fluorescence staining with calcofluor white, a dye that preferentially binds cell wall chitin (30), appeared to be enhanced in kre9∆::HIS3 null mutants. Bud site selection in kre9 null mutants was also examined by calcofluor staining of bud scars and appeared random, whereas isogenic parental cells showed a predominantly axial budding pattern (data not shown). Mutants stained normally with alcian blue, suggesting that glycosylation was not grossly altered by a kre9 deletion. Staining with iodine indicated that kre9\Delta::HIS3 disrupted cells were glycogen positive. Electron micrographs of thin sections prepared from wild-type and $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 cells supported the biochemical evidence for a structural defect. Under the conditions used, $kre9\Delta$ mutants seem to have lost the laminar cell wall ultrastructure normally seen in wild-type cells (Fig. 6C and D).

Earlier studies had suggested that kre9 mutant strains were more sensitive than the wild type to the $(1\rightarrow 3)$ - β -glucanase-containing preparation Zymolyase, so the $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 null mutant was quantitatively assessed for susceptibility to Zymolyase lysis (see Materials and Methods). Stationary-phase cultures of HAB811 $kre9\Delta$ cells showed a $\sim 50\%$ reduction in optical density after incubation with 100 μ g of Zymolyase 100T per ml for 15 min, whereas isogenic wild-type cells showed a modest (<5%) decrease.

Quantitative mass mating. Evidence of a kre9-related mating defect was first seen while backcrossing the original kre9 mutants. Strains harboring the kre9\Delta::HIS3 null mutation were thus quantitatively assessed for their ability to conjugate. Wild-type strains SEY6210 and SEY6211 were found to mate at a frequency of $9 \times 10^{-3} \pm 1.4 \times 10^{-3}$ in liquid culture. Both HAB813 MATa and HAB814 MATa strains harboring the $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 disruption were mated with the wild-type parental SEY6210 or SEY6211 strain, and they formed diploids at a frequency of $1 \times 10^{-3} \pm 5.6 \times 10^{-4}$. When the two kre9 mutant strains were crossed to each other, diploids were formed at a frequency not significantly different from that of a $kre9\Delta$ strain crossed to a wild-type strain ($\sim 0.6 \times 10^{-3} \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-3}$). Thus, the approximately 10-fold reduction in mating efficiency with $kre9\Delta$ mutants was independent of cell type and was not cumulative when two $kre9\Delta$ mutants were crossed to each other.

Response to α -factor mating pheromone. MATa haploid $kre9\Delta$ cells were tested for their ability to shmoo in response to the α-mating pheromone. Exponentially growing wildtype and $kre9\Delta$ cells were incubated in the presence of α-factor at a final concentration of 2 µg/ml in liquid YEPD at 30°C. After 2 h, more than 75% of the wild-type cells had arrested as single cells or exhibited a characteristic shmoo morphology, while the $kre9\Delta$ cells remained as multiply budded aggregates with no obvious shmoo formation. Exposure to elevated levels of α -factor (4 μ g/ml) for up to 4.5 h likewise produced no obvious morphological changes in the mutant cells (Fig. 7). The sensitivity of $kre9\Delta$ cells to pheromone-induced cell cycle arrest was tested by spotting ~1 μg of synthetic α-factor onto the surface of YEPD agar plates (pH 4.7) seeded with wild-type or $kre9\Delta$ cells. Both SEY6211 and HAB814 cells displayed a similar zone of growth inhibition of approximately 10 to 12 mm after 2 days at room temperature, suggesting that the G-protein-mediated signal transduction pathway is functional in $kre9\Delta$ cells. This apparent loss of the morphological response but retention of sensitivity to α-factor-induced cell cycle arrest may indicate that kre9\Delta mutants are defective in their ability to effect polarized cell-wall growth.

Genetic interactions. The severity of the glucan reduction and growth impairment found in $kre9\Delta$ strains was consistent with the conclusion that Kre9p functions at an early step in $(1\rightarrow 6)-\beta$ -glucan synthesis. To better understand the role of this gene in the pathway, we constructed double mutants with previously characterized kre mutations to look for potential genetic interactions.

Haploid strains HAB813 or HAB814, both carrying $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 mutations, were mated to isogenic strains of the opposite mating type harboring $kre1\Delta$ (HAB635), $kre6\Delta$ (TR93), $skn1\Delta$ (TR178), or $kre11\Delta$ (HAB806) deletions, and between 6 and 10 tetrads were dissected from each cross

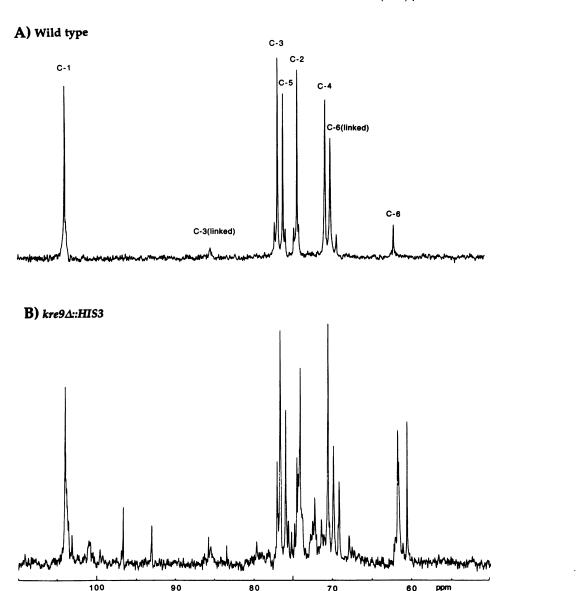


FIG. 5. 13 C-NMR spectra of $(1\rightarrow 6)$ -β-glucan purified from wild-type and $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 strains. An assessment of the linkage composition of the residual $(1\rightarrow 6)$ -β-glucan in the $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 strain HAB811 was determined by high-field 13 C-NMR spectroscopy (B). The predominant signals characteristic of wild-type $(1\rightarrow 6)$ -β-glucan (A) have been labeled by using the assignments of Boone et al. (3).

onto YEPD medium. Segregants were scored for the selectable markers making the deletions, and double mutants were identified. The segregation patterns from $kre9\Delta$ crossed to $kre1\Delta$ [PD(0), NPD(1), TT(8)], $kre6\Delta$ [PD(1), NPD(1), TT(8)], and $kre11\Delta$ [PD(0), NPD(0), TT(6)] indicated that the double mutants were nonviable in all cases (PD indicates parental ditype, NPD indicates nonparental ditype, and TT indicates tetratype). The double-mutant spores were always found to have germinated, but they arrested with a similar terminal phenotype, as one to six large-budded cells. Double mutants isolated from the $kre9\Delta$ $skn1\Delta$ cross [PD(2), NPD(1), TT(7)] grew at rates comparable to those of the $kre9\Delta$ single mutants. The cell death observed in $kre9\Delta$ $kre1\Delta$, $kre9\Delta$ $kre6\Delta$, and $kre9\Delta$ $kre11\Delta$ double mutants indicates that these combinations of gene products are essential for the growth of SEY6210.

To assess potential genetic interactions with the KRE5 gene, which defines the earliest known step in the pathway, we constructed a $kre5\Delta$ $kre9\Delta$ double mutant. It was necessary to generate a $kre5\Delta$ $kre9\Delta$ double heterozygous diploid in the TA405 background, because a $kre5\Delta$::HIS3 single mutation is lethal in SEY6210. Diploids generated by mating YDK5-3B to HAB811 were selected from YEPD medium and sporulated, and tetrads were dissected. Analysis of the segregation patterns from five four-spore tetrads [PD(2), NPD(0), TT(3)] indicated that the $kre5\Delta$ $kre9\Delta$ double mutants were viable in TA405 and grew slowly at rates equivalent to those of $kre5\Delta$ single mutants, suggesting that the double mutants were no more severely affected than $kre5\Delta$ single mutants.

Overproduction of KRE9 was unable to suppress the slow growth or killer-resistant phenotypes associated with deletion of $kre1\Delta$, $kre6\Delta$, or $kre11\Delta$. Multiple copies of KRE1,

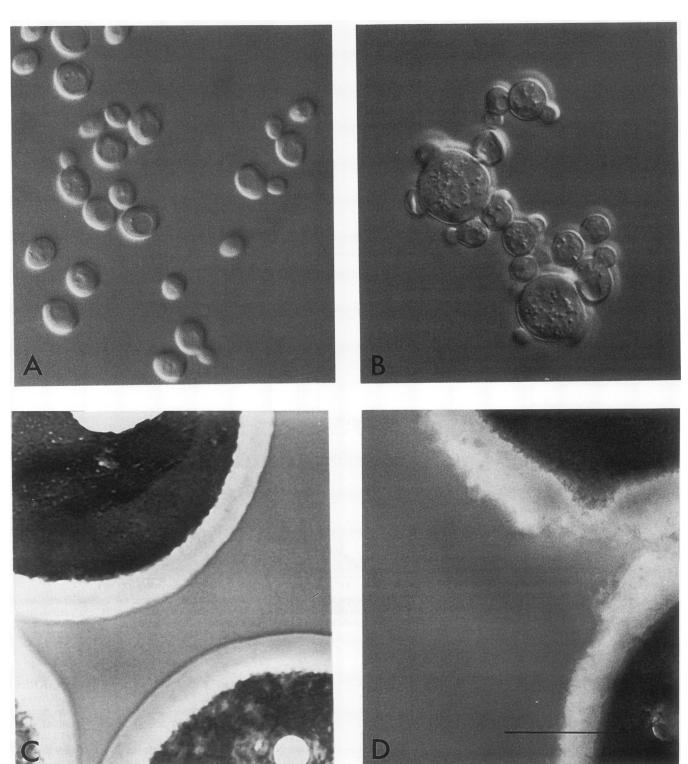


FIG. 6. Morphological effects of the $kre9\Delta$::HIS3 deletion. The wild-type KRE9 strain (A) and $kre9\Delta$ deletion strain HAB811 (B) as viewed by Nomarski optics are shown. Electron micrographs of the cell walls of similar wild-type (C) and $kre9\Delta$ strains (D) are also shown. Exponentially growing cells were treated for microscopy as described in Materials and Methods. Bar, 1 μ m.

KRE5, KRE6, KRE11, or SKN1 also failed to suppress the loss of KRE9.

Kre9p is an O-linked glycoprotein. To identify the KRE9 gene product, we generated an affinity-purified Kre9p anti-

serum (see Materials and Methods). Whole-cell extracts, membrane preparations, and concentrated extracellular media from a strain overexpressing the *KRE9* gene on a multicopy plasmid and from a $kre9\Delta$ strain were probed with

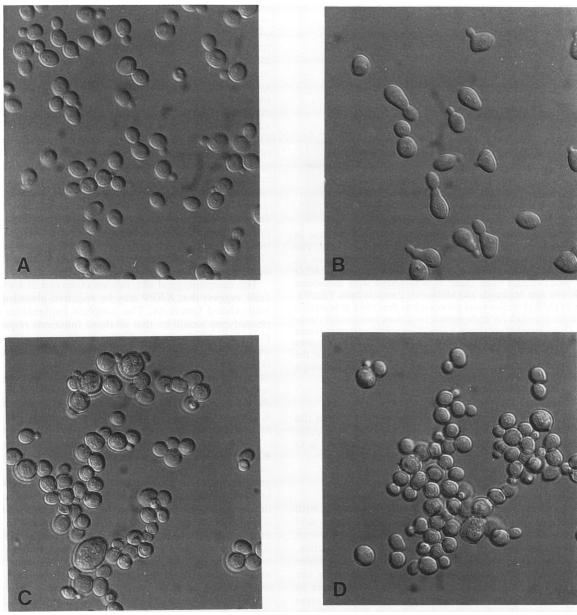


FIG. 7. Response to the α -factor pheromone. Exponentially growing wild-type SEY6211 cells and strain HAB814 $kre9\Delta$ cells were tested for their ability to shmoo on exposure to the α -mating pheromone. SEY6211 (A and B) and HAB814 (C and D) cells were incubated in the presence of either H₂O (A and C) or synthetic α -factor at 4 μ g/ml (B and D) and photographed after 2.5 h.

the affinity-purified antiserum for the presence of Kre9p by a Western blot procedure. Figure 8A shows a major immunoreactive protein band of approximately 55 to 60 kDa in the extracellular medium from the strain overproducing Kre9p (lane 1). No signal was detected in the extracellular medium from the wild-type strain SEY6210 (lane 2) or the $kre9\Delta$ deletion mutant (lane 3). Kre9p was also undetectable in cell wall preparations and various fractions derived from cell lysates from each of these strains (Fig. 8A and data not shown).

The apparent molecular mass of the 55- to 60-kDa band recognized in Fig. 8A, lane 1, was significantly larger than that expected from the predicted protein sequence of Kre9p

(30 kDa). No N-linked glycosylation sites occur in the predicted sequence, but the abundance of serine and threonine residues, the heterogeneous size of the protein, and the extracellular location of the protein when overproduced suggested that Kre9p may be O glycosylated. To test this possibility, we overexpressed KRE9 in a strain harboring a deletion at the KRE2 locus. KRE2 (MNT1) encodes an $(1\rightarrow 2)-\alpha$ -mannosyltransferase, which when deleted limits O-linked chains to two mannose residues (14, 16). Western blots on the extracellular medium from either SEY6210 or $kre2\Delta$::TRP1 strains transformed with a multicopy YEp351-KRE9 plasmid were probed with the affinity-purified Kre9p antibody (Fig. 8B). Kre9p isolated from the

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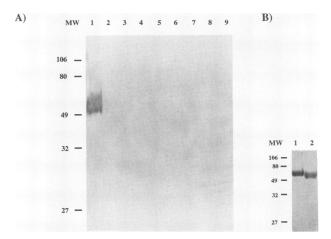


FIG. 8. Western blot analysis of Kre9p. (A) Identification of Kre9p from yeast strains carrying a multicopy KRE9 plasmid. The extracellular medium from SEY6210 plus YEp351-KRE9 (lane 1), SEY6210 plus YEp351 (lane 2), or HAB813 harboring a kre9Δ::HIS3 deletion plus YEp351 cells (lane 3) was tested with antibodies against Kre9p (see Materials and Methods). Extracts from YEp351-KRE9 and HAB813 strains were processed as described in Materials and Methods to enrich for endoplasmic reticulum membranes (lanes 4 and 5), Golgi membranes (lanes 6 and 7), or soluble proteins (lanes 8 and 9) and were probed with anti-Kre9p antibodies. (B) Western blot of extracellular medium from either SEY6210 (lane 1) or the kre2(mnt1)Δ::TRP1 disrupted strain ML267 (lane 2), both carrying a multicopy YEp351-KRE9 plasmid.

 $kre2\Delta::TRP1$ strain (lane 2) migrated more quickly than did the wild-type Kre9p (lane 1), with an apparent molecular mass of approximately 50 kDa, indicating that Kre9p is O glycosylated.

DISCUSSION

KRE9 appears to encode a secretory pathway protein with a predicted molecular mass of 30 kDa. The amino acid sequence of Kre9p indicates a serine-plus-threonine-rich protein with an apparent amino-terminal signal sequence. When overproduced, Kre9p was found in the extracellular culture medium, directly demonstrating that it enters the secretory pathway. Western blots on total-cell extracts or membrane preparations from wild-type strains and strains overexpressing KRE9 have failed to detect Kre9p. These results are consistent with a low wild-type level of the protein in a luminal or periplasmic compartment, but the actual cellular location of Kre9p has not been determined.

Overexpressing KRE9 in a strain deleted for the KRE2/ MNT1-encoded $(1\rightarrow 2)$ - α -mannosyltransferase provided direct evidence for O mannosylation. The 55- to 60-kDa Kre9p band from a wild-type strain shifted in molecular mass to approximately 50 kDa in a kre2\Delta background. The heterogeneous size distribution of Kre9p is retained in the kre2\Delta mutant strain, arguing that the heterogeneity is independent of O-mannose chain length. Other sources of heterogeneity may be variation in O glycosylation sites or additional posttranslational modifications.

Disruption of KRE9 leads to a cell wall defect and a major reduction (80 to 90%) in the amount of cell wall $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β glucan. Cells harboring the $kre9\Delta$ mutation are Zymolyase sensitive and extremely slow growing and produce a remnant $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -linked polymer that appears altered in structure and size. Size analysis of the residual $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan from a kre9\Delta mutant indicates an average molecular mass of ~10 to 20 kDa, which is significantly smaller than the ~40-kDa wild-type material. A shift in the average molecular mass of the $(1\rightarrow 6)$ -β-glucan is also seen in $kre1\Delta$ mutants (3), although the more severe phenotype observed in $kre9\Delta$ mutants suggests that Kre9p is affecting (1→6)-β-glucan synthesis in a different manner. ¹³C-NMR spectroscopy also indicated structural modifications in the $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan purified from a $kre9\Delta$ mutant, which displayed potentially altered linkage ratios in comparison with the wild type (Fig. 5). Prominent structural changes associated with the deletion of KRE9 are the increased proportion of residues unsubstituted at C-6 (61.5 ppm) and the appearance of the α and β enantiomeric forms of unsubstituted C-1 (97 and 93.5 ppm, respectively), consistent with a $(1\rightarrow 6)-\beta$ -linked polymer reduced in size. Unlike the mutant glucan purified from $kre1\Delta$ cells, the $kre9\Delta$ polymer had no significant increase in the proportion of C-3-linked residues (85 ppm). Together, these results indicate that deletion of KRE9 affects synthesis of the $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan in a manner distinct from that produced by deletion of KRE1.

The morphological aberrations observed in $kre9\Delta$ mutant cells suggest that KRE9 may be required pleiotropically for wall-related functions. The simplest explanation for these phenotypes would be that all these functions require $(1\rightarrow6)$ β-glucan. Alternatively, Kre9p could have other roles, in addition to $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan synthesis. Null mutants formed large, multiply budded structures, which were defective in their ability to form projections in the presence of the α-mating pheromone. kre9Δ mutants also displayed a reduced mating efficiency and a random budding pattern. Thus Kre9p, or the presence of $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan, may be necessary for implementing normal polarized cell wall growth.

The severity of the $kre9\Delta$ glucan phenotype suggests that Kre9p may be involved early in $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan biosynthesis. To identify possible epistasis relationships or other genetic interactions between components believed to be involved in the synthesis of the polymer, we constructed double mutants by using deletion mutants with mutations of KRE9, KRE1, KRE5, KRE6, KRE11, and SKN1. The interactions observed are summarized in Fig. 9. Deletion of KRE9 in strains harboring a kre5 null mutation, which completely lack alkali-insoluble (1→6)-β-glucan, indicated an epistatic relationship between these two genes. $kre9\Delta$ $kre5\Delta$ double mutants grew no more slowly than did $kre5\Delta$ single mutants, consistent with the hypothesis that KRE5

defines the earliest known step in the pathway.

Another cross suggested that the $kre9\Delta$ and $kre11\Delta$ mutations interact and that, together, Kre9p and Kre11p are essential for growth in the SEY6210 background. KRE11 is predicted to encode a cytoplasmic possible regulatory protein, involved in synthesis of the $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan polymer (5). Similarly, $kre11\Delta kre6\Delta$ double mutants have previously been shown to be nonviable (5, 29). The KRE6 and SKN1 genes encode highly homologous type II transmembrane proteins, which together are required for $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan synthesis. The cytoplasmic and luminal domains of these proteins could be involved, perhaps in complexes, with other proteins affecting the synthesis of this polymer. Although the lethality of $kre11\Delta kre6\Delta$, $kre6\Delta kre9\Delta$, and $kre9\Delta$ $krel1\Delta$ double mutations may be consistent with such a model, it remains possible that these interactions are indirect. Nevertheless, genes with cytoplasmic, luminal, or membrane-associated products have been identified which individually affect $(1\rightarrow \hat{6})$ - β -glucan synthesis and which interact genetically. The finding that $kre9\Delta skn1\Delta$ double mutants



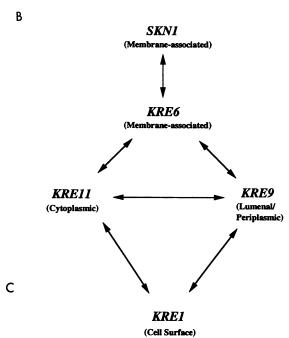


FIG. 9. Model depicting interactions between genes involved in the assembly of $(1\rightarrow 6)$ -β-glucan. Arrows show genetic interactions in which double mutants are more severely affected than the individual single mutants, and the putative locations of the gene products are indicated. (A) KRE5 appears epistatic to the other known genes and is shown at the earliest step in the pathway. (B) The homologous KRE6 and SKN1 genes also appear to be involved early in $(1\rightarrow 6)$ -β-glucan synthesis, and together these gene products are necessary for growth in SEY6210. Disruption of KRE11 is lethal in combination with mutations in KRE6, and KRE11 has also been shown to interact genetically with KRE1. KRE9 also appears essential for the growth of strains with null mutations in KRE6, KRE11, or KRE1. (C) KRE1 is positioned late in the model, since its product appears to be involved in the completion of $(1\rightarrow 6)$ -β-glucan synthesis. ER, endoplasmic reticulum.

grew as well as $kre9\Delta$ single mutants may be explained if KRE9 were epistatic to SKNI or if Skn1p required Kre9p to function. The presence of Kre6p, a functionally redundant and potentially more prominent biosynthetic homolog of Skn1p, may also provide sufficient $(1\rightarrow 6)$ - β -glucan synthesis for the growth of $kre9\Delta$ $skn1\Delta$ double mutants (29).

The $kre9\Delta$ $kre1\Delta$ double mutants were also nonviable. Kre1p is believed to be necessary for the addition of $(1\rightarrow6)$ - β -glucan side chains to a core glucan backbone. The more severe phenotype seen in the $kre9\Delta$ $kre1\Delta$ double mutants implies that Kre1p can function on the residual polymer made in a $kre9\Delta$ mutant. The ¹³C-NMR spectrum of the $kre9\Delta$ mutant glucan, discussed above, may support this notion. Thus, a simple explanation of the nonviability of $kre9\Delta$ $kre1\Delta$ double mutants would be a cumulative reduction in the levels of the polymer to less than that required for viability of this strain.

In summary, the initial characterization of the *KRE9* gene and its product suggests an important role for Kre9p in β -glucan biosynthesis. The availability of anti-Kre9p antibodies and the ability to produce Kre9p extracellularly provide tools to examine biochemically the function of this protein.

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