

Das *Kluyveromyces lactis* Killertoxin: Regulatoren des Zellimports und der intrazellulären Wirkung in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*

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von Constance Mehlgarten

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Gutachterin bzw. Gutachter

- 1. Prof. Dr. K.D. Breunig
- 2. Prof. Dr. R.G. Sawers
- 3. Prof. Dr. M.J. Schmitt

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VERÖFFENTLICHUNGEN

Publikation 1

Mehlgarten, C., and R. Schaffrath. 2004. After chitin docking, toxicity of *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin requires *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase. Cell. Microbiol. **6**: 569-80.

Publikation 2

Zink, S., C. Mehlgarten, H.K. Kitamoto, J. Nagase, D. Jablonowski, R.C. Dickson, M.J. Stark, and R. Schaffrath. 2005. Mannosyl-diinositolphospho-ceramide, the major yeast plasma membrane sphingolipid, governs toxicity of *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin. Eukaryot. Cell. **4**:879-89.

Publikation 3

Mehlgarten, C., S. Zink, J. Rutter, and R. Schaffrath. 2007. Dosage suppression of the *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae ISR1* and *UGP1*. FEMS Yeast Res. 7: 722-30.

Weitere publizierte Arbeiten

Zabel, R., C. Bär, C. Mehlgarten, and R. Schaffrath. 2008. Yeast alpha-tubulin suppressor Ats1/Kti13 relates to the Elongator complex and interacts with Elongator partner protein Kti11. Mol. Microbiol. 69: 175-87.

Jablonowski, D., S. Zink, C. Mehlgarten, G. Daum, and R. Schaffrath. 2006. tRNAGlu wobble uridine methylation by Trm9 identifies Elongator's key role for zymocin-induced cell death in yeast. Mol. Microbiol. **59**: 677-88.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Killerstämme der Milchhefe *Kluyveromyces lactis* sekretieren einen heterotrimeren ($\alpha\beta\gamma$) Toxinkomplex (Zymocin), welcher das Wachstum sensitiver Hefen wie z.B. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* inhibiert. Die Zytotoxizität des Zymocins resultiert aus der Endonucleaseaktivität der γ -Untereinheit. Diese spaltet im Zytosol sensitiver Hefezellen tRNA^{Glu}, tRNA^{Lys} und tRNA^{Gln} auf der 3'-Seite Elongator-abhängig modifizierter Wobble-Uridine (U₃₄) im Anticodonbereich. Im Gegensatz zu den intrazellulären Prozessen ist bisher nur sehr vage verstanden, wie das γ -Toxin in die Hefezelle gelangt.

Im ersten Teil der Arbeit (Publikation 1, 2 und 3) konnten vier neue Binde- bzw Importfaktoren identifiziert werden, die vermutlich in Ereignisse nach der Zymocinbindung an den Zellwandrezeptor Chitin involviert sind. Mutationen in der Plasmamembran H⁺-ATPase und Inositolphosphotransferase, codiert durch *PMA1/KT110* und *IPT1/KT16*, vermitteln Resistenz gegenüber exogenem Zymocin, sind jedoch gegenüber intrazellulär exprimiertem γ -Toxin sensitiv. Im Gegensatz zu ATPase-defizienten *pma1/kti10*-Zellen, ist der Eintritt des γ -Toxins in *ipt1/kti6*-Zellen mit gestörter Synthese des Sphingolipids M(IP)₂C blockiert. Pma1 scheint daher an der zytosolischen Freisetzung und/oder Aktivierung des γ -Toxins beteiligt zu sein. Auch die putative Proteinkinase Isr1 und die in Hefezellen essentielle UGPase Ugp1 besitzen als *multicopy* Suppressoren einen Einfluss auf diese frühen Transportwege innerhalb der Zymocinkaskade.

Im zweiten Teil (Manuskript 1 und 2) steht der evolutionär hochkonservierte Elongator im Mittelpunkt. Der Komplex hat Acetyltransferase-Aktivität und ist essentiell für die Bildung von modifizierten Seitenketten im Anticodon (U34) einiger tRNAs. Die Aktivität des Elongators ist dabei nicht nur von einer vollständigem Assemblierung, sondern auch vom Phosphorylierungsstatus der Elp1-Untereinheit, abhängig. Im Wildtyp liegt Elp1 in einem Gleichgewicht zwischen hypo- und hyperphosphorylierter Form vor. Es konnte gezeigt werden, dass neben der Typ2A-Proteinphosphatase Sit4, auch die Caseinkinase Hrr25 den Elp1-Phosphorylierungsstatus beeinflusst. Die Akkumulation der hypophosphorylierten Elp1-Form in hrr25-Zellen ist assoziiert mit Zymocinresistenz, elp-Phänotypen und tRNA-Suppressionsverlust. Darüber hinaus zeigten Komplementationsstudien, dass strukturelle Defekte und tRNA-Modifikationdefekte von Hefe-Elongatormutanten ($elp1\Delta$, $elp3\Delta$ und $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$) durch homologe Pflanzengene (AtELP1, EtELP3 und AtELP1AtELP3) behoben werden können. Wie in Hefezellen, führt auch in A. thaliana eine Deletion der AtELP3-Untereinheit durch Elongatordefizienz zum Verlust der U₃₄-tRNA Modifikationen (ncm⁵ and mcm⁵s²). Diese Daten lassen den Schluss zu, dass die Funktion des Elongator innerhalb der tRNA-Modifikation evolutionär konserviert ist.

SUMMARY

Killer strains of the yeast *Kluyveromyces lactis* secrete a heterotrimeric ($\alpha\beta\gamma$) protein toxin (zymocin) that inhibits cell cycle progression of sensitive yeasts including *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. The cytotoxicity of zymocin resides in the γ -subunit (γ -toxin). The γ -toxin is a tRNA anticodon endonuclease which cleaves tRNA (tRNA^{Glu}, tRNA^{Lys} und tRNA^{Gln}) carrying Elongator-dependent modified uridine at position 34 (wobble position). The cleavage occurs 3' of the wobble nucleotide. In contrast to the intracellular target process, zymocin binding and γ -toxin import into the cell are poorly understood.

In the first part (publication 1, 2 and 3) four new components were found to be involved in events after the initial step of zymocin docking to chitin and before γ -toxin acting on the tRNA target. Mutations in the major plasma membrane H⁺ pump and the mannosyldiinositolphospho-ceramide (M(IP)₂C) synthase, encoded by *PMA1/KT110* and *IPT1/KT16*, confer resistance to exogenous zymocin, but not to intracellularly expressed γ -toxin. In contrast to *pma1/kti10* cells, the entry of γ -toxin is blocked in *ipt1* cells with defective sphingolipid synthesis. It is likely that Pma1 is required to promote γ -toxin trafficking and/or cytosolic release after uptake. *UGP1* and *ISR1* (encoding UDP-glucose pyrophosphorylase (UGPase) and Ras-related putative Isr1 kinase) could be identified as dosage suppressors involved in early steps of the zymocin response in *S. cerevisiae*.

The second part (manuscript 1 and 2) was focused on the evolutionary highly conserved Elongator. The complex has histone acetyltransferase activity and is also required for modifications of the uridine wobble position (U_{34}) in the tRNA anticodon. The activity of the Elongator complex depends on its structural integrity and the phosphorylation state of its subunit Elp1. Well-balanced levels of hypo- and hyperphosphorylated Elp1 forms are important for Elongator function in tRNA-related processes. Casein kinase Hrr25 and protein phosphatase Sit4 antagonistically control Elp1 phosphorylation states. *hrr25* mutants cause Elp1 hypophosphorylation, which is associated with zymocin resistance, *elp*-phenotypes and tRNA modification defects. Complementation studies in yeast indicate that plant Elongator is highly related to the yeast complex. Individual plant subunits (*AtELP1, EtELP3* und *AtELP1AtELP3*) can substitute for the yeast subunits and promote complex assembly and support tRNA modification in yeast. It was shown that AtELP3 in *A. thaliana* is required for the formation of ncm⁵ and mcm⁵s² groups on uridines at the wobble position in tRNA. This suggests similar catalytic activities in yeast and plants and conservation of the tRNA modification of Elongator.

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ABKÜRZUNGSVERZEICHNIS

А	Adenin(nukeotid)	НАР	Histonacetyltransferase assoziierte Proteine
Abb.	Abbildung	HAT	Histonacetyltransferase
ATP	Adenosin-5'-triphosphat	Kb	Kilobasenpaare
6-AU	6-Azaurail	kDa	Kilodalton
bp	Basenpaare	MAPK	Mitogen-aktivierte Proteinkinase
bzw.	beziehungsweise	MMS	Methylmethansulfonat
С	Cytosin(nukleotid)	mRNA	messanger ribonuclein acid
ca.	cirka	mc	multicopy
ChIP	Chromatin-Immunopräzipitation	NLS	nucleus localization signal
CKI	Caseinkinase I-Isoform	ORF	open reading frame
CoIP	Koimmunopräzipitation	PSTK	Phosphoseryl-tRNA ^{Sec} -Kinase
COPII	coat protein complexes	R	Arginin
D	Asparaginsäure	RNA	ribonuclein acid
Da	Dalton	RNAPII	RNA-Polymerase II
d.h.	das heißt	RNase	Ribonuklease
DNA	desoxyribonucleinacid	RIP	RNA-Immunopräzipitation
Е	Glutaminsäure	RT	Raumtemperatur
et al.	und andere	SAM	S-Adenosyl-Methionin
ER	Endoplasmatisches Retikulum	Т	Thymidin(nukleotid)
FeS	Eisen-Schwefer-Cluster	Tab.	Tabelle
G	Guanin(nukleotid)	tRNA	Transfer RNA
GEF	Guaninnucleotid-Austauschfaktor	Ts	Temperatursensitivität
GTP	Guanosin-5'-triphosphat	WT	Wildtyp
GPI	Glycosyl-Phosphatidyl-Inositol	2μ	2µ origin of replication
HA	Hämagglutenin Epitop		

1. EINLEITUNG

Wesentliche molekular- und zellbiologische Erkenntnisse der letzten Jahrzehnte wurden mit Hilfe von Modellorganismen gewonnen. Viele grundlegende Prozesse in menschlichen Zellen sind weitgehend identisch mit Abläufen in weniger komplexen Organismen, wie der Bäckerhefe *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Sie war der erste eukaryotische Organismus, dessen Genom vollständig sequenziert wurde (61, 62). Es besteht aus ca. 13 Millionen Basenpaaren und insgesamt 6275 derzeit annotierten Genen. Da zwischenzeitlich auch die Genome anderer Spezies, wie zum Beispiel *Arabidopsis thaliana* (181) und *Homo sapiens* (105, 189) sequenziert wurden, sind Analysen und Rückschlüsse auf die Konservierung einzelner Gene zwischen verschiedenen Organismen sehr gut möglich. Zu mehr als 23 % der Gene des Hefegenoms gibt es beispielsweise homologe Gene im humanen Genom. Das spricht für eine erstaunliche genetische Konservierung und bestärkt den Einsatz von Hefen als Modellorganismen in der biowissenschaftlichen Forschung.

1.1. Konservierung am Beispiel des Elongatorkomplexes in S. cerevisiae

Der Elongator ist ein Beispiel für eine solche Konservierung. Er wurde in den 90er Jahren erstmals als Komponente des RNA-Polymerase II-Holoenzyms (RNAPII) aus dem Chromatin der Bäckerhefe S. cerevisiae isoliert (136). Der Elongator ist ein Proteinkomplex, welcher aus den sechs Untereinheiten Elp1-Elp6 besteht. Dabei bilden Elp1, Elp2 und Elp3 den Core-Komplex und Elp4, Elp5 und Elp6 den HAP-Komplex (Histonacetyltransferase-associated proteins) (102, 108, 194). Die beiden heterotrimeren Subkomplexe bilden zusammen den funktionellen Holo-Elongator (194). Sowohl das Genom von H. sapiens, als auch A. thaliana weisen für jede der sechs beschriebenen Hefe-Elongatoruntereinheiten homologe Gene auf (Tab. 1). Es konnte gezeigt werden, dass auch in diesen beiden Organismen strukturell sehr ähnliche Komplexe existieren (70, 97 und Mieke van Lijsebettens, unveröffentlichte Daten). Mutationen in jeder einzelnen Untereinheit führen in Hefen und Pflanzen zu pleiotropen Phänotypen (47, 52, 53, 86, 102, 108, 136, 194, 196). Das deutet darauf hin, dass dieser Proteinkomplex sowohl für ein- als auch mehrzellige Organismen eine wichtige koordinierende Rolle für Zellwachstum und Zellproliferation besitzen könnte. Trotz der offensichtlichen strukturellen Ähnlichkeiten ist bisher nicht geklärt, ob der Elongator zwischen Hefe, Pflanzen und Mensch auch funktionell konserviert ist und wie seine Funktionen reguliert werden. Es stellt sich unter anderem die Frage, ob der Konservierungsgrad der einzelnen Untereinheiten so hoch ist, dass sich Elongatordefekte durch Expression homologer Gene aus anderen Organismen beheben lassen. In Kapitel 2.2.2. (Manuskript 2) dieser Arbeit wird adressiert, ob sich ein durch Deletion einzelner Untereinheiten inaktivierter Komplex in *S. cerevisiae* mittels entsprechender homologer Elongatorgene aus *A. thaliana* strukturell und funktionell komplementieren lässt.

Tab. 1:: Homologe Gene für Elongatoruntereinheiten und *KTI12* aus *S. cerevisiae*, *H. sapiens* und *A. thaliana* nach BLASTP (TAIR) oder PSI-BLAST (NCBI).

Saccharomyces cerevisiae	Homo sapiens	Arabidopsis thaliana
ELP1	IKAP	ELO2 / AtELP1
ELP2	hElp2	AtELP2
ELP3	hElp3	ELO3 / AtELP3
ELP4	Paxneb	ELO1 / AtELP4
ELP5	Rai12	AtELP5
ELP6	FLJ20211	AtELP6
TOT4 / KTI12	AAH12173	DRL1 / AtKTI12

1.1.1. Funktionelle Aspekte des Elongators in S. cerevisiae

Wie bereits erwähnt, wurde der hexamere Elongatorkomplex ursprünglich in *S. cerevisiae*, und später auch in *H. sapiens*, als RNAPII-assoziierter Komplex isoliert (70, 97, 136). Es wurde vermutet, dass der Elongator der RNAPII wahrscheinlich mittels seiner Elp3-assoziierten Histonacetyltransferase- (HAT) Aktivität bei der Transkript-Elongation assistiert, indem er über Histonacetylierung die Chromatinstruktur beeinflusst (97, 136, 196, 197). Diese Vermutung wird durch RNA-Immunopräzipitations- (RIP) und Chromatin-Immunopräzipitationsanalysen (ChIP) gestützt, in welchen eine Interaktion des Elongators mit RNA und/oder Chromatin nachgewiesen werden konnten (59, 100, 101, 120, 195). Die Affinität zu naszenter, unprozessierter prä-m-RNA war dabei höher, als zu DNA (120). Diese Befunde, sowie die transkriptionsfördernde Wirkung auf die RNAPII *in vitro* (97) und die Interaktion mit Transkriptionsfaktoren (126, 152, 197), deuten auf eine Beteiligung des Elongators an transkriptionellen Prozessen hin (Abb.1). Dennoch ist die Funktion des Elongators des Elongators als genereller Transkriptionsfaktor umstritten. Genomweite Studien zeigten, dass



nach Raffael Schaffrath

Abb. 1: Schematische Darstellung der putativen Funktionen des Elongatorkomplexes in *S. cerevisiae*. Die dargestellten Befunde implizieren eine Involvierung des Elongators in Transkription, tRNA-Modifikation und Sekretion.

lediglich ~1-2% des Hefe-Transkriptoms in Elongatormutanten verändert sind, wobei sich die betroffenen Gene keinen bestimmten Funktionsklassen zuordnen lassen (102). Die Lokalisierung des Hefe- und menschlichen Elongators in Zytoplasma und Zellkern lässt zudem vermuten, dass er an mehr als einem zellulären Prozess beteiligt ist (49, 70, 97, 178). Neuere Studien bringen den Elongator auch mit zytoplasmatischen Funktionen in Verbindung. Der Elongatorkomplex könnte in S. cerevisiae in sekretorische Prozesse involviert zu sein (149). Insbesondere die Transportwege zwischen Endoplasmatisches Retikulum (ER) und Golgi-Apparat, sowie der post-Golgi Transport zeigen Abhängigkeit von einem funktionellen Elongatorkomplex (Abb. 1). So wurde Elp1 als ein Interaktionspartner von Sec2 beschrieben (149). Da eine $elp1\Delta$ -Deletion zur Misslokalisation von Sec2 führt, spielt diese Interaktion vermutlich eine Rolle bei der Sec2-Lokalisierung (149). Die Rekrutierung und korrekte Lokalisierung von Sec2 ist aber wichtig, da es als Guaninnucleotid-Austauschfaktor (GEF) die GTPase der Rab-Familie Sec4 aktiviert, welche die Exozytose von sekretorischen post-Golgi Vesikeln zur Spitze von knospenden Hefen vermittelt (135, 190). Rahl et al. (2005) konnten zeigen, dass eine sec2-59-Mutation neben den zu erwartenden Sekretionsdefekten auch zu Temperatursensitivität führt (149). Zusätzliche Deletionen der Elongatorgene ELP1-ELP3 aber können die Temperatursensitivität der *sec2-59*-Mutante supprimieren. Die resultierenden Doppelmutanten sind dann wieder in der Lage, bei restriktiven Temperaturen zu wachsen (149). In diesem Zusammenhang wurde innerhalb dieser Promotionsarbeit untersucht, ob zusätzliche Deletionen der HAP-Komplexuntereinheiten *ELP4-ELP6* ähnliche Suppressionseffekte vermitteln.

Auch eine Mutation im SEC12-Gen (sec12-4) führt zu einem sec2-59 vergleichbaren Phänotyp eingeschlossen Sekretionsdefekte und Temperatursensitivität (129). Sec12 ist ein ER-assoziiertes Protein, welches an der zeitlichen und räumlichen Regulation des Transports der am ER synthetisierten Proteine beteiligt ist. Es fungiert als GEF für die GTPase Sar1 (130). Sar1 agiert innerhalb des ER-Golgi-Transports als ein molekularer Schalter bei der Rekrutierung des coat protein complexes (COPII) an der ER-Membran. In der GTPgebundenen Form fördert Sar1 die Vesikelformation und -abschnürung (7, 8). Untersuchungen zeigten, dass eine inaktive Caseinkinase I-Mutante (hrr25) die Temperatursensitivität der sec12-4-Mutante supprimieren kann (127). Da hrr25-Zellen elpähnliche Phänotypen zeigen (116), stellte sich die Frage, ob auch hier zusätzliche Deletionen von Elongatoruntereinheiten einen supprimierenden Effekt haben und das Wachstum bei restriktiven Temperaturen ermöglichen. Aus diesem Grund wurden innerhalb dieser Arbeit elp1\Delta-elp6Δ-Deletionsmutanten im sec12-4-Stammhintergrund hergestellt und ihr Wachstum bei verschiedenen Temperaturen getestet. Die Ergebnisse (sec2-59 und sec12-4) wurden zum Teil innerhalb der Publikation Zabel et al. (2008) (201) veröffentlicht, welche nicht Gegenstand dieser Promotionsarbeit ist. Sie werden im Kapitel 2.4. "Weitere publizierte Arbeiten" kurz dargestellt und zusammengefasst.

Die Arbeitsgruppe um Anders Byström (Umea University, Schweden) konnte zeigen, dass ein funktionsfähiger Elongator für die Modifikation einiger zytoplasmatischer transfer RNA-Spezies essentiell ist (Abb. 1) (42, 80). tRNAs sind Adaptermoleküle, welche die mRNA in Proteine decodieren und deshalb eine zentrale Rolle bei der Genexpression spielen. Das primäre tRNA-Transkript unterliegt einer Reihe von Prozessierungsschritten und modifizierenden Ereignissen, um eine reife tRNA zu generieren (78). Bei diesen Reifungsprozessen werden posttranskriptionell die vier Nukleoside Adenosin (A), Guanosin (G), Cytidin (C) und Uridin (U) spezifisch modifiziert (10). Die Funktion der Modifikationen scheint primär innerhalb decodierender Prozesse der mRNA zu liegen, wie die Erhöhung der Genauigkeit der Codon-Anticodon-Erkennung während der Translation. Sie senken somit die Wahrscheinlichkeit von Misstranslationen und agieren außerdem als Identitätselemente in der Aminoacyl-tRNA Synthetaseerkennung (1, 10, 58, 110, 200). Von den zytoplasmatischen

tRNAs werden elf Elongator-abhängig modifiziert. Diese tRNAs enthalten in der Anticodon-Wobbleposition (U_{34}) posttranslational modifiziertes Uridin, wie 5-Methoxycarbonylmethyluridin (mcm⁵U), 5-Methoxycarbonylmethyl-2-thiouridin (mcm⁵s²U) und 5-Carbamoylmethyluridin (ncm⁵U) (Abb. 2). In Elongatormutanten fehlen die U₃₄-Modifikationen (80). Die pleiotropen Phänotypen der *elp*-Mutanten könnten somit aus einer fehlenden Genauigkeit und Effizienz der mRNA-Translation resultieren. Unklar ist aber, wie die Modifikationreaktion abläuft und ob der Elongator direkt oder indirekt in diesen Prozess eingreift.



Abb. 2: Modifikationen am Wobble-Uridin (U₃₄) im Anticodonbereich von elf tRNAs erfolgen Elongatorabhängig. Die Strukturen der mcm⁵U, mcm⁵s²U und ncm⁵U Modifikationen sind dargestellt (80). Der Riboserest ist mit "R" gekennzeichnet.

Zusammenfassend kann festgestellt werden, dass diese Befunde für einen Elongatorkomplex mit verschiedenen putativen Funktionen sprechen (Abb. 1). Kernlokalisiert könnte er die Transkriptionselongation beeinflussen, indem er mit Hilfe seiner HAT-Aktivität die Chromatinstruktur verändert. Im Zytoplasma könnte er eine Rolle bei der Sekretion von Vesikeln in knospenden Hefen spielen und eine essentielle Funktion in der tRNA-Modifikation übernehmen. Ob die drei genannten putativen Funktionen in *S. cerevisiae* tatsächlich in einer direkten Abhängigkeit zum Elongator stehen, wird derzeit zwischen den verschiedenen Arbeitsgruppen kontrovers diskutiert (siehe Diskussion).

1.1.2. Die Untereinheiten des Elongators in S. cerevisiae

Während über die drei HAP-Komplex-Untereinheiten Elp4, Elp5 und Elp6 derzeit noch nichts genaueres bekannt ist und über eine Rolle in der Substraterkennung des Core-Komplexes spekuliert wird (195), konnten Elp1, Elp2 und Elp3 Funktionen zugeordnet werden.

Elp1 ist das Hefehomolog des menschlichen IKaP (<u>I</u>κB-<u>K</u>inasekomplex-<u>a</u>ssoziiertes <u>P</u>roteins) (Tab. 1), welches innerhalb des humanen Elongators als stabilisierendes Gerüstprotein fungiert (24, 70, 23, 142). Interaktionsstudien lassen vermuten, dass Elp1 auch in *S. cerevisiae* eine derartige Rolle für die Integrität des Elongators übernehmen könnte (53). Mutationen in dieser größten Elongatoruntereinheit führen zu pleiotropen Phänotypen, darunter beim Menschen das neuropathologische Krankheitsbild famiale Dysautonomie (Riley-Day Syndrom) (170), in Hefen u.a. zu Sensitivität gegenüber thermischem und chemischem Stress und wie in Pflanzen auch zu einem stark verzögerten Wachstum (52, 86, 133).

Das Elp2-Protein enthält mit acht WD40-Wiederholungen ein Aminosäure-Sequenzmotiv, das ebenfalls wichtig für den strukturellen Aufbau des Elongators und/oder der Interaktion mit Elongator-assoziierten Proteinen sein könnte. Es kann eine propellerartige Tertiärstruktur ausbilden, die typisch für Protein-Protein oder Protein-Ligand-Interaktionsdomänen ist (43). In *elp2* Δ -Zellen kommt es zwar zur Assemblierung des Elongators, die Affinität zwischen den beiden Subkomplexen scheint jedoch vermindert zu sein (53, 142).

Elp3 ist die Elongatoruntereinheit, welche von Archea bis zum Menschen am stärksten konserviert ist (196). Hefe-Elp3 und pflanzliches AtElp3 haben etwa 66% Identität auf Aminosäureebene. Zudem besitzen beide zwei katalytische Domänen. Ein Motiv, welches charakteristisch für die *GCN5*-Familie von Histonacetyltransferasen ist (196) und ein Motiv, welches Homologie zu <u>S-A</u>denosyl-<u>M</u>ethionin- (SAM) Radikalenzymen zeigt (22, 137). Mit rekombinant hergestelltem Elp3 konnte eine *in vitro* HAT-Aktivität gegenüber allen vier Histonen nachgewiesen werden (70, 97, 195, 196). Im Gegensatz dazu acetyliert nativer, hoch aufgereinigter Elongator nur die Histone H3 und H4 (195). Bevorzugte Zielaminosäuren waren dabei Lysin 14 (K14) von Histon H3, sowie etwas abgeschwächt K8 und K12 von Histon H4. Der Befund, dass in *elp3*Δ-Zellen das Acetylierungslevel von H3 ähnlich stark reduziert ist, wie in *gcn5*Δ-Zellen stützt wiederum eine Beteiligung des Elongators an der Transkriptions (195). Gcn5 ist die HAT-Untereinheit des gut charakterisierten Chromatin-Remodeling-Komplexes SAGA (204). Während die HAT-Domäne von Elp3 gut charakterisiert ist, ist die Bedeutung der *radical* SAM-Domäne für die Funktion des

Elongators noch unklar. Spekuliert wird einerseits über eine strukturelle Funktion bei der Stabilisierung der Integrität des Komplexes (64). Anderseits enthalten *radical* SAM-Enzyme ein Eisen-Schwefel- (FeS) Cluster und greifen über einen Adenosyl-Radikalmechanismus in diverse biosynthetische Prozesse ein (104, 137). Das Adenosyl-Radikal entsteht dabei aus dem enzymgebundenen S-Adenosyl-Methionin (SAM) (191). Die Kombination einer *radical* SAM-Domäne mit einer HAT-Domäne wurde bisher nur in Elp3-Homologen gefunden. Es ist vorstellbar, dass Elp3 mit Hilfe dieser Domäne in die Bildung modifizierter tRNA-Nukleotide im Zytoplsma involviert ist. Zum Beispiel katalysiert MiaB, ein bakterielles *radical* SAM-Protein, die Thiolierung und Methylierung von tRNAs (137, 144).

1.2. Das K. lactis-Killertoxin

Auch ein weiterer Aspekt schien zunächst die transkriptionelle Funktion des Elongators zu unterstützen. Er wurde als potentielles intrazelluläres Target eines Toxins (Synonym: Zymocin) ausgemacht, welches von der Milchhefe Kluyveromyces lactis produziert und ins Medium ausgeschleust wird (52, 159). K. lactis als ein Vertreter der sogenannten Killerhefen benutzt diese Strategie, um sich einen selektiven Wachstumsvorteil im Wettbewerb um Nährstoffe über mikrobielle Mitstreiter zu verschaffen. Diese können durch die Wirkung des Zymocins in Zellwachstum und Zellzyklus blockiert werden (49, 66, 98). Das K. lactis-Toxin ist plasmidcodiert und hemmt die Vermehrung der Bäckerhefe S. cerevisiae durch einen irreversiblen Block in der G1-Phase des Zellzyklus (47, 52, 86,). Sensitive Zielzellen arretieren ohne Sprossung mit einem präreplikativen (1n) DNA-Gehalt. Trotz der heterotrimeren ($\alpha\beta\gamma$) Struktur des nativen Zymocins wird seine Toxizität primär durch die γ -Untereinheit, dem sogenannten γ -Toxin, vermittelt (Abb. 3A). In sensitiven S. cerevisiae-Zellen führt eine conditionale intrazellulare Expression des y-Gens unter Verwendung regulierbarer GAL-Promotoren zu einem galaktoseabhängigen Wachstumsblock, welcher dem des Zymocins entspricht (14, 52, 183). Da exogen appliziertes y-Toxin keinen Effekt auf sensitive Zielzellen ausübt (183), liegt die Vermutung nahe, dass die α - und β -Untereinheit des Zymocins für die Bindung an die Oberfläche potentieller Zielzellen und den γ-Toxinimport in das Zellinnere benötigt werden (85). Durch Chitin-Affinitätschromatographie konnte gezeigt werden, dass Zymocin *in vitro* an Chitin bindet. Dies geschieht vermutlich mit Hilfe der a-Untereinheit, welche neben einem Chitin-Bindemotiv auch eine Chitinase-Domäne besitzt. Das deutet auf Chitin als Zymocinrezeptor hin (15, 85). Zudem vermittelt die

Reduktion des Gehalts an Zellwandchitin durch Deletionen von Genen der Chitinbiosynthese (*chs3* Δ , *chs4* Δ und *chs7* Δ) (Tab. 4) Zymocinresistenz, ohne die Sensitivität dieser Bindemutanten gegen das γ -Toxin herabzusetzen (85). Da die β -Untereinheit mittels einer kovalenten Disulfidbrücke im Komplex mit dem γ -Toxin verbunden ist (β –S=S– γ), ist es vorstellbar, dass dieses erst nach Entkoppelung von ihr translozierbar wird (172). Dafür müsste die Disulfiddoppelbindung –S=S– zu einer Sulfhydryl-Form –SH₂ reduziert werden. Wie diese Reduzierung abläuft ist bisher noch nicht bekannt. Beispielsweise sind die jeweils zwei Untereinheiten der Diphtherie-, Botulinum- und Tetanustoxine ebenfalls durch Disulfidbrücken miteinander verbunden. Eine Untereinheit ist dabei für die Bindung an Zelloberflächenrezeptoren verantwortlich, während die andere Untereinheit die noch inaktive toxische Komponente darstellt. Durch reduktive Spaltung mittels einer Thioredoxin-Reduktase erlangt die toxische Untereinheit letztlich volle katalytische Aktivität (6, 122, 123). Wie später ausgeführt, könnte in *S. cerevisiae* das Glutaredoxin Grx3 in diesen Prozess involviert sein.

1.2.1. Resistenz gegen das Zymocin

In den 90er Jahren isolierten verschiedene Arbeitsgruppen in unabhängigen Versuchsansätzen eine Vielzahl von Zymocin-resistenten Mutanten in *S. cerevisiae* (16, 95, 96, 98, 158, 179, 199). Um die Wirkungsweise des Zymocins aufzuklären, arbeitete unsere Arbeitsgruppe in einer Kooperation mit Prof. Mike Stark (University of Dundee, Schottland) mit der dreizehn Komplementationsgruppen umfassenden *kti*-Mutantenkollektion (*kti1-kti4, kti6-kti14*) (Tab. 2). *Kti* steht hierbei für <u>K</u>. *lactis toxin insensitiv*. Diese Mutanten entstammen einem Experiment, bei welchem in zwei Wildtypstämmen entgegengesetzten Paarungstyps (LL20/MAT α und KY117/MATa) nach spontanen Mutationen gesucht wurde, die in Gegenwart inhibitorischer Zymocinkonzentrationen Wachstum vermittelten (16).

Grundsätzlich kann man Mutationen, die zu einer Resistenz gegenüber dem *K. lactis*-Toxin führen, in zwei Klassen einteilen. Beide unterscheiden sich in ihrem Verhalten gegenüber intrazellulär exprimiertem γ -Toxin. Die erste Klasse (Klasse I) umfasst Mutationen, welche vermutlich eine Zymocinbindung bzw. Aufnahme des γ -Toxins in das Zellinnere nicht mehr erlauben. Das bedeutet, dass diese Mutanten zwar resistent gegenüber exogenem Zymocin sind, aber sensitiv gegenüber einer intrazellulärem Expression des γ -Toxins. Hierfür sind Mutationen wie z.B. in den bereits angesprochenen Chitinbiosynthesegenen verantwortlich (85). Von den drei *kti*-Mutanten der Klasse I *kti2*, *kti6* und *kti10* konnte bisher nur das *KTI2*-

Allel dem Gen *CHS3* zugeordnet werden (Tab. 2). Die Identifizierung der mutierten Genorte bzw. die Charakterisierung der *kti6-* und *kti10-*Mutanten sind Gegenstand des ersten Teils dieser Arbeit und werden im Kapitel 2.1. (Publikation 1 und 2) beschrieben.

Mutationen, die Resistenz gegen exogen appliziertem Zymocin und intrazellulär exprimiertem γ-Toxin vermitteln, fallen in die zweite Klasse (Klasse II). Hierbei handelt es sich um Mutationen in Genen, deren Genprodukte für die intrazelluläre Wirkung des y-Toxins essentiell sind. Zu diesen gehören jene sechs Elongatorgene (KTI3=ELP2, KTI4=ELP6, KTI7=ELP1, KTI8=ELP3, KTI9=ELP4 und ELP5= kein KTI-Allel), sowie die Elongatorassoziierten Gene KTI11-KTI14 (DPH3, KTI12, ATS1 und HRR25) und SIT4 (kein KTI-Allel) (Tab. 2), Die bereits identifizierten KTI-Allele konnten mittels Komplementationsanalyse und Kreuzungsversuchen den entsprechenden Genen zugeordnet werden (48, 116. unveröffentlichte Daten). Die Zymocinresistenz dieser Klasse II-Mutanten korreliert stets mit weiteren phänotypischen Veränderungen, wie Sensitivität gegenüber thermischem und chemischem Stress und einem signifikant langsamerem Wachstum als der Wildtyp (47, 48, 52). Mit der Identifizierung von KTI1 konnte unsere Arbeitsgruppe 2006 ein für die Aufklärung der Zymocinwirkung entscheidendes Klasse II-Allele dem Gen TRM9 zuordnen (89). TRM9 codiert eine tRNA-Methyltransferase, welche die Modifikation des Wobble-Uridins U₃₄ im Anticodon beeinflusst. Mit dem Anhängen eines Methylrestes an die tRNA^{Arg} tRNA^{Glu} wird durch Trm9 ein terminaler und Schritt innerhalb der tRNA-Modifikationsreaktionen katalysiert (93).

Aber nicht nur Mutationen oder Deletionen führen zu Zymocinresistenz, auch durch Überexpression bestimmter Gene können *S. cerevisiae*-Zellen Schutz vor dem *K. lactis*-Toxin erlangen. Die vier Allele *GRX3*, *SAP155*, *KTI12* und tRNA^{Glu} wurden bisher als *multicopy* Suppressoren der Zymocinsensitivität identifiziert (Tab. 3) (16, 46, 87, 88). Eine Überexpression des Glutaredoxins *GRX3* schützt Hefezellen nur gegenüber exogenem Zymocin, während intrazellulär exprimiertes γ -Toxin weiterhin zu einem Wachstumsarrest, vergleichbar zu Klasse I-Mutanten, führt. Dies könnte in einer veränderten Redoxregulation begründet sein, welche einen Einfluss auf die Reduzierung der Disulfiddoppelbindung –S=S-zwischen γ - und der β -Untereinheit haben könnte. Das γ -Toxin könnte dann nicht mehr vom Zymocin entkoppelt werden, was möglicherweise Import bzw. Aktivierung des γ -Toxins beeinflusst (87). Dagegen sind *SAP155*, *KTI12* und tRNA^{Glu} eher in die intrazellulären γ -Toxinwirkung involviert, da sie kopienabhängig Resistenz gegenüber exogenem Zymocin und endogen exprimiertem γ -Toxin verleihen (46, 87, 88). Auf die drei letztgenannten Szenarien wird im Folgenden noch genauer eingegangen.

1.2.2. Wirkmechanismus des y-Toxins

Der Arbeitsgruppe um Anders Byström (Umea Universität, Schweden) gelang es schließlich, die Zymocinresistenz von Elongatormutanten mit der zytoplasmatischen Funktion des Elongators innerhalb der tRNA-Modifikation in Verbindung zu bringen. Wie bereits erwähnt, erfolgen Modifikationen an der Wobble-Base U₃₄ in *S. cerevisiae* in Abhängigkeit vom Elongatorkomplex (80). Das intrazellulär aktive γ -Toxin erwies sich als tRNA-Endonuclease, welche Elongator-abhängig modifizierte tRNAs im Anticodon schneidet (Abb. 3B). *In vitro* Studien zeigten eine endonucleolytische Aktivität des γ -Toxins gegenüber tRNA^{Glu}, tRNA^{Lys} und tRNA^{Gln}, wobei vollständig modifizierte tRNAs dabei auf der 3'-Seite von Elongator- und Trm9abhängig modifiziertem U₃₄ und es entsteht 2',3'-zyklisches Phosphate und ein 5'-Hydroxylterminus (80, 111).



Abb. 3: Schematische Darstellung der Zymocin-Wirkkaskade.

(A) Sogenannte *K. lactis*-Killerhefen sekretierten ein aus drei Untereinheiten ($\alpha\beta\gamma$) bestehendes Toxin. Nach der Bindung des Zymocins an die Zellwand sensitiver *S. cerevisiae*-Zielzellen erfolgt der γ -Toxinimport in das Zellinnere und die intrazelluläre Kommunikation des γ -Toxins mit den *target* tRNAs.

(**B**) Das γ -Toxin schneidet endonucleolytisch die tRNA^{Glu}, tRNA^{Lys} und tRNA^{Gln} zwischen den Position 34 und 35 im Anticodonbereich. Die γ -Untereinheit des Zymocins ist das erste identifizierte eukaryotische Toxin, dessen Ziel tRNAs sind (89, 111).

Bei Verlust von Elongatoruntereinheiten (Elp1-Elp6), Elongator-assoziierten Proteinen (Kti11-Kti14, Sit4) oder Trm9 unterbleiben die U₃₄-Modifikationen. Infolgedessen werden hypomodifizierte tRNAs akkumuliert, die nicht vom γ -Toxin geschnitten werden können und somit diesen Hefezellen Zymocinresistenz verleihen (80, 81 89). Eine Überexpression der tRNA^{Glu} verleiht Wildtypzellen ebenfalls Zymocinschutz (16, 89). Das könnte darin begründet sein, dass die Kapazität von Elongator und Trm9 hier nicht mehr ausreichend ist, um alle tRNA^{Glu}-Moleküle zu modifizieren. Die überschüssigen hypomodifizierten tRNA^{Glu}-Moleküle schirmen möglicherweise den Pool an voll modifizierter und somit restringierbarer tRNA^{Glu} von der tRNase-Aktivität des γ -Toxins ab. Diese These steht im Einklang mit der Beobachtung, dass eine zusätzliche Überexpression von *TRM9* die Suppression des Zymocins durch das Überangebot an tRNA^{Glu} aufhebt und die Zellen gegen Zymocin wieder anfällig macht (89). Außerdem konnte gezeigt werden, dass Elp1 und Elp3 *in vitro* spezifisch mit tRNA^{Glu} interagieren, was auf eine direkte Involvierung des Elongators in Wobble-Uridin Modifikationen deuten könnte (80).

1.3. Funktionsweise von Suppressor-tRNAs

Die Elongator-abhängig eingefügten U₃₄-Modifikationen sind nicht nur für die Funktion verschiedener zytoplasmatischer tRNAs wichtig, sondern beispielsweise auch für Suppressor tRNAs. Diese tRNAs sind im Anticodonbereich derart mutiert, dass sie ein Stopp-Codon überlesen können und so in der Lage sind, nonsense Mutationen auszugleichen bzw. zu supprimieren. Dieses natürlich vorkommende Phänomen kann in funktionellen Suppressionsassays angewendet werden. Beispielsweise codiert SUP4 eine nonsense Suppressor tRNA^{Tyr} mit einer Mutation in der Wobbleposition des Anticodons. Durch einen G34 nach U34 Austausch ist diese tRNA in der Lage, ochre Stopp-Codons (UAA) zu lesen und als Tyrosin zu decodieren (80). Die Effizienz und Genauigkeit von SUP4 hängt unter anderem von der mcm⁵-Modifikation am Wobble-Uridin U₃₄ ab, welche in Abhängigkeit der Elongatoruntereinheiten Elp1-Elp6, der Elongator-assoziierten Proteine Kti11-Kti14 bzw. Sit4 und Sap185/Sap190 erfolgt (80, 81). Um den Elongator auf Funktionalität zu testen, kann beispielsweise mutiertes ade2-1 als Reportergen dienen. Hier wird aufgrund einer nonsense Mutation (UAA) kein funktionelles Genprodukt gebildet. ADE2 codiert ein Enzym der Adeninbiosynthese. Fehlt dieses Enzym kommt es zu der Anhäufung eines Zwischenprodukts der Adeninbiosynthese, das in die Vakuole der Hefezelle transportiert wird. Unter dem Einfluss des sauren pH-Wertes bildet sich dort ein roter Farbstoff, der den Hefekolonien eine rötliche Färbung verleiht (Abb. 4) (76). Durch Expression von *SUP4* wird das Stopp-Codon überlesen. Diese Suppression erlaubt es dem *ade2-1*-Stamm auf Medium ohne Adenin zu wachsen und die Kolonien zeigen eine weiße Färbung (Abb. 4) (80, 81). Dagegen heben Elongatordefekte (*elp1* Δ -*elp6* Δ) den Suppressionseffekt von *SUP4* auf (80, 81.). Solche Mutanten verhalten sich dann wieder wie der *ade2-1*-Ausgangsstamm (Rotfärbung der Kolonien und Adeninauxotrophie). Die fehlende tRNA-Modifikation führt demnach zu einem Antisuppressor-Phänotyp.



Abb. 4: Suppression der nonsense Mutation (UAA) im *ade2-1* Gen durch *SUP4*. Das *ochre* Stopp-Codon wird durch die Suppressor tRNA^{Tyr} (*SUP4*) als Tyrosin decodiert. Dadurch findet kein Translationsabbruch statt (Kolonien mit roter Färbung), sondern es entsteht ein funktionelles Ade2-Genprodukt (Kolonien mit weißer Färbung) (80, 81, 180).

1.4. Kti12, ein Elongator-assoziiertes Protein

Eine besondere und für die Funktion des Elongators wichtige Rolle könnte *KT112* spielen. Es wurde ebenfalls in dem bereits beschriebenem genetischen *kti*-Screen auf Zymocinresistenz isoliert (16). Die Besonderheit von *KT112* ist, dass es das bis jetzt einzige bekannte Gen ist, bei dem sowohl Verlust, als auch Überexpression zu Zymocinresistenz sowie den genannten *elp*-Phänotypen führen (16, 46, 52). Obwohl Kti12 mit Elongatoruntereinheiten interagiert, scheint es keine strukturelle Untereinheit des Elongators zu sein, da die Assemblierung des Holo-Elongators in *kti12*-Mutanten nicht beeinträchtigt ist (46, 52). Die Ausprägung der *elp*-Phänotypen durch Verlust oder Überexpression von *KT112* lässt sich somit nicht auf eine gestörte Elongatorintegrität zurückführen (46). Kti12 wird vielmehr als ein transient mit dem

Elongator interagierendes Protein mit putativer regulatorischer Funktion gesehen (46, 143). Da Kti12 auch in Assoziation mit der phosphorylierten RNAPII-Form (53) und dem Chromatin (46, 143, 178) nachweisbar ist, könnte dies im Zusammenhang mit dem Elongatorkomplex auf einen transkriptionellen Einfluss hindeuten. Aber auch in die tRNA-Modifikation scheint Kti12 involviert zu sein. Wie Elongatordefekte führt auch eine *KTI12*-Deletion zu U_{34} -Modifikationsdefekten der Elongator-abhängig modifizierten tRNAs (80).

Das Kti12-Protein besitzt unter anderem Homologe in H. sapiens und A. thaliana (Tab. 1) und charakteristische konservierte Domänen, welche für die zelluläre Funktion von Bedeutung sein könnten (46). N-terminal befindet sich eine potentielle Nukleotidtriphosphat-(ATP/GTP) Bindedomäne (P-Loop). Für die C-terminal des P-Loops liegende potentielle Calmodulin-Bindedomäne (CBD) konnte sowohl für Kti12, als auch für das A. thaliana Homolog DRL1 (Deformed roots and leafs) in vitro eine kalziumabhängige Calmodulinbindefähigkeit nachgewiesen werden (132 und unveröffentlichte Daten). Calmodulin (CaM) ist ein ubiquitäres Kalzium-bindendes Protein, welches von Einzellern bis H. sapiens hochkonserviert ist und in Second-Messenger-Systemen eine wichtige regulatorische Funktion spielt. Ziele des Ca²⁺/Calmodulin-Komplexes sind beispielsweise die CaM-abhängigen Kinasen (CaMK) und die Phosphatase Calcineurin, welche für regulatorische Prozesse und Signaltransduktion von Bedeutung sind (29, 30, 125). CaM kann durch Anlagerung andere Proteine aktivieren. Dieser Vorgang kann entscheidend von der Bindung von Ca²⁺-Ionen an Calmodulin abhängig sein, in deren Folge vermutlich hydrophobe Regionen der Proteinoberfläche freigelegt werden, die als Kontaktregion fungieren könnten. Von zwei weiteren nicht näher definierten konservierten homologen Bereichen im Kti12-Protein ist die funktionelle Relevanz bisher unklar (16, 46).

Desweiteren zeigt Kti12 starke Homologie zu der <u>Phosphoseryl-tRNA^{Sec}-K</u>inase (PSTK) aus *Methanocaldococcus jannaschii* (167). PSTK katalysiert einen Zwischenschritt in der Synthese der 21. Aminosäure Selenocystein in Eukaryoten und Archea durch spezifische Phoshorylierung von Ser-tRNA^{Sec}. Sherrer et al. (2008) postulieren, dass Kti12 in *S. cerevisiae* mit tRNA-Substraten interagiert und ähnlich PSTK als tRNA-abhängige Kinase fungieren könnte. Obwohl Kti12 in *S. cerevisiae* bisher nicht als Kinase beschrieben wurde, ergeben sich aus diesen Befunden interessante Fragestellungen für zukünftige Arbeiten. Es muss die Frage addressiert werden, ob der Elongator und/oder Kti12 die katalytische Aktivität besitzen, tRNAs direkt zu modifizieren.

1.5. Phosphoregulation des Elongatorkomplexes

In S. cerevisiae liegt der Elongator als ein Phosphokomplex vor. Die Elp1-Untereinheit kann in verschiedenen Phosphorylierungszuständen auftreten (88). In Wildtypzellen befindet sich Elp1 in einem Gleichgewicht von hypo- und hyperphosphorylierter Form, welche sich in ihrem elektrophoretischen Laufverhalten unterscheiden (88). Nur eine Balance zwischen beiden Elp1-Phosphorylierungszuständen geht mit Zymocinsensitivität einher, während die Akkumulation der einen oder der anderen Elp1-Form zu Resistenz führt (88). Somit scheint der Phosphorylierungsstatus von Elp1 von wichtiger Bedeutung für die Funktion des Elongatorkomplexes zu sein. Bereits gezeigt werden konnte, dass die Funktion des Elongators durch Sit4-abhängige Dephosphorylierung kontrolliert wird (87, 88). Sit4 (Sporulation induces transcript 4) ist eine Typ 2A-Proteinphosphatase, die in allen bisher analysierten Eukaryoten konserviert ist und eine wichtige Funktion von der späten G1-Phase bis zur S-Phase im Zellzyklus zu haben scheint (177). Thermosensitive sit4-Mutanten arretieren in der G1-Phase mit einfachem Chromosomensatz, einem nichtduplizierten Spindelpolkörper und ohne sichtbare Knospenbildung mit deutlich geringeren Mengen der Cykline Cln1, Cln2 und Pcl1 (45, 177). Nur Zellen, die ein SSD1-v1-Allel (Suppressor of SIT4 deletion 1 viable) tragen, erlauben eine Deletion von SIT4. Dies verhindert zwar einen G1-Arrest im sit4Δ-Hintergrund, führt aber dennoch zu Wachstumsdefiziten im Vergleich zum SIT4-Wildtyp. Das SSD1-Gen codiert für ein RNA-Bindeprotein, das zu einer Stabilisierung bzw. Erhöhung des mRNA-Spiegels der G1-Cykline führen könnte. Darin könnte das Überleben der sit4Δ-Zellen begründet sein (186).

Die Sit4-Phosphatase interagiert mit Sap155, Sap185 und Sap190 (Sap = Sit4 associated proteins), welche als regulatorische Untereinheiten der Phosphatase angesehen werden (112, 177). Da man von nur einer einzelnen Sap-Bindedomäne im Sit4-Protein ausgeht, scheinen die drei Sit4-assoziierten Proteine um die Bindung an die Phosphatase zu konkurrieren (112). In *sit4* Δ -Zellen liegen Sap155, Sap185 und Sap190 hyperphosphoryliert vor, so dass Sit4 die Dephosphorylierung seiner eigenen regulatorischen Untereinheiten beeinflussen könnte (112). Sit4- oder Sap-defiziente Stämme zeigen *elp*-ähnliche Phänotypen (87). Das lässt einen funktionellen Zusammenhang zum Elongator bzw. dessen assoziierten Proteinen vermuten. Tatsächlich konnte nicht nur in *sit4* Δ -Zellen, sondern auch in der *sap185* Δ *sap190* Δ -Doppelmutante und bei einer *SAP155*-Überexpression in Wildtypzellen eine Resistenz gegen das Killertoxin beobachtet werden (87). Wenn dagegen neben *SAP155* auch *SAP185* und *SAP190* in erhöhter Kopienzahl vorliegen, wird Zymocinsensitivität wiederhergestellt. Es

wird vermutet, dass durch ein Überangebot an Sap155 die zwei anderen Sit4-assoziierten Proteine Sap185 und Sap190 von Sit4 austitriert werden. In diesen Zellen konnte neben der Zymocinresistenz, auch eine Veränderung des Elp1-Phosphorylierungsstatus beobachtet werden. Statt einer Balance zwischen beiden Formen ist in *sit4* Δ , *sap185* Δ *sap190* Δ und *multicopy SAP155* eine Akkumulation der hyperphosphorylierten Elp1-Form zu beobachten (88). Das Fehlen der hypophosphorylierten Elp1-Form könnte in der *sap185* Δ *sap190* Δ -Doppelmutante mit dem gleichzeitigen Verlust der Bindungspartner und einer inaktiven Sit4-Phosphatase begründet sein (88). Sit4 scheint also in Kombination mit seinen assoziierten Proteinen Sap185 und Sap190 die Dephosphorylierung von Elp1 zu vermitteln und eine wichtige Rolle innerhalb der Zymocinantwort zu spielen.

Auch das Elongator-assoziierte Protein Kti12 besitzt einen Einfluss auf den Phosphorylierungsatatus von Elp1. Während es in $kti12\Delta$ -Zellen zu einer Akkumulation der hypophosphorylierten Elp1-Form kommt, führt eine *KT112*-Überexpression zur Akkumulation der hyperphosphorylierten Form, wie sie auch in *sit4*\Delta-Stämmen zu finden ist (88). Es ist aber unwahrscheinlich, dass Kti12 die Elongatorkinase darstellt, da Elp1 in der *sit4*\Delta*kti12*\Delta-Doppelmutante in der hyperphosphorylierten Form vorliegt (88).

Es stellt sich somit die Frage, welche Proteinkinase in die Elp1-Phosphorylierung involviert sein könnte. Das *S. cerevisiae* Proteom umfasst etwa 120 Kinase und 40 Phosphatasen. Einzig die Caseinkinase I-Isoform Hrr25 konnte bisher mit Elongatorfunktionen in Zusammenhang gebracht werden. So konnte das *KTI14*-Allel dem Gen *HRR25* zugeordet werden (116). *kti14/hrr25*-Mutationen vermitteln neben Zymocinresistenz, ein stark verzögertes Wachstum und Sensitivität gegenüber thermischem und chemischem Stress. Diese Phänotypen teilen sie mit *elp-*, *kti12-* und *sit4*-Mutanten. Zudem interagiert Hrr25, wie der hexamere Elongatorkomplex, mit der RNAPII (146). Und schließlich scheint auch Hrr25 in die posttranslationale Modifikation des Wobble-Uridins (U₃₄) im Anticodonbereich verschiedener tRNAs involviert zu sein. So wurden in *kti14/hrr25*-Mutanten hypomodifizierte mcm⁵U-, mcm⁵s²U und ncm⁵U-Nucleoside in tRNA^{Glu}, tRNA^{Arg} und tRNA^{Pro} detektiert (81). Aufgrund dieser Vielzahl von Gemeinsamkeiten zwischen Hrr25, Kti12, und dem Elongator könnte die Kinase Hrr25 ein vielversprechender Kanditat sein, welcher die Elp1-Phosphorylierung direkt oder indirekt beeinflusst. Diese Fragestellung wird im Abschnitt 2.2. (Manuskript 1) addressiert.

1.6. Zielstellung der Arbeit

Aus den vorangegangenen Ausführungen ergaben sich für die vorliegende Promotionsarbeit die folgenden zwei Schwerpunkte.

I. Identifizierung neuer, in den Zymocinweg involvierter Gene/Proteine (Publikation 1-3)

Ziel dieser Analysen war es, neue Erkenntnisse über den Importmechanismus der intrazellulär aktiven γ -Untereinheit des *K. lactis*-Zymocins ($\alpha\beta\gamma$) zu gewinnen. Diese erwies sich in *S. cerevisiae* als tRNA-Endonuclease, welche Elongator-abhängig modifizierte tRNAs im Anticodon schneidet. Wie bereits ausgeführt, verleihen sowohl Deletionen/Mutationen als auch Überexpressionen bestimmter Gene Zymocinschutz. Durch Butler et al. (1994) (16) wurden eine Vielzahl Zymocin-resistenter *S. cerevisiae*-Mutanten (*kti1-kti14*) (Tab. 2) isoliert. Die zwei Klasse I-Mutanten *kti6* und *kti10* waren bislang genetisch uncharakterisiert. Deshalb sollte nach einer phänotypischen Charakterisierung beider Mutanten versucht werden, durch Komplementationsanalyse mit Hilfe der *S. cerevisiae*-Genbank YPH1 (*CEN*, *LEU2*), die mutierten Gene zu identifizieren.

Weiterhin sollte mittels der *multicopy* Genbank pMA3a (2μ , *leu2d*) versucht werden, neue *multicopy* Suppressoren zu finden, die dosisabhängig Wildtypzellen Zymocinresistenz verleihen.

II. Molekulare Analysen des Elongatorkomplexes in *S. cerevisiae* (Manuskript 1 und 2)

Zu Beginn dieser Arbeit war der Elongator lediglich in der Bäckerhefe als Proteinkomplex bekannt. Die Funktionalität des Elongatorkomplexes hängt neben einer vollständigen Assemblierung aller Untereinheiten auch vom Phosphorylierungsstatus der größten Untereinheit Elp1 ab. Die Protein-Phosphatase Sit4 ist in die Elp1-Dephosphorylierung involviert. Zymocin-resistente *sit4* Δ -Mutanten bedingen Elp1-Hyperphosphorylierung (88). Im Rahmen der vorangegangenen Diplomarbeit konnte *KTI14* als Allel des Gen *HRR25* identifiziert werden (116). *HRR25* codiert für eine Caseinkinase I-Isoform mit multiplen Funktionen in *S. cerevisiae*. Defekte in der Caseinkinase *HRR25* und der Phosphatase *SIT4* führen zu pleiotropen *elp*-Phänotypen (87, 88, 116), was auf Phosphorylierungs- bzw. Dephosphorylierungsmodifikationen am Elongator hindeutet. Daraus ergab sich im zweiten Teil dieser Arbeit die Fragestellung, ob eine Hrr25-abhängige Phosphorylierung des Elongators stattfindet und falls ja, welche funktionellen Konsequenzen eine *hrr25*-Mutation für die *S. cerevisiae*-Zelle hat.

Der Befund, dass das Elongator-assoziierte Protein Kti12 aus S. cerevisiae bemerkenswerte Ähnlichkeit mit DRL1 (DEFORMED ROOT AND LEAVES) aus A. thaliana aufweist (131), war Anlass, sich der vergleichenden Analyse des Elongatorkomplexes in Hefe und A. thaliana zuzuwenden. Durch die Zuordnung Elongator-homologer Gene im A. thaliana-Genom (Tab. 1) stellte sich die Frage, ob auch in Pflanzen ein ähnlicher Proteinkomplex existiert. Es sollte durch konditionale Expression einzelner pflanzlicher cDNAs (AtELP1, AtELP3 und AtELP1/AtELP3) in den jeweiligen S. cerevisiae-Mutanten ($elp1\Delta$, $elp3\Delta$ und $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$) geprüft werden, ob mit den pflanzlichen putativen Elongatoruntereinheiten ein hybrider Elongatorkomplex in Hefe entsteht. Falls eine strukturelle Rekonstitution des Elongatorkomplexes in S. cerevisiae tatsächlich möglich ist, sollte mittels sensitiver Funktionsassay getestet werden, ob diese hybriden Komplexe auch funktionell sind. Ziel dieser Analysen war es, weitere Einblicke in die Funktion des Elongators zu erlangen, um langfristig seine Bedeutung für die intrazelluläre Signalverarbeitung und Koordination von Zellwachstum und Proliferation zu verstehen.

2. ERGEBNISSE

- 2.1. Identifizierung neuer, in die Zymocinkaskade involvierter Gene/Proteine
- 2.1.1. Publikation 1

After chitin docking, toxicity of *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin requires *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase.

After chitin docking, toxicity of *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin requires *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase

Constance Mehlgarten and Raffael Schaffrath*

Biologicum, Institut für Genetik, Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg, Weinbergweg 10, D-06120 Halle (Saale), Germany.

Summary

Zymocin, a three-subunit $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$ toxin complex from Kluyveromyces lactis, imposes a cell cycle block on Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Phenotypic analysis of the resistant kti10 mutant implies a membrane defect, suggesting that KTI10 represents a gene involved early in the zymocin response. Consistently, KTI10 is shown here to be allelic to PMA1 encoding H*-ATPase, a plasma membrane H⁺ pump vital for membrane energization ($\Delta \Psi$). Like *pma1* mutants, *kti10* cells lose viability at low pH, indicating a pH homeostasis defect, and resist the antibiotic hygromycin B, uptake of which is known to be Pma1 and $\Delta \Psi$ sensitive. Similar to kti10 cells, pma1 mutants with reported H⁺ pump defects survive in the presence of exozymocin but do not resist endogenous expression of its lethal γ-toxin subunit. Based on DNA sequence data, kti10 cells are predicted to produce a malfunctional Pma1 variant with expression levels that are normal. Intriguingly, zymocin protection of kti10 cells is suppressed by excess H⁺, a scenario ineffective in bypassing resistance of chitin or toxin target mutants. Together with unaltered zymocin docking and Y-toxin import events in kti10 cells, our data suggest that Pma1's role in zymocin action is likely to involve activation of Y-toxin in a step following its cellular uptake.

Introduction

Killer plasmids carrying *Kluyveromyces lactis* strains secrete a zymotoxin complex (zymocin) that inhibits cell cycle progression in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Stark *et al.*, 1990; Meinhardt and Schaffrath, 2001). Zymocinarrested baker's yeast is blocked in G1 before budding

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and with unreplicated DNA, suggesting that zymocin prevents G1 exit (White et al., 1989; Butler et al., 1991a; Schaffrath and Breunig, 2000). Although heterotrimeric (αβγ), zymocicity solely resides within the smallest γ subunit (y-toxin), and conditional y-toxin expression inside a cell mimics exozymocin lethality (Stark and Boyd, 1986; Butler et al., 1991b; Frohloff et al., 2001). Although endogenous γ-toxin is antiproliferative, applied exogenously, it is inert (Tokunaga et al., 1989). As for the roles played by the α and β subunits, this implies that holozymocin acts from the cell's exterior. Given that the α subunit has exochitinase activity in vitro, that holozymocin binds chitin in vitro, that chitin-deficient mutants resist exozymocin (but not endogenous γ-toxin) and that the β subunit may be membrane associated, the α and β subunits probably interact with the cell surface to enable chitin docking before γ-toxin entry (Stark et al., 1990; Butler et al., 1991c; Takita and Castilho-Valavicius, 1993; Jablonowski et al., 2001a). Although poorly understood, the latter may involve reduction of a β/γ disulphide bridge in holozymocin (Stark and Boyd, 1986). Exclusive protection against exozymocin through multicopy GRX3 implies that altered redox regulation by excess glutaredoxin Grx3 may affect β/γ uncoupling, import or intracellular activation of γ-toxin (Jablonowski et al., 2001a).

Based on their ability to resist endogenous y-toxin and/ or holozymocin, class I (zymocin binding/y-toxin uptake) kti mutants (K. lactis toxin insensitive) of S. cerevisiae have been distinguished from class II (toxin target site) mutants (Butler et al., 1994). Class I kti2, kti6 and kti10 mutants solely resist exozymocin, whereas class II kti mutations protect against exozymocin and endogenously expressed γ-toxin (Butler et al., 1994; Jablonowski et al., 2001a). Thirteen kti complementation groups suggest that various Kti proteins condition zymocicity by acting in a pathway or by forming a multiprotein target (Butler et al., 1994). In favour of the latter, analysis of tot (γ-toxin target) mutants identified the TOT function of Elongator, a histone acetylase complex that co-purifies with RNA polymerase II (Otero et al., 1999; Frohloff et al., 2001; Jablonowski et al., 2001b; Winkler et al., 2001). Similar to Elongator defects, class II mutations in genes coding for Elongator partner proteins (KTI11 and KTI12/TOT4) or a Tot4 relevant factor (KTI13/ATS1) induce Tot phenotypes, under-

Received 13 October, 2003; revised 7 January, 2004; accepted 9 January, 2004. *For correspondence. E-mail schaffrath@genetik.uni-halle.de; Tel. (+49) 345 552 6333; Fax (+49) 345 552 7151.

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scoring the key role that Elongator plays in providing TOT proficiency and vulnerability to the G1 cell cycle block by zymocin (Fichtner *et al.*, 2002a,b; 2003; Fichtner and Schaffrath, 2002). In addition, cells lacking the phosphatase Sit4, its associators Sap185 and Sap190, casein kinase I Hrr25/Kti14 and the Urm1–Uba4 ubiquitin-like modification system are Tot⁻, suggesting that Elongator's TOT function requires de/phosphorylation and urmylation, processes yet to be understood (Jablonowski *et al.*, 2003; Fichtner *et al.*, 2003; Mehlgarten and Schaffrath, 2003).

Despite these advances, early processes involved in the uptake of zymocin's lethal y-toxin subunit, its activation or its intracellular trafficking are poorly understood. Consistent with a class I phenotype, we present evidence that the zymocin-resistant kti10 mutant expresses a cell surface defect. Gene complementation cloning shows that kti10 is a mutant allele of PMA1 coding for plasma membrane H+-ATPase. Zymocin-resistant kti10/pma1 cells phenocopy ethanol sensitivity, hygromycin B tolerance and inviability at low pH. Excess H⁺ reinstates zymocin sensitivity, a scenario ineffective against zymocin protection of docking or Tot- mutants. Consistently, kti10 cells are shown to allow zymocin to dock on to the cell surface and y-toxin to gain subcellular entry. Collectively, an enzymatically integer H⁺ pump Pma1 is needed for zymocin to act as a cell cycle blocker. Presumably, Pma1 is required after y-toxin import and before Elongator's engagement as a potential toxin target.

Results

kti10 phenotypes

In agreement with an exozymocin-resistant and y-toxinsensitive class I phenotype, kti10 cells differed from a class II Tot⁻ Elongator mutant (tot3∆) by wild type-like caffeine tolerance (Fig. 1A). Similarly, kti10 cells responded to Calcofluor white in a wild-type fashion, while class I chitin (chs3\Delta) and class II Tot (tot3A) mutants expressed resistance or hypersensitivity to this poison (Fig. 1A). In comparison with class I and class II mutants, kti10 cells were significantly less thermosensitive at 39°C, albeit viability contrasted with wild type (Fig. 1A). In contrast to wild type, class I and class II cells, kti10 was found to be ethanol hypersensitive (Fig. 1A) and to recover less well from heat shock at 55°C than wild-type with cell viability being lost from 10 min pulses onwards (Fig. 1B). Strikingly, in contrast to wild type, the kti10 mutation induced tolerance to the antibiotic hygromycin B (Fig. 1C). Collectively, class I kti10 cells differ phenotypically from zymocin-resistant chitin (class I) and Elongator (class II) mutants. As judged from altered responses to ethanol, heat shock and hygromycin B, phenotypes that collec-



Fig. 1. Analysis of kti10 phenotypes.

A. Sensitivity to drugs, ethanol and elevated growth temperature. Serial dilutions of the indicated strains were replica spotted on YPD plates (control) or plates supplemented with Calcofluor white (CFW), caffeine and ethanol (as indicated). Cultivation was for 2–3 days at 30°C or at 39°C to test for thermotolerance.

B. Recovery from heat shock. Strains were heat shock treated at 55°C for the indicated periods of time in minutes (min). Recovery was assessed by plating identical cell numbers on to YPD, followed by cultivation for 2 days at 30°C.

C. Hygromycin B tolerance. Strains were spotted on to YPD without (control) or supplemented with hygromycin B (hyg B). Strains tested are wild type (wt: LL20), *kti10* (ARB68), *chs3*Δ (DJY3) and *tot3*Δ (FFY3).

tively suggest a plasma membrane defect (Hampsey, 1997), the *kti10* mutation may affect a gene product that is part of the membrane or necessary for membrane integrity. Thus, class I *kti10*-associated zymocin protection differs from chitin defects, raising the possibility that, after chitin docking, an early membrane-associated step integral to zymocicity is impaired in *kti10* cells.

KTI10 is allelic with PMA1

Leu- kti10 cells were transformed with the single-copy

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zym^s zym^R zym^S zym³

Fig. 2. KTI10 is allelic with PMA1.

A. Rationale to complement zymocin resistance of ARB68 (kti10 leu2) by transformation with single-copy library YPH1 (LEU2). Among =4000 Leu* *kti10* clones obtained, 51 candidates were tested for zymocin sensitivity using K. lactis killer eclipse assays. One complemented [comp (+)] clone with a sensitive (zym^s) response identical to parent LL20 (Leu- KTI10) was isolated. The remaining Leu+ kti10 clones turned out to be non-complemented (-) with unaltered zymocin resistance (zym^R) as judged from lack of eclipse formation against zymocin producer K. lactis AWJ137 (Table 1; indicated by arrows). B. Genetic complementation of ARB68 (kti10) by pCM10.1 and pCM10.3. LL20 wild type (wt), untransformed ARB68 (kti10) cells and cells transformed with YPH1-derived plasmids pCM10.1, pCM10.2 and pCM10.3 were tested by killer eclipse assays. Note that pCM10.1/3 transformants behave like wild-type zyms C. Organization of the kti10-complementing genomic fragment (pCM10.1) with ORFs indicated by arrows. The bars represent subclones or a deletion construct (pCM10.2-6) tested. Complementation (+) is indicated in white; black denotes non-complementation (-). D. Disruptions of non-essential genes carried on pCM10.1 were tested for zymocin sensitivity using eclipse assays. Strains were wild type (wt: BY4741), kti10 (ARB68), ygl007w∆ (Y04375) and leu1∆ (Y04377).

library YPH1 (*CEN4/LEU2*) to aim at threefold genomic coverage (≈ 4000 Leu⁺ clones). One Leu⁺ candidate responding to exozymocin in a wild-type manner (zym^S) was obtained (Fig. 2A). Complementation by the input YPH1 library was confirmed on retransforming starting

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kti10 cells with the plasmid DNA (pCM10.1) rescued from this kti10 clone (Leu* zym8). It resulted in full restoration of wild-type zymocin sensitivity and heat shock tolerance (Fig. 2B; not shown). Sequencing pCM10.1 revealed that KTI10 mapped to chromosome VII [co-ordinates 476 398-486 054 spanning three open reading frames (ORFs): YGL007w, YGL008c/PMA1 and YGL009c/LEU1; Fig. 2C]. To test whether kti10 represented a mutant allele of PMA1, an essential gene (Serrano et al., 1986; McCusker et al., 1987), we excised a central HindIII coding fragment, constructed a plasmidborne PMA1 deletion (pCM10.2) and transformed kti10 cells. We no longer observed complementation, and zymocin resistance remained unaffected (Fig. 2C). Conversely, PMA1 subclones (pCM10.3/4), generated by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) on pCM10.1 templates, reinstated zymocin sensitivity in single or multicopy (pCM10.3/4) (Fig. 2C). Thus, complementation of kti10 cells by pCM10.1, -3 and -4 maps genetically to PMA1 proving that kti10 is allelic to PMA1 (Fig. 2C). This is supported by the findings that subclones of YGL007w (pCM10.5) and LEU1 (pCM10.6) failed to complement kti10 cells (Fig. 2C; not shown) and that vgl007w∆ and leu1∆ cells behaved as zymocin sensitive (Fig. 2D). Consistent with a plasma membrane defect in kti10 cells (see above), PMA1/KTI10 codes for H+-ATPase Pma1, a lipid raft-embedded membrane proton pump that contributes to membrane energization ($\Delta \Psi$) used for voltagesensitive transport (McCusker et al., 1987; Perlin et al., 1988; Morsomme et al., 2000; Bagnat et al., 2001).

Among P/V-type ATPases, only PMA1 is essential for K. lactis zymocicity

Previously, ΔΨ-depolarized pma1 mutants were found to resist yeast killer toxins unrelated to K. lactis zymocin (Kagan, 1983; Perlin et al., 1988). To test a general ΔΨ dependence of zymocin, S. cerevisiae null mutants lacking PMA2-, PMC1-, PMR1-, SPF1-, DRS2-, VMA1- and VPH1-encoded P/V-type ATPases that differ by location/ ion selectivity (Paulsen et al., 1998) were tested in killer assays. This study revealed that only kti10 cells survived, while proliferation of other ATPase mutants stopped in the presence of zymocin (not shown). Thus, among yeast P/ V-type ATPases tested, the H*-selective pump Pma1 is essential for zymocicity. This is significant, because S. cerevisiae spf1∆ null mutants lacking the Ca2+-ATPase Spf1 are zymocin sensitive (not shown) but no longer targetable by the salt-mediated killer toxin (SMKT) produced from Pichia farinosa. Strikingly, spf1-1 cells retain SMKT at the cell surface (Suzuki and Shimma, 1999), a scenario plausible for zymocin protection of kti10 cells if early response stages such as uptake of γ-toxin were to be affected.

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Fig. 3. *pma1* suppressor mutants of a PP1 defect (*glc7-109*) phenocopy zymocin resistance and γ -toxin sensitivity of *kti10* cells. A. Killer eclipse assay involving *S. cerevisiae* wild-type *PMA1* (wt: KT1112) and *pma1-s1-6* suppressors (TW62, TW65, TW69, TW72, TW76 and TW80; Table 1) (see Fig. 2A). Zymocin-sensitive (zym^S) and -resistant (zym^P) responses are denoted.

B. Zym^R of *pma1-s1*, -s4 and -s5 cells (TW62, TW72 and TW76) is complemented by plasmid-borne *PMA1/KT110*. Strains were transformed with empty vector or pCM10.3 (see Fig. 2C) and tested by killer eclipse assays.

C. γ -Toxin assay. Wild-type *PMA1* (wt: KT1112) and *pma1-s1*, *-s4* and *-s5* cells (TW62, TW72 and TW76) transformed with galactose-inducible γ -toxin expression vector pHMS14 (+ γ -tox) or empty vector pHMS22 (- γ -tox) were shifted from glucose (glc: γ -toxin off) to galactose (gal: γ -toxin on) medium. Lack of growth on galactose equals γ -toxin sensitivity (tox⁸); *tot3* Δ (FFY3) cells resist endogenously expressed γ -toxin (tox⁸).

pma1 suppressors of PP1 and PP2B defects resist zymocin

pma1 mutants can suppress ion homeostasis defects of PP1 and PP2B phosphatase mutants (Withee *et al.*, 1998; Williams-Hart *et al.*, 2002). We compared the response of some of these *pma1* suppressors with exozymocin and endogenously expressed γ-toxin. Like *kti10* cells, one PP2B (*pma1-102*) and three PP1 suppressors (*pma1-s1*,

-s4 and -s5) resisted exozymocin (Figs 3A and 5C). Consistent with kti10 being a mutant PMA1 allele, zymocin resistance of pma1-s1, -s4 and -s5 cells was fully complemented by introducing KT/10 on pCM10.3 (Figs 3B and 2B), whereas empty vector failed (Fig. 3B). To check for the kti10 class I phenotype characterized by γ-toxin sensitivity (Jablonowski et al., 2001a), we transformed the pma1 suppressors with pHMS14, a GAL1-driven γ-toxin expression vector, and with pHMS22, an empty vector control (Frohloff et al., 2001). Conditional y-toxin expression was switched on by replica spotting cells from repressing (glucose) on to inducing (galactose) medium. Unlike a class II Elongator defect (tot31), pma1-s1, -s4 and -s5 transformants failed to resist γ -toxin expressed from inside the cell and stopped proliferating (Fig. 3C). Conversely, maintaining pHMS22 on galactose hardly affected viability (Fig. 3C). Thus, pma1 suppressors phenocopy kti10 in resisting exozymocin and in unaltered vulnerability to endogenous y-toxin. Collectively, PMA1 mutations identify the H⁺ pump Pma1 to be required for zymocin action before Elongator's TOT function.

Mutant Pma1 is normally expressed in kti10 cells

Next, we asked how the kti10 mutation itself may interfere with Pma1 function and sequenced the kti10 allele. Compared with wild-type PMA1 deposited at SGD, we observed several amino acid alterations that left the kti10 coding region structurally intact, predicting a full-length Pma1 polypeptide (≈ 100 kDa) to be expressed. Only two amino acid substitutions (Q125K and Q357R) (Fig. 4A) contrasted with the PMA1 sequence of parental strain LL20, a background different from the one in the sequence project. Thus, we considered the other alterations to be deviations that do not contribute to kti10 phenotypes. Bearing in mind that the altered residue Q125K introduces a positive charge into transmembrane helix 1 and that a previous pma1 mutant, also affected at Q357, had been shown significantly to reduce H+-ATPase activity (Ambesi et al., 2000; Morsomme et al., 2000), both Q125K and Q357R substitutions in the kti10 mutant are likely to cause H+-ATPase malfunction. Consistent with unaffected protein expression of the Q357A Pma1 variant (Ambesi et al., 2000), we virtually detected identical amounts of Pma1 H*-ATPase in total protein extracts from wild-type and mutant kti10 cells using an anti-Pma1 antibody (not shown). Similarly, when analysing Pma1 expression after sucrose gradient cell fractionation, we detected neither changes in the distribution nor in Pma1 levels produced from the kti10 mutant (Fig. 4B). Thus, zymocin resistance associated with kti10 cells is not the result of Pma1 underproduction. Whether kti10 cells produce a membrane-underassembled variant (similar to pma1-155, see below) remains open.

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PMA1/KTI10 mutations phenocopy pH sensitivity and hygromycin B tolerance

As Pma1 is required for pH homeostasis, we checked how pma1-s1, -s4 and -s5 and kti10 cells performed at low pH. After shifts to pH 5, 4, 3 and 2, we observed significant growth interference eventually leading to inviability (pma1s1, -s4 and kti10) at pH 3 (Fig. 5A; data not shown). This shows that PMA1 mutations that resist zymocin are less able to cope with higher than normal H⁺ levels, presumably as a result of incapability of sustaining cytosolic pH. Inability to maintain intracellular pH predicts a malfunctional H+-ATPase. Therefore, we asked whether kti10/ pma1 defects could be antagonized by acidifying the growth medium using the zymocin response as functional read-out. Intriguingly, zymocin resistance associated with pma1-s4 and kti10 cells was gradually and efficiently suppressed at pH 5 (Fig. 5B), a sublethal condition noninhibitory to growth (Fig. 5A). On exposure to pH 4, cytotoxicity of zymocin was lost entirely, consistent with pH inactivation of the αβγ complex (Sugisaki et al., 1984) and uniform insensitivity expressed by all S. cerevisiae strains (Fig. 5B). Suppression at pH 5 was similar to wild-type sensitivity and, markedly, did not operate on resistance of class I chitin (chs3∆) or class II Tot- (tot3∆) mutants (Fig. 5B). Therefore, the pH effect is specific to functionally impaired Pma1/Kti10 variants, suggesting that zymocicity is linked to an H⁺ pump that, if mutated, can be bypassed by excess H⁺. Apart from pH homeostasis, Pma1 energizes the plasma membrane for $\Delta\Psi$ -sensitive transport processes (McCusker et al., 1987; Perlin et al., 1988; 1989). The pma1 suppressor alleles were therefore tested for sensitivity to hygromycin B, an antibiotic with $\Delta\Psi$ -sensitive uptake that is used as a genetic PMA1

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Fig. 4. Mutant Pma1 is normally expressed in *kti10* cells and carries H⁺ pump-relevant alterations.

A. Localization of the alterations determined by sequencing mutant kti10 allele, PMA1/KTI10 wild-type gene (strain LL20) and comparing with PMA1 deposited in SGD. The Pma1 product is shown with its membrane helices (numbered in black boxes). Functionally assigned domains are taken from Eraso and Portillo (1994), Amino acid alterations in mutant Pma1* are marked (*) and boxed. B. Equal amounts of wild-type Pma1 and mutant Pma1* produced from kti10 cells cofractionate. Fractions obtained by sucrose gradient centrifugation from mutant kti10 (ARB68: top) and wild-type PMA1/KTI10 (LL20: bottom) strains were analysed by 10% SDS-PAGE. Immunodetection used an anti-Pfk1 antibody to control total protein loading (not shown) and the anti-Pma1 antibody to follow content and fractionation of Pma1/Pma1*. Arrows indicate Pma1/Pma1* positions. MWM, protein marker (MBI Fermentas).

reporter (Perlin et al., 1988; 1989). Whereas pma1-s1, s4, -s5, pma1-102 and kti10 cells resisted the antibiotic, PMA1 wild-type failed to resist (Figs 5C and 1C). This indicates $\Delta \Psi$ compromisation in *pma1/kti10* cells and correlates with zvmocin resistance seen on exozvmocin plate assays; at lower zymocin amounts (45% v/v), pma1s1, -s4 and -s5 cells were equally protected (Fig. 5C). while higher levels (> 60% v/v) significantly weakened the response of pma1-s5 (not shown). Consistent with increased pH tolerance and insensitivity to pH-dependent zymocin suppression (Fig. 5A and B), pma1-s5 cells only moderately tolerated hygromycin B (Fig. 5C), intermediate phenotypes between wild-type sensitivity and robust resistance of pma1-s1, -s4, pma1-102 and kti10 cells towards both antifungals (Fig. 5B and C). Thus, depending on the severity of proton pump defects, mutant pma 1/ kti10 cells gradually copy a consistent set of phenotypes. This provides evidence that a normal proton motive force (pmf) and $\Delta \Psi$ set up by Pma1 are important for both antifungals. Suppression by excess H⁺ suggests an indirect role in secondary pmf-/ M-sensitive events required for both antifungals to act.

Pma1 deregulation in ptk2∆ cells abrogates zymocicity

Other $\Delta \Psi$ -depolarized *pma1-105*, *pma1-141* and *pma1-155* mutants tolerant to hygromycin B have been described (Perlin *et al.*, 1988). Intriguingly, when assessed by killer eclipse assays, *pma1-105* and *pma1-155* cells resisted zymocin (Fig. 6A). The S368F substitution of *pma1-105* impacts H⁺-ATPase catalysis, whereas the *pma1-155* mutation results in a drop to 60% of wild-type Pma1 protein levels (Perlin *et al.*, 1988; 1989).

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Fig. 5. pma1 suppressors of PP1 and PP2B defects phenocopy kti10 cells.

A. pH sensitivity. The indicated strains pregrown in YPD (pH 7.0) were transferred to pH 2-, 3-, 4- and 5-adjusted media. After growth for 24 h at 30°C, cell densities were measured (OD₆₀₀). A representative of three individual experiments is shown.

B. pH-dependent suppression of zymocin resistance. The indicated strains were tested by killer eclipse assays at varying pH. C. Sensitivity towards purified *K. lactis* zymocin and hygromycin B. Wild-type *PMA1* and *pma1* suppressors were serially diluted and grown on YPD (control) or medium supplemented with each antifungal (as indicated). Strains tested (A–C) were wild-type *PMA1* (wt: KT1112), *pma1-s1* (TW62), *-s4* (TW72), *-s5* (TW76), *1-102* (JY35116B), *kti10* (ARB68), *chs3*Δ (DJY3) and *tot3*Δ (FFY3). Zymocin read-outs are: sensitive (zym⁵), resistant (zym⁶), partially resistant

(zymPR) and insensitive (zymIS).

Thus, enzymatically impaired or underassembled Pma1 variants resist zymocin, reinforcing the fact that toxicity largely correlates with a normal pmf/ $\Delta\Psi$ established by Pma1. As for Pma1's S899 residue, a putative phosphosite, we tested hygromycin B-tolerant S899A (non-phosphorylatable) and -sensitive S899D (mimicking constitutive phosphorylation) alleles (Goossens *et al.*, 2000).

Neither of them elicited zymocin resistance (Fig. 6A). Similarly, a hygromycin B-hypersensitive $hal4\Delta hal5\Delta$ mutant known to be $\Delta\Psi$ hyperpolarized (Goossens *et al.*, 2000) was unaffected by zymocin (Fig. 6A). Taken together, although Pma1 is involved in the action of both antifungals, zymocin can be genetically dissociated from hygromycin B by *PMA1* mutations. To check whether other hygromycin B-resistant scenarios also affect zymocin, deletions in hygromycin B sensitivity (*ACE2, KEX1, PTK2, HRK1*) and/or *PMA1*-related (*PTK2, HRK1, SIA1*) genes were tested (de la Fuente *et al.*, 1997; Goossens *et al.*,



Fig. 6. Although overlapping by a shared requirement for *PMA1*, cellular responses to hygromycin B and zymocin differ.
A. Sensitivity to hygromycin B and zymocin depends on *PMA1*. Wild-type *PMA1* (left, W303-1B; right, Y55) and *pma1-105* (SH103), -155 (SH111), -141 (SH85), -S899A (FPY400), -*S899D* (FPY398) and *hal4*Δ*hal5*Δ (FPY1800) mutants were subjected to killer assays (see Fig. 2A). Hygromycin B read-outs (indicated in brackets, see below) are taken from Perlin *et al.* (1988) and Goossens *et al.* (2000).
B. Loss of *PTK2* protects against zymocin and hygromycin B. Wild-type (wt: BY4741), *kti10* (ARB68), *chs3*Δ (DJY3), *ptk2*Δ (Y06875), *hrk1*Δ (Y07325), *ace2*Δ (Y04088), *kex1*Δ (Y04570) and *sia1*Δ (Y02393) strains were spotted on to YPD (control) and plates containing the indicated amount of the antibiotic (hyg B) or partially purified zymocin (% v/v).

C. Zymocin-resistant Elongator defects are inhibited by hygromycin B. Wild-type (wt: LL20), $tot2\Delta$ (FFY2), $tot3\Delta$ (FFY3), $tot4\Delta$ (LFY12) and $kti11\Delta$ (LFY11) strains were spotted on to YPD with no (control) or the indicated amount of hygromycin B (hyg B). Zymocin read-outs (A and B) are: sensitive (zym^S) and resistant (zym^R). Hygromycin B read-outs (A–C) are: sensitive (hyg^S), hypersensitive (hyg^{HS}), resistant (hyg^{PB}).

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2000; Page et al., 2003). Almost all antibiotic-resistant mutants (ace2 Δ , kex1 Δ or hrk1 Δ) were inhibited by zymocin (Fig. 6B). Removal of supposed Pma1 activator, Sia1, left sensitivity to both antifungals unaffected (Fig. 6B), while loss of Hrk1, a putative Pma1-related kinase, rescued solely from hygromycin B (Fig. 6B). Consistent with the Ptk2 kinase to phosphoactivate Pma1 (Goossens et al., 2000), ptk2A cells partially resisted zymocin compared with kti10 and chs3A controls (Fig. 6B). This reinforces Pma1's role for zymocicity. Contrary to evidence that Pma1 residue S899 may be phosphorylated by Ptk2, our findings that mimicking Pma1 de/phosphorylation cannot alter the zymocin response while ptk2∆ does (Fig. 6A and B), suggest phospho-S899 of Pma1 to be zymocin irrelevant. In conclusion, although overlapping by a shared requirement for Pma1, cellular responses to both antifungals differ. In line, zymocin-resistant Tot⁻ cells (tot2-4∆ and $kti11\Delta$) are all inhibited by hygromycin B (Fig. 6C).

kti10 cells allow γ-toxin to be imported

Taking into account that kti10 cells resist exozymocin without protecting against y-toxin expressed intracellularly, we checked whether they have a defect in the primary cell surface interaction with holozymocin. Together with resistant chitin (*chs3* Δ) and Tot⁻ (*tot3* Δ) mutants, *kti10* and wildtype cells were treated with exozymocin. Protein extracts were subdivided into soluble cytosolic and insoluble cell wall fractions. After immunoprobing with anti-Pfk1 and anti-y-toxin antibodies, respectively, zymocin's y-toxin subunit was found to be absent in chs3∆ chitin-deficient cell wall fractions (Fig. 7A), a finding consistent with holozymocin binding chitin in vitro (Jablonowski et al., 2001a). However, equivalent fractions from wild-type, tot3 and kti10 cells produced reactive anti-y-toxin signals of ≈28 kDa corresponding to γ-toxin control from culture filtrates of K. lactis killer cells (Fig. 7A). Thus, indistinguishable from a wild type-sensitive or -resistant Tot cell wall, holozymocin is able to dock on to the surface of kti10 cells. This strongly indicates that Pma1 is required after zymocin has attached to the cell. To ask whether mutant kti10 cells express resistance resulting from hindering y-toxin uptake, equal amounts of protein extracts from zymocintreated wild-type and kti10 cells were subjected to cell fractionation using sucrose gradient ultracentrifugation. After Western analysis, we found that \gamma-toxin accumulated intracellularly in kti10 cells. Moreover, imported γ-toxin comigrated in the same protein fractions between wild-type or kti10 cells and at almost identical total levels (Fig. 7B). Thus, γ -toxin can be taken up by a cell irrespective of its functional PMA1 status quo. Given that intracellular expression of γ-toxin in kti10/pma1 cells arrests growth (Butler et al., 1994; Fig. 3C), unaffected y-toxin uptake in kti10 cells suggests that the zymocin response pathway

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Fig. 7. *kti10* cells allow zymocin docking and γ -toxin import. A. Zymocin docking studies. Protein extracts obtained from wild-type (wt: LL20) and resistant *kti10* (ARB68), *chs3*Δ (DJY3) and *tot3*Δ (FFY3) cells that had been zymocin treated (+) or untreated (–) were fractionated into soluble (supernatant) and insoluble cell wall/debris (pellet) material. After subjection to SDS-PAGE, protein loadings of supernatant fractions were controlled by the anti-Pfk1 antibody (arrows indicate α and β subunits of Pfk1). After Western analysis of the pellet fractions by the anti- γ -toxin antibody, γ -toxin was immuno-detected. Concentrated culture filtrate (cf) from *K. lactis* killer strain AWJ137 used for zymocin treatment served as a positive γ -toxin

B. γ -Toxin uptake studies. After zymocin treatment for 3 h, fractions (obtained as in Fig. 5B) of mutant *kti10* (ARB68: top) and wild-type *PMA1/KT110* cells (LL20: bottom) were analysed by 15% SDS-PAGE. Detection of γ -toxin used the anti- γ -toxin antibody. Protein loading was controlled with the anti-Pfk1 antibody (not shown). Arrows indicate positions of γ -toxin.

is disrupted due to a defect in γ -toxin activation that is Pma1 sensitive.

Discussion

Plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase Pma1 is required for zymocin action

In a search for early chitin-unrelated zymocin response factors, we found resistant *kti10* cells to be mutated in *PMA1*. It encodes the plasma membrane H⁺ pump, Pma1, which is involved in $\Delta\Psi$ formation (McCusker *et al.*, 1987). Its role in zymocicity correlates with protection of independent *pma1* isolates characterized previously by sequencing or shown to suppress pH and ion homeostasis defects of protein phosphatase mutants (Perlin *et al.*, 1988; 1989; Withee *et al.*, 1998; Williams-Hart *et al.*, 2002). Consistent with an H⁺ pump defect, these mutants and *kti10* cells die at low pH implying deregulation of pH homeostasis. This correlates with other H⁺ pump defects resulting from downregulation of H⁺-ATPase activity or total Pma1 content (Perlin et al., 1988; 1989). A similar H+ pump defect is predicted from our kti10 sequence data, which revealed, among others, alteration of a catalytically relevant residue (Q357R) previously shown (Q357A) to reduce H+-ATPase activity (Ambesi et al., 2000) and introduction of a positive charge (K) into transmembrane helix 1 (Q125K) expected to disrupt the structure-function of Pma1. Together with unaltered zymocin sensitivity by other P/V-type ATPase mutants, Pma1's link to zymocin is specific. In line with an H⁺ pump defect, sublethal H⁺ excess antagonizes resistance of kti10/pma1 cells, a condition neither caused by zymocin overproduction by K. lactis (not shown) nor effective with chitin and Tot mutants. This strongly suggests that Pma1 and H⁺ dependence of zymocin operates after chitin docking but before Elongator's TOT display.

As a result of H⁺ pump defects, $\Delta \Psi$ formation is compromised, impacting voltage-sensitive transport in pma1 mutants (McCusker et al., 1987; Perlin et al., 1989). One such transport system is thought to import hygromycin B, an antibiotic that affects translation (Hampsey, 1997). The majority of pma1 mutants studied here phenocopied zymocin and hygromycin B resistance, a behaviour mirroring pH sensitivity, i.e. the more pma1/kti10 cells resisted hygromycin B, the less they survived at low pH. As ∆Ψ depolarization resulting from H⁺ pump defects correlates with increased hygromycin B tolerance (McCusker et al., 1987), zymocicity may require $\Delta \Psi$ polarization set up by Pma1 too. As for hygromycin B uptake in yeast, we are not aware of transport kinetics nor do we know of a $\Delta\Psi$ -sensitive carrier. However, its import is thought to be $\Delta \Psi$ driven, and depolarization through excess K⁺/Na⁺ causes resistance in PMA1 cells (Goossens et al., 2000). As zymocicity is abrogated by Pma1 defects or Pma1 misregulation ($ptk2\Delta$), both $\Delta\Psi$ -deregulating conditions that protect against hygromycin B, bioenergetic forces comparable to the antibiotic may also apply for zymocin. However, the fact that $\Delta \Psi$ hyperpolarization via Trk1/2 K⁺ channel deregulation (hal4\Deltahal5\Delta) (Goossens et al., 2000) renders hypersensitivity to hygromycin B, but not to zymocin, suggests that the latter may exquisitely depend on an H⁺ gradient set up by Pma1 rather than $\Delta \Psi$. Thus, contrary to other yeast killer toxins' requirement for an intact $\Delta \Psi$ (Kagan, 1983; Perlin *et al.*, 1989), γ -toxin uptake may not be (entirely) ∆Ψ driven, but may rather use H*dependent symport or activation after y-toxin import. Consistent with the latter, y-toxin gains access to and accumulates intracellularly in kti10 cells.

Pma1's role in the early zymocin response pathway

According to a wild-type arrest by endogenously expressed γ -toxin and phenotypic differences from Tot Elongator defects, *kti10* cells are Tot⁺ and equipped with a functional Elongator complex. The puzzling finding that γ-toxin accumulates intracellularly irrespective of PMA1 function indicates that, despite intact uptake, y-toxin pools imported by kti10 and wild-type cells differ functionally. In line with the zymocin response being interrupted in kti10 cells before Elongator, γ-toxicity is restorable by excess H⁺ or entirely short cut if y-toxin is supplied as an intracellularly expressed variant. While the former result suggests that zymocicity requires H*-dependent influx impaired in kti10 cells but suppressible by acidification, the latter finding implies that γ-toxin delivered by exozyomocin and taken up by kti10 cells has not acquired full cytotoxic competence as a result of the kti10 defect. Assuming that γ -toxin of *kti10* cells was functionally inert conflicts with the fact that an H⁺ surplus can reactivate it. As for altered intracellular y-toxin quality, the previous finding that y-toxin is cross-linked in holozymocin to the β-subunit by a disulphide bridge (Stark and Boyd, 1986) predicts stabilization of the β-S = S-γ linkage to abrogate zymocicity. Not knowing whether γ-toxin import or activation requires the βsubunit to be uncoupled from y-toxin and whether y-toxin import itself exploits flip-flop insertion, voltage-gated transport or endocytotic retrograde transport complicates a prediction as to when/where this crucial β -S = S- γ linkage is broken down. Irrespective of the uptake route, γtoxin imported in kti10 cells may nonetheless mislocalize or become trapped. Perhaps acidification counteracts the kti10 defect by enabling the β/γ dimer to be split before γ toxin activation. Our finding that a GRX3 evokes a class I phenotype when maintained in multicopy suggests that endogenous redox homeostasis can affect the early zymocin response too, before embracing TOT/Elongator (Grant, 2001; Jablonowski et al., 2001a). Whether H⁺-ATPase Pma1 and Grx3, an antioxidative glutaredoxin, act co-operatively during or after y-toxin uptake is currently addressed. As judged from unaltered docking and γ-toxin uptake by kti10 cells, we consider imported γ-toxin to be stuck and to remain functionally dormant in kti10 cells unless mobilized by excess H*. Thus, PMA1 is likely to impact zymocicity by promoting \gamma-toxin activation, trafficking and/or cytosolic release. Optionally, the pH effect may link up to vesicle acidification to split the β/γ heterodimer before γ-toxin activation. Lack of -KDEL retention signals operating during retrograde transport of the S. cerevisiae killer toxin 28 (KT28) (Eisfeld et al., 2000) suggests that this is not necessarily the route by which γ-toxin enters a cell. Consistently, KT28-resistant retrograde defects (end3\[]/end4\]) cannot rescue from zymocin (Jablonowski et al., 2001a). However, Pma1 is known to populate endocytotic vesicles destined for quality control or recycling (Luo and Chang, 2000; Gong and Chang, 2001), and roles for acidifying H*-ATPases in diphtheria and botulinum toxicity are well established (Milne and Collier, 1993; Barth et al., 2000).

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Table 1. Yeast strains used

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Strain	Description	Source		
K. lactis				
AWJ137	α leu2 trp1 [k1* k2*] killer, zymocin producer	Frohloff et al. (2001)		
S. cerevisiae				
BY4741	MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y04375	As BY4741, but <i>ygl007w∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y04377	As BY4741, but <i>leu1∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y07342	As BY4741, but <i>pma2∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y00272	As BY4741, but <i>spf1∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y01587	As BY4741, but <i>yor291w∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y04374	As BY4741, but pmc1∆::kanMX4	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y04534	As BY4741, but <i>pmr1∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y00382	As BY4741, but <i>drs2∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y03883	As BY4741, but <i>vma1∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y07328	As BY4741, but <i>vph1∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y02393	As BY4741, but <i>sia1∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y04570	As BY4741, but <i>kex1∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y06857	As BY4741, but <i>ptk2∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y07325	As BY4741, but <i>hrk1∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y04088	As BY4741, but <i>ace2∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
Y07328	As BY4741, but <i>vph1∆::kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt		
LL20	MATα leu2-3, 112 his3-11, 15	Butler <i>et al.</i> (1994)		
DJY3	As LL20, but <i>chs3∆::KlLEU2 ura3</i>	Jablonowski <i>et al.</i> (2001a)		
FFY2	As LL20, but <i>tot</i> 2∆:: <i>KILEU2 ura3</i>	Frohloff et al. (2001)		
FFY3	As LL20, but <i>tot3∆::KILEU2 ura3</i>	Frohloff et al. (2001)		
LFY11	As LL20, but <i>kti11∆::KlLEU2 ura3</i>	Fichtner and Schaffrath (2002)		
LFY12	As LL20, but tot4∆::LEU2 ura3	Frohloff et al. (2001)		
ARB68	As LL20, but kti10	Butler <i>et al.</i> (1994)		
W303-1B	MATα ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11,15 leu2-3,11 trp1-1 ura3-52	Goossens et al. (2000)		
FPY400	As W303-1B, but <i>pma1-S899A::URA3</i>	Goossens et al. (2000)		
FPY398	As W303-1B, but <i>pma1-S899D::URA3</i>	Goossens et al. (2000)		
FPY1800	As W303-1B, but <i>hal4∆::LEU2 hal5∆::HIS3</i>	F. Portillo		
YPH499	MATa ura3-52 lys2-801 ade2-101 trp1∆63 his3∆200 leu2∆1	Withee et al. (1998)		
JY34118A	As YPH499, but pma1-21	Withee et al. (1998)		
JY35116B	As YPH499, but pma1-102	Withee et al. (1998)		
KT1112	MATa his3 leu2 ura3-52	Williams-Hart <i>et al.</i> (2002)		
TW62	As KT1112, but pma1-s1	Williams-Hart <i>et al.</i> (2002)		
TW65	As KT1112, but pma1-s2	Williams-Hart <i>et al.</i> (2002)		
TW69	As KT1112, but pma1-s3	Williams-Hart <i>et al.</i> (2002)		
TW72	As KT1112, but pma1-s4	Williams-Hart <i>et al.</i> (2002)		
TW76	As KT1112, but pma1-s5	Williams-Hart <i>et al.</i> (2002)		
10080	AS K11112, but pma1-s6	Williams-Hart <i>et al.</i> (2002)		
155	HU GAIS MALT SUCT	Perlin <i>et al.</i> (1989)		
SH103	Yoo-derived: MAIα no::LEU2 pma1-105	Periin <i>et al.</i> (1989)		
SH111	Y55-derived: MATα ho::LEU2 pma1-155	Perlin et al. (1989)		
5H85	Yoo-derived: MATα ho::LEU2 pma1-141	Perlin <i>et al.</i> (1989)		

Experimental procedures

Strains, media, general and K. lactis zymocin methods

All yeast strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. For cultivation, standard rich YPD and minimal SD media were used (Sherman, 1991). For phenotypic analysis, these media contained caffeine (0–7.5 mM), hygromycin B (0–75 μ g ml⁻¹), Calcofluor white (0–50 μ g ml⁻¹) or EtOH (0–6% v/v). Sensitivity to recovery from heat shock pulses followed a previous protocol (Hampsey, 1997). Yeast transformations involved the lithium acetate method (Gietz *et al.*, 1992). Bacterial transformations used *Escherichia coli* strains DH5 α and TOP10 grown in LB supplemented with ampicillin (100 μ g ml⁻¹), Xgal (80 μ g ml⁻¹) and IPTG (50 μ g ml⁻¹). Zymocin response assays used the killer eclipse system (Kishida *et al.*, 1996) with *K. lactis* killer strain AWJ137 (zymocin producer) (see Table 1). Growth was for 1 day at 30°C on YPD plates. Quantitative killer response assays used YPD

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plates containing partially purified zymocin complex from AWJ137 cell-free culture supernatants (Jablonowski *et al.*, 2003). Next, serial dilutions of *S. cerevisiae* strains were replica spotted in parallel on to control (no zymocin) and zymocin (40–65% v/v)-containing plates. Growth was for 2 days at 30°C. Assaying the response to intracellular γ -toxin involved transformation with pHMS14, a galactose-inducible expression vector; pHMS22 carrying the *UAS_{GALT}* promoter only served as a control (Frohloff *et al.*, 2001). γ -Toxin expression was induced by replica spotting 10-fold serial dilutions of yeast transformants from SD medium to S agar containing 2% (v/v) galactose. Growth was for 3 days at 30°C.

Genetic complementation of the kti10 mutant

Complementation of the *kti10* mutant ARB68 (Leu⁻, zym^R) involved the single-copy library YPH1 (ATCC 77162: CEN4/
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LEU2; Fichtner and Schaffrath, 2002) and killer assays of ≈4000 Leu⁺ clones to obtain ≈3× genomic coverage. Using two successive rounds of killer eclipse assays, among 51 candidates with seemingly modulated zymocin responses, one clone reproducibly expressed the expected phenotype (Leu+ zyms). After plasmid rescue and retransformation into starting kti10 cells, kti10associated phenotypes (zym^R EtOH^s) were fully complemented by pCM10.1, the YPH1-based plasmid. Sequencing the genomic insert used primers LF50.1 and LF50.2 (Fichtner and Schaffrath, 2002) to yield a 9.66 kb chromosome VII fragment (co-ordinates 476 398-486 054). Three coding regions were identified (YGL007w, YGL008c/PMA1 and YGL009c/LEU1) and two defined knock-outs (Euroscarf: yg/007w∆ and yg/009c∆) subjected to killer eclipse assays. The essential gene (YGL008c/ PMA1) was analysed by excising a central HindIII ORF interval to create a pma1∆ allele (pCM10.2). Using PCR on pCM10.1 template DNA and PMA1-specific primers (PMA1-FW: 5'-AAT TAT GAC CGG TGA CGA AAC GTG G-3' and PMA1-RV: 5'-TAA GCG GCT TAT TCT TGT TGG CTC C-3'), a 3.3 kb PMA1 amplified product was cloned into single (YCplac111) and multicopy (YEplac195) LEU2 vectors (Gietz and Sugino, 1988). The resultant PMA1 clones (pCM10.3 and pCM10.4) were tested with pCM10.2 (pma1a) and individual YGL009c/LEU1 (pCM10.5) and YGL007w (pCM10.6) subclones for complementation of kti10 cells by killer eclipse and ethanol tolerance assays.

DNA sequence analysis of kti10

To identify the *kti10* mutation(s), the 3.3 kb DNA region corresponding to *PMA1/YGL008c* was amplified from the mutant along with a 405 bp promoter segment using primers *PMA1*-FW and *PMA1*-RV (see above). The mutant *kti10* allele was subcloned into pCR2.1-TOPO (Invitrogen) and subjected to DNA sequence analysis using the above primers in conjunction with primers seq1–11 (sequence information is available on request) to cover the entire *YGL008c/PMA1* reading frame on both DNA strands by multiple overlapping sequence reactions. For comparison, we repeated the same strategy to isolate and sequence the wild-type *PMA1/KT110* locus from parent strain LL20.

Immunological techniques

Detection of Pma1 in wild-type and mutant kti10 cells used a rabbit anti-Pma1 antibody (1:5000 dilution kindly supplied by Dr C. W. Slayman, Yale University School of Medicine, CT, USA) on total protein extracts or cell fractionations using standard 10% SDS-PAGE and Western analysis. Control of standardized protein loadings involved a rabbit anti-Pfk1 antibody (1:10 000 dilution) recognizing subunits α and β of phosphofructokinase, Pfk1 (a kind gift from Dr J. J. Heinisch, University of Osnabrück, Germany). Yeast cell fractionation involved sucrose ultracentrifugation as described previously (Kölling and Hollenberg, 1994). Separation of yeast cytoplasmic, soluble fractions from insoluble cell debris and cell wall-associated components followed the protocol of Pereira et al. (1998) omitting subdivision into nuclear fractions. Treating wild-type sensitive or resistant S. cerevisiae mutants (kti10, chs3a and tot3a) with zymocin before protein extraction or cell fractionation involved strain cultivation in 100 ml of YPD broth (OD₆₀₀ $\approx 1.0),$ followed by the addition of 50% (v/v) partially purified zymocin (see above) and further incubation at 30°C for 2–6 h. After OD₆₀₀ measurement of the treated cultures, equivalent biomasses were harvested, subjected to protein extraction or cell fractionation and standardization. Rabbit anti- γ toxin antibodies (1:1000 dilution) were produced by Pineda Antibody Service using KLH (Sigma) coupling of two synthetic γ -toxin peptides (18-mer: NH₂-C₃₀YDLIRYLKQYEKTGESK₄₇-CONH₂ and 19-mer: NH₂-C₁₉₄FKDPQGNRITDFDSINKE₂₁₂-CONH₂; Stark *et al.*, 1984; Stark and Boyd, 1986) predicted to be surface exposed (Parker *et al.*, 1986).

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2.1.1.1. Zusammenfassung der Ergebnisse

In der vorangegangenen Publikation konnte das KTI10-Allel durch Komplementationsanalyse dem Gen PMA1 zugeordnet werden. Es wurden Zymocin-resistente kti10-Zellen mit der Genbank YPH1 (CEN4, LEU2) transformiert und anschließend auf Plasmid-gekoppelte Wiederherstellung der Zymocinsensitivität getestet. Unter 4000 getesteten Transformanten konnte ein Zymocin-sensitiver Klon isoliert werden, dessen Plasmid ein ca. 9,7 kb großes DNA-Fragment des Chromosoms VII mit den Genen LEU1, PMA1 und YGL007w trägt. Anschließende Subklonierungen zeigten, dass nur PMA1 in der Lage ist, die kti10-Mutation zu komplementieren. PMA1 codiert eine Plasmamembran H⁺-ATPase, deren Aufgabe es ist, H⁺-Ionen aus dem Zellinneren zu pumpen, um einen elektrochemischen Protonengradienten entlang der Plasmamembran zu gewährleisten. Mutationen anderer membranständiger ATPasen, wie PMA2, PMC1, PMR1, SPF1, DRS2, VMA1 und VPH1, welche sich bezüglich intrazellulärer Lokalisierung und Selektivität für bestimmte Ionen von PMA1 unterscheiden, vermitteln keine Zymocinresistenz. Somit scheint ausschließlich PMA1 für die Zymocinwirkung essentiell zu sein. Die beobachteten Phänotypen der kti10- und weiterer Zymocin-resistenter *pma1*-Mutanten (*pma1-s1*, *pma1-s4*, *pma1-s5*, *pma1-102*, *pma1-105* und pmal-155) gegenüber Hygromycin B bzw. verändertem pH-Werten (pH3-4) weisen auf funktionelle Pma1-Defekte hin. Die Sequenzierung des KTI10-Allels ergab zwei missense Mutationen, die zu den Aminosäure-Substitutionen Q125K und Q357R führen. Da PMA1-Genexpressionen und intrazelluläre Lokalisierung in kti10/pma1-Zellen unverändert waren, dürfte die Ursache der angesprochenen Phänotypen in einer Fehlfunktion der Plasmamembran-ATPase liegen.

Westernanalysen zeigten, dass im Gegensatz zur chitindefizienten *chs3* Δ -Mutante in *kti10/pma1*-Zellen eine Bindung des Zymocinkomplexes an die Hefezellwand möglich ist. Desweiteren deutet die intrazelluläre Akkumulierung des γ -Toxins darauf hin, dass in *kti10/pma1*-Zellen, wie im Wildtyp, ein γ -Toxinimport in das Innere der Hefezelle stattfindet. Somit kann die Möglichkeit, dass die ATPase für die Aufnahme des γ -Toxins in die Zelle notwendig ist, weitgehend ausgeschlossen werden. Da eine intrazelluläre Expression der γ -Untereinheit in *kti10/pma1*-Zellen zu einem Wachstumsarrest führt, ist Pma1 möglicherweise für die intrazellüläre Aktivierung des γ -Toxins notwendig. Damit würde Pma1 zwischen der Bindung des Zymocins an Chitin als putativen Zelloberflächenrezeptor und der Entfaltung der intrazellulären Wirkung des γ -Toxins als tRNA-Endonuclease stehen.

2.1.2. Publikation 2

Mannosyl-diinositolphospho-ceramide, the major yeast plasma membrane sphingolipid, governs toxicity of *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin

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Mannosyl-Diinositolphospho-Ceramide, the Major Yeast Plasma Membrane Sphingolipid, Governs Toxicity of Kluyveromyces lactis Zymocin

Sabrina Zink,¹[†] Constance Mehlgarten,¹[†] Hiroko K. Kitamoto,²[†] Junko Nagase,² Daniel Jablonowski,¹ Robert C. Dickson,³ Michael J. R. Stark,⁴ and Raffael Schaffrath1*

Biologicum, Institut für Genetik, Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg, Weinbergweg 10, D-06120 Halle (Saale), Germany¹;

National Institute of Agrobiological Sciences, 2-1-2 Kannondai, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8602, Japan²; Department of

Molecular and Cellular Biochemistry, University of Kentucky, College of Medicine, 800 Rose Street,

Lexington, Kentucky³; and Division of Gene Regulation and Expression, School of Life Sciences, University of Dundee, MSI/WTB Complex, Dow Street,

Dundee DD1 5EH, United Kingdom

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Kluyveromyces lactis zymocin, a trimeric ($\alpha\beta\gamma$) protein toxin complex, inhibits proliferation of Saccharomyces cerevisiae cells. Here we present an analysis of kti6 mutants, which resist exogenous zymocin but are sensitive to intracellular expression of its inhibitory γ -toxin subunit, suggesting that KTI6 encodes a factor needed for toxin entry into the cell. Consistent with altered cell surface properties, kti6 cells resist hygromycin B, syringomycin E, and nystatin, antibiotics that require intact membrane potentials or provoke membrane disruption. KTI6 is allelic to IPT1, coding for mannosyl-diinositolphospho-ceramide [M(IP)2C] synthase, which produces $M(IP)_2C$, the major plasma membrane sphingolipid. $kti\delta$ membranes lack $M(IP)_2C$ and sphingolipid mutants that have reduced levels of M(IP)₂C precursors, including the sphingolipid building block ceramide survive zymocin. In addition, kti6/ipt1 cells allow zymocin docking but prevent import of its toxic γ-subunit. Genetic analysis indicates that Kti6 is likely to act upstream of lipid raft proton pump Kti10/Pma1, a previously identified zymocin sensitivity factor. In sum, $M(IP)_2C$ operates in a plasma membrane step that follows recognition of cell wall chitin by zymocin but precedes the involvement of elongator, the potential toxin target.

Kluyveromyces lactis killer strains prevent Saccharomyces cerevisiae cells from undergoing G1 cell cycle exit via zymocin, a trimeric ($\alpha\beta\gamma$) toxin complex (8, 52, 57). Based on conditional expression, toxicity resides within the γ -subunit (γ -toxin) and screens for growth in the presence of exozymocin or endogenously expressed γ -toxin have distinguished nontarget (class I) from toxin target (class II) kti (K. lactis toxin insensitive) mutants in Saccharomyces cerevisiae (9, 11, 62). Ten class II KTI genes suggest the existence of a complex toxin response pathway or, alternatively, the involvement of a multifactorial target complex (11). In favor of the latter, analysis of tot (γ toxin target) mutants has identified the TOT function of Elongator, a six-subunit partner complex of RNA polymerase II (19, 31, 48, 65). Like Elongator defects, mutations in genes coding for Elongator partners or Elongator relevant factors (KTI11, KTI12/TOT4, KTI13/ATS1, and KTI14/HRR25) elicit class II resistance (16-18, 42).

As judged from recent data that kti14 casein kinase I mutants express Elongator-like defects and that hyperphosphorylation of Elongator in sit4 phosphatase mutants coincide with zymocin survival, TOT function seems to be kept in check by

Elongator phosphorylation (32, 34, 42). In support of Elongator's role as a key zymocin effector, its TOT function is further suppressed by Elongator proteolysis and by lack of protein urmylation (18, 21). Notably, without Elongator, protein urmylation is affected and removal of TOT partner Kti11 enhances Elongator instability and defeats diphtheria toxicity (18, 23, 40).

Despite these advances towards identifying components of the toxin target process, the early steps of the zymocin response are poorly understood (53). Consistent with an impact on early events, class I mutations in KTI2/CHS3 and KTI10/ PMA1 protect solely against exozymocin and affect chitin synthesis and plasma membrane H+-ATPase function, respectively (11, 33, 43). In line with this, holozymocin binds chitin in vitro and has exochitinase activity (10, 33). As judged from the finding that hygromycin B, whose antibiotic action requires an intact membrane potential established by H⁺-ATPase Pma1/ Kti10, is inert against kti10 cells, plasma membrane energization is likely to be required for zymocin action (43, 50). Given the strongly hydrophobic nature of the β -subunit, to which the active γ -subunit is linked via a disulfide bond, a tentative picture that emerges for early zymocin-induced events includes chitin docking followed by delivery of the γ -toxin subunit to the membrane and subsequent subcellular import (33, 43, 56).

In support of class I zymocin protection, we present in this report evidence that kti6 cells express a membrane defect that allows them to survive antifungal drugs whose actions require

^{*} Corresponding author. Mailing address: Biologicum, Institut für Genetik, Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg, Weinbergweg 10, D-06120 Halle (Saale), Germany. Phone: 49-345-5526333. Fax: 49-345-5527151. E-mail: schaffrath@genetik.uni-halle.de.

[†] These authors contributed equally to the work.

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TABLE 1. Yeast strains used in this study

K Interview 19 AWI137 MATa [k1" k2"] zymocin producer, immune 19 FO1267 MATa [k1" k2"] zymocin producer, immune 25 S. corevisite 25 Structure MATa [k1" k2"] zymocin producer, immune 25 Structure MATa [k63] [k02] $\Delta 0$ [k03] $\Delta 0$ EUROSCARF BY4741 MATa [k63] [k02] $\Delta 0$ [k03] $\Delta 0$ EUROSCARF Structure BY4742 MATa [k63] [k02] $\Delta 0$ [k03] $\Delta 0$ EUROSCARF Y04007 BY4742 but [p12] [k1" k2"] [k1" k2"] [k1" k2"] [k1" k2"] [k1" k1"] $\Delta 0$ EUROSCARF Y05281 BY4741 but [k1" k2"] [k1" k2"] [k1" k2"] [k1" k1"] [k1"] [k1" k1"] [k1" k1"] [k1"] [k1"] [k1" k1"] [k1" k1"] [k1" k1"] [k1"] [Strain	Relevant genotype	Reference or source
AWI137 MATx lev2 trp1 [k1" k2"] zymocin producer, immune 19 IFO1267 MATx [k1" k2"] zymocin producer, immune 25 S. cerevisiae EUROSCARF BY4741 MATx his3A1 lev2A0 me15A0 ma3A0 EUROSCARF BY4742 MATx his3A1 lev2A0 me15A0 ma3A0 EUROSCARF BY4741 but int int int int int int int int int in	K. lactis		
IFO1267 $M4Ta [k1+ k2+] zymocin producer, immune 25 Scewviside EUROSCARF BY 4741 M4Ta his3A I leu2A met15a 0 ura3A 0 EUROSCARF Strand BY 4742 MATa his3A I leu2A 0 kra3A 0 EUROSCARF Y04007 BY4741 but uraf2x:kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y05051 BY4741 but araf2x:kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y05050 BY4741 but araf2x:kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y04067 BY4741 but araf2x:kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y04667 BY4741 but araf2x:kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y04667 BY4741 but araf2x:kamMX4 EUROSCARF L120 MATa (ku2.3) 12 /ks3-11/15 cm1 11 ARB5 L120 but kn6-2 11 ARB6 L120 but kn6-3 11 ARB5 KY117 but kn6-3 11 ARB5 L20 but kn6-4 11 ARB6 L20 but kn10 du6 11 PFY3 L20 but kn10 du6 11 DG106 L20 but kn10 du6 11 DG107 L20 but kn10 du6 This study DG108 L20 but kn10 du6 This study YCC1 $	AWJ137	$MAT_{\alpha} \ leu2 \ trp1 \ [k1^+ \ k2^+]$ zymocin producer, immune	19
Sc cerevisiate EUROSCARF BY 4741 MATa his3A1 leu2A0 me15A0 ura3A0 EUROSCARF BY 4742 MATa his3A1 leu2A0 hy2A0 ura3A0 EUROSCARF BY 4742 BY 4741 but jut Ja::kanMX4 EUROSCARF Y14007 BY 4742 but jut Ja::kanMX4 EUROSCARF Y05281 BY 4741 but sur2A:kanMX4 EUROSCARF Y04067 BY 4741 but sur2A:kanMX4 EUROSCARF Y04067 BY 4741 but sur2A:kanMX4 EUROSCARF L20 MATa his5A1 but sofA:kanMX4 EUROSCARF L20 MATa his5A2 mp1-A1 hys-801"m ade2-101 his3A200 11 KY117 MATa kin5-3 11 ARB6 L120 but kin6-1 11 ARBK28 KY117 but kin6-3 11 ARBK28 KY117 but kin6-3 11 ARBK80 L120 but kin80 11 FY12 L120 but kin80-5 11 ARBK80 L120 but kin80-5 13 DG106 L120 but kin80-5 13 DG107 L120 but kin80-5 This study YCC1 BY4741 (MATa P	IFO1267	MATa [k1 ⁺ k2 ⁺] zymocin producer, immune	25
BY 4741 MATa his3A leu20 mel530 ura3A0 EUROSCARF BY 4742 MATa his3A leu20 pls20 ura3A0 EUROSCARF Y04007 BY 4741 but ipt12::kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y14007 BY 4741 but ipt12::kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y0365 BY 4741 but sur42:kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y04667 BY 4741 but sur42:kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y04667 BY 4741 but sur42:kamMX4 EUROSCARF L120 MATa leu23,112 his3-11,15 can1 11 ARB6 L120 but ki6-2 11 ARB77 L120 but ki6-2 11 ARB73 L120 but ki6-3 11 ARB840 KY117 but ki6-3 11 ARB850 KY117 but ki6-3 11 FYY3 L120 but ki6/3e/ja2::KILEU2 ura3 19 DG106 L120 but ki6/3e/ja2::KILEU2 ura3 19 DG107 L120 but ki6/3/e/ja2::KILEU2 ura3 33 DG108 L120 but ki6/3/e/ja2::KILEU2 ura3 19 DG109 L120 but ki6/3/e/ja2::KILEU2 ura3 19 DG107 L20 but ki6/3/e/ja2::KILEU2 ura3 13 DG108 <thl20 3="" but="" e="" ja2::kileu2="" ki6="" th="" ura3<=""> 19<td>S. cerevisiae</td><td></td><td></td></thl20>	S. cerevisiae		
BY 4742 MATa his3Al leu240 by220 ura320 EUROSCARF Y04007 BY 4741 but jul 2::kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y14007 BY 4741 but jul 2::kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y05281 BY 4741 but sur22::kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y04067 BY 4741 but sur22::kamMX4 EUROSCARF Y04667 BY 4741 but sur22::kamMX4 EUROSCARF L120 MATa tea23.12 his3-11.15 carl 11 KY117 MATa trans25 trp1-AI hys2-801*** ade2-101 hits3200 11 ARB6 L120 but kir6-1 11 ARB7 L120 but kir6-3 11 ARB828 KY117 but kir6-5 11 ARB820 KY117 but kir6-5 11 ARB888 L120 but toi3/elp3A::KILEU2 ura3 19 LFY12 L120 but toi3/kit22::KILEU2 ura3 33 DG106 L120 but kir0 kir0 This study DG107 L120 but kir0 kir0 This study YCC1 BY4741 (MATa PTT) × L20 (MATa kir6-2) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATa PTT) × ARB27 (MATa kir6-2) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATa PTT) × ARB27 (MATa kir6-2) This study YCC3	BY4741	MATa his $3\Delta 1$ leu $2\Delta 0$ met $15\Delta 0$ ura $3\Delta 0$	EUROSCARF
Y04007 BY4741 but <i>ipl12::kamNX4</i> EUROSCARF Y14007 BY4742 but <i>ipl12::kamNX4</i> EUROSCARF Y03656 BY4741 but <i>sur12::kamNX4</i> EUROSCARF Y03656 BY4741 but <i>sur12::kamNX4</i> EUROSCARF Y03656 BY4741 but <i>sur12::kamNX4</i> EUROSCARF Y04667 BY4741 but <i>sur12::kamNX4</i> EUROSCARF L120 MATa <i>leu23:112 ins3-11,15 cm1</i> 11 ARB6 LL20 but <i>kito-1</i> 11 ARB77 LL20 but <i>kito-2</i> 11 ARB68 LL20 but <i>kito-4</i> 11 ARB680 KY117 but <i>kito-5</i> 11 ARB680 LL20 but <i>lot/dig13:::KILEU2 ura3</i> 19 FY12 LL20 but <i>lot/dig13:::KILEU2 ura3</i> 19 DY3 LL20 but <i>lot/dig13:::KILEU2 ura3</i> 33 DG106 L20 but <i>kit0 kit6</i> This study VCC1 BY4741 (<i>M4Ta IPT1</i>) × L20 (<i>MATa KT16</i>) This study YCC2 BY4741 (<i>M4Ta IPT1</i>) × ARB27 (<i>MATa kit6-2</i>) This study YCC3 Y04007 (<i>MATa ip1A</i>) × ARB27 (<i>MATa kit6-2</i>) This study YCC	BY4742	MAT_{α} his $3\Delta 1$ leu $2\Delta 0$ lys $2\Delta 0$ ura $3\Delta 0$	EUROSCARF
Y14007 BY4742 but ipt/12::kam/X4 EUROSCARF Y05281 BY4741 but un/2::kam/X4 EUROSCARF Y05666 BY4741 but un/2::kam/X4 EUROSCARF Y04667 BY4741 but un/2::kam/X4 EUROSCARF L120 MATa keu23,112 his3-11,15 can1 11 KY117 MATa keu23,112 his3-11,15 can1 11 KY117 MATa keu23,22 mp1-a1 by2-801 ^{am} ade2-101 his3 $\Delta 200$ 11 ARB6 L120 but kito-1 11 ARB6 L120 but kito-5 11 ARBK28 KY117 but kito-5 11 ARBK30 KY117 but kito-5 11 ARB688 L120 but toti/(ki122::KILEU2 una3 19 JFY12 L120 but toti/(ki122::KILEU2 una3 13 DG106 L120 but kito/10 This study DG107 L120 but kito/12::KILEU2 una3 13 DG108 L120 but kito/12::KILEU2 una3 13 DG109 L120 but kito/12::KILEU2 una3 13 DG100 L120 but kito/12::KILEU2 una3 13 DG107 L120 but kito/10: This study YCC1 BY4741 (MAT a IPT1) × XRBZ7 (MATa kito-2) This study <td>Y04007</td> <td>BY4741 but <i>ipt1</i>Δ::<i>kanMX4</i></td> <td>EUROSCARF</td>	Y04007	BY4741 but <i>ipt1</i> Δ:: <i>kanMX4</i>	EUROSCARF
Y05281 BY4741 but $ux42:kam/X4$ EUROSCARF Y03656 BY4741 but $acb12:kam/X4$ EUROSCARF LL20 M47a leu2.3,112 his3-11,15 can1 11 KY117 M47a ura3-52 pp1-14 lys2-801 ^{em} adc2-101 his3 $\Delta 200$ 11 ARB6 LL20 but kitō-1 11 ARB7 LL20 but kitō-2 11 ARB840 KY117 but kitō-3 11 ARB850 KY117 but kitō-4 11 ARB850 LL20 but kitō-4 11 ARB850 LL20 but kitō-4 11 ARB68 LL20 but kitō-4 11 ARB68 LL20 but kitō-5 19 JY3 LL20 but kitō/Ja::KILEU2 ura3 19 DY3 LL20 but kitō/Ja::KILEU2 ura3 33 DG106 LL20 but kitō/Ja::KILEU2 ura3 33 DG106 L20 but kitō/Ja::KILEU2 ura3 11 VCC1 BY4741 (M4Ta IPTT) × L20 (M4Ta kTt6) This study YCC2 BY4741 (M4Ta IPTT) × L20 (M4Ta kitō-2) This study YCC3 Y04007 (MATa ipt1) × ARB27 (M4Ta kitō-2) This study YCC4 Y04007 (M4Ta ipt1) × ARB27 (M4Ta kitō-3) This study <td>Y14007</td> <td>BY4742 but <i>ipt1</i>Δ::<i>kanMX4</i></td> <td>EUROSCARF</td>	Y14007	BY4742 but <i>ipt1</i> Δ:: <i>kanMX4</i>	EUROSCARF
Y03656 BY4741 but sur22::kam/X4 EUROSCARF Y04667 BY4741 but sur24::kam/X4 EUROSCARF L120 MATa leu2-3,112 his3-11,15 can1 11 KY117 MATa leu2-3,112 his3-11,15 can1 11 KY117 MATa leu2-3,112 his3-11,15 can1 11 ARB6 L120 but kai6-1 11 ARB77 L120 but kai6-3 11 ARBK28 KY117 but kai6-3 11 ARBK28 KY117 but kai6-5 11 ARBK30 KY117 but kai6-5 11 ARB68 L120 but kai6-5 11 ARB68 L120 but kai10 11 FY12 L120 but kai122::KILEU2 ura3 19 DG106 L120 but kai0Aipt132::KILEU2 ura3 33 DG107 L20 but kai0Aipt132::KILEU2 ura3 33 DG108 L120 but kai0Aipt132::KILEU2 ura3 11 VCC1 BY4741 (MATA IPT1) × L20 (MATa KT16) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATA IPT1) × L20 (MATa KT6) This study YCC3 Y04007 (MATa ipt1A) × L20 (MATa Kti6-3) This study	Y05281	BY4741 but $sur4\Delta::kanMX4$	EUROSCARF
Y04667 BY4741 but acb12:kamMX4 EUROSCARF L120 MATa len2.3115 can1 11 ARB6 L120 but ki6-1 11 ARB6 L120 but ki6-2 11 ARB7 L120 but ki6-3 11 ARB8 KY117 but ki6-3 11 ARB820 KY117 but ki6-4 11 ARB68 L120 but ki6-0 11 ARB68 L120 but ki6-0 11 ARB68 L120 but ki6-0 11 FY73 L120 but ki6-0 11 FY73 L120 but ki61/db:2k:KLEU2 ura3 19 DY3 L120 but ki61/db:2k:KLEU2 ura3 33 DG106 L120 but ki61/db:i12::KLEU2 ura3 33 DG107 L120 but ki61/db:i12::KLEU2 ura3 33 DG108 L20 but ki60/dp:i12::KLEU2 This study YCC1 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × ARB71 (MATa Ki6-2) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATa iPT1) × ARB71 (MATa Ki6-2) This study YCC3 Y04007 (MATa ipt13) × XL20 (MATa Ki6-2) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa I	Y03656	BY4741 but <i>sur2</i> Δ:: <i>kanMX4</i>	EUROSCARF
LL20 $MATa \ len2-3.112 \ lis3-11.15 \ can1$ 11 KY117 $MATa \ len2-3.52 \ tpl-\Delta l \ lys2-801^{em} \ ade2-101 \ lis3\Delta200$ 11 ARB6 LL20 but ki6-1 11 ARB7 LL20 but ki6-2 11 ARBK10 KY117 but ki6-3 11 ARBK28 KY117 but ki6-5 11 ARBK20 KY117 but ki6-5 11 ARB68 L20 but to3/ej3_2:KILEU2 ura3 19 LFY12 L20 but to3/ej3_2:KILEU2 ura3 19 DG106 L120 but to3/ej3_2:KILEU2 ura3 33 DG106 L120 but to3/ej3_2:KILEU2 ura3 33 DG106 L120 but ki0 ki6 This study DG107 L20 but ki0 ki6 This study VCC1 BY4741 (M4Ta IPT1) × L120 (M4Ta kT16) This study YCC2 BY4741 (M4Ta IPT1) × L120 (M4Ta ki6-2) This study YCC4 Y04007 (M4Ta ip11.4) × ARB27 (M4Ta ki6-3) This study YCC5 BY4742 (M4Ta IPT1) × ARBK10 (M4Ta ki6-3) This study YCC6 BY4742 (M4Ta ip11.4) × KY117 (M4Ta ki6-3) This study YCC5 Y14007 (M4Ta ip11.4) × ARBK10 (M4Ta ki6-3) This study	Y04667	BY4741 but $acb1\Delta::kanMX4$	EUROSCARF
KY117 $MATa tran3-52 trp1-\Delta I bys2-801^{am} ade2-101 his3\Delta 200 11 ARB6 LL20 but kitó-1 11 ARB57 LL20 but kitó-2 11 ARBK10 KY117 but kitó-3 11 ARBK28 KY117 but kitó-4 11 ARBK30 KY117 but kitó-5 11 ARBK30 KY117 but kitó-5 11 ARB68 LL20 but trálkit22::KILEU2 ura3 19 JFY12 LL20 but trálkit22::KILEU2 ura3 33 DG106 LL20 but kitló kité This study DG106 LL20 but kitló kité This study VCC1 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × LL20 (MATa KT16) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × KL20 (MATa Kt16-2) This study YCC3 Y04007 (MATa ipt1A) × ARB27 (MATa kitó-2) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × KY117 (MATa kitó-3) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × KY117 (MATa kitó-3) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × KY117 (MATa kitó-3) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × KY117 (MATa kitó-3) This study YCC6 BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × KY117 (MATa kitó-3) This study<$	LL20	MATa leu2-3,112 his3-11,15 can1	11
ARB6 L20 but ki6.1 11 ARB27 L20 but ki6.2 11 ARBK10 KY117 but ki6.3 11 ARBK28 KY117 but ki6.5 11 ARBK28 KY117 but ki6.5 11 ARB68 L20 but toi3lelp3::KILEU2 ura3 19 FFY3 L20 but toi3lelp3::KILEU2 ura3 19 DY3 L20 but toi3lelp3::KILEU2 ura3 33 DG106 L20 but ki10 kit6 This study DG107 L20 but ki3lki12::KILEU2 ura3 33 DG106 L20 but ki3lki12::KILEU2 This study DG107 L20 but ki3lki12::KILEU2 This study YCC1 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × L20 (MATa KT16) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × L20 (MATa KT16) This study YCC4 Y04007 (MATa ipt1A) × L20 (MATa KT16) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × KRBX10 (MATa ki6-2) This study YCC6 BY4742 (MATa ipt1A) × L20 (MATa ki6-3) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa ipt1A) × ARBK10 (MATa ki6-3) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa ipt1A) × ARBK10 (MATa ki6-3) This study YCC7	KY117	MATa ura3-52 trp1-Δ1 lys2-801 ^{am} ade2-101 his3Δ200	11
ARB7 LL20 but ki6-2 11 ARBK10 KY117 but ki6-3 11 ARBK28 KY117 but ki6-4 11 ARBK30 KY117 but ki6-5 11 ARB68 LL20 but ki10 11 FFY3 L20 but ki10 19 LFY12 L20 but ki10/ki12\arXILEU2 ura3 19 DY3 L20 but ki10/ki6 This study DG106 L20 but ki10/ki6 This study DG107 L120 but ki10/ki6 This study DG108 L20 but ki10/ki6 This study YCC1 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × LL20 (MATa KT16) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × LL20 (MATa KT16) This study YCC3 Y04007 (MATa ipt1) × ARB27 (MATa KT16) This study YCC4 Y04007 (MATa ipt1) × KY117 (MATa KT16) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × ARB27 (MATa KT16) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa ipt1) × KY117 (MATa KT16) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa ipt1) × KY117 (MATa KT16) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa ipt1) × KY117 (MATa KT16) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa IPT1)	ARB6	LL20 but kti6-1	11
ARBK10 KY117 but $ki6^{-3}$ 11 ARBK28 KY117 but $ki6^{-5}$ 11 ARBK30 KY117 but $ki6^{-5}$ 11 ARBK86 LL20 but $ki10^{-5}$ 11 FY3 LL20 but $ki2p33::KLEU2 ura3$ 19 DY3 LL20 but $ki3/ki22::KLEU2 ura3$ 33 DG106 LL20 but $ki3/ki22::KLEU2 ura3$ 33 DG106 LL20 but $ki6\Deltaipi12::KTE0[PT1]$ This study DG107 LL20 but $ki6\Deltaipi12::KLEU2$ This study VCC1 BY4741 (MATa PT1) × LL20 (MATa KT16) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATa PT1) × ARB27 (MATa Kt16-2) This study YCC3 Y04007 (MATa ipt1A) × ARB27 (MATa kt16-2) This study YCC4 Y04007 (MATa ipt1A) × ARB27 (MATa kt16-2) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa PT1) × ARB27 (MATa kt16-3) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa PT1) × ARB10 (MATa kt16-3) This study YCC6 BY4742 (MATa PT1) × ARB10 (MATa kt16-3) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa ipt1A) × ARB10 (MATa kt16-3) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa ipt1A) × ARB10 (MATa kt16-3) This study YCC8 <t< td=""><td>ARB27</td><td>LL20 but kti6-2</td><td>11</td></t<>	ARB27	LL20 but kti6-2	11
ARBK28 KY117 but kti6-4 11 ARBK30 KY117 but kti6-5 11 ARB68 L120 but kti60 11 FY3 L120 but to3/efp33::KLEU2 ura3 19 LFY12 L120 but to3/efp33::KLEU2 ura3 19 DY3 L120 but kti0 kti10 kti6 19 DY3 L120 but kti0 kti6 This study DG106 L120 but kti0 kti6 This study QG108 L120 but kti0 kti6/ipt13::KLEU2 ura3 33 DG108 L120 but kti6/ipt13::KLEU2 This study YCC1 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × L120 (MATa Kti6-2) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATa ipt1A) × L120 (MATa Kti6-2) This study YCC3 Y04007 (MATa ipt1A) × KL20 (MATa Kti6-3) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa (PT1) × KN17 (MATa Kti6-3) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa (PT1) × KN17 (MATa Kti6-3) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa (PT1) × KN17 (MATa Kti6-3) This study YCC6 BY4742 (MATa ipt1A) × KN17 (MATa Kti6-3) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa ipt1A) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3) This study W303-1A MATa ura3-1 leu3-3/112 his3-11/15 trp	ARBK10	KY117 but kti6-3	11
ARBK30KY117 but kti6-511ARB68LL20 but kti1011FFY3LL20 but tot3/elp32x:KLLEU2 ura319LFY12LL20 but tot3/elp32x:KLLEU2 ura333DG106LL20 but tot4/kti12\L2:KLLEU2 ura333DG106LL20 but kti010 kti6This studyDG107LL20 but kti010 kti6This studyDG108LL20 but kti010 kti6This studyYCC1BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × LL20 (MATa KT16)This studyYCC2BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × LL20 (MATa Kt16-2)This studyYCC3Y04007 (MATa ipt14) × LL20 (MATa Kt16)This studyYCC4Y04007 (MATa ipt14) × KN17 (MATa Kt16)This studyYCC5BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × KY117 (MATa Kt16)This studyYCC6BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × KX117 (MATa Kt16)This studyYCC7Y14007 (MATa ipt14) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyYCC8Y14007 (MATa ipt14) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyYCC8Y14007 (MATa ipt14) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyYCC8Y14007 (MATa ipt12) kti311115 ip1-1 ade2-1 can1-10060DM1W303-1A but ig12:kti32G3WBY285W303-1A but lac1A::ADE2H. Riezman, GenevaWBY285W303-1A but lac1A::ADE2H. Riezman, GenevaKA31-1A but cs12:XtH33 cs24::URA3G3SUY06KA31-1A but cs12:XtH33 cs24::URA3G3SUY06KA31-1A but cs12:XtH33 cs24::URA3G3SUY06KA31-1A but cs12:XtH33 cs14::LEU2G3SUY44KA31-1A but cs24::HIS3 cs14::LEU2G	ARBK28	KY117 but <i>kti6-4</i>	11
ARB68LL20 but $kti10$ 11FFY3LL20 but $tot3/elp3\Delta:XILEU2$ $ura3$ 19LFY12LL20 but $tot3/klj2\Delta:XILEU2$ $ura3$ 19DJY3LL20 but $chs3/kti2\Delta:XILEU2$ $ura3$ 33DG106LL20 but $ki10$ kit6This studyDG107LL20 but $ki10$ kit6This studyDG108LL20 but $ki0/\mut1\Delta:XILEU2$ (MAT α KTI6)This studyYCC1BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × LL20 (MAT α KTI6)This studyYCC2BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × ARB27 (MAT α kti6-2)This studyYCC3Y04007 (MATa ipt1 Δ) × LL20 (MAT α KTI6)This studyYCC4Y04007 (MATa ipt1 Δ) × KL20 (MAT α KTI6)This studyYCC5BY4742 (MAT α IPT1) × KN177 (MATa KTI6)This studyYCC6BY4742 (MAT α IPT1) × KN177 (MATa KTI6)This studyYCC7Y14007 (MAT α ipt1 Δ) × ARBK10 (MAT α kti6-3)This studyYCC8Y14007 (MAT α ipt1 Δ) × ARBK10 (MAT α kti6-3)This studyW303-1AMAT α ura3-1 leu2-3/12 his3-11/15 trp1-1 ade2-1 can1-10060DM11W303-1A but lac1 $\Delta::ADE2$ H. Riezman, GenevaWBY286W303-1A but lac1 $\Delta::ADE2$ H. Riezman, GenevaWBY283W303-1A but lac1 $\Delta::ADE2$ G3SUY05KA31-1A but csg1 $\Delta::HIS3$ csg2 $\Delta::URA3$ G3SUY06KA31-1A but csg1 $\Delta::HIS3$ csg2 $\Delta::URA3$ G3SUY07KA31-1A but csg1 $\Delta::HIS3$ csg1 $\Delta::LEU2$ G3SUY44KA31-1A but csg1 $\Delta::HIS3$ csh1 $\Delta::LEU2$ G3SUY44KA31-1A but csg1 $\Delta::HIS3$ csh1 $\Delta::LEU2$ G3	ARBK30	KY117 but kti6-5	11
FFY3LL20 but tol3/elp3 Δ ::KILEU2 ura319LFY12LL20 but tol4/kil2 Δ ::KILEU2 ura319DJY3LL20 but tol4/kil2 Δ ::KILEU2 ura333DG106LL20 but kil0 ki6This studyDG107LL20 but splis5*::CALI::KTI6/IPT1This studyDG108LL20 but ki6 Δ [iP1] × LL20 (MAT α KTI6)This studyYCC1BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × LL20 (MAT α KTI6)This studyYCC2BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × ARB27 (MAT α ki6-2)This studyYCC3Y04007 (MATa ip1 Δ) × LL20 (MAT α Ki6-2)This studyYCC4Y04007 (MATa ip1 Δ) × ARB27 (MAT α ki6-2)This studyYCC5BY4742 (MAT α IPT1) × ARB27 (MAT α ki6-2)This studyYCC6BY4742 (MAT α IPT1) × ARB10 (MAT α ki6-2)This studyYCC7Y14007 (MAT α ip1 Δ) × KY117 (MAT α ki6-3)This studyYCC7Y14007 (MAT α ip1 Δ) × KX117 (MAT α ki6-3)This studyYCC8Y14007 (MAT α ip1 Δ) × KX117 (MAT α ki6-3)This studyW303-1AMAT α ip1 Δ) × KX117 (MAT α ki6-3)This studyW303-1AMAT α ip1 Δ) × KX117 (MAT α ki6-3)This studyW303-1AMAT α ip1 Δ) × KX117 (MAT α ki6-3)This studyW303-1AMAT α ip1 Δ) × KX117 (MAT α ki6-3)This studyW303-1AMAT α ip1 Δ) × KX117 (MAT α ki6-3)This studyW303-1AMAT α ip1 Δ) × KX117 (MAT α ki6-3)This studyW303-1AMAT α ip1 Δ) × KX117 (MAT α ki6-3)This studyW303-1AMAT α ip1 Δ) × KX117 (MAT α ki6-3)This study	ARB68	LL20 but kti10	11
LFY12 LL20 but $tot4/kil2\Delta::KILEU2$ $ura3$ 19 DY3 LL20 but $chs3/kil2\Delta::KILEU2$ $ura3$ 33 DG106 LL20 but $chs3/kil2\Delta::KILEU2$ $ura3$ 33 DG107 LL20 but $shils5^*::GAL1::KTI6/IPT1$ This study DG108 LL20 but $kil6Aipt1A::KILEU2$ This study YCC1 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × L20 (MAT α KTI6) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATa ipt1) × AL827 (MAT α kti6-2) This study YCC3 Y04007 (MATa ipt1) × AL827 (MAT α kti6-2) This study YCC4 Y04007 (MATa ipt1) × AL827 (MAT α kti6-2) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MAT α IPT1) × ARB10 (MATa kti6-3) This study YCC6 BY4742 (MAT α IPT1) × KN117 (MATa kti6-3) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MAT α ipt1 Δ) × KSY117 (MATa kti6-3) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MAT α ipt1 Δ) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3) This study W303-1A MATa ura3-1 leu2-3/112 his3-11/15 pt1-1 ade2-1 can1-100 60 DM1 W303-1A but ipt1 ^{W3SSTOP} 60 WBY286 W303-1A but lag1 $\Delta::HIS3$ H. Riezman, Geneva KA31-1A MATa ura3 leu2 tp1 his3 63 SUY05 KA31-	FFY3	LL20 but $tot3/elp3\Delta$::KILEU2 ura3	19
DY3LL20 but $chs3/kti22::KILEU2 ura3$ 33DG106LL20 but $ki10 ki6$ This studyDG107LL20 but $ki10 ki6$ This studyDG108LL20 but $ki0\lambda ipt1\Delta::KILEU2$ This studyYCC1BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × LL20 (MATa KT16)This studyYCC2BY4741 (MATa ipt1) × ARB27 (MATa kti6-2)This studyYCC3Y04007 (MATa ipt1A) × LL20 (MATa kti6-2)This studyYCC4Y04007 (MATa ipt1A) × LL20 (MATa kti6-2)This studyYCC5BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × ARB27 (MATa kti6-2)This studyYCC6BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × KY117 (MATa KT16)This studyYCC7Y14007 (MATa ipt1A) × KY117 (MATa KT16)This studyYCC6BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyYCC7Y14007 (MATa ipt1A) × KY117 (MATa KT16)This studyYCC8Y14007 (MATa ipt1A) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyW303-1AMATa ura3-1 luc2.3/112 his3-11/15 trp1-1 ade2-1 can1-10060DM1W303-1A but lag1 :::HIS3GaWBY286W303-1A but lag1 :::HIS3GaWBY616W303-1A but lag1 :::HIS3G3SUY06KA31-1A but csg2 :::URA3G3SUY07KA31-1A but csg2 :::URA3G3SUY08KA31-1A but csg2 :::URA3G3SUY44KA31-1A but csg2 :::HIS3 csh1A::LEU2	LFY12	LL 20 but tot4/kti12A::KILEU2 ura3	19
DG106 L120 but kiil0 kii6 This study DG107 L120 but kii6\liptil2i:KILEU2 This study DG108 L120 but kii6\liptil2:KILEU2 This study YCC1 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × L120 (MATa KT16) This study YCC2 BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × ARB27 (MATa Kt16-2) This study YCC3 Y04007 (MATa ipt1) × L120 (MATa Kt16-2) This study YCC4 Y04007 (MATa ipt1) × KR27 (MATa kti6-2) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × ARB27 (MATa kti6-2) This study YCC4 Y04007 (MATa ipt1) × KY117 (MATa KT16) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3) This study YCC6 BY4742 (MATa ipt1) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa ipt1) × KY117 (MATa Kt16) This study W303-1A MATa ura3-1 leu2-3112 bis3-11/15 trp1-1 ade2-1 can1-100 60 DM1 W303-1A but ig1 $2::HIS3$ H. Riezman, Geneva WBY286 W303-1A but lag1 $2::HIS3$ G3 WBY616 W303-1A but lag1 $2::HIS3$ G3 SUY05 KA31-1A but csg2 $4::HIS3$ csg2 $2::URA3$ <td< td=""><td>DJY3</td><td>LL20 but $chs3/kti2\Delta$::KILEU2 ura3</td><td>33</td></td<>	DJY3	LL20 but $chs3/kti2\Delta$::KILEU2 ura3	33
DG107LL20 but $Sphis5^+:GAL1::KT16/IPT1$ This studyDG108LL20 but $sphis5^+:GAL1::KT16/IPT1$ This studyYCC1BY4741 ($MATa$ $IPT1$) × LL20 ($MATa$ $KT16$)This studyYCC2BY4741 ($MATa$ $IPT1$) × ARB27 ($MATa$ $kti6-2$)This studyYCC3Y04007 ($MATa$ $ipt1\Delta$) × AL20 ($MATa$ $KT16$)This studyYCC4Y04007 ($MATa$ $ipt1\Delta$) × AL20 ($MATa$ $kti6-2$)This studyYCC5BY4742 ($MATa$ $IPT1$) × KY117 ($MATa$ $KT16$)This studyYCC6BY4742 ($MATa$ $IPT1$) × ARB510 ($MATa$ $kti6-3$)This studyYCC7Y14007 ($MATa$ $ipt1\Delta$) × ARB510 ($MATa$ $kti6-3$)This studyYCC8Y14007 ($MATa$ $ipt1\Delta$) × ARB510 ($MATa$ $kti6-3$)This studyYCC8Y14007 ($MATa$ $ipt1\Delta$) × ARB510 ($MATa$ $kti6-3$)This studyW303-1A $MATa$ $ura3-1$ $leu2-3/112$ his3-11/15 trp1-1 $ade2-1$ $can1-100$ 60DM1W303-1A but $lag1\Delta::HIS3$ G3WBY286W303-1A but $lag1\Delta::HIS3$ G3WBY285W303-1A but $lag1\Delta::HIS3$ G3SUY05KA31-1A but $cg1\Delta::HIS3$ G3SUY06KA31-1A but $cg2\Delta::HIS3$ G3SUY07KA31-1A but $cg1\Delta::HIS3$ G3SUY08KA31-1A but $cg1\Delta::HIS3$ $csh1\Delta::LEU2$ G3SUY44KA31-1A but $cg1\Delta::HIS3$ $csh1\Delta::LEU2$ G3	DG106	LL 20 but $kti10$ $kti6$	This study
DG108LL20 but $kit6\lambda[ipt1\Delta::KILEU2$ This studyYCC1BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × LL20 (MATa KT16)This studyYCC2BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × ARB27 (MATa kti6-2)This studyYCC3Y04007 (MATa ipt1 Δ) × ARB27 (MATa kti6-2)This studyYCC4Y04007 (MATa ipt1 Δ) × ARB27 (MATa kti6-2)This studyYCC5BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × KY117 (MATa KT16)This studyYCC6BY4742 (MATa IPT1) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyYCC7Y14007 (MATa ipt1 Δ) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyYCC8Y14007 (MATa ipt1 Δ) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyYCC8Y14007 (MATa ipt1 Δ) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyW303-1AMATa wa3-1 lev2.3[112 his3-11]15 trp1-1 ade2-1 can1-10060DM1W303-1A but ipt1 ^{W985T09} 60WBY286W303-1A but lag1 $\Delta::HIS3$ H. Riezman, GenevaWBY616W303-1A but lag1 $\Delta::HIS3$ lac1 $\Delta::ADE2$ H. Riezman, GenevaWBY616W303-1A but lag1 $\Delta::HIS3$ 63SUY06KA31-1A but csg1 $\Delta::HIS3$ csh2 $::URA3$ 63SUY07KA31-1A but csg1 $\Delta::HIS3$ csh2 $::URA3$ 63SUY08KA31-1A but csg1 $\Delta::HIS3$ csh1 $\Delta::LEU2$ 63SUY44KA31-1A but csg1 $\Delta::HIS3$ csh1 $\Delta::LEU2$ 63	DG107	LL20 but Sphis5 ⁺ ::GAL1::KTI6/IPT1	This study
YCC1BY4741 (MATa IPTI) × LL20 (MAT α KTI6)This studyYCC2BY4741 (MATa IPTI) × ARB27 (MAT α kti6-2)This studyYCC3Y04007 (MATa iptI Δ) × LL20 (MAT α KTI6)This studyYCC4Y04007 (MATa iptI Δ) × LL20 (MAT α kti6-2)This studyYCC5BY4742 (MAT α IPTI) × KN117 (MATa KTI6)This studyYCC6BY4742 (MAT α IPTI) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyYCC7Y14007 (MAT α iptI Δ) × KY117 (MATa KTI6)This studyYCC8Y14007 (MAT α iptI Δ) × KN117 (MATa kti6-3)This studyYCC8Y14007 (MAT α iptI Δ) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3)This studyW303-1AMATa ira3-1 leu2-3/112 his3-11/15 trp1-1 ade2-1 can1-10060DM1W303-1A but lac1 Δ ::ADE2H. Riezman, GenevaWBY286W303-1A but lac1 Δ ::HIS3 lac1 Δ ::ADE2H. Riezman, GenevaWBY283W303-1A but lac1 Δ ::HIS3 lac1 Δ ::ADE2H. Riezman, GenevaKA31-1AMAT α ura3 leu2 trp1 his363SUY05KA31-1A but csg1 Δ ::HIS3 csb1 Δ ::LEU263SUY08KA31-1A but csg1 Δ ::HIS3 csh1 Δ ::LEU263SUY44KA31-1A but csg2 Δ ::HIS3 csh1 Δ ::LEU263	DG108	LL20 but $kti6\Delta/int1\Delta$::KILEU2	This study
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YCC3 Y04007 (MATa ipt1) × LL20 (MATa KT16) This study YCC4 Y04007 (MATa ipt1) × ARB27 (MATa KT16) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa ipt1) × ARB27 (MATa KT16) This study YCC6 BY4742 (MATa ipt1) × ARB10 (MATa KT16) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa ipt1) × ARBK10 (MATa KT16) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa ipt1) × ARBK10 (MATa KT16) This study YCC8 Y14007 (MATa ipt1) × ARBK10 (MATa KT16) This study W303-1A MATa ura3-1 leu2-3/12 his3-11/15 trp1-1 ade2-1 can1-100 60 DM1 W303-1A but ipt1 ^{W93STOP} 60 WBY286 W303-1A but iga12::HIS3 H. Riezman, Geneva WBY285 W303-1A but lag13::HIS3 H. Riezman, Geneva WBY616 W303-1A but lag13::HIS3 63 SUY05 KA31-1A but csg12::HIS3 csg22::URA3 63 SUY06 KA31-1A but csg12::HIS3 csg22::URA3 63 SUY08 KA31-1A but csg12::HIS3 csh12::LEU2 63 SUY41 KA31-1A but csg12::HIS3 csh12::LEU2 63 SUY44 KA31-1A but csg12::HIS3 csh12::LEU2 63	YCC2	BY4741 (MATa IPT1) × ARB27 (MAT α kti6-2)	This study
YCC4 Y04007 (MATa iprl2) × ARB27 (MATa kti6-2) This study YCC5 BY4742 (MATa iprl2) × KY117 (MATa kti6-2) This study YCC6 BY4742 (MATa iprl2) × KY117 (MATa kti6-3) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa iprl2) × KY117 (MATa kti6-3) This study YCC8 Y14007 (MATa iprl2) × KY117 (MATa kti6-3) This study YCC8 Y14007 (MATa iprl2) × KY117 (MATa kti6-3) This study W303-1A MATa ura3-1 leu2-3/112 his3-11/15 trp1-1 ade2-1 can1-100 60 DM1 W303-1A but iprl ^{W03STOP} 60 WBY286 W303-1A but lag12::HIS3 H. Riezman, Geneva WBY283 W303-1A but lag14::HIS3 H. Riezman, Geneva WBY283 W303-1A but lag14::HIS3 63 SUY05 KA31-1A but csg14::HIS3 63 SUY06 KA31-1A but csg14::HIS3 csg24::URA3 63 SUY07 KA31-1A but csg14::HIS3 csg24::URA3 63 SUY08 KA31-1A but csg14::HIS3 csh14::LEU2 63 SUY41 KA31-1A but csg14::HIS3 csh14::LEU2 63 SUY42 KA31-1A but csg14::HIS3 csh14::LEU2 63 SUY44 KA31-1A but csg14::HIS3 csh14::LEU2 63 <	YCC3	Y_{04007} (MATa int Λ) × LL20 (MATa KTI6)	This study
YCC5 BY4742 (MATa (PT1) × KY117 (MATa KT6) This study YCC6 BY4742 (MATa (PT1) × ARBK10 (MATa kti6-3) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa (pt1A) × KY117 (MATa KT16) This study YCC8 Y14007 (MATa (pt1A) × KY117 (MATa kti6-3) This study W303-1A MATa (ma3-1 leu2-3)[112 his3-11][15 tp1-1 ade2-1 can1-100 60 DM1 W303-1A but ipt1 ^{W03STOP} 60 WBY286 W303-1A but lag1A::HIS3 H. Riezman, Geneva WBY283 W303-1A but lag1A::HIS3 H. Riezman, Geneva WBY283 W303-1A but lag1A::HIS3 63 SUY05 KA31-1A but csg1A::HIS3 lac1A::ADE2 H. Riezman, Geneva KA31-1A MATa ura3 leu2 tp1 his3 63 SUY05 KA31-1A but csg1A::HIS3 cg2A::URA3 63 SUY06 KA31-1A but csg1A::HIS3 cg2A::URA3 63 SUY08 KA31-1A but csg1A::HIS3 cg2A::URA3 63 SUY41 KA31-1A but csg1A::HIS3 csh1A::LEU2 63 SUY42 KA31-1A but csg1A::HIS3 csh1A::LEU2 63 SUY44 KA31-1A but csg2A::HIS3 csh1A::LEU2 63	YCC4	Y04007 (MATa ipt1 Λ) × ARB27 (MATa kti6-2)	This study
YCC6 BY4742 (MATa IPT) × ARBK10 (MATa kii6-3) This study YCC7 Y14007 (MATa ipt1A) × KY117 (MATa KTI6) This study YCC8 Y14007 (MATa ipt1A) × ARBK10 (MATa kii6-3) This study W303-1A MATa ura3-1 leu2-3/112 his3-11/15 trp1-1 ade2-1 can1-100 60 DM1 W303-1A but ipt1 ^{W03STOP} 60 WBY286 W303-1A but lac12::ADE2 H. Riezman, Geneva WBY283 W303-1A but lag1\Delta::HIS3 H. Riezman, Geneva WBY616 W303-1A but lag1\Delta::HIS3 lac1\Delta::ADE2 H. Riezman, Geneva KA31-1A MATa wa3 leu2 trp1 his3 63 SUY05 KA31-1A but csg1\Delta::HIS3 csg2\Delta::URA3 63 SUY06 KA31-1A but csg1\Delta::HIS3 csg2\Delta::URA3 63 SUY08 KA31-1A but csg1\Delta::HIS3 csg2\Delta::URA3 63 SUY41 KA31-1A but csg1\Delta::HIS3 csh1\Delta::LEU2 63 SUY42 KA31-1A but csg1\Delta::HIS3 csh1\Delta::LEU2 63 SUY44 KA31-1A but csg2:HIS3 csh1\Delta::LEU2 63	YCC5	BY4742 (MAT α IPT1) × KY117 (MATa KTI6)	This study
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an intact plasma membrane potential or that work by disrupting membranes. Consistently, *KT16* is allelic to *IPT1*, coding for mannosyl-diinositolphospho-ceramide [M(IP)₂C] synthase, the terminal sphingolipid biosynthetic enzyme in yeast. In line with this, membranes of *kti6* cells lack M(IP)₂C and, in contrast to what occurs in Elongator *tot*-mutants, γ -toxin import is blocked in *kti6* cells. Presumably, early during the zymocin response, M(IP)₂C acts in a step at the cell membrane that follows zymocin docking but precedes both the engagement of plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase and Elongator. This suggests a possible function of M(IP)₂C as a secondary membrane receptor required for γ -toxin uptake.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains, media, vectors, and K. lactis zymocin methods. Cultivation of yeast strains (Table 1) used rich YP and minimal S media (55). Phenotypic studies

involved drug (Sigma) supplementation with caffeine (5 to 7.5 mM), hygromycin B (100 µg/ml), nystatin (50 µg/ml), Calcofluor White (50 µg/ml), or 6% (vol/vol) ethanol. Recovery from heat shock and syringomycin E assays followed previous protocols (26, 58). Zymocin responses by killer eclipse assays involved *K lactis* killer AWJ137 (Table 1) and growth for 1 day at 30°C (36). Zymocin plate assays used partially purified zymocin from AWJ137 filtrates (40 to 65% [vol/vol]) and serial dilutions of *S. cerevisiae* tester strains (34). Growth was for 2 days at 30°C. Galactose-induced expression of γ -toxin involved transformation with pHMS14 and control vector pHMS22 carrying just the *GAL1* promoter (19). Growth on 2% (vol/vol) galactose S medium was for 3 days at 30°C. *pIPT1*, a pRS415 vector carrying *IPT1/SYR4* (58), was used for complementing *kti6* cells. Multicopy *PMA1* and *AST1* involved pCM10.4 and pAC49, respectively (3, 12, 43). *ISC1* overexpression used the *GAL1* fusion in pYES2 (51).

Identification of *KTI6/IPT1* and sphingolipid measurements. Zymocin was concentrated from 1.3 liters of YPD culture broth of *K. lactis* killer strain IFO1267 (Table 1) to 13 ml by hydroxyapatite column chromatography as described previously (59). We screened the EUROSCARF deletion set of 4,898 nonessential *S. cerevisiae* gene disruptions in the BY4741 background (Table 1) for altered sensitivity against *K. lactis* zymocin by transfer onto 96-well micro-

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plates using an 8 by 6 array stainless steel replicator. Approximately 10^3 mutant cells were grown in 60 µJ of 1 M sorbitol-YPD liquid medium with 1:300 or 1:1,500 dilution zymocin in round-bottomed 96-well microplates at 30°C. Observation for 3 days rewealed that the wild-type strain failed to grow in the presence of a 1:1,500 zymocin dilution.

Two hundred six resistant mutants which grew on 1:300-diluted zymocin were retested to confirm their phenotype. KT16 was isolated as follows. Zymocinresistant mutants isolated from the BY4741 deletion set (MATa hts3 $\Delta 1 \, leu \Delta 0$ met15 $\Delta 0 \, una3\Delta 0 \, kanMX4$ [G418']) were grown for 18 h at 30°C and mixed with ARB27 (ktd6-2), a killer-resistant mutant strain derived from LL20 (MATa leu2 hts3 UR43) (11) (Table 1). After overnight incubation at 30°C, the mixed cells were suspended in 100 µl sterilized water in a 96-well microplate and transferred onto YPD/G418 plates. Cells were resuspended in water and then transferred into SD medium without uracil. Upon replica plating twice on selective medium, diploids were concentrated by single colony isolation on SD medium without uracil and reselected on YPD/G418 medium.

Using killer strain K. lactis IFO1267, the killer eclipse assay (36) was performed on all diploids selected. A zymocin-resistant (zym^R) diploid obtained by crossing $ipr1\Delta$ (Y04007 [Table 1]) and ktl6-2 cells was analyzed further. The phenotypic behavior of the cross was reconfirmed by reversing the cross. ARBK28 (MATa ktl6-3 ym^R) was mated with Y14007, a BY4742 $ipt1\Delta$ knockout ($MAT\alpha$ ktp1 Δ ::kanMX4 iym^R) (Table 1). MATa($MAT\alpha$ ktl6-3 $jpt1\Delta$::kanMX4 homozygous, recessive diploids were compared with all other diploid genotypes (Fig. 3A). Correct integration of the kanMX4 cassette in the sphingolipid synthesis gene *IPT1* from strain Y04007 was verified by PCR analysis of genomic DNA.

Combining ktt10 and ktt6 mutations involved yeast matings between ARB68 (ktt10) and ARBK10 (ktt6-3) (Table 1) or PCR disruption of KT16 by the K. lactts LEU2 gene (see below) using previously described protocols (33). Sphingolipid analysis essentially followed the protocol for yeast radiolabeling with [³H]myoinositol followed by 5% (vol/vol) trichloroacetic acid extraction (14). Sphingolipids were separated by thin-layer chromatography on Whatman HP-K plates and ³H-labeled sphingolipids were detected by using a BioScan apparatus (14).

Reverse transcription-PCR and PCR-based gene manipulations. For IPTI/KTI6 expression studies, total RNA from yeast was isolated with RNAeasy columns (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). Following DNase I treatment, 4 µg RNA was subjected to first-strand cDNA synthesis at 42°C for 1 h using 20 µl reverse transcription-PCR mixtures (RevertAid kit; MBI Fermentas, Lithuania). Next, 1/10 was used in 25 PCR cycles using *Taq* polymerase and *IPT1/KTI6* (5'-TCC TCT TTG GGG ACT ATT GG-3' and 5'-CCA AGC CAG TAA ATC CTT GG-3' or *ACT1* (5'-CTT CCG GTA GAA CTA CTG GT-3' and 5'-CCT TAC GGA CAT CGA CAT CA-3') primers to amplify 0.38-kb *IPT1* and 0.44-kb *ACT1* fragments.

KTI6 in vivo deletion used KTI6 knockout primers (koIPT1-FW, 5'-TTA TCA TTT CTG CTA AGA ATC ACC TAA AGT CTT TCA ACG TCT AAG AAA GCC GAC GGC CAG TGA ATT CCC GG-3', and koIPT1-RV, 5'-TTA TTT AAA TTA TCC GAA ATT ACT TTT ATT ACA TTA TGA CAT TCT ATA GTA GCT TGG CTG CAG GTC GAC GG-3') and template YDpKILEU2 to amplify a KTI6/IPT1 deletion cartridge (33). Ipt1Δ was confirmed by PCR on genomic Ipt1Δ DNA using primers IPT1-FW (5'-AAT GTG AAC GCC ACG GGA AAA AAGC-3') and IPT1-RV (5'-AAG CAA GCC GAT TTC AGG TTA ACCC-3'), which amplified a 0.5-kb deletion (compared to the 2.2-kb IPT1 DNA). Promoter swapping by PCR involved template pFA6a-TRP1-pGAL1-3HA (41)-and IPT1/KTI6-specific primers (F4-IPT1, 5'-AAA AAT GCC TAG AAA TGC AGA CCT CCG GCC ACA ACA TTT TTA TAT AAT ACG AAT TCG AGC TCG TTT AAAC-3', and R3-IPT1: 5'-CGA TTA TAC ATG TTT TTG ACG AAA CTC GCC AAA GAA AAT ATG ACA TTC ATG CAC TGA GCA GCG TAA TCTG-3').

Immunolegical techniques. Protein extraction for use in Western blot studies was as described previously (19). Protein loadings were checked using an antibody against the yeast Pfk1 α and β subunits (a gift of J. J. Heinisch, University of Osnabrück, Germany) and Cdc19, pyruvate kinase (kindly provided by J. Thomer, University of California at Berkeley). Cell fractionation was done by sucrose ultracentrifugation (38). Separation of yeast cytoplasmic, soluble fractions from insoluble cell wall material followed a previous protocol (49). Rather than quantifying protein content from the insoluble and clotty pellet fractions, protein quantity was checked in the parallel supernatants by immuoprobing for phosphofructolinase content (see above). Zymocin treatment of *S. cerevisiae* cells prior to protein extraction or cell fractionation involved growth in 100 ml YPD to an optical density at 600 nm of ≈ 1.0 followed by addition of 50% (vol/vol) zymocin (see above) and further incubation for 6 h.

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RESULTS

Phenotypic analysis of the *kti6* mutant. Like *kti2* and *kti10* cells, the *kti6* mutant was found to resist holozymocin (*zym*^R) in killer eclipse assays (Fig. 1A) (11, 33, 43). Similar to the toxin-sensitive (tax^{S}) response of wild-type and class I *kti10* cells, *GAL1*-promoter driven expression of zymocin's γ -toxin caused *kti6-2* cells to cease growth, while class II Elongator $tot3\Delta$ cells resisted γ -toxin (tax^{R}) (Fig. 1B). This typical class I response predicts *kti6* cells to be affected early in the zymocin response rather than being altered in Elongator's toxin target (TOT) capacity. Based on further phenotypic studies, *kti6-2* cells performed like the wild type, with viability not detectably being affected (Fig. 1C and D).

In contrast to a class II Tot⁻ mutant (tot 3Δ), kti6-2 cells expressed wild-type tolerance to caffeine and Calcofluor White (Fig. 1D). The latter contrasted with the pronounced resistance of class I chitin-deficient ($kti2\Delta/chs3\Delta$) cells to the chitin indicator drug Calcofluor White (Fig. 1D), suggesting that kti6-2 cells have normal chitin levels and do not resist zymocin by preventing chitin docking. In contrast to the ethanol sensitivities of chitin and Elongator defective strains, kti6-2 cells expressed ethanol tolerance like the wild type (Fig. 1D). Unlike the latter, however, kti6-2 cells recovered less well from heat shock although significantly better than kti10 cells (Fig. 1E). Together with strong resistance of kti6-2 cells to hygromycin B (Fig. 1F), an antibiotic that requires membrane energization through the H+-ATPase Pma1/Kti10 (50), these phenotypes suggest that KTI6 is relevant for cell surface integrity. Consistently, kti6-2 cells resisted the membrane disruptor nystatin (Fig. 1F) (35). As for the zymocin response, kti6-2 cells are therefore expected to express a plasma membrane defect that affects a step following chitin docking but that does not change Elongator's TOT capacity.

KT16 is epistatic to KT110, the plasma membrane H+-ATPase gene. Since underassembly of the H+-pump Kti10/ Pma1 causes class I zym R (43), we investigated the relationship between the KTI10 and KTI6 genes. In common with class I zymocin resistance, both kti10 and kti6-2 cells survived the antibiotic hygromycin B, with protection being more pronounced in kti6-2 cells (Fig. 1F). However, while the kti10 H+-pump defect caused cell death at pH 3 (43), kti6-2 cells were pH insensitive (not shown). Studying pH effects on the zymocin response, kti6-2 cells remained zymR at pH 7 (Fig. 2A) and were fairly resistant to zymocin at pH 5 (Fig. 2A). In contrast, the zym^R phenotype of ktil0 cells was prominent at pH 7 but suppressed at pH 5 (Fig. 2A). At pH 4, a condition inactivating zymocin, all strains tested were insensitive, indicating that the pH effect on kti10 was not due to impaired viability (not shown).

Since low pH did not affect chitin-deficient $(chs3\Delta)$ or Tot-($tot3\Delta$) zym^R mutants (Fig. 2A and not shown), but operated mildly on *kti6-2* and severely on *kti10* cells, *KTI6* and *KTI10* ought to operate after chitin docking and prior to Elongator. Consistent with *KTI6-KTI10* epistasis, a double *kti6kti10* mutant behaved like *kti6-2* cells on their own, i.e., without showing low pH suppression (Fig. 2B). Similarly, using toxin assays towards increased zymocin doses, *kti10* resistance became drastically weakened by 60% (vol/vol) zymocin while protection of *kti6-2* cells or the *kti6kti10* double mutant was unaf-



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FIG. 1. *ktió* phenotypes. A. Killer eclipse assay. Zymocin-sensitive (zym^S) wild-type (wt; LL20), resistant (zym^R) *kti10* (ARB68), and *tot3*Δ (FFY3) and *kti6-2* cells (ARB27) were tested against *K. lactis* killer AWJ137. Eclipse formation indicates zym^S . B. γ -Toxin assay. Serial dilutions of the indicated strains transformed with *GAL1-* γ -toxin vector pHMS14 (+ γ) or empty pHMS22 (- γ) were spotted onto glucose (glc) and galactose (gal) medium. A Gal⁺ phenotype distinguishes γ -toxin resistance (kax^R) from sensitivity (kax^S). C. Growth curves. Optical densities (at 600 nm) of cells grown in liquid YPD at 30°C were compared over twelve hours. D. Sensitivity (kax^S). C. Growth curves. Optical densities (at 500 nm) of cells grown in liquid YPD at 30°C were spotted on YPD plates (control) or plates supplemented with Calcofluor White (CFW; 50 µg/ml), caffeine (7.5 mM), or 6% (vol/vol) ethanol (EtOH). E. Heat shock recovery. Strains were shocked at 35°C for a given time in minutes and recovered at 30°C on YPD for 1 day. F. Resistance to antibiotics. Strains were grown on unsupplemented YPD plates (control) and on plates containing hygromycin B (hyg B; 100 µg/ml) or nystatin (nys; 50 µg/ml).

fected (Fig. 2C). Also, neither the *pma1/kti10* multicopy suppressor AST1 (3, 12) nor high-copy KTI10 itself (43) could reinstall *zym^S* in *kti6-2* cells (Fig. 2D). Genetic interaction was further evidenced by suppression of a *kti6-2* mutation onto simultaneous expression of *PMA1/KTI10* and AST1 from multicopy vectors. While in wild-type KT16 cells, overexpression of both genes induced synthetic sickness (Fig. 2E) and hypersensitive zymocin phenotypes (not shown), *kti6-2* cells completely restored cell viability and zymocin resistance (Fig. 2E). Collectively, order of function analysis suggests that *KT16* has a role in the toxin response that is likely to be upstream of *KT110* function.

KT16 is allelic with *IPT1*. To identify *KT16* we crossed $zym^{\mathbb{R}}$ kti6-2 (*MAT* α) cells to a preselected $zym^{\mathbb{R}}$ pool of the BY4741 (*MATa*) knock-out collection. Diploids obtained were subjected to killer assays to identify noncomplementing crosses. We observed $zym^{\mathbb{R}}$ in kti6-2/ipt1 Δ YCC4 diploids (not shown; Table 1) and reconfirmed this cross by mating $zym^{\mathbb{R}}$ kti6-3 (*MATa*) cells with $zym^{\mathbb{R}}$ BY4742 (*MAT* α) ipt1 Δ cells. Again, the resulting kti6-3/ipt1 Δ diploids (YCC8) expressed $zym^{\mathbb{R}}$

(Fig. 3A), indicating failure of $ipt1\Delta$ to complement the $kti\delta$ mutations. Consistently, the zym^R phenotype of haploid $MAT\alpha$ or MATa $ipt1\Delta$ cells compared to $kti\delta$ - $3/ipt1\Delta$ diploids (Fig. 3A and B), while haploid $MAT\alpha$ *IPT1* and MATa *KT16* cells behaved as zym^S as homozygous *KT16/IPT1* (YCC5) or heterozygous *KT16/ipt1*\Delta (YCC7) and $kti\delta$ -3/IPT1 (YCC6) diploids (Fig. 3A). So, complementation of $kti\delta$ mutations by *IPT1* implies that $kti\delta$ represents a recessive *IPT1* mutation.

In support of this, the *kti6-2* defect was complemented by a plasmid-coupled *IPT1* gene on *pITP1* (Fig. 3B) (58). Similarly, a *zym*^R *ipt1*^{W93STOP} allele isolated in a screen for plant defensin DmAMP1 tolerance and shown to truncate the *IPT1* product (60) was complemented by *pIPT1*, too (Fig. 3B).

Consistent with the properties of *kti6* cells, intracellular γ -toxin expression blocked growth of *ipt1* Δ cells (Fig. 3C), reinforcing *KTI6/IPT1* allelism. *IPT1* encodes mannosyl-diinositolphospho-ceramide [M(IP)₂C] synthase, the yeast terminal sphingolipid biosynthetic enzyme (14). In line with a plasma membrane function for M(IP)₂C, *ipt1* Δ /syr4 Δ cells survive syringomycin E, a membrane disrupting fungicidal (58). Vol. 4, 2005

 zymocin + zymocin А pH 7 pH 5 pH 5 zym zym zym^{Ph} kti6zvm kti10 zym zym chs3A zym^R zym 10° 10⁻¹ 10⁻² cell dilutions 10° 101 10 10° 101 102 В kti6kti10 chs3D kti6-2 kti10 tw pН lactis killer zym zym zym zym zym pH 5 K. lactis killer zym zym zym zym zym С zymocin + zymocin W zym zym¹⁵ kti10 zym' kti6-2 zym⁵ kti6kti10 zym' $chs3\Delta$ 0²10³ 10°10 cell dilutions 10° 10 10 10 ²10 kti6-2 KT16 D KT110 KT110 AST1 (ST) K. lactis killer zym zym zym zym' zym[®] zym zymocin + zymocin Е 2μ 2μ zym SKT110 2μ zym zym 2μ AST zym^s KTH0 AST 2μ 2μ zym⁵ 7KT110 2µ zym AST zym^R 2µ zym™ KTI10 AST 10⁻² 10⁻³ 10⁰ 10 cell dilutions 10°10 10 10 102 10

FIG. 2. KT16 is epistatic to KT110/PMA1. A and B. The pH modulation of zymocin protection associated with kti10 (ARB68), kti6-2 (ARB27), and kti6kti10 (DG106) mutants was compared to that of the wild type (wt; LL20) and a chs3 Δ chitin mutant (DJY3) using YPD zymocin (45% [vol/vol]) plates (A) or killer eclipse (B) assays. Sensitivity to zymocin (zym^R) is distinguished from partial protection (zym^R) and full resistance (zym^R). C. Zymocin resistance associated with kti6 cells outcompetes the kti10 mutant. The indicated strains (see B) were subjected to killer toxin assays using no (-) zymocin or 60%

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Consistently, five independent $zym^{\mathbb{R}} kti6$ alleles also resisted syringomycin E, whereas other $zym^{\mathbb{R}}$ mutants (*chs3*\Delta, *kti10*, *tot3*\Delta and mutants) became growth-inhibited by syringomycin E (Fig. 3D and E). Again, this stresses *KTI6/IPT1* allelism, a notion supported by 4:0 ($zym^{\mathbb{R}}zym^{\mathbb{S}}$) segregation of spores obtained from a cross between *ipt1*\Delta::*kanMX* and *kti6-2* cells (not shown). Furthermore, as judged from DNA sequence analysis, we found Ipt1 allozymes with single amino acid substitutions in *kti6-2* (G292R) and *kti6-3* (H298N) cells and a frameshift mutation in *kti6-5* that alters the Ipt1 C terminus at position F523FDPLA-Stop into F523LIRLHRL-Stop. In sum, M(IP)₂C synthase Ipt1 or its product, sphingolipid M(IP)₂C, is vital for the antifungal activity of zymocin.

K. lactis zymocicity requires sphingolipid biosynthesis and $M(IP)_2C$. Using phytosphingosine and a C_{26} fatty acid, yeast ceramide synthase (LAG1, LAC1) forms ceramide, the sphingolipid building block (Fig. 4) (54). C_{26} fatty acid elongation involves FEN1, SUR4, ACB1, and TSC13, while phytosphingosine formation requires condensation of palmitoyl-coenzyme A and serine to 3-ketohydrosphingosine by the LCB1, LCB2, and TSC3 products and SUR2-dependent hydroxylation (Fig. 4) (22, 24, 37, 45, 47). In yeast, ceramide decoration yields three complex sphingolipids. First, inositol-phosphoceramide (IPC) is made by addition of inositol phosphate via the AUR1 product (28). Second, mannosyl-inositol-phosphoceramide (MIPC) requires mannosylation by the CSG1, CSG2 (5, 6), and CSH1 products (63). Third, the IPT1 product adds inositol phosphate to give M(IP)₂C (Fig. 4) (14).

While phytosphingosine (sur2 Δ) or C₂₆ fatty acid elongation defects (sur4 Δ) yielded partial zymocin protection (Fig. 4A), a ceramide synthase double knockout (lag1 Δ lac1 Δ) expressed zym^R comparable to that of ipt1 Δ cells (Fig. 4B). Since AUR1 is essential, it was not possible to assay an IPC block, but upregulation of IPC breakdown by GAL1-driven overexpression of ISC1 coding for IPC phospholipase C (51) protected partially against zymocin (Fig. 4C). Multiple mutant csg1 Δ csh1 Δ and csg1 Δ csh1 Δ csg2 Δ cells in which MIPC synthesis is blocked survived zymocin just like ipt1 Δ cells (Fig. 4D), while single CSG1, CSG2 and CSH1 deletions and double mutants (csg1 Δ csh1 Δ cells phenocopied resistance of ipt1 Δ cells to hygromycin B, whereas the single mutants were killed by the antibiotic (Fig. 5A).

As $csg1\Delta csh1\Delta$, $lag1\Delta lac1\Delta$, and $ipt1\Delta$ cells all lack M(IP)₂C and survive zymocin, toxicity depends on M(IP)₂C rather than its synthase Ipt1 per se. Reverse transcription-PCR studies revealed that IPT1/KT16 expression was, indeed, intact in wildtype, $csg1\Delta csh1\Delta$ and $lag1\Delta lac1\Delta$ cells and, as expected, absent from $ipt1\Delta$ cells while all strains expressed ACT1, an internal control (Fig. 5B). In conclusion, profiling sphingolipid defects reinforces the importance of IPT1/KT16 and the sphingolipid

⁽vol/vol) toxin complex (+). D. Zymocin resistance of kti6 cells is unaffected by high-copy KTI10/PMA1 or the kti10 suppressor ATS1. Zymocin responses of strains carrying AST1 and KTI10/PMA1 in multicopy or 2μm vector on its own were assessed as in B E. kti6-2 cells suppress synthetic sickness of multicopy (2μ) AST1 or KTI10/PMA1. Indicated plasmids in KTI6 or kti6-2 cells were probed on YPD plates without (-) or with (+) 45% (vol/vol) zymocin.

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FIG. 3. KTI6 is allelic with IPT1. A. Complementation studies on diploids obtained from crossing kti6-3 and ipt1 Δ mutants. Haploid KTI6 (KY117), kti6-3 (ARBK10), IPT1 (BY4742), and ipt1 Δ (Y14007) cells and homo- and heterozygous KTI6/IPT1 (YCC5), kti6-3/IPT1 (YCC6), KTI6/ipt1 Δ (YCC7), and kti6-3/ipt1 Δ (YCC8) diploids obtained after mating were subjected to killer cellipse assays (see Fig. 1A). Note that zymocin resistance (zym^R) is unique to the haploid kti6-3 (ARBK10) and ipt1 Δ (Y14007) cells as well as the kti6-3/ipt1 Δ diploid (YCC8), while other crosses express sensitivity (zym³). B. pIPT1 complements kti6 mutants. Mutant kti6-2 (ARBC7) and ipt1 Δ (Y04007) cells. C. An IPT1 deletion induces class I resistance. Serial dilutions of tot3 Δ (FFY3) and ipt1 Δ (Y04007) cells were subjected to conditional expression of γ -toxin (see Fig. 1B). D. Mutations in KTI6 phenocopy zym^R. Using killer celipse assays (see Fig. 1A), five independent kti6 alleles (ARB6, ARB27, ARBK10, ARBK28, and ARBK30 [Table 1]) were incubated with five kti6 isolates (see D), toxin-resistant kti6/2 (ARB68), tot3 Δ (FFY3), ipt1 Δ (Y04007), and kti6/3 Δ (FFY3), mutants and parental strains (LL20, KY117, and BY4741). Syringomycin E-sensitive (zyr⁸) mod -resistant (zyr^R) responses are shown.

M(IP)₂C in governing a plasma membrane event required for zymocin toxicity and whose block in *kti6* cells abrogates zymocin action.

kti6 cells lack $M(IP)_2C$ and *IPT1/KTI6* repression protects against zymocin. The amount of $M(IP)_2C$ in *kti6-2* cells was determined by long term labeling with [³H]*myo*-inositol. Following lipid extraction and separation by thin-layer chromatography, radiolabeled sphingolipids were detected and compared with sphingolipids in wild-type *KTI6* cells and *kti6-2* mutant cells transformed with *pIPT1*. *kti6-2* cells (Fig. 6A, bottom panel) completely lacked the radioactive fraction representing alkali-stable $M(IP)_2C$ species typical of wild-type cells (Fig. 6A, top panel). Consistent with previous reports on $M(IP)_2C$ -minus strains (14), mutant *kti6-2* cells apparetly compensated for the lack of $M(IP)_2C$ by up-regulating the level of MIPC (Fig. 6A, bottom panel).

Notably, introduction of pIPT1 into kti6-2 cells restored $M(IP)_2C$ and down-regulated MIPC (Fig. 6A, middle panel). We conclude from these data that kti6-2 cells fail to make $M(IP_2)C$ just like *ipt1* Δ cells. These results are consistent with the phenotypic assays (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4) and reinforce that KT16 and IPT1 are allelic. In line with the importance of $M(IP)_2C$ for zymocin toxicity was the effect of conditional KT16/IPT1 expression. Here, a GAL1-IPT1 fusion was used for controlled Ipt1 expression. Glucose repression of the conditional allele yielded zym^R and phenocopied *ipt1* Δ cells lacking $M(IP)_2C$ (Fig. 6B), while galactose induced hypersensitivity (Fig. 6B). Thus, the level of IPT1 expression is inversely cor-

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FIG. 4. Zymocin response profiles of sphingolipid defects. The simplified flow chart of sphingolipid biosynthesis is modified from previous reviews (13, 46). A to D. Zymocin responses of the indicated (see below) mutant, conditional, and wild-type (wt) strains were assessed on YPD zymocin plates (A and C) or in killer eclipse assays (B and D) (see Fig. 1A). Indicated are sensitive (zym^S), partially protected (zym^{PR}), and resistant (zym^R) scenarios. The strains tested were as follows. A: wt (BY4741), sur2 Δ (Y03656), sur4 Δ (Y05281), acb1 Δ (Y04667), and ipt1 Δ (Y04007). B: lag1 Δ (WBY283), lac1 Δ (WBY286), and lag1 Δ lac1 Δ (WBY616). C: ISC1 (BY4741 carrying pYES2), GAL1-ISC1 (BY4741 carrying pYES2-GAL1-ISC1 (BY4741 carrying pYES2), csg2 Δ (SUY06), csh1 Δ (SUY41), csg1 Δ csg2 Δ (SUY07), csg2 Δ csh1 Δ (SUY43), csg1 Δ csh1 Δ (SUY44).

related with the zymocin response. Again, this shows the importance of Ipt1-mediated formation of M(IP)₂C for zymocin action.

kti6 cells allow zymocin to bind but prevent import of γ -toxin. Taking into account that kti6-2 cells resist exozymocin without protecting against endogenous γ -toxin, we probed for a kti6-2 defect in the primary contact with holozymocin. Together with other class I (chs3 Δ and kti10) mutants, protein extracts of zymocin-treated kti6-2 and wild-type cells were subdivided into soluble cytosolic and insoluble cell wall fractions. Following immunoprobing with anti- γ -toxin antibody, γ -toxin was absent from cell wall fractions of chitin-deficient chs3 Δ cells (Fig. 7A), consistent with the known binding of holozy-mocin to chitin in vitro (33). Equivalent cell wall fractions from wild-type, kti10 and kti6-2 cells, however, produced reactive anti- γ -toxin signals that corresponded to a γ -toxin control from culture filtrates of K. lactis killer cells (Fig. 7A). Hence, holozymocin is able to dock onto the cell wall of kti6 cells in a manner similar to sensitive wild-type or resistant Tot⁻ and kti10/pma1 mutant cells. Moreover, indistinguishably from what occurs with wild-type sensitive or resistant kti10/pma1 cell walls, holozymocin is able to dock onto the surface of kti6-2 cells. This strongly suggests that the sphingolipid M(IP)₂C is required after zymocin has attached to its chitin receptor.

To ask whether M(IP)₂C-minus *kti6-2* cells survive zymocin as a result of reduced γ -toxin uptake, equal amounts of protein extracts from zymocin-treated *kti6-2* and reference cells were subjected to cell fractionation and Western blots using anti- γ toxin and anti-Cdc19 antibodies. As expected, we found that in the absence of zymocin, γ -toxin was not detectable in wild-type cells (Fig. 7B), while zymocin-treated cells significantly accumulated the toxic γ -subunit intracellularly (Fig. 7B). In contrast, however, γ -toxin import by M(IP)₂C-minus *kti6-2* cells was completely absent and copied the behavior of chitin-deficient *chs3* Δ cells (Fig. 7A), which are unable to establish the primary contact with holozymocin (33, 43) (Fig. 7A). Given 886 ZINK ET AL.



FIG. 5. Hygromycin B tolerance of sphingolipid mutants and reverse transcription-PCR-based *IPT1* expression analysis. A. As indicated, cells were grown on YPD (control) or hygromycin B (hyg B; 75 μ g/ml) YPD plates for 2 days at 30°C. Sensitivity and resistance are indicated by *hyg*^S and *hyg*^P. B. Gene expression studies of zymocinresistant sphingolipid mutants (for strains, see Fig. 4). Reverse transcription-PCR was carried out to probe for expression of the actin (*ACT1*, top panel) and the M(IP)₂C synthase (*IPT1/KT16*, bottom panel) genes.

that kti6-2 cells allow zymocin contact, while endogenous γ -toxin induces kti6-2 cell death (Fig. 1B), nondetectable γ -toxin levels suggest an import or uptake defect of kti6-2 cells. Whether this reflects a role for sphingolipid M(IP)₂C in γ -toxin binding to or translocation across the membrane is currently being investigated.

DISCUSSION

Zymocin resistance of kti6 cells. Based on chitin affinity purification of zymocin and the refractory nature of chitindeficient chs3A cells, zymocin's primary cell contact requires chitin interaction (33). Searching for nonchitin factors required for zymocin binding and/or uptake, kti6 cells are shown here to survive exozymocin but to be killed by a chitin poison (Calcofluor White) or intracellular y-toxin expression. These data indicate a response defect distinct from Elongator or chitin mutants and are consistent with our findings (Fig. 7) that y-toxin binds kti6 cells with normal efficiency, but does not enter their cytosol. Based on heat shock sensitivity and nystatin resistance, phenotypes shared by kti6 and kti10 plasma membrane H+-ATPase mutants (50), KTI6 is possibly involved in membrane function. In support of this idea, resistance to zymocin and antifungals (hygromycin B, syringomycin E, and defensin DmAMP1) that require and alter membrane function and permeability suggests that kti6 cells deny the docking or uptake of antimycotics (15, 58, 60). This reinforces a plasma membrane role of KTI6 and its function for antizymosis.

Consistently, kti6 cells are complemented by the plasma membrane sphingolipid M(IP)₂C synthase gene IPT1, fail to

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form M(IP)₂C, and accumulate precursor sphingolipid MIPC. Together with our data that removal, truncation, or underproduction of Ipt1 phenocopies zymocin protection, while *IPT1* overexpression enhances zymocin toxicity, it is clear that M(IP)₂C is an integral zymocin sensitivity determinant. Yeast sphingolipids primarily populate the plasma membrane, with M(IP)₂C representing the major fraction (27). They associate in lipid rafts (30) with proteins such as major H⁺-pump Pma1/ Kti10 (2, 3). Based on reports that sphingolipids influence lipid raft protein content, M(IP)₂C-minus *kti6* cells may impact the H⁺-pump Pma1/Kti10 and thus evoke zymocin resistance similar to *kti10/pma1* mutants (43).

Indeed, our finding that zym^{R} of kti10 cells, in contrast to kti6 single and kti6kti10 double mutants, is suppressed by H⁺ suggests that KTI6 functions before KTI10. Also, the fact that kti6-2 cells suppress synthetic sickness associated with cooverexpression of Pma1/Kti10 and Ast1, a plasma membrane protein and suppressor of defective Pma1 H⁺-pumps (3, 12), shows that M(IP)₂C sphingolipids are required to mediate membrane associated communication between Ast1 and Pma1/Kti10 that impairs cell performance and viability. However, green fluorescent protein studies indicated normal Pma1/ Kti10 distribution in ipt1/kti6 membranes (4), ruling out the option that Kti6 acts solely by Kti10 localization.

Role of M(IP)2C in zymocin action. Consistent with a role for sphingolipid biosynthesis in the zymocin response pathway, ceramide synthase $lag1\Delta lac1\Delta$ double knockouts and $csh1\Delta$ csg1 \Deltacsg2 Delta mutants with reduced MIPC and M(IP)2C levels are shown here to be zymocin resistant (54, 63). As a major constituent of lipid rafts, M(IP)2C may influence raft-embedded proteins such as End6, Pma1/Kti10, or Ggp1 (2, 4). Indeed, cell surface defects of a $ggp1\Delta$ mutant elicited hypersensitivity to zymocin, while kti10/pma1 cells were shown to resist the toxic complex in a class I fashion (33, 43). Based on the tolerance of kti6 and kti10 cells to antifungals that require membrane energization by the H+ pump Pma1/Kti10, there may be raft communication between M(IP)2C and Pma1/ Kti10. Consistently, synthesis of sphingoid base and ceramide is required for Pma1/Kti10 function and exogenously applied phytosphingosine does rescue Pma1/Kti10 defects (39, 64).

Based on our findings that kti6 protection against zymocin is barely affected by low pH in contrast to the pH-suppressible resistance of kti10, H+-ATPase is likely to follow M(IP)2C function in promoting zymocin sensitivity. In spite of intact zymocin docking, lack of M(IP)2C in kti6 cells may prevent zymocin from binding to a secondary receptor in the plasma membrane required for y-toxin uptake. Whether M(IP)2C allows contact between y-toxin and such a receptor or represents this receptor, as speculated for toxicity of syringomycin E (58) and demonstrated for several plant defensins (60, 61), remains open. However, the zymocin-relevant function of M(IP)2C cannot be replaced by its precursor sphingolipids MIPC or IPC, and this specificity may relate to the terminal myo-inositol phosphate moiety that distinguishes M(IP)2C from MIPC and IPC. A M(IP)2C-dependent membrane protein may serve as a second receptor, and although recently ruled out for lethality of plant defensin DmAMP1 (61), this scenario applies to yeast killer toxin K1. This ionophore hijacks, in a two-step-docking process, β-1,6-D-glucan and the glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored protein Kre1 as primary cell surface and secVol. 4, 2005



FIG. 6. *kti6* cells lack M(IP)₂C and a conditional *IPT1/KTI6* allele modulates zymocin action. A. Extraction of ³H-labeled lipids. *kti6-2* cells (ARB27) (lower panel), *kti6-2* cells (ARB27) with *pIPT1*; (middle panel), *KTI6* wild-type cells (LL20) (upper panel) and thin-layer chromatography were as described previously (14). Peak sphingolipid frac-

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FIG. 7. Zymocin docking onto ktłó cells is unaffected while γ -toxin import is denied. A. Zymocin docking studies. Protein extracts from zymocin-treated (+) or nontreated (-) cells of the wild-type (wt; LL20) and resistant ktil0 (ARB68), chs3 Δ (DJY3) or ktió-2 (ARB27) strains were fractionated into soluble (supernatant) and insoluble cell wall/debris (pellet) material. Following SDS-PAGE, supernatants were immunoprobed by anti-Pfk1 antibody (arrows indicate α and β subunits of Pfk1), while pelleted cell wall material was immunoprobed by an anti- γ -toxin antibody. Concentrated culture filtrate (cf) of the zymocin producer K lactis strain AWJ137 served as a positive γ -toxin control. B. γ -Toxin import studies. Following sucrose gradient ultracentrifugation, cell fractions obtained from wild-type (LL20) cells or kti6-2 (ARB27) and chs3 Δ (DJY3) mutants that were treated (+) or not treated (-) with zymocin were separated by SDS-PAGE and subjected to Western analysis using anti- γ -toxin and anti-Cdc19 antibodies. Concentrated killer culture filtrate (cf) served as a positive γ -toxin reference (see A). Arrows indicate the positions of γ -toxin and pyruvate kinase Cdc19.

tions IPC, MIPC, and M(IP)₂C are shown. B. Conditional *IPT1/KT16* expression affects zymocin responses. Glucose repression (lower panel, right) of a *GAL1-IPT1* allele (DG107) induces resistance (zym^R), and galactose induction (upper panel) increases sensitivity (zym^{HS}). Other strains: $ipt1\Delta$ (DG108) and *IPT1* (LL20).

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ondary membrane receptors, respectively (7, 29). Similarly, aerolysin, an Aeromonas hydrophilia toxin, binds GPI-anchored membrane proteins prior to multimerization (20).

Finally, as membrane traffic and endocytosis are impacted by lipid rafts and sphingoid bases, M(IP)2C may rather be involved in internalization of y-toxin (30, 66). Intriguingly, the phenotypes associated with loss of END6 are suppressed by mutations in IPT1, suggesting that M(IP)2C relates to the performance of End6, a lipid raft protein with roles in endocytosis and actin polarization (4, 44). Although green fluorescent protein studies failed to demonstrate mislocalization of End6 in ipt1 membranes, biogenesis and sorting of lipid raft proteins do require sphingoid base synthesis (4). M(IP)2Cminus kti6/ipt1 cells may nonetheless impair compartmentalization of membrane proteins to lipid rafts. Indeed, cell surface clustering of lipid rafts at the tips of mating projections has been shown to correlate with a 50% increase of raft-associated M(IP)2C content in response to pheromones (1). Whether kti6/ipt1 cells have mating defects comparable to those of other lipid biosynthetic mutants (1) will be important to know; also important will be studying whether sphingolipid mutants interfere with endocytosis of proteins other than y-toxin and whether this involves membrane docking or internalization steps

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2.1.2.1. Zusammenfassung der Ergebnisse

In der vorangegangenen Publikation wurde die Klasse I-Mutante kti6 charakterisiert. Die Resistenz gegenüber exogenem Zymocin und Sensitivität gegenüber endogenem γ -Toxin ließ vermuten, dass KTI6 einen Faktor codiert, welcher für die Zymocinbindung an der Zelloberfläche oder den γ -Toxinimport ins Zellinnere nötig ist. Phänotypischen Analysen (Resistenz gegen Hygromycin B, Nystatin und Syringomycin E) offenbarten einen Membrandefekt der kti6-Mutante. Vermutlich verhindert eine kti6-Mutation durch veränderte Zelloberflächeneigenschaften eine Wirkungsentfaltung dieser Antibiotika, welche die Zellmembran überwinden und ins Zellinnere gelangen müssen. In Kooperation mit Hiroko Kitamota (National Institute of Agrobiological Sciences, Japan) konnte das KTI6-Allel schliesslich mittels Kreuzungsanalysen als IPT1 identifiziert werden. IPT1 codiert eine Inositolphosphotransferase, welche den letzten Syntheseschritt zum Mannosyl-Diinositolphospho-Ceramide $M(IP)_2C$, dem Hauptsphingolipid der S. cerevisiae-Zellmembran, katalysiert. Die Isolierung, Auftrennung und Detektion radioaktiv markierter Sphingolipide aus Zellmembranen mittels Dünnschichtchromatographie zeigte in kti6 einen kompletten Verlust der M(IP)₂C-Fraktion (in Kooperation mit Robert C. Dickson, University of Kentucky, USA). Stattdessen kommt es zu einer Anhäufung des direkten M(IP)2C-Vorläufersphingolipids MIPC. Die kti6/ipt1-Mutante scheint demnach nicht in der Lage zu sein, das offensichtlich für die Toxizität des Zymocins wichtige Sphingolipid M(IP)₂C zu synthetisieren. Auch Mutationen weitere Gene der M(IP)₂C-Synthese ($lag1\Delta$ $lac1\Delta$ und $csgl\Delta csg2\Delta cshl\Delta$) führen zu Zymocinresistenz und unterstützten somit die Wichtigkeit von M(IP)₂C für die Zymocinwirkung. Westernanalysen zeigten, dass kti6-Zellen zwar Zymocinbindung an der Zelloberfläche erlauben, einen Transport des y-Toxins in das Zellinnere aber nicht ermöglichen. Wildtypzellen dagegen akkumulieren das y-Toxin intrazellulär.

Zusammenfassend kann somit festgestellt werden, dass *KTI6/IPT1* innerhalb der Zymocinkaskade in Schritte involviert sein muss, welche sich in der Zellmembran abspielen und vermutlich nach der Zymocinbindung an den Chitinrezeptor erfolgen. Das Sphingolipid $M(IP)_2C$ scheint ein Faktor zu sein, welcher für den Transport der letalen γ -Untereinheit in das Zellinnere der Hefezelle nötig ist.

2.1.3. Publikation 3

Dosage suppression of the *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae ISR1* and *UGP1*

Dosage suppression of the *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin by Saccharomyces cerevisiae ISR1 and UGP1

Constance Mehlgarten¹, Sabrina Zink¹, Jared Rutter² & Raffael Schaffrath¹

¹Biologicum, Institut für Biologie, Institutsbereich Genetik, Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg, Halle (Saale), Germany; and ²Department of Biochemistry, University of Utah, UT, USA

Correspondence: Raffael Schaffrath, Biologicum, Institut für Biologie, Institutsbereich Genetik, Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg, Weinbergweg 10, D-06120 Halle (Saale), Germany. Tel.: +49 345 5526333; fax: +49 345 5527151; e-mail: raffael.schaffrath@genetik. uni-halle.de

Present address: Sabrina Zink, Max-Planck-Institut für Biophysikalische Chemie, Am Faßberg 11, D-37077 Göttingen, Germany.

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Kluyveromyces lactis killer yeast; zymocin toxin; *UGP1*; *ISR1*; *PHO85*.

Introduction

The Kluyveromyces lactis zymocin complex causes a G1 cell cycle arrest of sensitive yeast species, including Saccharomyces cerevisiae (for review, see Stark et al., 1990; Schaffrath & Breunig, 2000). Although zymocin is a trimer $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$, intracellular expression of its γ -subunit (γ -toxin) is sufficient for lethality (Tokunaga et al., 1989). Screens for K. lactis toxin-insensitive (kti) mutants have identified three nontarget (class I) and 10 toxin-target (class II) KTI genes, implying that a pathway and/or a multifactor protein complex define toxin target capacity in S. cerevisiae (Butler et al., 1994). Indeed, a key zymocin effector role was assigned to the six-subunit Elongator complex and Elongator-related factors (for review, see Schaffrath & Meinhardt, 2005). Elongator interacts with RNA polymerase II, Sec2 and tRNA^{Glu}, and is engaged in wobble uridine (U34) modification of tRNAs, including tRNA^{Glu} (Otero et al., 1999; Huang et al., 2005; Rahl et al., 2005). In excess, tRNA^{Glu} suppresses zymocin, and this effect can be nullified

Abstract

The Kluyveromyces lactis zymocin complex kills Saccharomyces cerevisiae cells in a process that involves tRNA cleavage by its tRNAse y-toxin subunit. In contrast to the γ -toxin mode of action, the early steps of the zymocin response are less well characterized. Here, we present high-dosage suppressors of zymocin that encode a putative Pkc1-related kinase (ISR1) and UDP-glucose pyrophosphorylase (UGPase) (UGP1). Anti-UGPase Western blots and GAL10 - ISR1 overexpression suggest that zymocin suppression correlates with overproduction of UGPase or Isr1. As judged from protection against exo-zymocin and unaltered sensitivity to endogenous y-toxin, high-copy ISR1 and UGP1 operate in early, nontarget steps of the zymocin pathway. Consistent with a recent report on in vitro phosphorylation of Isr1 and UGPase by the CDK Pho85, high-copy ISR1 and UGP1 suppression of zymocin is abolished in a pho85 null mutant lacking CDK activity of Pho85. Moreover, suppression requires UGPase enzyme activity, and ISR1 overexpression also protects against CFW, a chitin-interfering poison. Our data agree with roles for UGPase in cell wall biosynthetic processes and for Isr1 in Pkc1-related cell wall integrity. In sum, high-copy ISR1 and UGP1 cells affect early steps of the zymocin response and potentially prevent the lethal K. lactis killer complex from establishing cell surface recognition and/or contact.

by overexpression of the class II gene *KT11/TRM9* (Butler *et al.*, 1994; Jablonowski *et al.*, 2001a, 2006). Trm9 is a U34 methylase acting downstream of Elongator in zymocin lethality (Kalhor & Clarke, 2003; Jablonowski *et al.*, 2006). Consistently, U34 methylation by Trm9 depends on Elongator function and is hijacked by the tRNAse activity of zymocin's γ -toxin subunit (Lu *et al.*, 2005; Jablonowski *et al.*, 2006). Thus, zymocin inhibition of *S. cerevisiae* is likely to involve tRNA depletion, a lethal strategy in common with bacterial anticodon-targeting tRNAses (Kaufmann, 2000).

In contrast to the target process, early steps of the zymocin response are only vaguely understood. Based on the observation that, unlike intracellular expression, exogenously applied γ -toxin is biologically inert (Tokunaga *et al.*, 1989), zymocin's α - and β -subunits potentially establish contact with a sensitive yeast cell in order to promote γ -toxin import (Jablonowski *et al.*, 2001b). Consistent with this, class I *kti2/chs3*, *kti6/ipt1* and *kti10/pma1* mutants survive exo-zymocin but not endogenous γ -toxin

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(Jablonowski et al., 2001b; Mehlgarten & Schaffrath, 2004; Zink et al., 2005). They downregulate chitin synthesis (kti2/ chs3), lack the complex sphingolipid M(IP)₂C (kti6/ipt1) or have a defect in plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase (kti10/ pma1), which is involved in generation of membrane potentials and transport across the membrane. Together with data showing that holo-zymocin binds chitin, that zymocin's α -subunit is a chitinase, and that the β -subunit, to which the γ -toxin is disulfide-bonded, is hydrophobic, holo-zymocin is likely to hydrolyze the cell wall receptor chitin and may be capable of membrane association (Stark et al., 1990; Butler et al., 1991; Mehlgarten & Schaffrath, 2004). As for postdocking steps, sphingolipid M(IP)₂C could be a downstream import receptor, and membrane potentials generated by H⁺-ATPase Pma1 may be hijacked for γ-toxin activation (Mehlgarten & Schaffrath, 2004; Zink et al., 2005).

Here, we identify *UGP1* and *ISR1* [encoding UDP-glucose pyrophosphorylase (UGPase) and the Raf-related putative Isr1 kinase, respectively] as *S. cerevisiae* dosage suppressors of zymocin. In support of early zymocin response effects, high-copy *ISR1* cells resemble chitin mutants that impair zymocin docking, and the high-copy *UGP1* effect requires increased UGPase activity, which is known to affect β glucan levels in the cell wall. In sum, overexpression of *UGP1* and *ISR1* may suppress zymocin by reducing or masking chitin moieties required for the toxin complex to recognize and dock onto a sensitive yeast cell.

Materials and methods

Strains, media and general methods

Cultivation of yeast strains (Table 1) involved standard rich dextrose (YPD) or galactose (YPG) and minimal (SD)

Table 1.	Yeast strains	used in	this	study
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growth media (Sherman, 1991). For phenotypic analysis, these were supplemented with caffeine (0–7.5 mM), calco-fluor white (CFW: 0–25 μ g mL⁻¹) or partially purified zymocin (see below). For yeast transformations with plasmid DNAs (Table 2), we used the lithium acetate protocol of Gietz *et al.* (1992). Transformations of *Escherichia coli* strain DH5 α involved selection on Luria–Bertani medium supplemented with ampicillin (100 μ g mL⁻¹).

Screen for and identification of multicopy zymocin suppressors

To identify zymocin suppressor genes, the sensitive reporter strain BY4741 (Table 1) was transformed with a genomic S. cerevisiae library in plasmid pMA3a (kindly provided by M. Tuite, University of Kent, UK). pMA3a is a multicopy $(2 \mu leu2^d)$ vector, and the library carries partial Sau3A fragments in the unique BamHI site (Crouzet & Tuite, 1987). For transformations, SD medium lacking leucine was supplemented with 0.0075% yeast extract to facilitate selection for leu2^d and amplify pMA3a copy number (Crouzet & Tuite, 1987). Following selection of c. 10000 transformants, colonies capable of suppressing zymocin were screened by replica plating onto YPD medium containing zymocin (45%-60%, v/v). This was prepared by addition of crude zymocin purified from K. lactis killer strain AWJ137 (Table 1) as described by Jablonowski et al. (2003). Candidate suppressors were assayed by the killer eclipse bioassay (Kishida et al., 1996) to reconfirm zymocin protection. To verify that suppression was pMA3a-coupled, candidate plasmids were rescued in E. coli, retransformed into BY4741, and assayed once again for zymocin suppression. Three plasmids (pCM20, pCM30 and pCM40) were isolated and sequenced using primers specific to sites upstream (5'-CACTATCGACTACGCGATCA-3') and downstream

Strain	Description	Source/reference
K. lactis		
AWJ137	α leu2 trp1 [k1 ⁺ k2 ⁺] (zymocin-producing killer)	Frohloff et al. (2001)
S. cerevisiae		
BY4741	MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0	Euroscarf, Frankfurt
Y02742	BY4741 but <i>tot3/elp3∆∷ kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt
Y03160	BY4741, but <i>chs3∆∷kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt
Y05522	BY4741, but <i>isr1</i> Δ :: <i>kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt
Y01155	BY4741, but <i>pcl1</i> Δ:: <i>kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt
Y01692	BY4741, but <i>pho80∆∷ kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt
Y02797	BY4741, but <i>pho85</i> ∆∷ <i>kanMX4</i>	Euroscarf, Frankfurt
BYH10	MATαleu2 :: CPY-Inv-LEU2 ura3-52 his3- Δ 200 trp1- Δ 902 lys2-801 suc2 Δ 9	B. Horazdovsky
JRY30	BYH10, but <i>psk1∆∷ HIS3</i>	Rutter et al. (2002)
JRY10	BYH10, but <i>psk2∆</i> ∷ <i>NEO</i>	Rutter <i>et al</i> . (2002)
JRY40	BYH10, but <i>psk1</i> Δ:: <i>HIS3 psk2</i> Δ:: <i>NEO</i>	Rutter <i>et al</i> . (2002)
JRY232	BYH10, but ugp1-S11A	Rutter <i>et al</i> . (2002)
JRY234	BYH10, but <i>psk1∆∷HIS3 psk2∆∷NEO ugp1-</i> S11A	Rutter et al. (2002)

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Novel Kluyveromyces lactis zymocin suppressors

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Description	Source/reference
High-copy <i>E. colil</i> yeast shuttle vector (2 µ <i>leu2</i> ^d Amp ^R)	M.F. Tuite
pMA3a+yeast genomic zymocin suppressor (chromosome XI: 224073–230081)	This work
pMA3a +yeast genomic zymocin suppressor (chromosome XVI: 738 243–744 765)	This work
High-copy E. coli/yeast shuttle vector (2 µ LEU2 Amp ^R)	R.D. Gietz
pCM30 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin suppressor (Fig. 2)	This work
pCM30 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin nonsuppressor (Fig. 2)	This work
pCM30 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin nonsuppressor (Fig. 2)	This work
pMA3a+yeast genomic zymocin suppressor (chromosome XI: 367 474–371 744)	This work
pCM40 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin nonsuppressor (Fig. 2)	This work
pCM40 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin nonsuppressor (Fig. 2)	This work
pCM40 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin nonsuppressor (Fig. 2)	This work
pCM40 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin suppressor (Fig. 2)	This work
YEp51 (2 µ LEU2) with GAL10–ISR1 – conditional zymocin suppressor	T. Miyakawa
High-copy E. coli/yeast shuttle vector (2 µ TRP1 Amp ^R)	Sikorski & Hieter (1989)
pRS424 carrying UGP1 gene-zymocin suppressor	Rutter et al. (2002)
pRS424 carrying ugp1-G112D allele-zymocin nonsuppressor	Rutter et al. (2002)
pRS424 carrying ugp1–S11A allele–zymocin suppressor	Rutter et al. (2002)
YEplac181 carrying TOT4/KTI12–zymocin suppressor	Butler <i>et al</i> . (1994)
YEp24 (2 µ URA3 Amp ^B) carrying SAP155-zymocin suppressor	K. Arndt
YEplac181 carrying tRNA ^{GIU} locus E2–zymocin suppressor	Butler <i>et al</i> . (1994)
GAL1 expression vector (CEN HIS3) for zymocin's γ-toxin subunit	Frohloff <i>et al</i> . (2001)
GAL1 promoter control for pHMS14 (without y-toxin gene)	Frohloff et al. (2001)
	DescriptionHigh-copy E. coli/yeast shuttle vector (2 μ leu2 ^d Amp ^R)pMA3a +yeast genomic zymocin suppressor (chromosome XI: 224 073–230081)pMA3a +yeast genomic zymocin suppressor (chromosome XVI: 738 243–744 765)High-copy E. coli/yeast shuttle vector (2 μ LEU2 Amp ^R)pCM30 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin suppressor (Fig. 2)pCM30 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin nonsuppressor (Fig. 2)pCM30 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin nonsuppressor (Fig. 2)pCM30 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin nonsuppressor (Fig. 2)pCM40 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin suppressor (Fig. 2)pCM40 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin suppressor (Fig. 2)pCM40 subclone in YEplac181–zymocin suppressor (Fig. 2)pK5424 carrying UGP1 gene–zymocin suppressorpR5424 carrying ugp1–G112D allele–zymocin nonsuppressorpR5424 carrying ugp1–511A allele–zymocin suppressorYEp24 (2 μ URA3 Amp ^R) carrying SAP155–zymocin suppressorYEp24 (2 μ URA3 Amp ^R) carrying SAP155–zymocin suppressorYEp24 (2 μ URA3 Amp ^R) carrying SAP155–zymocin suppressorYEp24 (2 μ URA3 Amp ^R) carrying SAP155–zymocin suppressorYEp24 (2 μ URA3 Amp ^R) carrying

(5'-ATGCGTCCGGCGTAGA-3') of the BamHI site in pMA3a. Sequence data were confirmed by restriction fragment analysis and comparison with the *S. cerevisiae* genome database. Suppressor identification in each genomic insert involved construction of individual subclones in high-copy vector YEplac181 (Table 2) and zymocin killer eclipse or plate assays. Responses of the identified dosage suppressors towards intracellular γ -toxin involved the *GAL1*- γ toxin expression vector pHMS14 and control plasmid pHMS22 (Table 2) as described by Frohloff *et al.* (2001).

Immunologic techniques

Based on UGPase conservation (Daran *et al.*, 1995), we probed yeast extracts for cross-reactivity with a rabbit antibody directed against barley UGPase (AgriSera, Sweden).

Following glass bead disruption of single-copy and multicopy *UGP1* cells, protein extracts were subdivided into soluble (supernatant) and insoluble (pellet) fractions, separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, and immunoblotted with anti-UGPase (1:1000) and a secondary horseradish peroxidase-coupled antibody (1:4000) recognizing rabbit IgG (Jackson Immunoresearch). A cytosolic fraction enriched in *Arabidopsis thaliana* UGPase (a kind gift of J. Lee, IPB, Halle, Germany) served as a positive control. Protein marker and loading controls involved the prestained 10–180-kDa ladder (Fermentas Life Science) and a Ponceau S-stained membrane blot.

Fluorescence microscopy

Prior to microscopy, yeast cultures grown overnight were incubated with CFW (1%, w/v) for 15 min at 30 $^{\circ}$ C, and subsequently washed three times in water. Microscopy involved a microscope (Zeiss Axioskop, Göttingen, Germany) with both fluorescence (365 UV filter, FT395 mirror und LP420 barrier filter) and differential interference contrast optics.

Results and discussion

Novel multicopy suppressors of zymocin

Our pMA3a-based screen for dosage suppressors of zymocin identified three candidate plasmids (pCM20, pCM30 and pCM40) (Fig. 1). Using killer eclipse (Fig. 1a) and zymocin plate (Fig. 1b) assays, cells carrying pCM20, pCM30 or pCM40 were compared to the BY4741 wild type, two previously identified high-copy zymocin suppressors (*SAP155; KTI12/TOT4*), and the zymocin-resistant Elongator mutant *elp3* Δ (Butler *et al.*, 1994; Frohloff *et al.*, 2001; Jablonowski *et al.*, 2001a; Fichtner *et al.*, 2002). Both pCM20 and pCM30 caused similar suppression of zymocin sensitivity as high-copy *TOT4* or *elp3* Δ cells (Fig. 1). As judged from the more quantitative zymocin plate assay system, suppression by pCM40 resembled the weaker effect of high-copy *SAP155* cells (Fig. 1b), a notion further supported by our



Fig. 1. New high-copy zymocin suppressors. Suppression by pMA3a candidate clones (pCM20, pCM30 and pCM40) was assessed in colony–colony killer eclipse assays (a) using *Kluyveromyces lactis* killer AWJ137 (Table 2) and the indicated *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* tester strains or by response assays on plates lacking (– zymo) or containing (+zymo) 50% (v/v) zymocin (b). In (a), *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* eclipse formation next to the killer indicates zymocin sensitivity (zym^S), whereas lack of eclipses equals zymocin resistance (zym^R). In (b), serial dilutions of the suppressor candidates were compared with the wild type (wt: BY4741), the Elongator mutant (*elp3Δ*) and previously identified multi-copy (mc) zymocin suppressors, *SAP155* or *KT*112/T074. Here, full (zym^R) or partial (zym^{PR}) zymocin resistance are distinguished from sensitivity (zym^S).

observations that, compared to pCM20 or pCM30, suppression by pCM40 was weaker at higher doses of zymocin (data not shown).

High-copy zymocin suppressors: *ISR1*, *UGP1* and *KTI12 / TOT4*

pCM20 has a *c*. 6.0-kb chromosome XI insert (positions 224 073–230 081) that carries the *KTI12/TOT4* gene. As *TOT4* was previously identified as an Elongator-related dosage suppressor of zymocin (Butler *et al.*, 1994; Fichtner *et al.*, 2002), we did not further analyze pCM20. As for pCM30, zymocin suppression associated with a *c*. 6.5-kb chromosome XVI fragment (coordinates 738 243–744 765) that carries the *RPN7*, *YTH1*, *ISR1* and *YPR108w* genes and a 3'-end deletion in *COG4* (Fig. 2a). Suppressor mapping by assaying pCM30 subclones identified *ISR1* as the zymocin-relevant gene (Fig. 2a). *ISR1* is a nonessential, Raf-related protein kinase gene whose overexpression on galactose (*GAL10–ISR1* on plasmid pST11) increases sensitivity to the Pkc1 kinase inhibitor staurosporine (Miyahara *et al.*, 1998). On the basis of epistasis analysis between *ISR1* and

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Fig. 2. Suppressor mapping reveals roles for *ISR1* and *UGP1* in zymocin toxicity. Mapping of suppressor activity involved subcloning restriction fragments of pCM30 (a) or pCM40 (b) (indicated below the schematically indicated genomic inserts) in high-copy vector YEplac181. The constructs were assessed by zymocin (55%, v/v) YPG plate assays to enable comparison with the galactose-inducible *GAL10–ISR1* allele on plasmid pST11 (a) or by killer eclipse bioassays (b). Black bars indicate suppressor activity (pCM31 and pCM44); nonsuppressors are shown in white. For zymocin responses, see Fig. 1.

genes of the Pkc1-MAP kinase pathway (PKC1, BCK1, MPK1), Isr1 was proposed to functionally interact with an Mpk1-independent branch of the Pkc1 cell wall integrity pathway (Miyahara et al., 1998). We found that galactosedependent GAL10-ISR1 overexpression from pST11 (see above) suppressed zymocin as efficiently as high-copy ISR1 (Fig. 2a), whereas an ISR1 deletion had no effect on sensitivity (Fig. 2a). Together with galactose-dependent suppression by GAL10-ISR1 cells being eliminated by glucose repression (data not shown), we propose that it is ISR1 overexpression that accounts for zymocin suppression. Zymocin suppressor pCM40 harbors a c. 4.3-kb chromosome XI segment (positions 367 474-371 744) with truncated (RGT1, TUL1) and full-length genes (YKL037w, YKL036c, UGP1) (Fig. 2b). The suppressor gene in question was found to be UGP1, which encodes UDP-glucose pyrophosphorylase (UGPase) (Fig. 2b). UGPase converts

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glucose 1-phosphate and UTP into UDP-glucose. Owing to the requirement for UDP-glucose as a glucosyl donor in important processes such as galactose entry into glycolysis, storage carbohydrate synthesis or formation of cell wall β -glucans, *UGP1* is essential for cell viability (Daran *et al.*, 1995, 1997).

High-copy ISR1 and UGP1 cells resemble zymocin-resistant, nontarget (class I) mutants

To study the zymocin suppressor action of ISR1 and UGP1 in more detail, we conditionally expressed γ -toxin, the lethal tRNAse subunit of zymocin, in high-copy ISR1 and UGP1 cells, and compared their viability with that of cells with known toxin-target defects (class II) (Butler et al., 1994; Frohloff et al., 2001). Whereas an $elp3\Delta$ Elongator mutant and pYF1 cells expressing higher-than-normal levels of the γ -toxin target tRNA^{Glu} survived when γ -toxin expression was induced intracellularly (Fig. 3a), both high-copy ISR1 and UGP1 cells were as sensitive as the wild-type control (Fig. 3a). This implies that, rather than interfering with the intracellular toxin-target pathway, high-copy ISR1 and UGP1 are likely to suppress early, nontarget steps of the zymocin response. Consistent with this notion and distinct from class II Elongator-minus cells, phenotypes of a class I chitin mutant (*chs3* Δ) known to survive exo-zymocin but not endogenous γ-toxin (Jablonowski et al., 2001b) were in part copied by high-copy ISR1 cells (Fig. 3b). These include partial resistance to the chitin inhibitor drug CFW and reduced tolerance to caffeine (Fig. 3b), consistent with a potential Pkc1-related role for Isr1 (Miyahara et al., 1998). The Pkc1 kinase is known to target cell wall-related proteins, including chitin synthase 3 (Chs3), and to function in the chitin emergency response that coordinates cell wall composition and cell cycle progression in response to cell surface damage (for reviews, see Levin, 2005; Lesage & Bussey, 2006). Together with chitin's role as a zymocin receptor, the chitinase activity of zymocin and chitin interference by CFW (Butler et al., 1991; Jablonowski et al., 2001b), the cell walls of high-copy ISR1 cells possibly display a chitin deficiency that is sufficient to protect against zymocin and CFW. Consistent with this notion and supported by CFW-based fluorescence microscopy, the chitin of high-copy ISR1 cell walls was mislocalized and uniformly distributed (Fig. 3c). More importantly, pronounced chitin deposition of wildtype cells at incipient bud sites, bud neck regions or mother-daughter cell junctions was no longer maintained by high-copy ISR1 cells (Fig. 3c and data not shown). Provided that these chitin foci were important for zymocin to dock onto a sensitive yeast cell, chitin reduction in these areas may account for zymocin suppression by high-copy ISR1. In contrast to ISR1, high-copy UGP1 cells were sensitive to CFW and tolerated caffeine (Fig. 3b). Consistent 5

(a) glc gal tox^s + γ-tox wt – v-to> + y-tox . tox elp3∆ – γ-tox . 3 tox + y-tox ISR1 - γ-tox . -23 wt + mc + y-tox tox UGP1 – γ-tox 48 tox + y-tox ÷. 1 tRNA^{Glu} 5 v-to> tenfold serial cell dilutions control + CFW + caffeine (b) elp3∆ w Ë ISR1 + ¥ UGP chs3∆ tenfold serial cell dilutions wt + mcUGP1 wt (c) chs3/ wt + mc/SR FM FM

Fig. 3. Phenotypes of high-copy *ISR1* and *UGP1*. (a) γ -Toxin assay. The indicated strains were transformed with *GAL1-\gamma*-toxin expression vector pHMS14 (+ γ -tox) or control vector pHMS22 lacking the γ -toxin gene (– γ -tox). Transformants were spotted in replica onto glucose (glc) or galactose (gal) media. Gal⁺ phenotypes of pHMS14-carrying cells distinguish γ -toxin resistance (tox^R) from Gal⁻ and γ -toxin sensitivity (tox^S). Multicopy (mc) *ISR1, UGP1* and tRNA^{Glu} genes were maintained on pCM31, pCM44 and pYF1 (Table 2), respectively. (b) CFW and caffeine assays. Strains were replica-spotted on YPD plates lacking (control) or containing 25 µg mL⁻¹ CFW (+CFW) or 7.5 mM caffeine (+caffeine). (c) Analysis of cell wall chitin. The indicated strains were stained with CFW and subjected to parallel fluorescence (FM) and light microscopy (LM) to study both the amount and distribution of cell wall chitin.

with these wild-type-like phenotypes, fluorescence microscopy showed that high-copy *UGP1* cells displayed focused chitin deposits (see above) and upregulated lateral levels of chitin (Fig. 3c). In sum, these data suggest distinct suppressor modes of action between high-copy *ISR1* and multicopy *UGP1* cells (see below).

ISR1 and *UGP1* suppression requires the cyclindependent kinase (CDK) activity of Pho85

Inspired by findings that UGP1 expression is subject to phosphoregulation by the CDK Pho85 (Nishizawa et al., 2001) and that, in vitro, UGPase and Isr1 are phosphorylated by Pho85-CDK complexes (Dephoure et al., 2005), we investigated the involvement of Pho85 in zymocin suppression (Fig. 4a). Deletion of PHO85 caused a near-complete loss of suppression by high-copy UGP1 or ISR1 (Fig. 4a). This requirement for Pho85 activity was further supported by the finding that multicopy UGP1 suppression of zymocin also depended on the Pho85 cyclin Pho80 (Fig. 4a). In contrast, *pho80* Δ had no effect on suppression by high-copy ISR1 (Fig. 4a). Removal of another Pho85 cyclin, Pcl1, did not alter zymocin suppression by high-copy UGP1 (Fig. 4a) or ISR1 (Fig. 4a). We are aware that these zymocin profiles agree only in part with data on in vitro phosphorylation of Isr1 and UGPase by Pho85-Pcl1 and/or Pho85-Pho80 CDK complexes (Dephoure et al., 2005). However, the existence of 10 distinct Pho85 cyclins suggests substantial redundance in both regulators and substrate specificity of the CDK Pho85 in vivo (Measday et al., 1997; Lenburg & O'Shea, 2001; Huang et al., 2002). Therefore, it is not surprising that our in vivo data on single cyclin mutants do not correspond precisely with the above in vitro phosphoassays (under defined CDK/substrate conditions). It is striking that UGP1 and ISR1 encode proteins (UGPase and Isr1) that suppress zymocin in a manner dependent on the CDK Pho85 and that were identified in a genome-wide study as two out of more than 30 Pho85 substrates (Dephoure et al., 2005). The specific requirement for Pho80 - and not Pcl1 - in the case of suppression by UGPase links the effect to a specific Pho85 kinase complex. There are several reasons why the Pho85-Pcl1 complex may not be involved in vivo, despite its ability to phosphorylate UGPase in vitro. It could be in a cellular location different to that of UGPase, or it may phosphorylate sites on UGPase that are not targeted by the Pho85-Pho80 complex. Irrespective of CDK specificity, our profiles clearly show that the CDK Pho85 is required for zymocin suppression by high-copy ISR1 and UGP1, and suggest that it may be phosphorylation by the cyclin-dependent kinase Pho85 that mediates these effects.

On the basis of complemention of an *E. coli* UGPase defect (*galU*) by the yeast *UGP1* gene, UGPases are functionally conserved (Daran *et al.*, 1995). Therefore, we tried to immunoprobe yeast UGPase by use of an antibody raised against plant UGPase. Cross-reactivity was present but weak in comparison to the positive UGPase control from *A. thaliana* (Fig. 4b; top panel). However, the difference in electrophoretic mobility of these signals agrees with distinct sizes for yeast (56 kDa) or plant (52 kDa) UGPase enzymes

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Fig. 4. Requirement of the CDK Pho85 for the high-copy *UGP1* and *ISR1* effects. (a) Zymocin profiles. Zymocin suppression by multicopy (mc) *UGP1* and mc/*SR1* in the wild type (wt) and the indicated CDK/cyclin mutants was assayed on 55% (v/v) zymocin plates; '2 μ ' indicates empty vector control. For zymocin responses, see Fig. 1. (b) Detection of yeast UGPase. Protein extracts from the indicated strains carrying vector control (2 μ) or multicopy *UGP1* (mc*UGP1*) were subdivided in soluble (top panel: supernatant) and insoluble (bottom panel: pellet) fractions, and immunoblotted with an antibody specific for barley UGPase. An *Arabidopsis thaliana* extract enriched in UGPase served as a control (plant contr.). Control of protein loading involved a Ponceau S-stained blot (middle panel); shown is a low molecular mass (15–30 kDa) section. Numbers refer to molecular weight markers. Plant and yeast (*) UGPase are indicated.

(Fig. 4b; top panel). Remarkably, whereas the yeast enzyme was hardly detectable in soluble protein extracts from *UGP1* single-copy cells, significant levels of UGPase were identified in all the *UGP1* multicopy backgrounds tested (Fig. 4b). This differential display was also observed with samples

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from insoluble cell wall fractions (Fig. 4b; bottom panel). Whether this means that UGPase levels in single-copy cells are below the detection limits of the inefficient anti-Arabidopsis UGPase antibody is not known. Nonetheless, our data indicate that high-copy UGP1 cells upregulate UGPase synthesis, and that this leads to higher-than-normal levels of UGPase in soluble and insoluble fractions. Moreover, on the basis of excess levels of UGPase in the wild type and the suppressor-minus CDK mutants (pho85 Δ or *pho80* Δ) (Fig. 4a; top and bottom panels), Pho85–Pho80 phosphorylation is likely to control UGPase activity rather than UGPase expression levels or stability. In support of this notion, Daran et al. (1995) reported a 40-fold increase of UGPase activity in high-copy UGP1 cells. How CDKdependent phosphorylation may contribute to zymocin suppression is unclear. However, given the functional and spatial overlaps identified for Pho85 and its substrates with elements of the Pkc1-MAP kinase pathway, the kinase activity of Pho85 could be involved in cell wall-related processes (Lenburg & O'Shea, 2001; Dephoure et al., 2005). Consistently, Pho85 is required for the environmental stress response, and Pho85 cyclins colocalize to incipient bud sites, growing bud tips and bud necks (Carroll et al., 2001; Moffat & Andrews, 2004). These cell polarity-related locations are shared with some of the Pho85 kinase targets (Huh et al., 2003; Dephoure et al., 2005). Therefore, the subcellular localization of Pho85 cyclins may contribute to the selection of correct Pho85 substrates with functions in cell wallrelated processes. With identified in vitro phosphorylation of UGPase (and Isr1) by Pho85 (Dephoure et al., 2005), one (but not the only) possible interpretation of our data is that UGPase (and possibly Isr1) may belong to such Pho85 substrates in vivo.

UGP1 suppression is PAS kinase-insensitive and requires UGPase activity

In contrast to ISR1, UGP1 is essential for viability (Daran et al., 1995; Miyahara et al., 1998). Therefore, we resorted to mutants with defects in UGPase catalysis and UGPase phosphoregulation by the PAS kinase system Psk1/2 (Hardy & Roach, 1993; Flores-Diaz et al., 1997; Rutter et al., 2002). PAS kinase has been shown to phosphorylate Ugp1 and thereby inhibit the synthesis of glycogen and contribute to cell wall stability (Rutter et al., 2002 and data not shown). As judged from zymocin profiling (Fig. 5), suppression by high-copy UGP1 was insensitive to elimination of the PAS kinase phosphorylation site (S11A) in UGPase, a response in line with unaltered sensitivity of single $(pskl\Delta,$ $psk2\Delta$, ugp1-S11A), double ($psk1\Delta psk2\Delta$) and combined $(psk1\Delta psk2\Delta ugp1$ -S11A) mutants to zymocin (Fig. 5). This suggests that although UGPase is phosphoregulated by the PAS kinase at S11, this phosphorylation is not involved in



Fig. 5. Zymocin responses of PAS kinase and *ugp1* mutants. Zymocin (50%, v/v) plate assays were performed with the wild type (wt), the Elongator mutant (*elp3A*) and the indicated PAS kinase defects, UGPase mutants or combinations thereof. In addition, zymocin suppression by high-copy *UGP1* was compared with that by high-copy *ugp1*-S11A or *ugp1*-G112D alleles and an empty vector (2 μ) control. For zymocin responses, see Fig. 1.

zymocin suppression; together with the requirement of the CDK Pho85 for zymocin suppression (Fig. 4a), this suggests that it is unlikely that phosphorylation by Pho85 coincides with the PAS kinase phosphosite on UGPase (Rutter *et al.*, 2002; Dephoure *et al.*, 2005). To study whether the effects of Pho85 on zymocin suppression are due to direct phosphorylation (or some other mechanism), it may be worthwhile to identify Pho85 phosphosite(s) on UGPase.

In contrast to ugp1-S11A cells, however, a catalytic ugp1-G112D mutation shown to reduce UGPase activity to c. 5% of wild-type levels (Flores-Diaz et al., 1997) abolished zymocin suppression (Fig. 5). Thus, the high-copy UGP1 effect requires elevated UGPase enzyme activity. As reduced UGPase activity has been shown to cause tolerance to cell wall degradation by zymolyase and reduction of cell wall β-glucan levels, and upregulated UGPase activity has been reported to enhance sensitivity to the chitin poison CFW, UGPase clearly has an impact on cell wall composition and cell wall-interfering agents (Daran et al., 1995, 1997). At this point, we cannot exclude the possibility that cell wall effects distinct from β-glucan alterations may account for zymocin suppression by high-copy UGP1. However, the fact that downregulation of one cell wall component is often rescued by upregulation of another suggests that cell wall remodeling is used to compensate for cell surface defects (Lesage & Bussey, 2006). Intriguingly, such compensation can impact on the access of toxic chitin-interfering agents such as CFW

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and zymocin. For instance, removal of a glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored glycomembrane protein $(ggp1\Delta)$ or defects in cell wall protein mannosylation $(pmt1\Delta)$ are counteracted by upregulated chitin synthesis; this in turn enhances both susceptibility to and inhibition by CFW or zymocin (Jablonowski et al., 2001b). Therefore, we favor the option that altered β -glucan levels due to higher UGPase activity are responsible for the high-copy suppressor effect of UGP1. Whether this interferes with zymocin docking or γ -toxin import/activation, i.e. nontarget (class I) scenarios (Jablonowski et al., 2001b; Mehlgarten & Schaffrath, 2004; Zink et al., 2005), remains to be determined. However, as judged from CFW sensitivity (Fig. 3b) and fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 3c), high-copy UGP1 cells maintain chitin levels that are sufficient for chitin interference with CFW. Therefore, if high-copy UGP1 operated at the level of chitin docking, such suppression would clearly have to be distinct from that in *chs3* Δ mutants that lack the zymocin receptor chitin (Fig. 3c) (Jablonowski et al., 2001b). An attractive mechanism for UGP1 suppression that integrates cell wall-related roles for UGPase (see above) would be chitin masking by altered β-glucan levels in the cell walls resulting from high-copy UGP1. Although this scenario may allow a small chitin-interfering drug such as CFW to inhibit growth of high-copy UGP1 cells as observed (Fig. 3b), it could potentially prevent the three-subunit, high molecular weight protein complex zymocin from accessing cell wall chitin and hence protect against zymocin lethality.

Conclusions

Our high-copy screen has identified new suppressors of zymocin (*ISR1*; *UGP1*). These can be added to the list of previously identified nontarget (class I) and toxin-target (class II) suppressors (Butler *et al.*, 1994; Jablonowski *et al.*, 2001a; 2006; Lu *et al.*, 2005), and demonstrate the use of gene upregulation in identifying components of the lethal zymocin response pathway in *S. cerevisiae*. With *ISR1* and *UGP1* operating as class I and Pho85-dependent suppressors, they also may enable us to study cell-signaling activities required for cell surface recognition by zymocin or delivery/ import of its lethal γ -toxin tRNAse subunit.

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2.1.3.1. Zusammenfassung der Ergebnisse

In der vorangegangenen Publikation konnten zwei neue Gene isoliert werden, deren Überexpressionen Resistenz gegenüber exogenem Zymocin verleihen. S. cerevisiae-Wildtypzellen wurden mit der Genbank pMA3 (2µ, leu2d) transformiert und die erhaltenen Transformanten auf Suppression der Zymocinsensitivität getestet. Sequenzierungen und Subklonierungen der drei isolierten Resistenz verleihenden Plasmide (pCM20, pCM30 und pCM40) ergaben mit UGP1 und ISR1 zwei neue multicopy Suppressoren, während der multicopy Effekt des dritten Kanditaten KTI12 (siehe Einleitung) bereits bekannt war. Eine UGP1- bzw. ISR1-Überexpression vermittelt keine Resistenz gegenüber endogen exprimiertem γ -Toxin. ISR1 (Inhibition of Staurosporine Resistance) codiert eine potentielle, nichtessentielle Proteinkinase, für welche eine Pkc1-ähnliche Rolle in der Koordinierung der Zellwandintegrität postuliert wird. Phänoptypisch zeigen mcISR1-Zellen im Vergleich zum Wildtyp neben der Zymocinresistenz, auch Resistenz gegenüber dem Chitin-interferrierenden Zellwandgift Calcofluor White, eine Misslokalisation des Zellwandchitins und Sensitivität gegenüber Caffein. Sie ähneln somit der chitindefizienten Klasse I-Mutante chs3A. UGP1 codiert eine für die Hefezelle essentielle UDP-Glucose Pyrophosphorylase (UGPase) und spielt eine wichtige Rolle in der Zellwandsynthese, sowie der Synthese von Glycolipiden und -proteinen. mcUGP1-Zellen zeigen wildtypähnliche Phänotypen auf Caffein und Calcofluor White, aber eine Hochregulierung des lateralen Zellwandchitins.

Da Ugp1 und Isr1 *in vitro* durch den CDK-Pho85-Komplex phosphoryliert werden, wurde der Einfluss einer *PHO85*-Deletion auf die Fähigkeit der Zymocinsuppression in mc*ISR1*- und mc*UGP1*-Zellen untersucht. Tatsächlich führte eine fehlende CDK-Aktivität in *pho85* Δ -Zellen zu einem fast vollständigen Verlust des *multicopy* Effekts von *ISR1* und *UGP1*. Die Zymocinsensitivität dieser Zellen impliziert, dass Pho85 für die Zymocinsuppression durch mc*ISR1* und mc*UGP1* benötigt wird. Zusammenfassend lässt sich feststellen, dass der Einfluss von mc*ISR1* und mc*UGP1* aufgrund der gezeigten Phänotypen eher in zeitigen Schritten der Zymocinkaskade zu liegen scheint. Beide verändern möglicherwiese die Zelloberfläche so, dass die Zymocinerkennung der Zielzelle, die Zymocinbindung oder der γ -Toxinimport beeinflusst sind.

2.2. Neue funktionelle und strukturelle Aspekte des Elongatorkomplexes in *S. cerevisiae* und *A. thaliana*

2.2.1 Manuskript 1

(zur Veröffentlichung in Journal of Cell Science)

Elongator function depends on antagonistic regulation by casein kinase Hrr25 and protein phosphatase Sit4

Constance Mehlgarten¹, Daniel Jablonowski^{1,2}, Karin D. Breunig¹, Michael J. R. Stark³ and Raffael Schaffrath^{1,2}

¹ Institut für Biologie, Genetik, Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg, Weinbergweg 10, D-06120 Halle (Saale), Germany

² Department of Genetics, University of Leicester, University Road, Leicester LE1 7RH, UK

³ Welcome Trust Centre for Gene Regulation & Expression, College of Life Sciences, MSI/WTB Complex, University of Dundee, Dundee DD1 5EH, Scotland

For correspondence: Raffael Schaffrath

Phone: ++44-116-2525233; FAX: ++44-116-2527833; eMail: rs240@le.uk.ac

Running head: Elongator phosphoregulation

Keywords: casein kinase Hrr25, Sit4 phosphatase, Elongator, zymocin killer toxin

ABSTRACT

In yeast, tRNA cleavage by the lethal zymocin toxin requires tRNA modification dependent on Elongator, a protein complex whose Elp1 subunit is phosphorylated. Elongator function depends on protein phosphatase Sit4 and consistently, zymocin resistant sit4 Δ mutants cause hyperphosphorylation of Elp1. Here we show that casein kinase I (Hrr25) defects that cause zymocin resistance trigger hypophosphorylation of Elp1 and shifts to one or the other Elp1 form in hrr25 and sit4 mutants inactivate a tRNA suppressor that is Elongator-dependent. Since hyper- and hypophosphorylated Elp1 forms are balanced in normal cells, changes that perturb this balance in the mutants therefore inactivate Elongator. In further support of Hrr25-Sit4 antagonism, physical Hrr25•Sit4 interaction is dependent on the Sit4 effector Sap185 and Sit4 inactivation restores zymocin sensitivity and a normal ratio of the two Elp1 forms in hrr25 mutants. Moreover, Hrr25 binds to Elongator in a fashion dependent on Elongator partner Kti12 and Kti12 overexpression triggers Elp1 hyperphosphorylation similar to sit4 mutants. Intriguingly, hrr25 mutants block this Kti12 effect and show enhanced affinity of Elongator for Kti12. Collectively, our data suggest that rather than targeting Elp1, the Hrr25 kinase indirectly affects Elp1 phosphorylation states through Kti12 and control of Sit4dependent Elp1 dephosphorylation.

INTRODUCTION

The casein kinase I (CKI) family from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* has four members two of which, Yck1 and Yck2, show functional overlap in endocytosis and morphogenesis and share a C-terminal palmitoylation motif required for membrane localisation with isozyme Yck3 (Babu et al., 2004; Hoeckstra et al., 1991; Robinson et al., 1993). The fourth member, Hrr25, is involved in multiple processs including (but not limited to) meiosis, Ca^{2+} signaling and DNA repair (Ho et al., 1997; Hoeckstra et al., 1991; Kafadar et al., 2003; Petronczki et al., 2006). In line with this, Hrr25 phosphorylation contols Crz1 and Swi6, transcription factors integral to respectively, Ca^{2+} /calmodulin signaling (Kafadar et al., 2003) and DNA repair in response to mutagens such as methylmethane sulfonate (MMS) (Ho et al., 1997; Hoeckstra et al., 1991). Hrr25 also binds RNA polymerase II (Phatnani et al., 2004), a feature shared with the histone acetylase complex Elongator (Otero et al., 1999; Wittschieben et al., 1999) and Hrr25 copurifies with Elongator subunits (Schäfer et al., 2003; Gavin et al., 2006).

Apart from its role in transcription (Otero et al., 1999; Gilbert et al., 2004), this six-subunit Elongator acetylase is also involved in modification of tRNAs and α -tubulin (Creppe et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2005). The latter read-out may be biomedically relevant since reduced microtubule acetylation as a result of Elongator dysfunction apparently associates with the neurological disorder familial dysautonomia in humans (Slaugenhaupt and Gusella, 2002; Creppe et al., 2009). Elongator's function in tRNA anticodon modification promotes efficient tRNA decoding and tRNA suppression and strikingly, is hijacked by the fungal tRNase zymocin which kills yeast by cleaving Elongator-dependent tRNAs (Huang et al., 2005; Jablonowski et al., 2006; Lu et al., 2005). As a consequence, tRNA modification defects that result from Elongator inactivation block tRNA cleavage and cause zymocin resistance (Frohloff et al., 2001; Jablonowski et al., 2001a; Mehlgarten and Schaffrath, 2003; Huang et al., 2005, 2008; Zabel et al., 2008; Bär et al., 2008). Intriguingly, phosphorylation by Hrr25 rather than the CKI isozymes Yck1-Yck3 is crucial for zymocin action and mutations in the HRR25 gene (also known as KTI14) that eliminate its kinase activity confer zymocin resistance (Mehlgarten and Schaffrath, 2003). Consistent with this, Elongator subunit 1 (Elp1) is a phosphoprotein and its dephosphorylation, which promotes zymocin toxicity, depends on protein phosphatase Sit4 (Jablonowski et al., 2001b, 2004). Together with data that Hrr25 and Sit4 physically interact with each other (Ho et al., 2002) and that *hrr25* and *sit4* mutants copy stress-inducible growth defects and zymocin phenotypes typical of Elongator-minus cells (Frohloff et al., 2001; Jablonowski et al., 2001a, b; Mehlgarten and Schaffrath, 2003), Hrr25, Sit4 and Elongator may all be functionally interlinked. In support of this, overexpression of Kti12, an Elongator partner whose DRL1 homolog is a candidate Elongator regulator in plants (Nelissen et al., 2003, 2005), potentially opposes Sit4 activity, modulates Elp1 phosphorylation states and suppresses zymocin toxicity (Frohloff et al., 2001; Fichtner et al., 2002; Jablonowski et al., 2004; Petrakis et al., 2005).

Here, we show that Hrr25 interacts with Elongator in a fashion dependent on Kti12 suggesting that Kti12 bridges the contact between Hrr25 and Elongator. Moreover, *hrr25* mutants cause Elp1 hypophosphorylation, a defect opposite to Elp1 hyperphosphorylation in *sit4* phosphatase mutants. Based on biochemical and genetic interactions which show that the Sit4 effector Sap185 mediates Hrr25•Sit4 interaction and that loss of *SIT4* suppresses defects in *hrr25* mutants, the Hrr25 kinase is likely to oppose the Sit4 phosphatase. Apparently, this antagonism is important for maintaining well-balanced levels of hyper- and hypophosphorylated Elp1 forms that are critical for Elongator function in tRNA-related processes. Based on further data that Hrr25 impacts on the interaction between Elongator and

Kti12 and promotes the ability of Kti12 to modulate Elp1 phosphorylation states, we propose that rather than directly phosphorylating Elp1, the Hrr25 kinase may operate through Kti12 and indirectly control Sit4 and Elp1 dephosphorylation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Yeast strains, media, K. lactis zymocin methods and DNA constructs. All yeast strains used or generated in this study are described in Table S1. Yeast strains were grown in routine yeast extract, peptone, dextrose (YPD) or galactose (YPG) rich media or synthetic complete (SC) medium (Sherman, 1991). For phenotypic analyses YPD medium was supplemented with 0.02% (w/v) MMS (methyl methansulfonate) and growth was monitored after 3-4 days at 30°C according to Hampsey (1997). Thermosensitivity was assayed on YPD medium at 30°C or 38°C for 2-3 days. ade2-1 (UAA) and can1-100 (UAA) ochre stop condon suppression by the tRNA^{Tyr} gene *SUP4* was tested as described (Huang et al., 2005) using the SUP4 plasmid pTC3 (Shaw et al., 1984). Zymocin sensitivity tests of S. cerevisiae used either the killer eclipse bioassay or YPD plates containing 40-65% (v/v) partially purified zymocin (Jablonowski et al., 2004, Kishida et al., 1996), monitoring growth after 2-3 days at 30°C. Expression of zymocin's y-toxin subunit involved pHMS14, a GAL-y-toxin expression vector (Frohloff et al., 2001). The response to γ -toxin induction of pHMS14-transformed strains was monitored on galactose plates after 3-4 days at 30°C. Yeast transformations with plasmid DNA or polymerase chain reactions (PCR) products were performed by the lithium-acetate method (Gietz et al., 1992). Morphology of HRR25, hrr25-3, and hrr25-4 cells was analysed using an Axioskop (Zeiss, Germany) microscope.

Table S1

Plasmid constructions. To generate pCM12.2, wildtype *HRR25* was amplified from genomic DNA (LL20) by PCR and introduced into the bacterial vector pCR2.1-TOPO, using the TOPO-TA cloning kit (Invitrogen). Then a 1.8 kb *Hind*III/*Xba*I-fragment was shuttled into the destination vector YCplac33. pDJ41, a YEplac195-based plasmid carrying *KTI12*, has been described (Butler et al., 1994). The *Escherichia coli* strains DH5a and TOP10 used as cloning hosts, were grown in LB supplemented with ampicillin (100 μ g/ml), X-Gal (80 μ g/ml) and IPTG (50 μ g/ml).

Yeast genetic manipulations. Defined Elongator $(elp\Delta)$ null alleles and genetic variants encoding hemagglutinin (HA) or c-myc epitope-tagged proteins were obtained after transformation of PCR fragments generated with template plasmids containing suitable marker genes. YDp-KIU (*URA3*), YDp-SpH (*HIS3*) and YDp-KIL (*LEU2*) provided marker genes for deletions (Frohloff et al., 2001). pYM1, pYM2, pYM3, pYM4 and pYM5 served for C-terminal HA and c-myc epitope-tagging and pBS1461 and pFA6a-*HIS3-pGAL1*-3HA for N-terminal TAP and HA epitope-tagging (Frohloff et al., 2001, Jablonowski et al., 2001, Rigaut et al., 1999, Longtine et al., 1998). Manipulations were verified by PCR, killer biosassays (Kishida et al., 1996) to test for biological functionality and anti-HA/c-myc Western blot analysis. Testing *SSD1* allelism involved transformation with p*SSD1-v* (*CEN URA3*) prior to disruption of *sit4* and 5-FOA selection. Generation of *sit4*Δ mutants (Table 1) used previously described *sit4::LEU2* or *sit4::HIS3* cartridges (Jablonowski et al., 2004).

Hrr25 kinase assays. E. coli expression of His6-tagged CKIs and Ni²⁺-affinity purification used the 'pTrcHIS TOPO-TA Expression Kit' (Invitrogen). PCRs using the primer pairs (FW-HRR25-rec: 5'-GGC TCT AGA GAG ATG GAC TTA AGA GTA GGA AGG A-3'; RV-HRR25-rec: 5'-GGC GGA TCC GTT GCT TAC AAC CAA ATT GAC TG-3') to amplify HRR25 and hrr25-3 and (RV-HRR25-4-rec: 5'-GGC GGA TCC TTA GTT TTC CAT ACC TTT ATC TAG TGC G-3') to amplify hrr25-4 from genomic DNA. In vitro CKI activities of wild-type (His₆-Hrr25) and mutant (His₆-Hrr25-3, His₆-Hrr25-4) enzymes obtained by Ni²⁺-NTA affinity purification were measured by incorporation of ³²P radiolabel from $[\gamma$ -³²P]ATP into casein. Assays containing 5 µl CKI eluates, 5 µl 5% (w/v) casein (Sigma), 5 µl 5× buffer (0.25 M Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 50 mM MgCl₂, 0.5% 2-mercaptoethanol, 0.5 mM EGTA-KOH pH 7.5), and 5 μ [γ -³²]ATP (1 mM, ~18.5 MBq/mmol) were incubated for 10 min at 30°C. Upon addition of 1 ml 25% (w/v) TCA, precipitates were pelleted, washed three times in 1 ml 25% (w/v) TCA and radioactivity was quantitated by Cerenkov counting. Alternatively, in vitro CKI activities were measured based on an enzyme-coupled system (Bergmeyer, 1976). In brief, Hrr25-dependent ATP hydrolysis and casein phosphorylation were coupled to the catalysis of pyruvate kinase (generating pruvate and ATP from phosphoenolpyruvate and ADP) and lactate dehydrogenase (generating lactate and NAD⁺ from pyruvate and NADH). Hence, ATP consumption by CKI activity was determined indirectly by spectrophotometry (OD 340 nm) measuring the decrease in NADH levels. Reactions contained 5 µl recombinant CKI eluates, 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.9), 5 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM KCl, 300 µg/ml BSA, 0.25 mM NADH (Sigma), 2 mM phosphoenolpyruvate (Sigma), 1 mM ATP, 6.6 U/ml pyruvate kinase (Sigma), 13.5 U/ml lactate dehydrogenase (Sigma), and 0.145 mM casein.

Immunological techniques. Detection of tagged proteins used anti-c-myc (9E10) and anti-HA (3F10) antibodies (Roche). Elp1 and Elp3 were detected with anti-Elp1 and anti-Elp3 antibodies (1:3000, kindly provided by Dr. Svejstrup) as described (Otero et al., 1999, Wittschieben et al., 1999). Protein concentrations were determined (Bradford, 1976) and controlled with anti-Pfk1 antibodies recognizing the yeast Pfk1 α and β subunits (1:10000, kindly provided by Dr. J. Heinisch). Phosphoanalysis of HA-tagged Elongator subunit 1 (Elp1) involved 6% SDS-PAGE, anti-HA Western blots and electrophoretic mobility shift assays as described (Jablonowski et al., 2004). Cell fractionation utilized a previous protocol (Kölling et al., 1994) and parallel Western blot analysis with antibodies specific for Pfk1 and Elp3 (see above) and Nop1 (1:2000, kindly provided by Dr J. Aris). Antibody cross-linking to protein A-Sepharose, preparation of protein exracts, coimmunprecipitation studies and tandem affinity purification (TAP) were performed as described previously (Rigaut et al., 1999).

RESULTS

Characterisation of hrr25 mutants. Consistent with the notion that the HRR25 (KTI14) gene confers zymocin sensitivity, hrr25-3 (kti14-1) or hrr25-4 (kti14-2) mutations that were predicted to result in N-terminal or C- terminal changes in the Hrr25-3 or Hrr25-4 proteins (Fig. 1A) cause zymocin resistance (Mehlgarten and Schaffrath, 2003). His₆-tagged versions of wildtype Hrr25 kinase and the mutated Hrr25-3 and Hrr25-4 proteins were purified from E. coli in order to quantify their kinase activities in a coupled enzyme assay recording CKIdependent ATP consumption or by monitoring casein phosphorylation directly using $[\gamma$ -³²P]ATP (Fig. 1B). In either assay, Hrr25-3 had no detectable kinase activity and Hrr25-4 showed ~3-fold reduced activity compared to Hrr25 (Fig. 1B), so Hrr25-4 has a significant kinase deficit and Hrr25-3 is kinase-dead in vitro. The two alleles are associated with different hrr25 phenotypes in vivo. Unlike hrr25-4, the hrr25-3 mutant was sensitive to caffeine and 38°C (Fig. 1C), traits typical of Elongator mutant $elp3\Delta$ (Fig. 1C). Also, morphological irregularities such as elongated cells/buds were specific to hrr25-3 cells (Fig. 1D). Based on hypersensitivity (hrr25-3) and tolerance (hrr25-4) to MMS (Fig. 1C), this split phenotype implies that unlike Hrr25-4, the kinase-dead form Hrr25-3 kinase is unable to support growth and DNA repair in response to MMS. In sum, although hrr25-4 cells are less compromised than hrr25-3 cells, their kinase defects trigger zymocin resistance, a trait typical

of inactive Elongator (Frohloff et al., 2001) and suggesting that phosphorylation by the Hrr25 kinase is linked to Elongator's function in tRNA modification.

Fig. 1

Hrr25•Elongator interaction requires holo-Elongator and Kti12. Although TAP affinity purification (TAP) has shown Elongator to copurify with Hrr25-TAP (Schäfer et al., 2003, 2006), the TAP-tag used apparently affects Hrr25 function and copies zymocin resistance of the *hrr25* mutants (Fig. S1A). Given that N-terminal tags support zymocin sensitivity (Fig. S1A), we therefore resorted to *TAP-* or *HA-HRR25* strains for further analyses. Similar to the a pattern of HA-tagged Hrr25^{Deg} (Kafadar et al., 2003), Western blots revealed that *HA-HRR25* and *HA-hrr25-3* cells expressed two HA-responsive bands (Fig. 2A, lane 2 and 3) and implying that full-length Hrr25 may be subject to proteolysis or modification. As predicted from the deletion/mutation of the P/Q-rich domain (Fig. 1A), *HA-hrr25-4* cells produced a single protein of smaller size (Fig. 2A, lane 4) which in cell fractionations distributed in a more widespread fashion than Hrr25 and Hrr25-3 (Fig. S1B). So, the P/Q-rich motif which is missing from Hrr25-4 were able to imune precipitate Elp1 (Fig. 2A, lane 3 and 4) and Elp3 (not shown) like wildtype Hrr25 (Fig. 2A, lane 2), meaning that Elongator association is independent of the Hrr25 kinase activity or its P/Q-rich motif.

Studying Hrr25•Elongator interaction further, we found that while it was clearly present in the wildtype control (Fig. 2B, lane 2), precipitation of Elp1 (Fig. 2B, lanes 3-6) and Elp3 (not shown) by Hrr25 was absent in Elongator (*elp1* Δ , *elp3* Δ , *elp5* Δ) and *kti12* Δ mutants and largely suppressed in multi-copy *KTI12* cells (Fig. 2B, lane 7). Therefore, Hrr25•Elongator interaction not only requires an intact Elongator complex but also depends on Kti12. Our finding that Hrr25•Elongator interaction appears to be sensitive to *KTI12* dosage is intriguing since Kti12 itself partners with the Elongator complex and excess levels of Kti12 suppress zymocin toxicity (Frohloff et al., 2001; Fichtner et al., 2002).

Fig. 2 & Fig. S1

Hrr25 interacts with Elongator partner Kti12. To study potential Hrr25•Kti12 interaction *in vivo*, we used immune precipitation combined with the TAP technique (Rigaut et al., 1999). Following isolation of TAP-tagged Hrr25 from cells coexpressing *KTI12-c-myc*, Western blots with anti-c-Myc antibodies revealed copurification of a protein corresponding to c-Myc-tagged Kti12 that absent in purifications from cells lacking the TAP bait (Fig. 3A). In addition

to Hrr25•Elongator interaction (Fig. 2A), this suggests that Hrr25 also physically interacts with Kti12. To confirm that this was specific to Elongator, we performed immune precipitations on wildtype and Elongator-minus cells expressing *KT112-c-myc* and *HA-HRR25*. The corresponding Western blots confirmed Hrr25•Kti12 interaction in wildtype cells Fig. 3B, lane 3) and showed that the interaction was abolished in *elp1* Δ and *elp5* Δ mutants (Fig. 3B, lane 4 and 5). In summary, Hrr25 and Kti12 bind each other and their interaction requires a fully assembled Elongator complex. This is significant since Hrr25 and Kti12 both associate with Elongator; so our data raise the option that Kti12 bridges the contact between Hrr25 and Elongator.

Fig. 3

Hrr25-dependent phosphomodification of Elp1. Since Elp1 dephosphorylation requires the Sit4 phosphatase we examined if Elp1 phosphorylation showed dependence on the Hrr25 kinase using Western blots combined with electrophoretic mobility shift assays (Jablonowski et al., 2004). Fig. 4A shows anti-HA Western blots of Elp1-HA from wildtype, *hrr25-4* and *sit4*Δ cells before and after λ -phosphatase treatment. The wildtype maintained the previously described balance between putative hypo- and hyperphosphorylated Elp1 forms (Fig. 4A, lane 1). Treatment with λ -phosphatase caused an electrophoretic downshift of the slower migrating Elp1 form to the position of the faster migrating one, while the position of the latter was unchanged (Fig. 4A, lane 2). So clearly phosphorylation is responsible for the different electrophoretic behaviour of the two forms and we will refer to the slower and faster migrating species as hyper- and hypophosphorylated Elp1 forms, respectively. In contrast, *sit4*Δ mutants accumulated exclusively the hyperphosphorylated form of Elp1 (Fig. 4A, lane 5), dephosphorylation of which by λ -phosphatase for 60 or 90 minutes caused a shift to the hypophosphorylated Elp1 species (Fig. 4A, lane 6 and 7).

Markedly, *hrr25-4* cells accumulated hypophosphorylated forms of Elp1 that were insensitive to λ -phosphatase (Fig. 4A, lanes 3 and 4). Elp1 hypophosphorylation was also observed in the kinase-dead *hrr25-3* mutant (Fig. 4B) stressing that the kinase activity of Hrr25 is required to modulate Elp1 phosphorylation states. In line with a link between the *hrr25* kinase defects and their associated zymocin resistance, transformation of *hrr25-3* and *hrr25-4* cells with a wildtype copy of the *HRR25* gene restored Elp1 phosphorylation and zymocin sensitivity (Fig. 4B). In summary, *hrr25* mutants cause Elp1 hypophosphorylation, a defect that is opposite to Elp1 hyperphosphorylation seen in *sit4* Δ cells, but which like the latter is also associates with zymocin resistance.
Fig. 4

Elongator roles in tRNA modification depend on normal Elp1 phosphoregulation. Our findings that opposite Elp1 phosphodefects are both associate with zymocin resistance and inactivate Elongator function suggest that Elp1 phosphorylation does not simply operate as an Elongator on/off switch. Therefore, we analysed the requirement of Hrr25 and Sit4 for Elongator's function in tRNA modification. Since the latter has been shown to promote nonsense suppression, we monitored ade2-101 ochre read-through by the Elongatordependent tRNA suppressor SUP4 (Huang et al., 2005; Jablonowski et al., 2006; Shaw et al., 1984). hrr25-4, sit4 Δ and elp1 Δ mutants were all found to abolish SUP4 read-through yielding colony pigmentation and adenine auxotrophy typical of non-suppressed ade2-101 cells (Fig. S2). Similarly, suppression of the can1-100 ochre mutation by SUP4, which allows the arginine analog canavanine to kill yeast, was abolished in hrr25-4, sit4 Δ and elp1 Δ mutants causing canavanine resistance (Fig. 5). Intriguingly, this trait was also observed with a sap185 Δ 190 Δ mutant (Fig. 5) which lacks Sap185 and Sap190, Sit4 effectors required for Sit4-dependent Elp1 dephosphorylation (Jablonowski et al., 2004). So, phosphomodification of Elp1 by Hrr25 kinase as well as Sit4•Sap185 and Sit4•190 phosphatase activities promote nonsense suppression by SUP4. Consistently, removal of Sap4 and Sap155, Sit4 subunits dispensable for Elp1 dephosphorylation (Jablonowski et al., 2004), did not affect tRNA suppression in the sap $4\Delta 155\Delta$ mutant (Fig. 5). To sum up, Elp1 phosphoregulation via Hrr25 and Sit4 is critical for Elongator's role in tRNA-related processes and neither hypo- nor hyperphosphorylated Elp1 forms support this Elongator function on their own.

Fig. 5 & Fig. S2

Interactions between Hrr25 and Sit4. To further analyse interrelations between Hrr25 and Sit4, we wished to combine *sit4* Δ null-alleles with *hrr25* mutations. However, *hrr25* parent strains were found to have *ssd1-d* status (Fig. S3) meaning that they were not expected to survive in the absence of Sit4 because *ssd1-d* alleles of the gene *SSD1* (suppressor of *SIT4* deletion) do not tolerate *SIT4* deletions while *SSD1-v* alleles do (Sutton et al., 1991). So we constructed a conditional *GAL-HA-SIT4* allele to allow the effect of Sit4 depletion on glucose to be examined in *hrr25* mutants. Surprisingly, compared to the starting *hrr25-3* mutant, viability of *GAL-HA-SIT4 hrr25-3* cells was hardly affected on glucose (Fig. 6A). This is in contrast to the synthetic lethality predicted from combining an *ssd1-d* allele with Sit4 depletion (Sutton et al., 1991) and is particularly notable since lack of Sit4 expression (Fig.

6B) on glucose suppressed zymocin resistance and restored zymocin sensitivity in the *hrr25-3* background (Fig. 6A).

Prompted by this lack of synthetic lethality, we generated a chromosomal SIT4 disruption in the hrr25-3 mutant expressing ELP1-HA. Again Sit4 removal sustained viability and suppressed zymocin resistance in the resulting hrr25-3sit4 Δ double mutant (Fig. 6C). Comparison of Elp1 phosphorylation states by mobility shift assays revealed that in contrast to the Elp1 phosphodefect of the original hrr25-3 mutant, the hrr25-3sit4 Δ double mutant displayed a wildtype-like Elp1 phosphorylation pattern with roughly equivalent levels of the two Elp1 forms (Fig. 6D). This shows that Elp1 hypophosphorylation, a defect typical of hrr25 mutants, can be neutralized by concomitant Sit4 inactivation. Consistent with this, multi-copy SAP155, which reduces Sit4•Sap185 and Sit4•190 phosphatase activities (Jablonowski et al., 2004), was found to suppress the zymocin resistance of hrr25 mutants and this multi-copy SAP155 effect largely compared to suppression by Sit4 depletion (Fig. S4). In sum, loss of Sit4 function is tolerated independently of SSD1-v in hrr25-3 cells and suppresses their defects in Elp1 phosphorylation states. In line with this genetic interrelation, an Hrr25•Sit4 interaction has been described (Ho et al., 2002). We have confirmed this interaction and found that the Sit4 effector and partner protein Sap185 specifically required for the physical contact between Hrr25 and Sit4 (Fig. S5).

Fig. 6 & Fig. S3-S5

Hrr25 influences Kti12 and Elongator properties. As for the significance of phosphorylation for Elongator function, individual Elongator sunbunit interactions remained intact in the *hrr25-4* mutant (Fig. S6), as is also the case in the *kti12* Δ and *sit4* Δ mutants with opposite Elp1 phosphodefects (Jablonowski et al. 2004). This suggests that Elp1 phosphorylation affects properties of a fully assembled Elongator complex. We therefore, we tested if the *hrr25-4* defect may interfere with the interaction between Elongator and its partner Kti12. Immune precipitation revealed that compared to the *HRR25* control, the fraction of Kti12 (HA-tagged) which associated with Elp1 or Elp5 (both c-Myc-tagged) was significantly enhanced in the *hrr25-4* mutant (Fig. 7A). Based on equal amounts of Elp1 and Elp5 and unaltered Kti12 levels in the cell extracts prior to precipitation (Fig. 7A), the enhanced binding of Kti12 to Elongator appears to be linked to the *hrr25-4* mutanton.

Whether increased levels of Elongator-bound Kti12 influence Elongator function is not known. However, excess levels of Kti12 are known to affect Elp1 phosphorylation states and zymocin action in multi-copy *KTI12* cells (Frohloff et al., 2001; Jablonowksi et al., 2004).

Intriguingly, immune precipitation experiments revealed that despite Kti12 overexpression, the amount of Elongator-bound Kti12 appeared to be unaffected in multi-copy *KTI12* cells (Fig. S7). So the *KTI12* dosage effect is clearly distinct from the effect of the *hrr25-4* allele, a notion consistent with opposite Elp1 phosphorylation defects in multi-copy *KTI12* and *hrr25-4* cells (Jablonowski et al., 2004). Further studies into Elp1 phosphomodulation via Hrr25 and Kti12 revealed that based on mobility shift assays, Elp1 hyperphosphorylation typical of multi-copy *KTI12* cells was eliminated by the kinase-dead *hrr25-3* mutation (Fig. 7B). This indicates that the multi-copy *KTI12* effect on Elp1 phosphorylation depends on the kinase activity of Hrr25 and explains why the zymocin resistance of the *hrr25-3* mutant remained insensitive to *KTI12* dosage (Fig. 7B). To conclude, Hrr25 is likely to act upstream of Kti12 and to enable Kti12 to modulate Elp1 phosphorylation states.

Fig. 7 & Fig. S6-S7

DISCUSSION

HRR25 mutations reveal phenotypes both distinct from and similar to Elongator defects. Although Elp1 phosphomodification involves phosphatase Sit4 (Jablonowski et al., 2004), its significance and underlying Elp1 kinase (ELK) activity have been elusive. We suspected that Elp1 phosphorylation may require casein kinase I isoform Hrr25 because hrr25, elp and sit4 mutants all survive zymocin, a lethal tRNase whose ability to cleave tRNAs depends on Elongator's role in tRNA modification (Lu et al., 2005; Jablonowski et al. 2006; Jablonowski and Schaffrath, 2007). The hrr25 mutants studied here are either kinase-dead (hrr25-3) or have reduced (*hrr25-4*) kinase activities. Despite partial kinase activity towards casein, Hrr25-4 like Hrr25-3 fails to support zymocin toxicity or Elp1 phosphorylation states in vivo. This stresses the importance of Hrr25 phosphorylation for zymocin action and Elongator activity. Intriguingly, while kinase-dead hrr25-3 cells are sensitive to the DNA damage reagent MMS (Ho et al., 1997), hrr25-4 cells are not and their ability to grow under other stress conditions further distinguishes hrr25-4 from hrr25-3 and Elongator mutants. Together with zymocin and MMS sensitivity of a mutant lacking the Hrr25 substrate Swi6, which is required for DNA repair (Ho et al., 1997; Mehlgarten and Schaffrath, 2003), the role for Hrr25 in DNA repair is independent of Elongator. So, hrr25 defects identify Elongatorindependent and -dependent Hrr25 functions and control of Elongator's action in zymocin toxicity by Hrr25 is an example of the latter.

Hrr25 interacts with Elongator in a Kti12-dependent fashion. Our findings that wildtype Hrr25 and the mutated proteins Hrr25-3 and Hrr25-4 associate with Elp1 and Elp3 show that Elongator interaction does not require the kinase activity or the P/Q-rich motif of Hrr25. However, the interaction depends on Elongator partner Kti12 and a holo-Elongator complex suggesting that Hrr25 operates in zymocin sensitivity when actually associated with Kti12 and the Elongator complex. In support of this, Kti12 removal ($kti12\Delta$) and Hrr25 inactivation (hrr25-3) trigger Elp1 hypophosphorylation (Jablonowski et al., 2004). Moreover, based on the findings that Kti12 and Hrr25 interact with each other and with the Elongator complex and importantly, that excess Kti12 suppresses Hrr25•Elongator interaction, the Hrr25 kinase appears to be bridged to Elongator via an Elongator-bound Kti12. So, we propose that Kti12 promotes Hrr25•Elongator interaction and that both proteins (Hrr25 and Kti12) regulate Elp1 phosphorylation states. Consistently, excess Kti12 levels in multi-copy KTI12 cells block Hrr25•Elongator interaction, suppress zymocin toxicity and trigger Elp1 hyperphosphorylation (Frohloff et al., 2001; Jablonowski et al., 2004). Intriguingly, with the latter Elp1 phosphodefect being eliminated in the kinase-dead hrr25-3 mutant, the ability of excess Kti12 to alter Elp1 phosphorylation states depends on the kinase activity of Hrr25. This suggests that Hrr25 is likely to operate upstream of Kti12.

Antagonism between Hrr25 and Sit4. In spite of carrying *ssd1-d*, a condition usually synthetically lethal with *sit4* Δ null-alleles (Sutton et al., 1991), *hrr25* mutants survive *SIT4* deletions. Conversely, Sit4 removal from *hrr25-3* mutants reverses their zymocin resistance and restores a wildtype-like balance between hyper- and hypophosphorylated Elp1 forms. The reappearance of Elp1 phosphoforms in the kinase-dead *hrr25-3sit4* Δ double mutant implies that Hrr25 is unlikely to qualify as an ELK or an ELK activating kinase. To explain the opposing effects of Hrr25 and Sit4 on Elp1 phosphorylation states and their dependence on Kti12 and Sap185/190, we propose two scenarios in which Hrr25 operates upstream of Kti12 (see above). In the first, Kti12 may directly phosphorylate Elp1 as an ELK. In support of this, Kti12 is similar to the tRNA-dependent archaeal kinase PSTK (Sherrer et al. 2008) and Kti12 removal (*kti12* Δ) triggers Elp1 hypophosphorylation typical of a *sit4* Δ kt*i12* Δ double mutant (Jablonowski et al. 2004) and demonstrating that hyperphosphorylated Elp1 forms can be found in the absence of Kti12. So, Kti12 is unlikely to have ELK activity.

In the second scenario, Hrr25 and Kti12 are proposed to control Sit4 and affect Elp1 phosphorylation states indirectly by countering Elp1 dephosphorylation. In favor of such

inhibition, Hrr25 not only partners with Kti12 and Elongator but also interacts with Sit4 in a manner dependent on the Sit4 effector Sap185, which in concert with Sap190 promotes Elp1 dephosphorylation (Ho et al., 2002; Jablonowski et al., 2004). Also, Elp1 phosphorylation states are particularly sensitive to *KTI12* dosage, with *hrr25*-like hypo- and *sit4* Δ -like hyperphosphorylation of Elp1 seen in *kti12* Δ and multi-copy *KTI12* cells, respectively (Jablonowski et al., 2004). Strikingly, the multi-copy *KTI12* effect is antagonised by *SIT4* overexpression (Jablonowski et al., 2004) suggesting that upregulated Sit4 phosphatase activity bypasses the negative Kti12 effect. In line with the dependence of Kti12 inhibition on Hrr25, Elp1 hyperphosphorylation due to multi-copy *KTI12* is eleiminated by the kinase-dead *hrr25-3* mutant. So, Kti12 is likely to be downstream of Hrr25 and it will be crucial to identify if phosphorylation by the Hrr25 kinase targets Kti12 itself or other Elongator factors (including Elongator subunits other than Elp1).

Provided the second scenario held true and Sit4 was kept in check by Hrr25, reducing the activity of the Sit4•Sap185 and Sit4•Sap190 phosphatases ought to make up for defects in *hrr25* kinase mutants. This is a prediction confirmed by our suppression data involving *hrr25- 3* cells that carry a *SIT4* deletion, conditionally express *GAL-SIT4* or maintain high-copy *SAP155*. All these conditions, which remove Sit4 activity or suppress Sit4•Sap185 and Sit4•Sap190 phosphatase formation via excess Sap155 levels (Luke et al., 1996; Jablonowski et al., 2004), restore wildtype-like Elp1 phosphorylation states and zymocin sensitivity. This strongly suggests that the Elp1 phosphorylation. We therefore favour this model and consider it likely that Hrr25 negatively regulates Sit4 and thus Elp1 dephosphorylation.

Elp1 phosphorylation defects interfere with Elongator and Kti12 functions. Opposite Elp1 phosphorylation defects in the *hrr25* and *sit4* Δ mutants are both associated with zymocin resistance. This is a trait typical of Elongator defects and suggests that rather than switching Elongator on or off, reversible Elp1 phosphorylation may dynamically affect Elongator functions. Despite controversially discussed functional roles for Elongator (Svejstrup, 2007), its primary function appears to be in tRNA modification (Esberg et al., 2006) which facilitates mRNA decoding by tRNAs, promotes tRNA cleavage by zymocin and enables tRNA suppression of *non-/missense* mutations (Huang et al., 2005; Lu et al., 2005; Esberg et al., 2006; Jablonowski et al., 2006). Consistent with the latter, abolished *ochre* read-through by *SUP4* in *hrr25*, *sit4* Δ , *elp1* Δ and *sap185* Δ *190* Δ mutants shows that Elp1 phosphomodulation by Hrr25 and Sit4 is important for tRNA processes including tRNA suppression (Huang et al., 2005; Jablonowski et al., 2006). This entirely agrees with recent data showing that hrr25, sit4 Δ and sap185 Δ 190 Δ mutants copy tRNA modification defects typical of Elongator mutants and that these defects help to protect against tRNA cleavage by zymocin (Huang et al., 2005, 2008). Although our data suggest antagonism between Hrr25 and Sit4, future studies will have to determine the precise mechanism by which Hrr25 modulates Elp1 phosphorylation states and the functional significance of Elp1 phosphorylation. Our data imply that Elp1 hyphosphorylation due to a Hrr25 kinase defect alters the ability of Elongator to interact with Kti12, whose homolog DRL1 is a candidate Elongator regulator in plants (Nelissen et al., 2003, 2005). With the ability of Kti12 to bind Elongator affecting Elongator functions (Fichtner et al., 2002; Jablonowski et al., 2004; Petrakis et al., 2005), reversible Elp1 phosphorylation may therefore provide a means to control dynamic Kti12•Elongator association/dissociation and to regulate Elongator. Alternatively, Elp1 phosphorylation may modulate the acetylase activity of Elongator and control substrate modification (Gardiner et al., 2007). By analogy, differential and compartmentalised substrate protein deacetylation by the SirT2 deacetylase has been shown to involve phosphoregulation (Vaquero et al., 2006). In summary, the correct balance between hypo- and hyperphosphorylated Elp1 forms is critical for Elongator activity and Elongator loss of function associated with the presence of exclusively one or the other Elp1 species implies that Elongator regulation involves dynamic dephosphorylation and phosphorylation cycles. So rather than being constitutive, Elongator functions are likely to be conditionally regulated in response to signal transduction and phosphorylation.

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Table S1. Yeast strains

Strain	Description	Source/reference
K. lactis:		
AWJ137	<i>MAT</i> α <i>leu2 trp1</i> [k1 ⁺ k2 ⁺] killer and zymocin producer	K.D. Breunig
S. cerevisiae:		
LL20	MAT a leu2-3, 112 his3-11, 15	Butler et al. (1994)
FFY3	LL20 but $elp3\Delta$::LEU2 ura3	Frohloff et al. (2001)
CMY32	LL20 but HIS3-GAL1p-HA-HRR25	This study
CMY52	LL20 but KTI12-HA-KAN	This study
CMY144	LL20 but HIS3-GAL1p-HA-HRR25 elp1 ::LEU2	This study
CMY146	LL20 but HIS3-GAL1p-HA-HRR25 elp3Δ::LEU2	This study
CMY147	LL20 but HIS3-GAL1p-HA-HRR25 kti12 A:: LEU2	This study
CMY148	LL20 but <i>HIS3-GAL1</i> p- <i>HA-HRR25 elp5∆::LEU2</i>	This study
CMY150	LL20 but HIS3-GAL1p-HA-HRR25 KTI12-c-myc-KAN	This study
CMY151	CMY150 but $elp1\Delta$::LEU2	This study
CMY152	СМҮ150 but <i>elp5Δ</i> :: <i>LEU</i> 2	This study
CMY35	LL20 but HIS3-GAL1p-HA-SIT4 ura3	This study
CMY114	LL20 but SAP155-HA-HIS3	This study
CMY115	LL20 but SAP185-HA-HIS3	This study
CMY116	LL20 but <i>sap190Δ</i> :: <i>HIS3</i>	This study
DJY201	LL20 but $sit4\Delta$::HIS3 + pSSD1-v ura3	This study
ARB97	LL20 but hrr25-3/kti14-1	Butler et al. (1994)
CMY25	LL20 but ELP1-HA-HIS3 ura3	This study
CMY33	LL20 but hrr25-3 HIS3-GAL1p-HA-hrr25-3	This study; from ARB97
CMY28	LL20 but hrr25-3 ELP1-HA-HIS3	This study; from ARB97
CMY70	LL20 but hrr25-3 ELP1-HA-HIS3 sit4 A:: LEU2	This study; from ARB97
CMY36	LL20 but hrr25-3 HIS3-GAL1p-HA-SIT4	This study; from ARB97
KY117	MATa ura3-52 trp1- Δ 1 lys2-801 ^{am} ade2-101 his3 Δ 200	Butler et al. (1994)

CMY7	KY117 but ELP1-HA-TRP1	This study
CMY99	KY117 but $elp1\Delta$::URA3	This study
DJY202	KY117 but <i>sit4</i> Δ :: <i>HIS3</i>	This study
ARBK106	KY117 but <i>hrr25-4/kti14-2</i>	Butler et al. (1994)
CMY6	KY117 but hrr25-4 ELP1-HA-TRP1	This study
CMY34	KY117 but HIS3-GAL1p-HA-hrr25-4	This study; from ARBK106
FY1679- 08A	MATa ura3-52 leu $2\Delta 1$ trp $1\Delta 63$ his $3\Delta 200$ GAL SSD 1 -v	Euroscarf, Frankfurt
CMY3	8a but TRP1-GAL1p-TAP-HRR25	This study
CMY138	8a but TRP1-GAL1p-TAP-HRR25 KT112-c-myc-HIS3	This study
FFY4t-a	8a but <i>KTI12-c-myc-HIS3</i>	Fichtner et al. (2002)
CY4029	W303-1a but <i>SSD1-v1</i>	Luke et al. (1996)
DJY102	W303-1a but SSD1-v1 ELP1-HA-TRP1	Jablonowski et al. (2004)
DJY103	W303-1a but SSD1-v1 ELP1-HA-TRP1 sit4∆::HIS3	Jablonowski et al. (2004)
CY4917	W303-1a but <i>SSD1-v1 sap185</i> ∆:: <i>ADE2 SSD1-v1</i>	K. Arndt
CY4380	W303-1a but <i>SSD1-v1 sap190</i> ∆:: <i>TRP1 SSD1-v1</i>	K. Arndt
CY5224	W303-1a but <i>SSD1-v1 sap185</i> ∆:: <i>ADE2 sap190</i> ∆:: <i>TRP1</i>	M.J.R. Stark
CY3938	W303-1a but <i>SSD1-v1 sit4</i> ∆:: <i>HIS3</i>	Luke et al. (1996)
CY5220	W303-1a but $SSD1-v1 \ sap4\Delta::LEU2 \ sap155\Delta::HIS3$	Luke et al. (1996)
AY925	W303-1a (ssd1-d)	K. Arndt
DJY200	W303-1a but $sit4\Delta$::HIS3 + pSSD1-v (CEN URA3 SSD1-v)	This study; from AY925
W303-1a	MATa ade2-1 his3-11, 15 leu2-3, 112 trp1-1 ura3-1 can1-100	Lab Stock
UMY2893	W303-1a but <i>MAT</i> α <i>SUP4</i>	A. Byström
UMY2912	W303-1a but <i>elp1Δ::KAN</i>	A. Byström; from UMY2893
CMY81	W303-1a but <i>HIS3-GAL1</i> p- <i>HA-HRR25</i> + pCM16.2 (<i>hrr25-4</i>)	This study; from UMY2893
YSC1178- 7503156	$MATa his 3\Delta 1 \ leu 2\Delta 0 \ met 15\Delta 0 \ ura 3\Delta 0, \ HRR 25-TAP-HIS 3$	Open Biosystems

FIGURES AND LEGENDS



Fig. 1. *In vivo* and *in vitro* studies on mutated forms of Hrr25. (A) Diagram of the *HRR25/KT114* gene product highlighting its N-terminal kinase domain (CKI homology), its C-terminal P/Q-rich region and locations of the *hrr25-3* and *hrr25-4* mutations (*). (**B**) Hrr25 *in vitro* kinase assays. Equal amounts of recombinant, His₆-tagged proteins Hrr25, Hrr25-3 or Hrr25-4 were subjected to *in vitro* kinase assays based on direct incorporation of ³²P radiolabel into casein using Cerenkov counting (grey bars) or indirect enzyme-coupled assays measuring ATP consumption (black bars). For details, see materials and methods. (**C**) Stress-induced growth defects. Together with Elongator mutant *elp3*Δ (FFY3), *hrr25-3* (ARB97) and *hrr25-4* (ARBK106) mutants as well as their parent strains (LL20 and KY117, respectively) were cultivated at 30°C (control), 38°C or at 30°C in the presence of 0.02% MMS. (**D**) Morphological irregularities. The indicated strains were grown exponentially and subjected to light microscopy. Arrows denote the elongated morphology of cells and buds specific to the *hrr25-3* (ARB97) mutant.



Fig. 2. Interaction between Hrr25 and Elongator. (A) Immune precipitates (IP) of strains expressing *HA-HRR25* (CMY32), *HA-hrr25-3* (CMY33), *HA-hrr25-4* (CMY34), *KT112-HA* (CMY52) and no epitope (LL20) were probed with anti-HA antibody to detect HA-tagged proteins (top panel) and with anti-Elp1 antibody to detect Elp1 (middle panel). Their positions are indicated by arrows. Protein extracts from cells expressing HA-tagged Kti12 or no HA-tag served as controls. The asterisk (middle panel) denotes an N-terminally truncated form of Elp1 (Fichtner et al., 2003). Coomassie staining of inputs prior to IP (pre-IP) served as loading control (bottom panel). (B) Protein extracts from cells expressing HA-tagged Hrr25 in *elp1*Δ, *elp3*Δ, *elp5*Δ, *kti12*Δ and multi-copy *KTI12* backgrounds (CMY144, CMY146-148, LS20 + pDJ41) and a negative control (no epitope) were immune precipitated using anti-HA antibody and analysed by Western blotting with anti-HA (top panel) and anti-Elp1 antibodies (middle panel). Total protein extracts prior to IP (pre-IP) (bottom panel). Total protein extracts prior to IP (pre-IP) (bottom panel) and blotted with the Elp1 antibody served as a loading control.



Fig. 3. Hrr25 interacts with Elongator partner Kti12 (A) TAP reveals physical interaction between Hrr25 and Kti12. Protein extracts from cells expressing *GAL-TAP-HRR25* together with *KT112-c-myc* (CMY138) were subjected to TAP. Western analysis of the TAP eluates were probed with anti-rabbit (top panel) or anti-c-Myc antibodies (bottom panel) to detect TAP-tagged Hrr25 and c-Myc-marked Kti12, respectively (indicated by arrows). Protein extracts from cells expressing only Kti12-c-Myc (FFY4t-a) served as a negative control. (**B**) Hrr25•Kti12 interaction depends on an intact Elongator complex. Protein extracts from cells coexpressing c-Myc-tagged Kti12 and HA-tagged Hrr25 in *elp1* Δ (CMY151), *elp5* Δ (CMY152) and wildtype (wt) cells (CMY150) were immune precipitated (IP) using anti-c-Myc antibody. The immune precipitates were probed with anti-c-Myc (top panel) or anti-HA antibodies (middle panel) to detect Kti12 or Hrr25, respectively (arrows). Protein extracts from wildtype cells (LL20) expressing HA-Hrr25 (CMY32) only or lacking both tags served controls. Protein loading controls involved an anti-HA Western blot on total extracts prior to IP (pre-IP: bottom panel).



Fig. 4. Hrr25 and Sit4 antagonistically control Elp1 phosphorylation states. (A) Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA) reveal Elp1 phosphorylation states that are distinguishable by their sensitivity to λ -phosphatase treatment *in vitro*. Expression of HAtagged Elp1 in the indicated strains (DJY102, CMY6 and DJY103) was detected in Western blots using anti-HA antibodies. To monitor the effect of dephosphorylation on Elp1 mobility, Elp1-HA (bound to protein A-Sepharose-coupled anti-HA antibodies) was treated with λ phosphatase for the indicated times. EMSA analysis (Jablonowski et al. 2004) revealed the presence of slower and faster migrating Elp1 forms, the former of which (indicated by (\mathbf{P}) for hyperphosphorylated) displayed sensitivity to dephosphorylation by λ -phosphatase. The faster migrating and hypophosphorylated form of Elp1 resisted λ -phosphatase. (B) hrr25 mutants induce Elp1 hypophosphorylation. Protein extracts from hrr25-3 (CMY28), hrr25-4 (CMY6) and wildtype HRR25 (left panel: CMY25; right panel: CMY7) strains expressing HA-tagged Elp1 were subjected to EMSA (see A) to monitor Elp1 phosphorylation states (top panel). Note that while the hrr25 mutants exclusively accumulate hypophosphorylated Elp1 form, Elp1 produced from the HRR25 wildtype and hrr25 mutants carrying a wildtype HRR25 gene (pHRR25) separates into both Elp1 species. Western blots with the anti-Pfk1 antibody (middle panel) which recognises the α and β subunits of phosphofructokinase (indicated by arrows) were used as protein loading controls. Zymocin responses (bottom panel) used colony bioassays. Eclipses formed by S. cerevisiae tester strains around a K. lactis zymocin producer (killer) indicate sensitivity (S), no eclipses denote resistance (R) to zymocin.



Fig. 5. *can1-100 ochre* read-through by *SUP4* requires Hrr25, Sit4 and Elongator. *SUP4* transformants generated in the *can1-100 ochre* background of wildtype (wt) strain W303 (UMY2893) or *sap4* Δ *155* Δ (CY5220), *sap185* Δ *190* Δ (CY5224), *sit4* Δ (CY3938), *hrr25-4* (CMY81) and *elp1* Δ (UMY2912) mutants were assayed for *nonsense* suppression on canavanine containing medium lacking arginine (bottom panel). Control growth was on synthetic complete medium (top panel). Note that *can1-100* read-through by the *SUP4* suppressor (which yields functional Can1 permease) confers sensitivity (can^S) to the cytotoxic effects of canavanine while abolished *SUP4* suppression triggers resistance (can^R).



Fig. 6. Genetic interactions between HRR25 and SIT4. (A) Sit4 depletion restores zymocin sensitivity to hrr25 cells. As indicated, the growth assays involved the HRR25 parental strain (LL20), starting mutant hrr25-3 SIT4 (ARB97) and the hrr25-3 GAL1-HA-SIT4 integrant (CMY36) under glucose (glc) repressing and galactose (gal) inducing conditions in the absence (-zymo) or presence (+zymo) of zymocin (55% (v/v)). Zymocin resistant (R) and sensitive (S) responses are indicated. (B) Conditional expression of HA-Sit4 in the hrr25 GAL-HA-SIT4 integrants (CMY36: hrr25-3, CMY37: hrr25-4). Total extracts obtained under repressing (glc) and inducing (gal) conditions were subjected to anti-HA Western blots to monitor Sit4 expression. Anti-Pfk1 immune blots to detect Pfk1 α and β subunits served as protein loading controls. (C) Sit4 removal suppresses zymocin resistance in the kinase-dead hrr25-3 mutant. Serial dilutions of the indicated strains were subjected to zymocin (55% (v/v)) plates; zymocin resistance (R) and sensitivity (S) are indicated. (D) Sit4 removal in the kinase-dead hrr25-3 background restores Elp1 phosphorylation states. Phosphoanalysis of Elp1 in the HRR25 (LL20), hrr25-3 (ARB97) and hrr25-3 sit4A (CMY70) strains was performed by EMSA (see Fig. 4). P denotes the hyperphosphorylated form of Elp1. Protein loading controls involved anti-Pfk1 Western blots (see B).



Fig. 7. Hrr25 affects Kti12•Elongator interaction and Elp1 phosphorylation in multicopy *KTI12* **cells.** (A) The *hrr25-4* defect increases Elongator affinity for Kti12. Immune precipitates from *HRR25* (CMY23; CMY19) and *hrr25-4* cells (CMY22; CMY18) expressing Kti12-HA together with c-Myc-tagged Elp1 and Elp5, respectively, were analysed by anti-c-Myc and anti-HA Western blots. Wildtype KY117 (no tag) and KY117 expressing just *KTI12*-HA (CMY11) served as control. In addition, extracts prior to IP were analysed for Kti12-HA content by anti-HA immune blots. Numbers refer to molecular markers in kDa. (**B**) Elp1 hyperphosphorylation triggered in multi-copy *KTI12* cells requires the kinase activity of Hrr25. Protein extracts from the indicated *ELP1-HA* expressing strains carrying *KTI12* in single or multi-copy (mc), were probed with anti-HA antibodies and assayed for Elp1 phosphorylation states using EMSA (see Fig. 4). Zymocin reponses were assayed using killer eclipse assays (see Fig. 4).



Fig. S1. (**A**) A C-terminal TAP-tag fusion of Hrr25 confers zymocin resistance and may therefore inactivate Hrr25, while N-terminal TAP- or HA-fusions support zymocin sensitivity. As indicated, wildtype *HRR25*, *HRR25-TAP* (Open Biosystems), *GAL1-TAP-HRR25* (CMY3) and *GAL1-HA-HRR25* (CMY32) cells were coinoculated with *K. lactis* zymocin producing strain AWJ137 (killer) on galactose media for 2 d at 30°C. Zymocin responses were studied by colony bioassays. Eclipses formed by *S. cerevisiae* tester strains around *K. lactis* colonies indicate sensitivity to zymocin (S), lack of eclipse formation denotes resistance (R). (**B**) Cell fractionation of HA-tagged Hrr25 variants in comparison to Nop1 and Elp3. Sucrose-gradient fractions (lanes 1 to 13) from strains *HA-HRR25*, *HA-hrr25-3* and *HA-hrr25-4* (CMY32, CMY33 and CMY34, respectively) were subjected to Western analysis using anti-Nop1, anti-Elp3 and anti-HA antibodies. The positions of Nop1, Elp3 and HA-tagged Hrr25 variants are indicated by arrows. Asterisks denote two distinct protein bands expressed from *HA-HRR25* (CMY32) and *HA-hrr25-3* (CMY33) cells.



Fig. S2. *ade2-101 ochre* **read-through by** *SUP4* **requires Elongator, Sit4 and Hrr25.** *SUP4* transformants generated in the *ade2-101 ochre* background of KY117 in were assayed for red/white colony pigmentation on YPD medium. Note that *ade2-101* read-through by the *SUP4* suppressor yields functional Ade2 and white colony pigmentation that associates with adenine prototrophy (Ade⁺) while abolished suppression of *ade2-101* triggers the red colony pigmentation typical of adenine auxotrophy (Ade⁻).



Fig. S3. *hrr25* mutations suppress *SIT4* deletion independently of *SSD1-v*. *SSD1-v* versus *ssd1-d* allelism in the *hrr25* mutants. *pSSD1-v* transformants of LL20 and KY117, the parent strains of *hrr25-3* and *hrr25-4* respectively, and of known *SSD1-v* (CY4029) or *ssd1-d* (AY925) strains were deleted for *SIT4* and assayed for zymocin responses using killer eclipse assays (see Fig. S2) (left panel). Following 5-FOA counter selection of the *URA3*-marked plasmid *pSSD1-v* (middle panel), the *SSD1-v* strain CY4029 carrying the *sit4*\Delta allele survived while all other *sit4*\Delta null-mutants ceased growth. This indicates *ssd1-d* status for LL20 and KY117 and hence for the *hrr25-3* and *hrr25-4* mutants. The right panel shows growth on control plates lacking 5-FOA. Zymocin resistance (R) and sensitivity (S) are indicated.



Fig. S4. Similar to Sit4 depletion multi-copy *SAP155* suppresses zymocin resistance in the *hrr25-3* mutant. The effect of multi-copy *SAP155* on zymocin phenotypes in *HRR25* wildtype and *hrr25-3* mutant cells was monitored by killer eclipse assays (A) and 50% (v/v) zymocin plate assays (B). In the latter, multi-copy *SAP155* was compared to empty vector controls (2 μ) and glucose-repression of a conditional *GAL-SIT4* allele. Zymocin resistance (R) and sensitivity (S) are indicated.



Fig. S5. Hrr25•Sit4 interaction depends on Sap185. Protein extracts from strains expressing *HA-HRR25* in wildtype (CMY32) or *sap185* Δ (CY4917), *sap190* Δ (CY4380) and *sap185* Δ 190 Δ (CY5224) mutants were immune precipitated using anti-HA antibodies. Western blots of the precipitates were probed with anti-HA (top panel), anti-Elp3 (second panel) or anti-Sit4 antibodies (third panel) to detect Hrr25, Elp3 or Sit4, respectively (arrows). Protein extracts from *sit4* Δ cells expressing Elp1-HA (DJY103) served as control. The anti-HA Western blot on protein extracts prior to IP (pre-IP) (bottom panel) served as a loading control.



Fig. S6. Elongator subunit interactions in correlation to the *HRR25* gene. A structurally intact Elongator complex is maintained in the *hrr25-4* mutant. Protein extracts obtained from the indicated yeast strains coexpressing Elp5-HA with c-Myc-tagged Elp1, Elp2 or Elp3 were immune precipitated (IP) by anti-c-Myc antibodies. Individual Elongator subunits in these precipitates were detected in subsequent immune blots using anti-c-Myc (Elp1, Elp2 or Elp3) or anti-HA (Elp5) antibodies. Numbering refers to kDa of molecular weight markers. The asterisk denotes a previously described Elp1 truncation variant (Fichtner et al., 2003).



Fig. S7. Increased *KTI12* **dosage hardly alters the affinity of Elongator for Kti12.** Yeast strain (CMY19) expressing *ELP5-c-myc* and *KTI12-HA* was transformed with vector control (2μ) or multi-copy plasmid pDJ20 (*KTI12-HA*). Extracts prior to IP were analysed by Western blots using anti-Cdc19 and anti-HA antibodies to detect loading control Cdc19 and to monitor Kti12 overexpression (top panel). Immune precipitation (IP) performed with anti-c-Myc antibodies (bottom panels) was immune probed subsequently with anti-HA and anti-c-Myc antibodies to detect Kti12 and Elp5, respectively.

2.2.1.1. Zusammenfassung der Ergebnisse

Im vorangegangenen Manuskript wurden die Mutanten *hrr25-3* (*kti14-1*) und *hrr25-4* (*kti14-2*) funktionell untersucht. *HRR25* codiert eine Caseinkinase I-Isoform in *S. cerevisiae*. Durch zwei verschiedene *in vitro* Kinaseassays konnte gezeigt werden, dass die *missense* Mutation E52D (*hrr25-3*) in der N-terminalen Kinasedomäne zu einem totalen Aktivitätsverlust führt, während die *nonsense* Mutation R394STOP (*hrr25-4*) eine Reduzierung der Kinaseaktivität auf ca. 1/3 der Wildtypaktivität bedingt. Während die *hrr25-4*-Mutante wildtypähnliche Phänotypen ausprägt, ähneln *hrr25-3*-Zellen den Elongatormutanten (*elp* Δ) und sind sensitiv gegenüber chemischem und thermischem Stress. Da beide Mutationen Resistenz gegenüber exogenem Zymocin und intrazellulär exprimiertem γ -Toxin vermitteln, sind eine intakte Kinasedomäne und der C-terminale Prolin-Glutamin-reiche Bereich wichtig für die Zymocinwirkung.

Hrr25 interagiert mit den Elongatoruntereinheiten Elp1, Elp2 und Elp3 und dem Sit4•Sap185bzw. Sit4•Sap190-Phosphatasekomplex. Die Hrr25•Sit4 Interaktion erfolgt in Abhängigkeit von Sap185. Die Hrr25•Elp1-Interaktion erfordert einen vollständig assemblierten Elongatorkomplex. Desweiteren konnte gezeigt werden, dass Hrr25 nur dann mit dem Elongator-Interaktor und putativen Regulator Kti12 interagiert, wenn der Elongator vollständig assembliert ist. Da Hrr25 in einer $kti12\Delta$ -Mutante nicht an den Elongator binden kann, könnte Kti12 den Kontakt zwischen Hrr25 und dem Elongator vermitteln.

Obwohl Elp1 mit Hrr25-3 und Hrr25-4 präzipitierbar ist, akkummuliert es in den Mutanten (hrr25-3 und hrr25-4) ausschliesslich in der hypophosphorylierten Form. Zymocinsensitive Wildtypzellen zeigen eine Balance zwischen hypo- und hyperphosphorylierter Elp1-Form. Mutationen in der Phosphatase Sit4 führen dagegen neben Zymocinresistenz zu einer Akkumulation der hyperphosphorylierten Elp1-Form. Somit scheinen in S. cerevisiae die Caseinkinase Hrr25 und die Phosphatase Sit4 antagonistisch die in Phosphorylierung/Dephosphorylierung der grössten Elongatoruntereinheit Elp1 involviert zu sein. Gegen eine direkte Phosphorylierung von Elp1 durch Hrr25 spricht, dass eine hrr25-3sit4A-Doppelmutante ein Gleichgewicht zwischen hypo- und hyperphosphorylierter Elp1-Form und Zymocinsensitivität zeigt. Wahrscheinlicher ist daher eine indirekte Kontrolle der Sit4-abhängigen Elp1-Dephosphorylierung durch Hrr25 im Zusammenspiel mit Kti12.

In tRNA-Suppressionsassays von hrr25-, $sit4\Delta$ -, $sap185\Delta sap190\Delta$ -Mutanten wurde deutlich, dass der Phosphorylierungsstatus des Elongators auch für seine Funktion innerhalb der tRNA-Modifikation von Bedeutung ist.

2.2.2. Manuskript 2 (zur Veröffentlichung in Eukaryotic Cell)

Conserved role of plant Elongator in tRNA

Constance Mehlgarten¹, Daniel Jablonowski^{1,2} Uta Wrackmeyer^{1,3}, David Sondermann¹, Gunilla Jäger⁵, Zhizhong Gong⁴, Anders S. Byström⁵, Karin D. Breunig^{1*} and Raffael Schaffrath^{1,2}

¹ Institut für Biologie, Genetik, Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg, Weinbergweg 10, D-06120 Halle (Saale), Germany

² Department of Genetics, University of Leicester, University Road, Leicester LE1 7RH, UK

³ Max-Delbrück Centrum für Molekulare Medizin, Berlin-Buch

⁴ State Key Laboratory of Plant Physiology and Biochemistry, College of Biological Sciences, China Agricultural University, Beijing 100094, People's Republic of China

⁵ Department of Molecular Biology, Umea University, 90187 Umea, Sweden

*Corresponding author

ABSTRACT

Genetic analysis of control of leaf growth in Arabidopsis thaliana has identified the ELONGATA (ELO) class of genes that encode three homologs of the Elongator complex. Elongator has previously been characterized in yeast and human and was implicated in functions as diverse as chromatin acetylation, polarized intracellular trafficking and tRNA modification. We have introduced cDNA clones encoding A. thaliana orthologues of the yeast Elongator subunits Elp1 and Elp3 into elp mutants of Saccharomyces cerevisiae to test for structural and functional conservation. Each of the plant subunits could replace the respective yeast polypeptide and support Elongator complex assembly and integrity suggesting a high degree of structural similarity. Using sensitivity assays to the Kluyveromyces lactis tRNAse ytoxin and tRNA nonsense suppression tests to monitor the Elongator dependent mcm⁵-U34 modification in the wobble position of tRNA anticodons we demonstrate functional complementation when both plant genes (AtELP1/ELO2 and AtELP3/ELO3) are coexpressed. By analyzing modified nucleosides in total tRNA of A. thaliana, we show that highly conserved AtELP3/ELO3 is required for ncm⁵- and mcm⁵s²-U34 modification in tRNAs Our results indicate equivalent biochemical activities of yeast and plant Elongator and conservation of the tRNA modification function of Elongator among lower and higher eukaryotes.

INTRODUCTION

Research in fields as disparate as genetic determination of leaf morphology (30,31) and drought resistance (7) in plants, neurodegeneration in familial disautonomia (FD) in humans (1,39), polarized exocytosis (36), function of a fungal toxin (14) and transcription elongation in yeast (32) has surprisingly converged on a conserved protein complex, termed Elongator. There is still considerable debate about primary and secondary functions of this complex. Initially, the yeast Elongator was identified as a protein complex associated with hyperphosphorylated RNA polymerase II (32,44,44). It has histone acetyltransferase (HAT) activity, can be detected in association with nascent RNA and results in hypoacetylated histone H3K14 *in vivo* suggesting a role in transcription elongation (16,25,26,42). In parallel, in a genetic screen for intracellular targets of a fungal toxin (*tot* mutants), a link to Elongator was discovered (14). The so-called "killer toxin" or "zymocin", a heterotrimeric protein complex secreted by the budding yeast *Kluyveromyces lactis*, mediates cell cycle arrest of

sensitive yeasts like *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (20). Zymocin resistant mutants fall into two classes, those that prevent uptake of the γ -subunit (γ -toxin) and those that prevent intracellular γ -toxin action (5). Loss-of-function mutations in each of the six genes encoding Elongators subunits (*ELP1* to *ELP6*) confer γ -toxin resistance indicating that structural integrity of the complex is required for toxicity. (14,15). Elongator consists of two heterotrimeric subcomplexes, the larger one being composed of Elp1/Tot1, Elp2/Tot2, Elp3/Tot3 and the smaller of Elp4/Tot7, Elp5/Tot5, Elp6/Tot6, respectively (15,34,43). Homologs of the six proteins apparently exist in all eukaryotes and in archaea indicating that this complex is of ancient origin. The Elp3 component containing the HAT domain is the most highly conserved Elongator subunit.

Biochemical characterisation of the human Elongator complex has been reported (8,39) and its composition resembles that of the yeast complex. Strikingly, a mutation causing exon 20 skipping in the RNA encoding IKAP or hELP1, the human homolog of yeast Elp1 (39) is associated with the neurodegenerative disease familial dysautonomia (FD). More than 99% of affected individuals carry this mutation, which essentially reduces hELP1 levels, predominantly in neurons. Downregulation of hELP components provided evidence for gene specific deficiencies in histone acetylation. Strikingly, genes related to cell motility are overrepresented among the affected genes (8). Together with multiple genetic interactions of *elp* mutations with RNA polymerase II and chromatin modifying complexes, the data were interpreted to support the role of Elongator in transcription (41).

However, doubt was raised by some recent findings in yeast that provided evidence for cytosolic and transcription-independent roles of Elongator (17,35,36). Rahl *et al.* (2005) had isolated an *elp1* null mutant as a suppressor of a secretion defect caused by the *sec2-59* allele encoding a Rab guanine nucleotide exchange factor. They proposed Elongator to negatively regulate polarized exocytosis in a fashion that is independent of transcription elongation. In an additional study focusing on tRNA modification in yeast, it was clearly shown that the Elongator is required for the modification of the uridine wobble position (U34) in the anticodon by the 5-methoxycarbonylmethyl (mcm⁵) group (17). Together with the finding that the γ -toxin subunit of zymocin functions as a tRNase that specifically cleaves mcm⁵-modified tRNAs, the latter study was a breakthorugh in the understanding of the link between Elongator and cytotoxicity of zymocin (28). The mutations *ktil1*, *ktil2* and *ktil3* (<u>k</u>iller toxin insensitive) could also be shown to affect tRNA modification via Elongator (17). Importantly, overexpression of two unmodified Elongator target RNAs suppressed the influence of *elp* muations on *sec2-59* suppression, on hypoaceylation of histones and on delayed gene

reprogramming (9) indicating that these phenotypes may be secondary effects resulting from tRNA modification defects and consequences of hypomodified tRNAs on translation.

Here we address the question if the function of Elongator in tRNA modification is conserved in plants. A homolog of KTI12 was identified in Arabidopsis thaliana through forward genetics and was designated after its phenotype, DEFORMED ROOTS AND LEAVES (DRL1) (29). drl1 mutant leaves have a narrow and elongated shape and resemble the elongata (elo) class of leaf mutants consisting of four loci (3). drl1 was indeed allelic to elo4, and ELO1 identified the Arabidopsis homolog of yeast ELP4, ELO2 of ELP1 and ELO3 of ELP3 and indicated the existence of an Elongator complex in plants (31). We made use of the yeast system to study the potential conservation in structure and function of the predicted Arabidopsis Elongator complex. The results indicate that, indeed, plant Elongator is highly related to the yeast complex. Individual plant subunits can substitute for the yeast subunits and promote complex assembly. Importantly, the catalytic subunit Elp3, which contains the histone acetyltransferase domain, can be functionally replaced by its respective plant homolog when simultaneously expressed with AtELP1/ELO2. As part of a chimeric yeast-plant Elongator complex, ELO3/AtELP3 supports tRNA modification in yeast. We show that AtElp3 in A. *thaliana* is required for the formation of ncm⁵ and mcm⁵s² groups on uridines at the wobble position in tRNA. This suggests similar catalytic activities in yeast and plants and conservation of the tRNA modification function of Elongator.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Yeast strains, media and general methods. Yeast strains used are listed in Supplemental Table S1. Yeast was grown in rich media containing yeast extract, peptone, and 2% dextrose (YPD) or 2% galactose (YPG) or synthetic complete medium (SC) (38).

Thermosensitivity was assayed on YPD medium at 30°C or 38°C for 2-3 days. Drug sensitivity was assayed at 30°C with 5 mM caffeine. *ade2–1* ochre stop codon suppression by the *SUP4* gene was tested as described (17). Yeast was transformed with plasmid DNA or polymerase chain reaction (PCR) products according to a previous protocol (37). Primers are listed in Supplementary Table S2.

Plasmid constructions. pFF9, a YEplac195-based plasmid carrying *ELP3* has been described (14). YEpA4 or pELO3-myc carry *A.thaliana ELO3/AtELP3* or *ELO3-myc*₃, respectively. YEpA4 and pELO3-myc are both YEplac195-based plasmids carrying the *ELO3/AtELP3*

gene under control of the yeast *ADH1* promoter (details on construction are available on request). *AtELP3* was amplified from cDNA clone RAFL0811J12 (www.brc.riken.jp) and the open reading frame was verified by DNA sequencing.

pFF13 is a YEplac181-based plasmid, carrying the yeast *ELP1* gene (10). pDJ98 is a multicopy vector for galactose-regulated expression of the *ELO2/AtELP1* gene carrying the selection markers *URA3* and *leu2*d (7). pJET13, carrying *FLAG-ELO2/AtELP1* under control of the *GAL1* promoter was obtained by PCR amplification of the coding sequence from pFLAG-ELO2 (Z. Gong, unpublished) and cloned into *Sal*I-cleaved pCM22. In the latter, the *GAL1* promoter was introduced on a *Eco*RI-*Bam*HI fragment from plasmid pRB1438 (a kind gift from Mike Stark, University of Dundee, UK) into YEplac181 (*LEU2*). pCM22 served also as destination vector to clone untagged *AtELP1* from pDJ98 via *Sal*I restriction sites to obtain pCM26 for the *SUP4* suppression assay.

Yeast genetic manipulations. Defined $elp1\Delta$ and $elp3\Delta$ null alleles and genetic variants encoding heme-agglutinin (HA₆) or c-myc₃ epitope-tagged proteins were obtained after transformation of PCR fragments generated with template plasmids containing the marker genes YDp-KlU (*URA3*), YDp-SpH (*HIS3*), pFA6a-hph NT1, pFA6a-natNT2 (for deletions) or pYM3 and pYM5 (for HA and c-myc epitope-tagging) (14,18,21,24). Manipulations were verified by PCR and by killer eclipse assays (23) to test for biological functionality.

Elongator complementation studies in yeast. To analyze the function of *Arabidopsis ELO2* and *ELO3* encoded gene products, the γ -toxin sensitivity was assayed (14). In detail, strains CMY135 (*elp3* Δ) and CMY134 (*elp1* Δ *elp3* Δ) were transformed with pDJ98 (*ELO2/AtELP1*), YEpA4 (*ELO3/AtELP3*), pFF13 (*ELP1*), and pFF9 (*ELP3*) (7,10,14) or the respective empty vector controls. Subsequently, plasmid pHMS14 (14) expressing the γ -toxin subunit of *K*. *lactis* zymocin under the *GAL1* promoter was introduced into the transformed strains. Strains were grown on 2% (w/v) glucose SC medium under selective conditions and 10-fold serial dilutions were spotted on glucose and galactose medium. The response to γ -toxin induction was monitored on galactose plates after 3 to 4 days at 30°C.

Immunological techniques. Detection of tagged proteins used anti-c-myc (A-14) and anti-HA (F-7) (Santa Cruz) antibodies. Anti-Elp1 antibodies (32,44) were kindly provided by Dr. J. Svejstrup (London Research Institute, Cancer Research, UK). An anti-FLAG antibody (Sigma–Aldrich) was used for detection of FLAG-ELO2. Protein concentrations were determined by the method of Bradford (4). Antibody cross-linking to protein A-Sepharose, preparation of protein extract, and co-immunoprecipitations were performed as described previously (14,45).

tRNA Isolation and HPLC analysis. tRNA was prepared from total RNA preparations as described (46). Purified tRNA was digested with Nuclease P1 for 16 h at 37°C and then treated with bacterial alkaline phosphatase for 2 h at 37°. The hydrolysate was analyzed by high pressure liquid chromatography with a Develosil C-30 reverse-phase column as described (48, 49).

RESULTS

Formation of a yeast Elongator complex containing AtELP3. The *A. thaliana* genome contains one and only one homolog for each of the yeast *ELP* genes suggesting similarity in the Elongator composition to the yeast and human complexes. We tried to complement yeast *elp* mutant strains with the corresponding plant cDNAs fused to a yeast promoter. Sensitivity to γ -toxin, the active component of the *K. lactis* killer toxin zymocin provided a sensitive assay for Elongator function. If the heterologous protein integrated into the yeast Elongator complex and functioned in restoring tRNA modification, we expected reversion of the toxin resistance phenotype of the Elongator mutant. Since the AtELP3 subunit is most similar to its yeast homolog, we first tried to complement the *elp3* mutant. A c-myc-tagged version of the AtELP3 protein could be produced at levels comparable to those of the yeast Elp3-c-myc (see below), but the toxin resistance of the yeast *elp3* (Figure 1A). Likewise, thermosensitivity and hypersensitivity to caffeine, additional phenotypes of Elongator mutants, were retained (Figure 1B). Reintroduction of the yeast *ELP3* gene into the *elp3* reporter fully complemented all three phenotypes (Figure 1A, B).

The failure of plant AtELP3 to substitute for yeast Elp3 function was not due to instability of the protein since AtELP3-c-myc was precipitated at levels comparable to Elp3-c-myc (Figure 1C, top panel) but could be due to structural differences that do not allow stable association with the heterologous Elongator subunits. However, with Elp1-specific antibodies we could detect the largest Elongator subunit in the c-myc precipitate suggesting interaction between AtELP3 and Elp1 (Figure 1C, bottom panel).

To analyze whether AtELP3 was part of the Elongator complex we made use of the fact that interaction between the subunits Elp5 and Elp2 depend on the structural integrity of the complex and the presence of Elp3 (15,34). We constructed $elp3\Delta$ reporter strains expressing a c-myc-tagged version of Elp2 and an HA-tagged version of Elp5. As expected, co-immunoprecipitation of Elp2-c-myc with Elp5-HA was not observed when Elp3 was lacking

(Figure 2A, lane 4) but was found when the *elp3* Δ mutant was complemented with the yeast *ELP3* gene on a plasmid (Figure 2A, lane 3). When *AtELP3* or *AtELP3-c-myc* alleles were introduced instead of *ELP3*, pull-down of Elp2-c-myc by Elp5-HA was less efficient (Figure 2A, lanes 5 and 6), but significantly higher than in the empty vector control (Figure 2A, lane 4). Thus, plant AtELP3 promotes Elp5-Elp2 interaction in an *elp3* Δ mutant background. The transformants carrying the c-myc-tagged version of AtELP3 show that the concentration of the plant protein is even higher than that of yeast Elp2. We conclude that AtELP3 can replace Elp3 in the yeast Elongator complex but apparently, the protein is not functional.

Using the same approach we also tested whether the chimeric complex was able to associate with Kti12, a protein that is only loosely associated with Elongator. As with Elp5-HA, Kti12-HA was able to pull-down Elp2-c-myc in the presence but not in the absence of yeast Elp3 (Figure 2B, lanes 3 and 4) and again AtELP3 could substitute for yeast Elp3 in this assay (Figure 2B, lanes 5 and 6).

Plant AtELP1 restores Elongator subunit interactions in an $elp1\Delta$ yeast mutant. Incorporation of AtElp3 into yeast Elongator requires interaction with much less conserved components. Elp1 and AtELP1 display only 19% amino acid identity compared to 67% between Elp3 and AtELP3. To analyse whether AtELP1 could also structurally replace yeast Elp1 in the complex, an $elp1\Delta$ strain that contained the epitope-tagged Elongator subunits Elp3-HA and Elp2-c-myc was transformed. Consistent with previous reports (15,34), we found that the Elp1 subunit is not only required for Elp3-Elp2 interaction (Figure 3A, lane 2) but also for stability of yeast Elp3. Hence, an HA-tagged version of Elp3 was not detectable in total protein extracts of the $elp1\Delta$ mutant (Figure 3A, bottom panel, lane 2). Reintroduction of the yeast *ELP1* gene restored Elp3-HA stability and interaction between Elp2 and Elp3 (Figure 3A, lane 4). Remarkably, the same held true when *AtELP1* was introduced (Figure 3A, lane 3). Expression of the plant gene from the inducible *GAL1* promoter in the $elp1\Delta$ background allowed Elp2-c-myc to precipitate Elp3-HA.

Again, as in the *AtELP3*-expressing *elp3* mutant, the efficiency of subunit interactions was somewhat reduced compared to that of the *ELP1* transformants. Nonetheless, our data show that AtELP1 as well as AtELP3 can structurally replace the respective yeast subunits. *AtELP1* expression also restored the interaction between Elp2 and Kti12 (Figure 3B). This finding is particularly intriguing because Elp2-Kti12 interaction relies on the association between the two subcomplexes Elp1-Elp2-Elp3 and Elp4-Elp5-Elp6 (11,15). Thus, the result suggests that AtELP1 is part of a chimeric complex containing all six Elongator subunits as well as the more loosely bound Kti12.

Together, plant AtELP1 and AtELP3 support tRNA modification in yeast. The failure of AtELP3 to functionally complement the $elp3\Delta$ mutant despite the apparent incorporation into the yeast Elongator complex contrasts with previous findings, showing partial complementation of $elp1\Delta$ by AtELP1 (7). We reasoned that this might reflect divergence in substrate recognition by the catalytic Elp3 subunit whereas a presumed scaffold function of Elp1 may be structurally less constrained. Alternatively, since Elp3 requires Elp1 for stability its function may depend on specific contacts between these two proteins. To address the latter possibility we tested whether AtELP3 might function in yeast in combination with AtELP1. *FLAG-AtELP1* was expressed together with the *AtELP3-c-myc* gene in a yeast $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ double mutant. Interaction between AtELP1 and AtELP3 in yeast could be shown by coimmunoprecipitation (Figure 4A). Moreover, co-immunoprecipitation of the epitope-tagged subunits Elp5-HA and Elp2-c-myc present in that strain revealed that interaction between these proteins is not only supported by yeast Elp1 and Elp3 but also by the simultaneous expression of AtELP1 and AtELP3 in the yeast double mutant (Figure 4B, lane 6). We conclude that a chimeric yeast-plant Elongator complex can form under these conditions. This complex was also able to associate with Kti12-HA (Figure 4C, lane 6), albeit less efficiently in comparison to the yeast Elp1 and Elp3 containing one (Figure 3B, lane 3).

Intriguingly, in the presence of AtELP1, ELO3/AtELP3 was able to functionally replace Elp3 as assayed by γ -toxin sensitivity. The toxin resistance of the double mutant was abolished and the sensitivity was restored (Figure 5A). Since toxin sensitivity requires Elongator-dependent tRNA modification at the anticodon wobble U34, creating 5-methoxycarbonyl-methyluridine (mcm⁵U34) and 5-methoxycarbonyl-methyl-2-thiouridine (mcm⁵s²U34) (28), AtELP3 can reasonably be assumed to carry out a function that is equivalent to Elp3.

To support this conclusion, we used a second assay monitoring Elongator-dependent tRNA modification that is based on the *SUP4* suppressor tRNA gene (17). The *SUP4* allele codes for a UAA ochre suppressor tRNA^{Tyr} with a G34-to-U34 exchange in the anticodon. Suppression of ochre nonsense codons by *SUP4* requires the Elongator-dependent U34 modification at the tRNA wobble position. An *elp1* Δ *elp3* Δ double deletion strain (CMY160) carrying *SUP4* and the ochre mutation *ade2-1* resulted in a non-functional tRNA suppressor and, as a consequence, in an Ade⁻ phenotype (Figure 5B). Transformation with two plasmids encoding yeast Elp1 and Elp3 restored tRNA suppression, allowing for *ade2-1* read-through and growth on adenine-lacking medium. A similar, albeit weaker, phenotype was also obtained with plasmids pELO2 and pELO3 expressing *ELO2/AtELP1* and *ELO3/AtELP3*,

respectively. We conclude that a chimeric Elongator is formed that can functionally replace yeast Elongator.

tRNA modification is affected in Elongator deficient plant cells. Analysis of plant Elongator mutants revealed that the complex has a positive effect on cell proliferation. Mutations in Elongator subunits *elo3* cause pleiotropic phenotypes in *A. thaliana* with growth retardation in leaf and root morphology (31). To test whether the mutation affected tRNA modification an RNA preparation enriched for small stable RNA was isolated from homozygotes *elo3* and wildtype leaves, degraded to nucleosides and analyzed by HPLC. The profiles were very similar for wildtype and *elo3* mutant except for the absence of the ncm⁵- and mcm⁵s²-U peaks which were lacking in the *elo3* (Fig. 6B+D). Clearly, the *elo3* mutation abolished the formation of the ncm⁵ and mcm⁵s² side chains on the uridines.

These data strongly suggest that not only the structure, but also the tRNA modification function of Elongator is conserved in evolution and that plant and yeast Elongator have similar activities.

DISCUSSION

Whether or not Elongator is a protein complex with multiple functions remains an open question. However, our data strongly support the view that its function in tRNA modification is not restricted to yeast. We would like to propose that Elongator's catalytic activity is involved in the mcm⁵-U34 and ncm⁵-modification of tRNAs in all eukaryotes. Here we have used two sensitive assays to demonstrate that the catalytic subunit Elp3 can functionally be replaced by the homologous protein encoded by the AtELP3 gene. Both assays monitor the mcm⁵-U34 modification status of tRNAs. mcm⁵-U34-tRNA^{Glu} and, to a lesser extent, mcm⁵-U34-tRNA^{Lys} and mcm⁵-U34-tRNA^{Gin} are specifically cleaved by the tRNA endonuclease, which is responsible for the cytotoxicity of Kluyveromces lactis zymocin (27,28). The lack of this modification as found in Elongator and trm9 mutants (40) results in zymocin resistance. Likewise, the SUP4 ochre suppressor tRNA activity also depends on the U34 modification. As shown previously, both assays are sensitive to a point mutation in the HAT domain of Elp3 indicating that acetyltransferase activity is required for tRNA modification (14,17). Like in yeast, in the A. thaliana elo3 mutant studied here modified nucleosides ncm⁵U and mcm⁵s²U were not detectable. These data indicate the plant Elongator is also involved in wobble uridine modification. The highly conserved AtELP3 alone was unable to substitute for yeast Elp3 function and only in combination with AtELP1 could complementation of the Elongator mutant phenotypes be achieved. We could show that the apparent lack of function of AtELP3 in the context of yeast Elongator cannot be explained by poor interaction with the yeast subunits. Not only was AtELP3-c-myc co-immunoprecipitated with yeast Elp1, it also restored the integrity of the six-subunit Elongator complex. This was shown by the association between Elp2 and Elp5 and between Elp2 and Kti12. Elp2 and Elp5 belong to distinct Elongator subcomplexes and their interaction depends on Elp3 and probably on the integrity of the Elp1-Elp2-Elp3 subcomplex. Kti12, which was proposed to function in regulation of Elongator activity, is more loosely associated with Elongator (10,12,14,33). Apparently, this interaction is not perturbed by AtELP3 replacing Elp3. Together these data imply that formation of an Elongator complex that contains the plant ELO3 subunit is not sufficient to provide the activity required for tRNA modification.

The lack of functional complementation by AtELP3 is probably not due to the reduced efficiency of Elp2-Elp5 or Elp2-Kti12 interactions since the same reduction was observed in the AtELP3 and AtELP1 containing chimeric complex, which is functional. We rather suggest that Elongator function requires a specific interaction between the Elp1 and Elp3 proteins that cannot take place between AtELP3 and yeast Elp1. Conversely, however, AtELP1 can probably supply the respective function to yeast Elp3 since AtELP1 can partially complement a yeast *elp1* mutant (7). It is shown here that AtELP1 supports Elp2-Elp3 interaction and prevents Elp3 instability, which occurs in the absence of Elp1 (Figure 3). Our data also suggest a functional interaction between AtELP1 and Kti12. Kti12 affects the phosphorylation status of yeast Elp1, correlating with its influence on Elongator function (6,10,14,19). Whether AtELP1 is phosphorylated in yeast and plant remains to be shown. Attempts to replace Kti12 by the putative A. thaliana ortholog DRL1 have failed so far. Neither kti12 single nor elp1 elp3 kti12 triple mutants coexpressing AtELP1 and AtELP3 could be complemented by the DRL1 gene. However, appropriate proteins levels may be crucial since both Kti12 depletion and overexpression are known to have effects on Elongator function and induce tRNA modification defects (6,10,14,17). The fact that mutations in DRL1/AtKT112 in Arabidopsis result in phenotypes similar to those of the elo mutants supports the view that this gene encodes a Kti12 ortholog (29,31).

The phenotypes associated with *A. thaliana* Elongator mutants, like elongated leaves, reduced primary root growth, short inflorescences, delayed flowering (30,31) are similar to those described for mutants with deficiencies in chromatin-regulating proteins (2,13). Such similarities might be explained by additional functions of Elongator in transcription, by

indirect influences on chromatin proteins resulting from specific effects of hypomodified tRNAs on translation (22) or by similar pleiotropic effects on plant growth when gene activity is impaired at the transcriptional or translational level. Strikingly, pleiotropic phenotypes of yeast Elongator mutants like underacetylation of histone H3K14, delayed adaptation of transcription to changing environmental conditions as well as the deficiency in correct intracellular localisation of the secretory protein Sec2 could all be suppressed by overexpression of undermodified tRNA^{Lys} and tRNA^{Gln} (9). Both tRNAs are mcm⁵s² modified at the wobble position of their respective UUU or UUG anticodons. Based on these data it has been proposed that the influence of Elongator on transcription and secretion is an indirect consequence of a general reduction of translation efficiency resulting from the tRNA modification defects in Elongator mutants. Because tRNA modification is also effected in *A. thaliana* Elongator mutants the pleiotropic phenotypes observed in these mutants (31) might also be indirect consequences of the influence of undermodified tRNAs on translation. Alternatively, the Elongator complex could have multiple functions both in yeast and in plants.

So far, a direct participation of Elongator in tRNA chemistry has not been shown. However, Elp1- or Elp3-HA tagged complexes could be specifically cross-linked to an *in vitro* transcribed target tRNA supporting such a model. Alternatively, Elongator could function upstream of mcm⁵ biosynthesis in a biochemical pathway or regulatory cascade. From zymocin resistance screens using the yeast mutant collection enompassing all non-essential genes there is no evidence for such a pathway (47) suggesting that Elongator is directly involved in catalysis of the modification reaction. mcm⁵ U34 modification is highly conserved in eukaryotic phyla suggesting a similar underlying chemistry. We thus propose that the modification reaction catalysed by Elongator is equivalent in line with the finding that the plant catalytic subunit AtElp3 is able to promote this modification in yeast.

In summary, our data indicate that the Elongator complexes are structurally and functionally highly conserved between yeast and plants, such that yeast subunits can be replaced by their plant orthologs. This offers the opportunity to use the yeast model system in structure-function studies of Elongator complexes from other kingdoms, which may also help to understand the molecular basis between Elongator dysfunction and formation of human diseases such as familial dysautonomia. It is likely that eukaryotic Elongator complexes have a conserved biochemical activity. Based on reconstitution of mcm⁵-U34 tRNA modification in yeast by plant Elongator subunits and the requirement of AtElp3/ELO3 for this
modification in plants we favour the view that this conserved biochemical activity is directly related to tRNA modification.

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Supplementary Data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found on the online version.

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Supplemental Table S1. Yeast strains

Strain	Description	Source/reference
K. lactis:		
AWJ137	α <i>leu2 trp1</i> [k1 ⁺ k2 ⁺] killer and zymocin producer	Karin D. Breunig
S. cerevisiae		
FY1679-08A	<i>MATa ura3-52 leu2Δ1 trp1-Δ</i> 63 his3-Δ200 GAL	Euroscarf
CMY307	as FY1679-08A, but $elp3\Delta$:: natNT2	This study
FFY3t	as FY1679-08A, but <i>ELP3-(cmyc)₃ :: SpHIS3</i>	Frohloff et al. (2001)
CMY306	as FY1679-08A, but $elp1\Delta$:: TRP1, $elp3\Delta$:: natNT2	This study
FFY2/3-dt	as FY1679-08A, but <i>ELP2-(cmyc)</i> ₃ :: SpHIS3, ELP3-	Fichtner et al.
	$(\Pi A)_6 \therefore K I I K P I$	(2002)
FFY2/3-dt-	as FFY2/3-dt, but $elp1\Delta$:: KlURA3	Fichtner et al.
1d		(2002)
FFY2/4dt	as FY1679-08A, but <i>ELP2-(cmyc)</i> ₃ :: SpHIS3, KTI12-	Fichtner et al.
	$(HA)_6 :: KlTRP1$	(2002)
CMY300	as FFY2/4dt, but $elp1\Delta$:: $hphNT1$	This study
CMY301	as FFY2/4dt, but $elp3\Delta$:: $natNT2$	This study
CMY302	As FFY2/4dt, but $elp1\Delta$:: $hphNT1$, $elp3\Delta$:: $natNT2$	This study
FFY2/5dt	as FY1679-08A, but <i>ELP2-(cmyc)</i> ₃ :: SpHIS3, ELP5-	Frohloff et al.
	$(HA)_6 :: KlTRP1$	(2003)
CMY304	as FFY2/5dt, but $elp3\Delta$:: natNT2	This study
CMY305	as FFY2/5dt, but $elp1\Delta$:: $hphNT1$, $elp3\Delta$:: $natNT2$	This study
W303-1a	MATa ade2-1 his3-11, 15 leu2-3, -112 trp1-1 ura3-1 can1-100	Laboratory stock

CMY135	as W303, but $elp3\Delta$:: natNT2	This study
CMY134	as W303, but $elp1\Delta$:: hphNT1, $elp3\Delta$:: natNT2	This study
UMY2893	<i>MATαSUP4 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 can1-100 ura3-1 ade2-1</i>	Huang et al.
	his3-11,15	(2005)
UMY2916	MATαSUP4 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 can1-100 ura3-1 ade2-1	Huang et al.
	his3-11,15 elp3 Δ :: Kan $MX4$	(2005)
CMY160	as UMY2916, but <i>elp1∆ ::HIS3</i>	This study

Supplemental 7	Fable S2. Ol	igonucleotide	primers u	ised in t	this study
The second secon		0			

Name	Description	Sequence
S1-TOT1	ko-primer	5'-CGATGCCTAGGCAAGAAACAGTACAAATGCCTAATGGCTTA
		TGGTTGAACCGTACGCTGCAGGTCGAC-3'
S2-TOT1	ko-primer	5'-CTTTACGAGCACTATAGACAGTAATTTATATAACTAAGAAAA
		TGGTATGCATCGATGAATTCGAGCTCG-3'
S1-TOT3	ko-primer	5'-CCTAAAAGCACCTAAGGAAAATCGAAGAACACCCTGACAAA
		GATGGCTCGCGTACGCTGCAGGTCGAC-3'
S2-TOT3	ko-primer	5'-CTGCTTGGAAAACCGGCCATGTCGGCGGCACATAAAAGTTCT
		ATTTACCTATCGATGAATTCGAGCTCG-3'
KO-TOT1-FW	ko-primer	5'- AGAAACAGTACAAATGCCTAATGGCTTATGGTTGAACATGA
		CAAGAGTGGCGACGGCCAGTGAATTCCCGG-3'
KO-TOT1-RV	ko-primer	5'- CAATATGACTCTTAGGGAAATCATGAATCTCTGGAACAGGT
		ATTTCTGGGAGCTTGGCTGCAGGTCGACGG-3'
ORF-TOT1-FW	ORF-primer	5'-ACCCGGGGATGGTTGAACATGACAAGAGTG-3'
ORF-TOT1-RV	ORF-primer	5'-CAGATCTTTTGAATTCTGTTTCACGGCAGC-3'
ORF-TOT3-FW	ORF-primer	5'-CGATAAGACAGTGAGAGAAGG-3'
ORF-TOT3-RV	ORF-primer	5'-AACACATGCAGCAGTTACTCC-3'
XFLAG-FW	FLAG-ELO2 cloning	5'-GCTCGAGCACCAAATCGACTCTAGGATGGC-3'
XABO-RV	FLAG-ELO2 cloning	5'-GCTCGAGAACGATCGGGGGGGGGCTCTCATGG-3'
cDNAfw	ADH1-ELO3 cloning	5'- TATGTCGACTAGTATGGCGACGGCGGT-3'
cDNA2re	ADH1-ELO3 cloning	5'-ATAGTCGACTCAAAGATGCTTCACC -3'

FIGURES AND LEGENDS



Figure 1: Failure of *AtELP3* to complement the $elp3\Delta$ mutant despite interaction with yeast Elp1 protein.

(A) To test for functional complementation the *elp3* Δ mutant (CMY135) was transformed with plasmids containing *ELP3* (pFF9), *AtELP3* (YEpA4), *AtELP3-c-myc* (pELO3-myc) and vector control (YEplac195) and subsequently with the *GAL1* promoter driven γ -toxin expression plasmid pHMS14. Transformants were spotted in replica onto glucose repressing (glc) or galactose-inducing (gal) media and grown for 4 days at 30°C. Growth on galactose indicates γ -toxin resistance (Tox^R) and no growth γ -toxin sensitivity (Tox^S).

(**B**) To test for thermosensitivity and hypersensitivity to caffeine strains were serially diluted and replica spotted on YPD plates lacking (control) or containing 7,5 mM caffeine (right) and incubated for 4 days at 30°C and 37°C (middle).

(C) Anti-c-myc immunoprecipitates (IP) of strains containing *ELP3-c-myc* (FFY3t), *AtELP3-c-myc* (CMY307+p*ELO3-myc*) and no epitope (FY1679-8A) were analysed on Western blots probed with anti-c-myc or anti-Elp1 antibody. Positions of the respective proteins are indicated by *arrows*. Protein extract from cells without epitope-tag served as negative control. The asterisk denotes a N-terminally truncated Elp1 form (12).





(A) Protein extracts from cells expressing HA-tagged Elp5 together with c-myc-tagged Elp2 in an $elp3\Delta$ background (strains CMY304 and CMY301, respectively) transformed with plasmids containing *ELP3* (pFF9), *AtELP3* (YEpA4), *AtELP3-c-myc* or vector control (YEplac195) were immunoprecipitated using anti-HA antibody and analysed by Western blotting.

(**B**) Same as (A) but with strain CMY301, which expresses HA-tagged Kti12 instead of HA-Elp5. HA-antibody served to detect HA-Elp5 or HA-Kti12, anti-c-myc antibody to detect Elp2 and AtELP3. Protein extracts from cells without epitope tag and cells expressing only AtELP3-c-myc served as negative controls. The pre-IPs served as loading control (bottom panels).



Figure 3: Restoration of Elp3 stability and Elongator subunit interactions in an $elp1\Delta$ strain expressing AtElp1.

(A) AtElp1 is able to replace yeast Elp1 in supporting Elp2-Elp3 interaction and Elp3 protein stability. Protein extracts from cells expressing chromosomally c-myc-tagged Elp2 together with HA-tagged Elp3 in an *elp1* Δ background (FFY2/3-dt-1d) transformed with plasmids containing *ELP1* (pFF13), *AtELP1* (pDJ98) or vector control (YEplac181) were immunoprecipitated using anti-c-myc antibody. Western blots of the precipitates were probed with anti-c-myc or anti-HA antibodies to detect Elp2 and Elp3, respectively (*arrows*). Instability of Elp3 in the *elp1* Δ strain is revealed in pre-IPs (bottom panel, lane 3).

(B) AtElp1 is able to restore Kti12-Elp2 interaction. Protein extracts from cells expressing cmyc-tagged Elp2 together with HA-tagged Kti12 in an *elp1* Δ background (CMY300), transformed with plasmids containing *ELP1* (pFF13), *AtELP1* (pDJ98) or vector control (YEplac181) were immunoprecipitated and analysed as in A).



Figure 4: Formation of a chimeric Elongator complexes composed of yeast and plant subunits.

(A) AtELP1 and AtELP3 interact with each other in yeast. Anti-c-myc immunoprecipitates of $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ strains (CMY134) containing *FLAG-AtELP1* (pJET13) and *AtELP3-c-myc* were probed with anti-c-myc antibody to detect AtELP3-c-myc and with anti-FLAG-antibody to detect FLAG-AtELP1. Immunoprecipitates with anti-c-myc antibodies from $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ cells containing p*FLAG-AtELP1* (lane 2) or no epitope-tag (lane1) served as negative controls.

(B) AtELP1 and AtELP3 restore Elp2-Elp5 interaction in the $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ mutant. Protein extracts from cells expressing HA-tagged Elp5 together with c-myc-tagged Elp2 in an $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ double mutant background (CMY305) transformed with plasmids expressing *ELP1* (pFF13), *ELP3* (pFF9), *AtELP1* (pDJ98), *AtELP3* (YEpA4), *FLAG-AtELP1* (pJET13), *AtELP3-c-myc* (pELO3-myc) and vector controls (YEplac181, YEplac195) were immunoprecipitated using anti-HA antibody. The antibodies used to detect the indicated proteins by Western blotting are marked on the right. Protein extracts from cells without epitope-tag and cells expressing only *AtELP3-c-myc* served as negative controls. Pre-IPs served as loading control (bottom panel).

(C) AtELP1 and AtELP3 restore Elp2-Kti12 interaction. Protein extracts from strain CMY302 expressing HA-tagged Kti12 together with c-myc-tagged Elp2 in an $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ background was transformed and analysed as described in (B).



Figure 5: Restoration of Elongator tRNA modification function by complementation of a yeast $elp1\Delta \ elp3\Delta$ double mutant with *AtELP1* and *AtELP3*.

(A) Restoration of toxin sensitivity. The $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ (CMY134) strain was transformed with plasmids containing *ELP1* (pFF13), *ELP3* (pFF9), *AtELP1* (pCM26), *AtELP3* (YEpA4) and vector controls (YEplac181 and YEplac195) in the indicated combinations. The γ -toxin was expressed from pHMS14 on galactose medium. Growth on galactose indicate γ -toxin resistance (Tox^R) and no growth γ -toxin sensitivity (Tox^S) and was observed after 4 days at 30°C.

(B) Restoration of SUP4 suppressor tRNA function. Serial dilution of *SUP4 elp1* Δ *elp3* Δ (CMY160) cells transformed with plasmids containing wildtype *ELP1* and *ELP3* (pFF13 and pFF9), the respective empty vectors (YEplac181 and YEplac195) or the plant homologues *AtELP1 AtELP3* (pCM26 and YEpA4) were checked for suppression of the *ade2-1* (UAA) ochre mutation (17) by spotting on SC and SC–Ade plates and incubation for 4 days at 30°C. SUP4 suppressor tRNA function results in growth on SC-Ade plates (Ade⁺ phenotype).



Figure 6: *AtELP3/ELO3* is required for formation of ncm⁵U and mcm⁵s²U modified nucleosides in tRNA. (A-D) Total tRNA isolated from wild-type and *elo3* plants was analyzed by HPLC. Wildtype profiles are shown in the left panels and *elo3* profiles are in the right panels. (A-B) The parts of the chromatograms between retention times 15.5 and 19.6 min are displayed. The arrow in B indicates the expected retention time of ncm⁵U. Chromatograms were monitored at 254 nm. (C-D) The parts of the chromatograms between retention times 40.0 and 52.5 min are displayed. The arrow in D indicates the expected retention time of mcm⁵s²U. Chromatograms were monitored at 314 nm.

2.2.2.1. Zusammenfassung der Ergebnisse

Im vorangegangenen Manuskript wurde die Frage adressiert, ob neben strukturellen auch funktionelle Eigenschaften des Elongators in S. cerevisiae und A. thaliana konserviert sind. Es wurde getestet, ob sich die Hefe-Elongatormutanten $elp1\Delta$, $elp3\Delta$ und $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ durch homologen Pflanzengene AtELP1/ELO2 und AtELP3/ELO3 die Expression der komplementieren lassen. Durch Koimmunopräzipitation spezifischer Untereinheiten könnte gezeigt werden, dass pflanzliche Elongatoruntereinheiten mit den Hefe-Untereinheiten interagieren und die Integrität des Gesamtkomplexes wiederherstellen. Dies konnte für AtElp1/ELO2, AtElp3/ELO3 und die Kombination von AtElp1 und AtElp3 nachgewiesen werden. Diese Daten bestätigen die Existenz eines pflanzlichen Elongators, der strukturell dem Hefe-Elongator sehr ähnlich zu sein scheint. Um zu testen, ob diese aus Pflanzen- und Hefe-Elongatoruntereinheiten zusammengesetzten chimären Komplexe funktionsfähig sind, wurden zwei sensitive Tests (y-Toxinassay und nonsense-Suppressionsassay) angewendet. Sie ermöglichen den phänotypischen Nachweis der Elongator-abhängigen tRNA-Modifikation. Interessanterweise ist die größte Untereinheit AtElp1/ELO2, nicht aber die am stärksten konservierte Untereinheit AtElp3/ ELO3 in der Lage, die entsprechenden Hefe-Mutanten zu komplementieren und y-Toxinsensitivität bzw. ochre-Suppression wiederherzustellen. Da AtElp3 als struktureller Bestandteil des chimären Elongator-Komplexes nachgewiesen werden konnte, ist vermutlich entweder die katalytische Funktion der pflanzlichen Untereinheit nicht erhalten, oder aber sie kann im chimären Komplex keine Aktivität entfalten. Für letztere Erklärung spricht, dass durch Co-Expression von AtELP3 mit AtELP1 in der $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ -Doppelmutante eine Komplementation zu beobachten war (γ -Toxinsensitivität und ochre-Suppression wurden wiederhergestellt). Möglicherweise sind spezifische Elp1-Elp3 Interaktionen, die zwischen heterologen Komponenten nicht möglich bzw. nicht stabil sind, Voraussetzung für die Funktion des Elongators bei der tRNA-Modifikation. Der entscheidende Nachweis einer Elongator-abhängigen tRNA-Modifikation auch in Pflanzen ist durch die Analyse von gesamt-tRNA aus elo3- und Wildtyppflanzen mittels HPLC gelungen. Es konnte gezeigt werden, das die Deletion von AtELP3/ELO3 in A. *thaliana* zum Verlust der U_{34} -tRNA-Modifikationen (ncm⁵ und mcm⁵s²) führt.

Zusammenfassend implizieren diese Befunde, dass es in Pflanzen einen Elongatorkomplex gibt, der nicht nur ähnlich wie der Hefe-Komplex strukturiert ist, sondern auch die entsprechende katalytische Aktivität besitzt, um tRNA-Modifikation zu unterstützen.

2.3. Eigenanteil an den Publikationen und Manuskripten

Publikation 1:

Mehlgarten, C., and R. Schaffrath. 2004. After chitin docking, toxicity of *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin requires *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase. Cell. Microbiol. **6:** 569-580.

Eigenanteil: Planung, Durchführung und Auswertung der Experimente.

Publikation 2:

Zink, S., C. Mehlgarten, H.K. Kitamoto, J. Nagase, D. Jablonowski, R.C. Dickson, M.J. Stark, and R. Schaffrath. 2005. Mannosyl-diinositolphospho-ceramide, the major yeast plasma membrane sphingolipid, governs toxicity of *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin. Eukaryot. Cell. **4:** 879-889.

<u>Eigenanteil:</u> Planung, Durchführung (z.T. über Betreuung des Forschungsgruppenpraktikums und der Diplomarbeit von Sabrina Zink) und Auswertung der Experimente, welche den Abb. 1, 2, 3 und 7 zu Grunde liegen.

Ausnahmen: RT-PCR-Experimente und phänotypische Charakterisierung (Verhalten gegenüber Zymocin und Hygromycin) verschiedener Sphingolipid-Mutanten erfolgten durch Sabrina Zink (Abb. 4 und 5). Die Detektion der Sphingolipide in Wildtyp- und *kti6*-Zellen erfolgte mittels Dünnschichtchromatografie im Labor von Robert C. Dickson (University of Kentucky, USA) (Abb. 6).

Publikation 3:

Mehlgarten, C., S. Zink, J. Rutter, and R. Schaffrath. 2007. Dosage suppression of the *Kluyveromyces lactis* zymocin by *Saccharomyces cerevisiae ISR1* and *UGP1*. FEMS Yeast Res. 7: 722-730.

<u>Eigenanteil:</u> Planung, Durchführung und Auswertung der Experimente mit folgender Ausnahme: Das Verhalten von PAS-Kinasen und *ugp1*-Mutanten (Abb. 5) gegenüber Zymocin wurde von Sabrina Zink getestet.

Manuskript 1:

Mehlgarten, C., D. Jablonowski, K.D. Breunig, M.J.R. Stark, and R. Schaffrath. 2009. Elongator function depends on antagonistic regulation by casein kinase Hrr25 and protein phosphatase Sit4. (in preparation)

Eigenanteil: Mitanfertigung des Manuskripts, Planung, Durchführung und Auswertung der Experimente mit folgenden Ausnahmen: Der Einfluss einer *hrr25*-Mutation auf die

Deletierbarkeit von *SIT4* (Abb. S3), sowie der Einfluss einer *KTI12*-Überexpression für die Kti12-Bindung am Elongator wurden von Daniel Jablonowski getestet.

Manuskript 2:

Mehlgarten, C., D. Jablonowski, U. Wrackmeyer, D. Sondermann, Z. Gong, A.S. Byström, K.D. Breunig, and R. Schaffrath. 2009. Plant Elongator subunits support tRNA modification in yeast. (in preparation)

<u>Eigenanteil</u>: Mitanfertigung des Manuskripts, Planung, Durchführung und Auswertung der Experimente mit folgenden Ausnahmen: Das phänotypische Verhalten der *elp3* Δ -Mutante nach Transformation mit *AtELP3* (Abb. 1B) wurde von Uta Wrackmeyer getestet. Elp2-Elp3-Interaktionsstudien in *elp3* Δ -Zellen (Abb. 3A) wurden von Daniel Jablonowski durchgeführt. David Sondermann führte die RNA-Präparation aus *A. thaliana elo3*-Pflanzen für HPLC-Analysen der U₃₄-Modifikation durch. Diese erfolgten im Labor von Anders Byström (Umea Universität, Schweden) (Abb. 6).

2.4. Weitere publizierte Arbeiten

Jablonowski, D., S. Zink, C. Mehlgarten, G. Daum, and R. Schaffrath. 2006. tRNAGlu wobble uridine methylation by Trm9 identifies Elongator's key role for zymocin-induced cell death in yeast. Mol. Microbiol. **59**: 677-88.

<u>Eigenanteil:</u> Random-mutagenisierte Varianten des γ -Toxins wurden mittels γ -Toxinassays auf ihre Zytotoxizität getestet. Es konnte verschiedene funktionell relevante und konservierte Reste zwischen dem γ -Toxin und der Exodeoxyribonuclease V (ExoV), der ATP-abhängigen Nuclease (AddB) und der tRNA-modifizierenden GTPase (TrmE) identifiziert werden.

Zabel, R., C. Bär, C. Mehlgarten, and R. Schaffrath. 2008. Yeast alpha-tubulin suppressor Ats1/Kti13 relates to the Elongator complex and interacts with Elongator partner protein Kti11. Mol. Microbiol. 69: 175-87.

Eigenanteil: Es konnte gezeigt werden, dass zusätzliche Deletionen der Elongatoruntereinheiten *ELP4-ELP6* bzw. *ELP1-ELP6* die Temperatursensitivität einer *sec2-59-* bzw. *sec12-4-*Mutante supprimieren können (Abb. 5A) Die resultierenden Doppelmutanten sind dann wieder in Lage bei restriktiven Temperaturen zu wachsen. Diese Daten implizieren, dass der Elongator in *S. cerevisiae* in Prozesse der polarisierten Exozytose bzw. dem intrazellulären Vesikeltransport involviert sein könnte. Neuere Befunde deuten aber darauf hin, dass die phänotypischen Veränderungen der *sec-*Mutanten eher auf indirekten Effekten beruhen könnten. So führt beispielsweise eine Überexpression hypomodifizierter tRNA^{Lys} und tRNA^{Gln} in der *sec2-59 elp1*Δ-Doppelmutante zu einer Wiederherstellung des Ts-Phänotyps der *sec2-59-*Einzelmutante (42). Die Anwesenheit eines intakten Elongators wird demnach dafür nicht benötigt.

3. DISKUSSION UND AUSBLICK

3.1. Identifizierung der KTI-Allele

Zu Beginn dieser Promotionsarbeit gab es innerhalb der KTI-Kollektion (16) mit ktil, kti6 und kti10 drei Mutanten, deren Identifikation noch ausstand. Während kti6 und kti10 aufgrund ihrer Resistenz gegenüber exogen appliziertem Zymocin ($\alpha\beta\gamma$) in die Klasse I der sogenannten Binde- bzw. Importmutanten (Tab. 2) eingeordnet werden, fällt ktil durch eine zusätzliche Resistenz gegenüber endogen exprimiertem y-Toxin in die Klasse II, der sogenannten Toxintargetmutanten (Tab. 2). Das Vorhaben, die mutierten Gene mittels genetischer Komplementation durch Transformation mit der Hefe-Genbank YPH1 (CEN4, LEU2) zu identifizieren, gestaltete sich aufgrund fehlender oder schwacher Phänotypen dieser drei kti-Mutanten schwierig. Ideal für eine effektive Selektion sind Bedingungen, unter welchen die Mutanten im Vergleich zum isogenen Wildtyp ein Wachstumsdefizit besitzen. Durch Transformation mit einem Wildtypgen-tragenden Genbankplasmid würde dieser Defizitphänotyp komplementiert werden. Signifikante phänotypische Unterschiede zeigte aber lediglich die kti10-Mutante gegenüber thermischem Stress (Temperaturen von 39°C oder einem 15 minütigen Hitzeschock bei 55°C) oder 6% Ethanol. Diese erwiesen sich jedoch für eine erfolgreiche Komplementationsanalyse als zu schwach. Daher blieb aus damaliger Sicht nur die Möglichkeit, YPH1-Transformanten auf Wiederherstellung der wildtyp-assoziierten Zymocinsensitivität zu testen. Letztendlich war diese Methode jedoch nur für die kti10-Mutante erfolgreich und KTI10 konnte dem Gen PMA1 zugeordnet werden (Publikation 1, Kapitel 2.1.1.). Die Identifizierung von KTI6 gelang in einer Kooperation mit Hiroko K. Kitamoto (National Institute of Agrobiological Sciences, Japan), welche zeitgleich zu unserem Versuch der genetischen Komplementation in der etwa 4900 Stämme umfassenden S. cerevisiae Euroscarf "Knock out"-Kollektion (206) mit dem ipt1Δ-Stamm einen neuen Zymocin-resistenten Stamm identifizierte. Mittels Hefekreuzung konnte KTI6 dem Gen IPT1 zugeordnet werden (Publikation 2, Kapitel 2.1.2.). Die Identifizierung von KTI1 als TRM9 gelang unserer Arbeitsgruppe ebenfalls mittels Hefekreuzung (89), nachdem die Gruppen um Steve Clarke (University of California, USA) und Anders Byström (Umea University, Schweden) die Einflüsse der Methyltransferase Trm9 und des Elongators auf die Modifikation verschiedener tRNAs beschrieben hatten (80, 93). Sie ist nicht Gegenstand dieser Arbeit.

KTI-Allel	Gen	Funktion	Quelle
KTI1	TRM9	tRNA-Methyltransferase	16, 89, 176
KTI2	CHS3	Chitinbiosynthese	16, 85
KTI3	ELP2	Core-Elongatoruntereinheit	16, 43, 52, 53
KTI4	ELP6	HAP-Elongatoruntereinheit	16, 86, 102, 109, 194
KTI6	IPT1	Sphingolipidsynthese	16, 203
KTI7	ELP1	Core-Elongatoruntereinheit	16, 52, 136, 199
KTI8	ELP3	Core-Elongatoruntereinheit	16, 52, 196
KTI9	ELP4	HAP-Elongatoruntereinheit	16, 86, 102, 109, 194
KTI10	PMA1	Plasmamembran H ⁺ -ATPase	16, 117
KTI11	DPH3	Diphthamidbiosynthese	16, 48
KTI12	TOT4	Elongator-Interaktor	16, 46
KTI13	ATS1	Alpha-Tubulinsuppressor	16, 48
KTI14	HRR25	Caseinkinase I-Isoform	16, 116

 Tab. 2: Die KTI-Allele im Überblick. Mutationen dieser Gene verleihen Zymocinresistenz. Dabei ist zwischen

 Klasse I- (grün) und Klasse II-Mutanten (orange) zu unterscheiden (14, 16, 81).

3.1.1. Die Toxizität des *K. lactis* Zymocins benötigt die Plasmamembran H⁺-ATPase Pma1 und Inositolphosphotransferase Ipt1

Auf der Suche nach neuen Faktoren, welche in die Bindung des Zymocins und/oder den Import der letalen γ -Toxinuntereinheit in die *S. cerevisiae*-Zelle involviert sind, konnten die Gene *PMA1* und *IPT1* identifiziert werden (Publikation 1 und 2). Mutationen dieser beiden Gene und von den Chitinbiosynthesegenen *CHS3-CHS7* verleihen ausschließlich Resistenz gegenüber exogen appliziertem Zymocin (Tab. 2). Eine plasmidgekoppelte intrazelluläre Expression des γ -Toxins unter Kontrolle eines regulierbaren *GAL1*-Promoters führt in *kti6-*, *kti10-* und *chs3-chs7-*Zellen zu einem galactoseabhängigen Wachstumsblock (Publikation 1 und 2) (85). Trotz dieser Gemeinsamkeiten gilt es, bemerkenswerte Unterschiede zwischen diesen Mutanten zu beachten. Diese deuten auf verschiedene Involvierungen von Pma1, Ipt1 und Chs3-7 bei der Zymocinbindung bzw. dem γ -Toxinimport hin. Während *kti6-* und *kti10-*Zellen phänotypisch dem Wildtyp ähneln, zeigen *chs3*Δ-*chs7*Δ-Zellen Resistenz gegenüber dem antifugalen Wirkstoff Calcofluor White (85) (Publikation 1 und 2), welcher spezifisch an Chitin bindet und dessen Polymerisation unterbricht (148). Beispielsweise codiert *CHS3* die Chitinsynthase III, welche innerhalb der Chitinbiosynthese 90% des Gesamtzellwandchitins in S. cerevisiae synthetisiert. Obwohl der Chitingehalt nur 1-2% beträgt, ist es eine essentielle Zellwandkomponente, da Chitin nicht nur für die Stabilität der Hefezellwand, sondern auch für ihren vegetativen Lebenszyklus und die Hefepaarung benötigt wird (17, 134, 165). Interessanterweise scheint, wie durch Chitin-Affinitätschromatographie gezeigt werden konnte, Chitin als Zellwandrezeptor für die α-Untereinheit des K. lactis-Zymocins zu dienen (85). Eine Verringerung des Chitingehaltes der Zellwand, wie in $chs3\Delta$ - $chs7\Delta$ Stämmen der Fall, führt somit nicht nur zu einer Resistenz gegenüber Calcofluor White, sondern sollte auch zu einer ineffizienten Bindung des Zymocins an die S. cerevisiae Zelloberfläche führen. Westernanalysen bestätigten diese Vermutung. Das γ -Toxin als Teil des Zymocinkomplexes konnte nicht an der Zelloberfläche chitindefizienter chs3A-Zellen detektiert werden (Publikation 1, Seite 25). Im Gegensatz dazu findet in pma1/kti10- und ipt1/kti6-Zellen Zymocinbindung statt (Publikation 1 und 2, Seite 25 und 41). Aufgrund dieser Befunde müssten Pmal und Ipt1 in Prozesse involviert sein, die nach der Bindung des Zymocins am Chitinrezeptor ablaufen. Tatsächlich konnte in der *pmal/kti10*-Mutante eine intrazelluläre Akkumulation des γ -Toxins nachgewiesen werden (Publikation 1, Seite 25). Im Gegensatz dazu scheint das y-Toxin in kti6-Zellen nicht ins Zellinnere der Hefezelle zu gelangen (Publikation 2, Seite 41).

Zusammenfassend kann man davon ausgehen, dass Ipt1 und Pma1 weder in die Bindung an Chitin als Zymocinrezeptor noch in die intrazelluläre Wirkweise des γ -Toxins involviert sind. Wahrscheinlich werden beide für den Import der γ -Untereinheit in *S. cerevisiae* benötigt. Der Befund, dass in *kti10/pma1*-Zellen das γ -Toxin zwar intrazellulär akkumuliert, dessen plasmidgekoppelte intrazelluläre Expression aber zu einem Wachstumsarrest führt, spricht dafür, dass Pma1 für die intrazelluläre Aktivierung der γ -Untereinheit notwendig sein könnte.

3.1.2. Pma1 und dessen mögliche Rolle bei Import und Aktivierung des γ-Toxins

PMA1 ist ein essentielles Gen, welches in *S. cerevisiae* für die membranständige H⁺-ATPase Pma1 codiert (155). Diese ATP-getriebene Protonenpumpe ist der Hauptregulator des intrazellulären pH-Wertes und dient der Aufrechterhaltung des elektrochemischen Membranpotentials der Zelle. Die Generierung und Aufrechterhaltung eines Protonengradienten über die Plasmamembran dient als treibende Kraft für sekundäre Transportprozesse und ist für die Nährstoffaufnahme durch Symport von Protonen essentiell (60, 140, 154). Das abundante 100 kDa Protein, welches 9-20% des Gesamtproteinanteils der Plasmamembran ausmacht, ist mit 10 hydrophoben α -Helices in der Zellmembran der Hefezelle verankert (Abb. 5) (20, 44, 141). Pma1 wird in die Superfamilie der Kationen-Transporter der P-Typ ATPasen eingeordnet, deren Mitglieder neben Protonen auch Ionen, wie Na⁺, K⁺ und Ca²⁺ durch die Zellmembran transportieren (103, 155). Die Pma1-Synthese findet an den Ribosomen des rauhen ER statt. Nach der Integration in die Membran des ER erreicht Pma1 sehr schnell seine voll gefaltete Struktur und wird über den Sekretionsweg zur Plasmamembran transportiert und dort in die *lipid rafts* eingebettet (siehe Kapitel 3.1.4.) (75, 19). Interessanterweise unterliegt Pma1 während des Transports zwischen ER und Zelloberfläche zahlreichen posttranslationalen Modifikationen, insbesondere Phosphorylierungen an verschiedenen Serin- und Threoninresten. Deren funktionelle Bedeutung liegt vermutlich in der Regulierung der ATPase-Aktivität und der Proteinstabilisierung (69, 63).



Abb. 5: Topologie der Hefe-Plasmamembran H⁺-ATPase Pma1. Strukturell besteht Pma1 aus 10 Transmembrandomänen, wobei sich N- und C-Terminus im Zytoplasma befinden. *Zick-Zack Linien* entsprechen Regionen mit putativer α -helikaler Sekundärstruktur; *rote Kreises* markieren Positionen, deren Mutationen einen Einfluss auf Proteinfaltung oder Funktion besitzen oder zu einem dominant letalen Phänotyp führen.

Der essentielle Charakter von *PMA1* erlaubt keine Deletion. Auch Mutationen können somit niemals zu einem völlig inaktiven Enzym führen (140). *pma1*-Mutationen, welche eine Reduzierung der Enzymaktivität bedingen, führen zu bestimmten phänotypischen Gemeinsamkeiten. Diese sind ein deutlich langsameres Wachstum als der Wildtyp sowie Resistenz gegenüber dem Aminoglycosid-Antibiotikum Hygromycin B (114, 140). Desweiteren kommt es durch die Unfähigkeit den zytosolischen pH aufrechtzuerhalten zu einem Wachstumsdefizit in Medien mit niedrigem pH-Wert (pH 3-4) (114, 140). Da diese Phänotypen auch für die *kti10*-Mutante charakteristisch sind (Publikation 1), ist von einer reduzierten ATPase-Aktivität auszugehen. Westernanalysen hatten gezeigt, dass weder die zelluläre Pma1-Proteinkonzentration noch dessen intrazelluläre Verteilung in der *kti10*-Mutante im Vergleich zum Wildtyp verändert sind. Somit können die beobachteten phänotypischen Veränderungen nicht in einer veränderten Genexpression, verstärkten Degradation oder Misslokalisierung begründet sein, sondern sprechen für eine Pma1-Fehlfunktion.

Die Sequenzierung der *kti10*-Mutante ergab zwei Mutationen, welche zu den Aminosäure-Substitutionen Q125K und Q357R führen. Der Austausch von Glutamin zu Lysin an der Position 125 bedingt die Einführung eines positiven Restes in die Transmembranhelix 1, was eventuell Auswirkungen auf die Proteinstruktur haben könnte. Die zweite Mutation, mit einem Austausch von Glutamin zu Arginin an Position 357, befindet sich in einem zytoplasmatischen Bereich zwischen der 4. und 5. Transmembranhelix. Frühere Arbeiten hatten gezeigt, dass Q357-Mutationen zu einer signifikant verminderten H⁺-ATPase-Aktivität führen (3, 124). Ebenfalls Zymocinresistenz vermitteln die Mutationen *pma1-105* und *pma1-155*. Die S368F-Substitution von *pma1-105* beeinflusst ebenfalls die H⁺-ATPase-Aktivität, während die *pma1-155* Mutation zu einem 60%igen Abfall der Pma1-Proteinkonzentration im Vergleich zum Wildtyp führt (140, 141). Somit scheinen neben *pma1*-Mutanten, welche in ihrer ATPase-Funktion gestört sind, auch solche Zymocin-resistent zu sein, in welchen das Pma1-Protein unterrepräsentiert vorliegt.

Es stellt sich die Frage, warum eine funktionell beeinträchtigte H⁺-ATPase Pmal *S. cerevisiae* vor der Toxizität des *K. lactis* Zymocins schützt. Ein Vergleich des Hefetoxins mit den Diphtherie-, Botulinum- und Tetanustoxinen könnte hilfreich sein, da deren Transportwege in die Zelle besser verstanden sind. Auch diese müssen, um ihre volle Aktivität zu erreichen, die Barriere Zellwand/Zellmembran entsprechender Zielzellen überwinden. Die jeweils zwei Untereinheiten dieser Toxine sind ebenfalls durch Disulfidbrücken miteinander verbunden. Eine Untereinheit ist dabei für die Bindung an Zelloberflächenrezeptoren verantwortlich, während die andere Untereinheit die noch inaktive toxische Komponente darstellt. Nach der Aufnahme dieser Toxine über Rezeptor-gekoppelte Endozytose erfolgt die Ansäuerung der endosomalen Kompartimente mittels einer H⁺-ATPase. Durch die resultierende pH-Wertänderung kommt es im Endosom zu Konformationsänderungen, welche die Translokation der Toxine ins Zytosol ermöglichen. Durch reduktive Spaltung mittels einer Thioredoxin-Reduktase erlangt die toxische Untereinheit letztlich die volle katalytische Aktivität (6, 122, 123).

Daraus ergeben sich verschiedene Möglichkeiten für die Zymocinkaskade bei einer Pmal-Fehlfunktion in S. cerevisiae. Unabhängig davon, ob sich diese Prozesse an der Zellmembran oder der Membran der Endosomen der Hefezelle abspielen, könnte eine pma1/kti10-Mutation dazu führen, dass die Trennung der Disulfidbrücken des β/γ -Heterodimers nicht oder falsch erfolgt. Die Herstellung eines sauren Milieus durch eine ATPase scheint für die anderen drei Toxine wichtig zu sein, um durch eine Konformationsänderung die Freisetzung der toxischen Untereinheiten zu erreichen. Ein missregulierter zytosolischer pH-Wert könnte dazu führen, dass die Trennung zwischen β - und γ -Untereinheit erfolgt, bevor das γ -Toxin die volle zytotoxische Aktivität erreicht hat. Desweiteren könnte eine falsche Konformationsänderung dazu führen, dass keine Trennung mittels reduktiver Spaltung einer Thioredoxin-Reduktase erfolgen kann. Hier könnte das zelleigene antioxidative Glutaredoxin GRX3 involviert sein. Eine Überexpression von GRX3 schützt S. cerevisiae-Wildtypzellen vor exogen appliziertem Zymocin, nicht aber vor endogen exprimiertem γ -Toxin (87). Solche Zellen zeigen demnach ebenfalls Klasse I-ähnliche Phänotypen (Tab. 3). Somit scheinen endogene Redoxreaktionen in frühe Prozesse der Zymocinkaskade involviert zu sein. Ob allerdings die H⁺-ATPase Pma1 und Grx3 miteinander kooperieren, ist momentan nicht bekannt. Möglicherweise verursacht die Instabilität des pH-Wertes bzw. die zytoplasmatische Ansäuerung aber auch eine Konformationsänderung des y-Toxin und führt zu Veränderungen seiner Aktivität. In all diesen putativen Szenarien würde das γ -Toxin inaktiv im Zytpolasma der Hefezelle vorliegen. Zusammenfassend kann somit festgestellt werden, dass eine Reduktion der Pmal-Aktivität nicht die Aufnahme des γ -Toxins in die Zelle verhindert, sondern vermutlich die Entfaltung der toxischen Wirkung der y-Untereinheit unterbindet.

3.1.3. Das Sphingolipid M(IP)₂C beeinflusst die Toxinaufnahme

Durch die Identifizierung des *KTI6*-Allels als *IPT1*, welches für eine M(IP)₂C-Sphingolipidsynthase in *S. cerevisiae* codiert, ergab sich ein Zusammenhang zwischen Zymocinaufnahme und Sphingolipidbiosynthese. Ähnlich der Synthese der integralen Membranproteine, wie z.B. Pma1, beginnt auch die Synthese der Sphingolipide im ER. Sphingolipide bilden zusammen mit Glycerophospholipiden und Sterolen die Membranlipide. Die beiden erstgenannten Klassen beinhalten amphipatische Moleküle, deren hydrophile Köpfe und hydrophobe Schwänze die Grundlage für die Struktur der Membran als Lipiddoppelschicht bilden, in welcher die Membranproteine eingelagert sind.

Sphingolipide sind in *S. cerevisiae* in Signaltransduktionsprozesse, Regulierung von Wachstum, Stressantwort, Exozytose bzw. Endozytose von Plasmamembranproteinen und Dynamik des Aktinzytoskeletts involviert (26, 27, 37, 38, 39, 55, 169). In der Hefeplasmamembran gibt es drei Arten komplexer Sphingolipide: Inositolphosphoceramid (IPC), <u>Mannosyl-inositolphosphoceramid (MIPC)</u> und <u>Mannosyl-diinositolphosphoceramid</u> M(IP)₂C (27, 40). Sphingolipide stellen mit ca. 30% die Hauptbestandteile der Membranlipide (138). Die Biosynthese beginnt im ER mit der irreversiblen Kondensation einer aktivierten Fettsäure, meist Palmityl-CoA und Serin. Über verschiedene Zwischenstufen entstehen verschiedene Ceramide, welche zum Golgi-Apparat transportiert werden, um dort durch Addition polarer Kopfgruppen ihre endgültigen Modifikationen zu zellulären Sphingolipiden zu erfahren (38, 40, 54). Ausgehend von dem Ceramidrückgrat wird zunächst IPC synthetisiert, welches als Vorstufe für die Synthese des MIPC dient. Im terminalen Schritt findet die Umwandlung von MIPC zu M(IP)₂C statt. Diese Reaktion wird durch die Inositolphosphotransferase Ipt1/Kti6 katalysiert. Die synthetisierten Sphingolipide werden über Vesikel zur Plasmamembran transportiert und dort eingelagert (39, 161, 162).

Die Vermutung, dass in der *kti6*-Mutante der letzte Reaktionsschritt der Sphingolipidbiosynthese gestört ist, konnte in Kooperation mit Robert C. Dickson (Department of Biochemistry, University of Kentucky, USA) bestätigt werden. Die *kti6*-Mutante weist eine M(IP)₂C-Defizienz auf, während der direkte Vorläufer MIPC akkumuliert. In diesen Zellen wird somit kein Endprodukt der Sphingolipidbiosynthese, M(IP)₂C, produziert (Publikation 2, Seite 41).

Der Anteil von M(IP)₂C an der Sphingolipid-Gesamtmenge in *S. cerevisiae* beträgt in Wildtypzellen zwischen 65-75 %, während die restlichen 25-35 % zwischen IPC und MIPC aufgeteilt sind (36, 37). Trotzdem scheint das Fehlen dieses Lipids die Lebensfähigkeit der Hefe erstaunlicherweise nicht zu beeinträchtigen (35, 107). Die wildtypähnlichen Eigenschaften der *kti6/ipt1*-Zellen hinsichtlich Vitalität, Zellproliferation oder dem Verhalten gegenüber thermischem und chemischem Stress bestätigen dies. Eine *kti6/ipt1*-Mutante zeigt jedoch erhöhte Resistenz gegenüber den Antibiotika Hygromycin und Nystatin, sowie eine verminderte Regenerationsfähigkeit der Zellen nach einem Hitzeschock von 55°C (Publikation 2, Seite 36). Hygromycin benötigt um ins Zellinnere zu gelangen ein Membranpotential, das in Abhängigkeit von der Plasmamembran ATPase Pma1 aufrecht erhalten wird (67). Dadurch ergibt sich ein funktioneller Zusammenhang zwischen Pma1 und Ipt1, auf welchen im Kapitel 3.1.5. näher eingegangen wird. Nystatin dagegen interagiert aufgrund struktureller Ähnlichkeit vermutlich mit den Sphingolipiden und beeinträchtigt so

die Integrität der Zellmembran (67). Aufgrund des Fehlens von M(IP)₂C ist diese Wirkung offensichtlich reduziert. Die erhöhte Sensitivität von kti6/ipt1 gegen Hitzestress könnte darin begründet sein, dass der Plasmamembran durch Ceramidmangel die nötige Integrität bzw. Fluidität fehlt. Sphingolipide besitzen durch die Hydrophobizität des Ceramids einen höheren Schmelzpunkt als Glycolipide und verleihen der Plasmamembran so eine gewisse Festigkeit (2). Es wird vermutet, dass Sphingolipide unter nativen Bedingungen in einer flüssiggeordneten Phase vorkommen und sich so von den flüssig-ungeordneten Glycolipiden in der Membran abgrenzen. Es scheint eine laterale Heterogenität in der Zellmembran zu existieren. Diese führt zur Entstehung von sogenannten Mikrodomänen (2, 68, 168) (siehe Kapitel welche durch van-der-Waals-Wechselwirkung und Interaktion 3.1.4.), zwischen Sphingolipiden und Sterolen (Ergosterol in Hefe, Cholesterol im Mensch) eine dichtere Packung erlauben (171). Dieses könnte durch das Fehlen von M(IP)₂C in der kti6-Mutante nicht mehr gegeben sein.

M(IP)₂C-Defizienz und die damit verbundenen Plasmamembrandefekte scheinen nicht nur für die Ausprägung dieser Phänotypen, sondern auch für die Zymocinresistenz von Bedeutung zu sein. So führen Unterbrechungen einzelner Reaktionsschritte der M(IP)₂C-Synthese durch Inaktivierung bzw. Deletion der dafür benötigten Komponenten ebenfalls zu Zymocinresistenz (Publikation 2, Seite 39). Da in diesen Vorläufermutanten ($lag1\Delta lac1\Delta$, $csg1\Delta csh1\Delta$ bzw. $csg1\Delta csh1\Delta csg2$) die IPT1-mRNA-Konzentration nicht verändert ist (Publikation 2, Seite 40), kann die Resistenz dieser Stämme nicht im Fehlen des Enzyms Ipt1 begründet sein. Tatsächlich scheinen auch diese Mutanten nicht zur M(IP)₂C-Bildung befähigt zu sein (163, 185). Vermutlich ist dies im fehlenden Nachschub der Vorläufer Ceramid und MIPC für die M(IP)₂C-Synthese begründet, was darauf hinweist, dass M(IP)₂C eine wichtige Rolle für die Wirkung des Zymocins spielt.

3.1.4. Die Rolle von M(IP)₂C und *lipid rafts* in der Zymocinkaskade

Die in der *S. cerevisiae* Zellmembran mit Sphingolipiden und Sterolen angereicherten Mikrodomänen, auch als *lipid rafts* bezeichnet, sind inselartige Anordnungen, welche frei in der Membran flotieren (5, 37). Hier findet eine selektive Rekrutierung spezifischer Proteine statt, z.B. GPI-verankerte Oberflächenrezeptoren, G-Protein gekoppelte Rezeptoren sowie heterotrimerer G-Proteine und integraler Membranproteine (12, 13, 51, 188). *Lipid rafts* sind an der Aktivierung bzw. Modulation von Signaltransduktionsprozessen beteiligt. Sie transduzieren extrazelluläre Signale durch die Membran, welche Endozytose auslösen (36, 37,

168). Auch das spezifische Membranprotein Pma1/Kti10 bindet mit hoher Affinität in den *lipid rafts* (5, 40, 56, 184).

Da M(IP)₂C mit einem 65-75 % igen Anteil an der Gesamtsphingolipidmenge einer *S. cerevisiae*-Wildtypzelle (36, 37) auch in den *lipid rafts* stark repräsentiert ist, dürfte die Zusammensetzung in der M(IP)₂C-losen *lipid rafts* in der *ipt1/kti6*-Mutante stark verändert sein. Da Zymocin zwar noch an die Zelloberfläche von *ipt1/kti6* binden kann, aber keine intrazelluläre Akkumulation nachgewiesen werden konnte (Publikation 2.), ist M(IP)₂C anscheinend für den γ -Toxinimport essentiell. Im Gegensatz dazu erlauben *pma1/kti10*-Zellen sowohl Bindung des Zymocins, als auch γ -Toxinaufnahme. Somit scheint die Rolle von M(IP)₂C im Zymocinweg der Funktion der H⁺-ATPase Pma1/Kti10 voranzugehen.

Es ist aber auch vorstellbar, dass $M(IP)_2C$ als sekundärer Zymocinrezeptor in der Plasmamembran dient. Im Mechanismus des *S. cerevisiae* Killertoxins K28 kommt es beispielsweise nach der Bindung an hochmolekulares α -1,3-Mannoprotein, welches als Primärrezeptor in der Hefezellwand fungiert, zur Bindung an einen sekundären Plasmamembranrezeptor. Als dieser fungiert der HDEL-Rezeptor Erd2, welcher den Toxinimport über Endozytose und retrograden Transport durch den Sekretionsweg der sensitiven Hefezelle vermittelt (41, 71, 108, 160). So könnte auch das *K. lactis* Zymocin nach der primären Bindung an Zellwandchitin, an M(IP)₂C als sekundären Rezeptor binden. Diese Vermutung wird dadurch gestützt, dass M(IP)₂C mit dem antifungal wirksamen Pflanzendefensin DmAMP1 aus *Dahlia merckii* interagieren kann (182).

Einige Zelloberflächenproteine besitzen keinen transmembranen Anteil, sondern sind durch einen sogenannten GPI- (Glycosyl-Phosphatidyl-Inositol-) Anker mit der Zellmembran verbunden (77). Der GPI-Anker assoziiert präferentiell mit den Mikrodomänen, was eine Rekrutierung der GPI-verankerten Proteine in die *lipid rafts* zur Folge hat (9, 164, 168). Es ist vorstellbar, dass ein M(IP)₂C-abhängiges Membranprotein als sekundärer Rezeptor dient und in Widtypzellen den γ -Toxinimport erlaubt. Das K1-Killersystem nutzt beispielsweise eine ähnliche Vorgehensweise (11, 83). Das K1-Toxin bindet an β -1,6-Glucan der Hefezellwand als Primärrezeptor und nutzt das GPI-verankerte Protein Kre1 als sekundären Zellmembranrezeptor. Zymocininresistenz wäre also auch zu erwarten, wenn der GPI-Anker sekundären Rezeptorproteins aufgrund eines Defekts putativen in eines der Sphingolipidsynthese nicht in der Plasmamembran verankert werden könnte.

3.1.5. Zelluläre Kommunikation zwischen M(IP)₂C und Pma1

Pma1 ist in Hefe eines der häufigsten Plasmamembranproteine (155) und eine Komponente der *lipid rafts* (5, 168). Ein anderer wichtiger Bestandteil dieser Mikrodomänen sind die Sphingolipide, in deren Biosynthese die Inositolphosphotransferase Ipt1/Kti6 eine entscheidende Rolle spielt. Verschiedene Aspekte sprechen für eine intrazelluläre Kommunikation zwischen dem Ipt1-Syntheseprodukt M(IP)₂C und der Plasmamembran H⁺-ATPase Pma1/Kti10.

Dies sind zum einen die phänotypischen Gemeinsamkeiten der kti6- und kti10-Mutanten. Beide zeigen Resistenz gegenüber Zymocin, Hygromycin B und Nystatin, sowie Sensitivität gegenüber γ -Toxin und einem Hitzeschock bei 55°C. Ein Vergleich des phänotypischen Verhaltes der $kti6\Delta$ - und kti10-Einzelmutanten mit einer $kti6\Delta kti10$ -Doppelmutante spricht für eine Epistasie von KTI6/IPT1 über KTI10/PMA1. kti10-abhängige Phänotypen, wie die pHabhängige Zymocinsensitivität, können durch eine zusätzlich KTI6-Deletion supprimiert werden (Publikation 2, Seite 37). Die resultierende Doppelmutante ähnelt durch Insensitivität pH-Wertveränderungen gegenüber im Medium und der stärker ausgeprägten Zymocinresistenz der *kti6*-Einzelmutation. Eine gemeinsame Überexpression von PMA1/KTI10 und dem pma1-Suppressor AST1 führt zu einem Wachstumdefizit in Wildtypzellen. Eine zusätzliche KTI6-Deletion hebt diese Inhibition vollständig auf (Publikation 2, Seite 37).

Zum anderen könnte der Transport von Pma1 zur Plasmamembran Sphingolipid-vermittelt erfolgen (39, 56). In Wildtypzellen wird Pma1 in die Membran des ER integriert, wo es sehr schnell seine voll gefaltete Struktur erreicht. Für die korrekte Faltung in eine funktionelle und stabile Konformation benötigt Pma1 eine entsprechende Mikroumgebung der umliegenden Lipide. Eine Assoziation zwischen Pma1 und den Sphingolipiden u.a. M(IP)₂C in den *lipid rafts* ist hier von entscheidender Bedeutung (5). Anschließend wird Pma1 über den Golgi-Apparat mittels sekretorischer Vesikel zur Plasmamembran transportiert (39, 56). Defekte in der Sphingolipidsynthese können zu einer gestörten Assoziation zwischen den Sphingolipiden in den *lipid rafts* und Pma1 in der hydrophoben Membran des ER führen (39, 56). Neuere Ergebnisse zeigen, dass diese fehlenden Assoziationen mit einer schnellen Degradation des neu synthetisierten Pma1-Proteins in der Vakuole der Hefezelle korreliert (56). Es ist somit durchaus denkbar, dass in der *kti6*-Mutante nicht genügend funktionelles Pma1 die Plasmamembran der Hefezelle erreicht.

3.1.6. Transport des Killertoxins in die Zelle

Zusammenfassend kann festgestellt werden, dass nun alle *KTI*-Allele (16) erfolgreich identifiziert wurden (Tab. 2). Trotzdem konnte nicht restlos geklärt werden, wie die γ -Untereinheit in sensitive *S. cerevisiae*-Zellen importiert wird. Nach dem Andocken der α -Untereinheit an Chitin könnte die β -Untereinheit des Zymocins wichtig werden. In der Aminosäuresequenz konnten vier potentielle Transmembranhelices identifiziert werden. Es wird daher vermutet, dass die β -Untereinheit durch Integration in die Zellmembran der Hefezelle die Membranpassage des γ -Toxins ermöglichen könnte (173).

Die Identifizierung von *KTI6* und *KTI10* zeigte, dass offensichtlich verschiedene zelluläre Prozesse an der Aufnahme und Aktivierung des γ -Toxins beteiligt sein müssen. Neben Chitin als Zellwandrezeptor (15, 85) besitzen sowohl das Sphingolipid M(IP)₂C, als auch die H⁺-ATPase Pma1 funktionelle Aufgaben als Binde-, Transport und/oder Aktivierungsfaktoren. In der Zymocinkaskade scheint die Funktion der ATPase Pma1 zeitlich der Rolle von M(IP)₂C nachgeschaltet zu sein. Weitere neue Erkenntnisse sollte die im Folgenden beschriebene Suche nach neuen dosisabhängigen Zymocinsuppressoren bringen.

3.2. Dosisabhängige Suppression des K. lactis Zymocins durch die S. cerevisiae Gene ISR1 und UGP1

Nicht nur Deletionen oder Mutationen (Tab. 2), sondern auch Überexpressionen (Tab. 3) bestimmter Gene führen zu Zymocinresistenz. So vermitteln *KTI12*, *SAP155*, *tRNA^{Glu}* und *GRX3* solch einen dosisabhängigen Effekt in *S. cerevisiae*-Wildtypzellen. Die Überexpression der drei erstgenannten Gene führt zur Resistenz gegenüber exogen appliziertem Zymocin und endogen exprimiertem γ -Toxin. Diese Zellen zeigen daher Klasse II-ähnliche Phänotypen (16, 46, 52, 87, 88, 89). Dagegen führt eine Überexpression des Glutaredoxingens *GRX3* zu einem Klasse I-ähnlichen Phänotyp mit Resistenz gegen exogen appliziertem Zymocin und Sensitivität gegen endogen exprimiertem γ -Toxin (87).

Mit *ISR1* und *UGP1* konnten zwei neue *multicopy* Zymocinsuppressoren mit einem Klasse Iähnlichen Phänotyp identifiziert werden (Tab. 3) (Publikation 3). Das impliziert, dass beide Gene nicht am intrazellulären Wirkgeschehen von Zymocin beteiligt sind, sondern vielmehr Zymocinbindung, -aufnahme und/oder –aktivierung beeinflussen. Alle bisher bekannten *multicopy* Suppressoren sind in Tabelle 3 zusammengefasst.

multicopy Allele	Funktion	Quelle
KTI12	Elongator-Interaktor	16, 46
SAP155	Sit4-assoziiertes Protein	87, 88, 112
t R NA ^{Glu}	tRNA ^{Glu}	16
GRX3	Glutaredoxin	87
ISR1	putative Kinase	Publikation 3
UGP1	UGPase	Publikation 3

Tab. 3: Gene, deren Überexpressionen zu Zymocinresistenz führen. Dabei ist zu unterscheiden zwischen solchen, die einen Klasse I- (grün) und einen Klasse II-ähnlichen Phänotyp (orange) vermitteln.

ISR1 (<u>I</u>nhibition of <u>S</u>taurosporine <u>R</u>esistance) codiert eine nichtessentielle putative Proteinkinase, welche auf Aminosäureebene eine hohe Sequenzübereinstimmung zu menschlichen Raf-Kinasen besitzt. Diese spielen eine wichtige Rolle im MAP-Kinase- und Ras-Raf-Signalweg (121). Epistatische Analysen zeigten, dass Isr1 in *S. cerevisiae* funktionell in den Proteinkinase C (Pkc)-Signalweg involviert ist (121). Überexpression von *ISR1* führt zu Hypersensitivität gegenüber Staurosporin, einem potenten Inhibitor des Pkc-Signalwegs.

UGP1 codiert dagegen eine essentielle <u>UDP-Glucose-Pyrophosphorylase</u> (UGPase), welche im Zytoplasma die reversible Umwandung von Glucose-1-Phosphat und UTP in UDP-Glucose und anorganisches Pyrophosphat katalysiert. Die UGPase ist ein Schlüsselenzym des Kohlenhydrat-Metabolismus (31, 106). So dient UDP-Glucose in *S. cerevisiae* als Glycosyl-Donor für die Biosynthese von Glycogen und Trehalose, die Bildung des β -Glucans der Zellwand, die Protein-N-Glycosylierung und ermöglicht Galactoseeintritt in die Glycolyse (32). Durch den essentiellen Charakter von *UGP1* für *S. cerevisiae* kann das Verhalten einer *ugp1* Δ -Mutante gegenüber Zymocin nicht getestet werden. Eine Deletion von *ISR1* hat keinen Einfluss auf das Verhalten der Hefezelle in Gegenwart von Zymocin.

Phänotypische Analysen deuten auf distinkte Mechanismen hin, die in mc*ISR1*- und mc*UGP1*-Zellen zur Zymocinresistenz führen. Während mc*UGP1*-Zellen wildtypähnliches Verhalten zeigen, führt die Überexpression von *ISR1* zu partieller Resistenz gegenüber Calcofluor White und Sensitivität gegenüber Caffein und einen $chs3\Delta$ -ähnlichen Phänotyp (Publikation 3, Seite 50). Sowohl Sensitivität gegenüber Caffein, als auch Calcofluor White weisen bei Hefen auf Zellwanddefekte hin (67, 148, 151). Eine direkte Detektion des Zellwandchitins von Hefezellen ist durch die fluoreszierende Eigenschaft des Calcofluor

Whites möglich (85). Der Chitingehalt und die Chitinverteilung konnten anhand Calcofluorgefärbter mc*ISR1*- und mc*UGP1*-Zellen mittels fluoreszenzmikroskopischer Aufnahmen visualisiert werden. In beiden Fällen war eine Missverteilung des Chitins in der Hefezellwand im Vergleich zum Wildtyp zu beobachten, was letztlich auf eine Veränderung der Zellwandeigenschaften in diesen Zellen deutet (Publikation 3, Seite 50). Bereits anhand der *chs* Δ -Stämme konnte gezeigt werden, dass eine Veränderung des Chitingehalts der Hefezellwand direkte Auswirkungen auf die Bindung und/oder den Transport des Zymocins hat. So führt eine Deletion (*chs3* Δ), ein fehlender Transport (*chs7* Δ) oder eine reduzierte Aktivität (*chs4* Δ) kombiniert mit Misslokalisationen (*chs4* Δ *chs5* Δ *chs6* Δ) der Chitinsyntase III zu einer vollständigen Resistenz gegenüber exogen appliziertem Zymocin (Tab. 4) (85). Diese Daten unterstreichen die Bedeutung des Chitins als Zellwandrezeptor für das Zymocin und weisen darauf hin, dass eine inkorrekte Chitinkonzentration und/oder -verteilung ausschlaggebend für die Ausbildung der Zymocinresistenz sind.

3.2.1. Der ISR1 und UGP1 Suppressionseffekt benötigt Pho85-Aktivität

Erstaunlicherweise ist der Suppressionseffekt von mc*ISR1* und mc*UGP1* von der Cyclinabhängigen Kinase (CDK) Pho85 abhängig (Publikation 3). Durch Interaktion mit ihren zehn verschiedenen Cyclin-Untereinheiten ist Pho85 in eine Vielzahl von regulatorischen Prozessen involviert (79, 115, 166). Die vielfältigen Phosphorylierungen an diversen Zielproteinen durch Pho85 führen zu verschiedenen regulatorischen Konsequenzen, eingeschlossen Veränderungen der Protein-Lokalisation, der Stabilität und/oder Aktivität dieser Proteine (18, 84). Zwei dieser Substrate könnten Ugp1 und Isr1 sein. In *in vitro* Phosphorylierungsassays wurden beide als Substrate des Pho85-CDK-Komplexes identifiziert (34). Eine fehlende CDK-Aktivität in *pho85*Δ-Zellen bedingt nahezu einen kompletten Verlust der Suppressionsfähigkeit von mc*ISR1* und mc*UGP1*, was sich in Zymocinsensitivität dieser Zellen wiederspiegelt (Publikation 3, Seite 51). Pho85 bzw. vermutlich die Pho85abhängige Phosphorylierung von Isr1 bzw. Ugp1 wird also für die dosisabhängige Suppression durch mc*ISR1* und mc*UGP1* benötigt.

Wie bereits erwähnt, ist Ugp1 in *S. cerevisiae* durch Bereitstellung der Vorstufe UDP-Glucose in die Biosynthese der β -Glucane involviert, welche mehr als 60% der Zellwandkohlenhydrate darstellen. Eine reduzierte UGPase-Aktivität führt zu einer Reduktion des 1,6- β -Glucangehalts der Hefezellwand (31, 32). Man kann die Möglichkeit nicht ausschließen, dass eine Überexpression von *UGP1* ebenfalls zu einer Änderungen des 1,6- β - Glucangehalts führt. Neben 1,6- β -Glucan stellen 1,3- β -Glucan, Chitin und Zellwandproteine die Strukturkomponenten der Zellwand dar, welche über kovalente Bindungen miteinander verbunden sind. Die 1,6- β -Glucane sind relativ kleine Moleküle, welche insgesamt nur 5% der Zellwand ausmachen. Sie vermitteln vor allem die Verknüpfung der Zellwandproteine und Chitin mit der Hauptkomponente der Hefezellwand, den 1,3- β -Glucanen (94, 99). Es ist vorstellbar, dass vermehrtes 1,6- β -Glucan in der Zellwand von mc*UGP1*-Zellen das Chitin so maskiert, dass die Bindung der α -Untereinheit an den Zymocinrezeptor nicht mehr möglich wäre. Das würde bedeuten, dass der durch die erhöhte UGPase-Aktivität veränderte 1,6- β -Glucangehalt verantwortlich für den *multicopy* Zymocineffekt von *UGP1* ist.

Zusammenfassend kann festgestellt werden, dass die Effekte einer dosisabhängigen Zymocinsuppression durch mc*ISR1* und mc*UGP1* aufgrund der diskutierten Phänotypen zeitlich früh innerhalb der Zymocinkaskade greifen sollten. Beide verändern vermutlich die Zelloberfläche von *S. cerevisiae*, sodass Zymocinbindung und/oder der γ -Toxinimport beeinflusst sind.

3.2.2. Aufklärung des γ-Toxinimports

Es stellt sich die Frage, wie erfolgsversprechend die Suche nach weiteren Mutanten ist, um den Transportweg der γ -Untereinheit in die Hefezelle aufzuklären. Verschiedene Arbeitsgruppen haben in den letzten 20 Jahren in unabhängigen Versuchsansätzen eine Vielzahl Zymocin-resistenter Mutanten beider Klassen (I und II) isoliert (14, 52, 95, 98 158). Zuletzt testete Hiroko K. Kitamoto (National Institute of Agrobiological Sciences, Japan) die gesamte etwa 4900 Stämme umfassende *S. cerevisiae* Euroscarf "Knock out"-Kollektion (206) auf Zymocinresistenz. In der Tabelle 4 sind alle bisher identifizierten Gene der Klasse I aufgeführt. Die Aussichten, weitere resistente Stämme zu finden, sind vermutlich eher gering. Einzig essentielle Gene wie beispielsweise *PMA1* oder Mehrfachdeletionen, welche ganze Signalwege unterbinden, scheinen Aussicht auf Erfolg zu versprechen.

Perspektivisch könnten biochemische und zytologische Experimente hilfreich sein, den Mechanismus des γ -Toxinimports und die Funktion der β -Untereinheit bei diesem Prozess zu verstehen. Durch Markierung der Untereinheiten mit Immunogold oder Fluoreszenzfarbstoffen könnte man versuchen, den Weg des Zymocins durch die Zellwand/Zellmembran mittels elektronen- oder fluoreszenzmikroskopischer Aufnahmen zu verfolgen. Durch einen Vergleich zwischen Wildtypzellen und Klasse I-Mutanten (Tab. 4)

könnten verschiedene Fragestellungen beantwortet werden. Zum Beispiel, wann und wo die Trennung von β - und γ -Untereinheit erfolgt oder wie der Import des γ -Toxins ins Zellinnere von *S. cerevisiae* erfolgt. Neben der bereits diskutierten Endozytose ist es auch möglich, dass sich die β -Untereinheit in die Zellmembran einlagert und das γ -Toxin durch die Membran gezogen wird. Im Zellinneren erfolgt dann die Trennung beider durch Disulfidbrücken verbundenen Untereinheiten und das γ -Toxin erlangt seine katalytische Aktivität.

Tab. 4: Zusammenfassung der Gene, deren Mutationen oder Überexpressionen in *S. cerevisiae* Resistenz ausschließlich gegen exogenem Zymocin verleihen und somit einen Klasse I-ähnlichen Phänotyp vermitteln.

			Gen	Funktion	Referenz
Mutationen bzw.			CHS3 / KTI2		
			CHS4		
	letionen	CHS5	Chitinbiosynthese	16, 85, 96	
		CHS6			
		CHS7			
		De	PMA1 / KTI10	Plasmamembran H ⁺ -ATPase	Publikation 1
			РТК2	Ionentransport	Publikation 1
			IPT1 / KTI6	Ceramidbiosynthese	Publikation 2
Über- expres-	S-	expres- sionen	GRX3	Glutathion-Glutaredoxin System	87
	pre		UGP1	UGPase Aktivität	Publikation 3
	ex		ISR1	putative Kinase	Publikation 3

Das γ -Toxin von *K. lactis* ist das erste identifizierte eukaryotische Toxin, welches tRNAs als Ziel besitzt. Es schneidet tRNA^{Glu}, tRNA^{Lys} und tRNA^{Gln} endonucleolytisch auf der 3'-Seite von modifizierten Wobble-Uridin-Resten (U₃₄) im Anticodonbereich (89, 111, 205). Da diese Spaltung jedoch nur nach einer Elongator-abhängigen U₃₄-Modifikation erfolgen kann, stellt das γ -Toxin ein sehr wirksames molekulares Werkzeug für die im zweiten Teil der Arbeit beschriebenen funktionellen Analysen des Elongatorkomplexes dar.

3.3. Die Funktion des Elongators ist abhängig vom Elp1-Phosphorylierungsstatus

Die größte Elongatoruntereinheit Elp1 ist ein Protein, welches in verschiedenen Phosphorylierungszuständen auftreten kann. In Wildtypzellen existiert ein ausgeglichenes Verhältnis zwischen hypo- und hyperphosphorylierter Elp1-Form, welches mit Zymocinsensitivität einhergeht (88). Die Akkumulation nur einer Elp1-Form führt dagegen zu Zymocinresistenz. Einen Einfluss auf die Elp1-Phosphorylierung und damit die Funktionalität des Elongators hat die Typ2A-Proteinphosphatase Sit4 im Zusammenspiel mit ihren vermutlich regulatorischen Untereinheiten Sap155, Sap185 und Sap190 (73, 87, 88, 112). Eine Einzeldeletion von *SIT4*, Doppeldeletionen von *SAP185* und *SAP190* bzw. eine Überexpression von *SAP155* führen zu einer Akkumulation der hyperphosphorylierten Elp1-Form und Zymocinresistenz (Tab. 5) (88). Die Phosphatase Sit4 scheint in Kombination mit Sap185 und Sap190 die Dephosphorylierung von Elp1 zu vermitteln und eine wichtige Rolle bei der zellulären Zymocinantwort zu spielen (87,88).

Proteinphosphorylierung und -dephosphorylierung sind regulatorische Mechanismen, um wichtige zelluläre Funktionen posttranslational zu steuern. Das *S. cerevisiae*-Proteom beinhaltet etwa 40 Phosphatasen und 120 Proteinkinasen (153, 202), was eine Vielzahl von potentiellen Kandidaten für eine Elp1-Phosphorylierung impliziert. Die Identifizierung der zymocinresistenten *kti14*-Mutante mittels Komplementationsanalyse (Tab. 2) (116) lieferte einen vielversprechenden Kandidaten. *KTI14* ist identisch mit dem ORF *YPL204w* (116), welcher bereits als *HRR25* (<u>H0</u> and <u>Radiation Repair</u>) (74) beschrieben wurde. Es codiert für eine essentielle Caseinkinase I (CKI)-Isoform in *S. cerevisiae*. Die Auswirkungen einer *hrr25*-Mutation auf die Zelle auch im Hinblick auf die Funktionalität des Elongatorkomplexes wurden im vorliegenden Manuskript 1 untersucht.

3.3.1. Hrr25, eine Caseinkinase I-Isoform

Die Bäckerhefe besitzt vier unabhängige CKI-homologe Isoformen mit zum Teil überlappenden Funktionen, codiert durch YCK1, YCK2, YCK3 und HRR25 (74, 150, 192). Es handelt sich hierbei um eine Familie multifunktioneller Serin- und Threoninkinasen, welche von Hefen bis Mensch hoch konserviert sind (65). Da aber Deletionen von YCK1, YCK2 oder YCK3 nicht vor Zymocin schützen, ist anscheinend nur HRR25 funktionell in Elongatorabhängige Prozesse involviert (116). Offenbar führen strukturelle Unterschiede zwischen den CKI-Isoformen zu funktionellen Unterschieden im Hinblick auf die Zymocinwirkung. Zwei Merkmale, die Hrr25 von den anderen drei Isoformen abtrennt, sind markant. Das ist einerseits das Fehlen eines Prenylierungsmotivs am C-Terminus, an das ein Farnesyl- (C₁₅) oder ein Geranylgeranylrest (C₂₀) angehängt werden kann. Dies verleiht den zytosolischen Proteinen Yck1, Yck2 und Yck3 einen hydrophoben C-terminalen Anker, der Membranassoziationen erlaubt. Lokalisierungsstudien bestätigten, dass Yck1, Yck2 und Yck3 vorwiegend Plasmamembran-assoziiert vorliegen (187), während Hrr25 kaum dazu in der Lage zu sein scheint (192). Der zweite Unterschied ist eine potentielle NLS (<u>Nucleus Localisation Sequence</u>) mit der Sequenz TKKQKY am C-terminalen Ende der Kinasedomäne von Hrr25. Diese Sequenz besitzt Ähnlichkeit zur NLS des großen SV40 T-Antigens und des Hefe-Histons H2B. Sie konnte aber im Fall von Hrr25 bis heute noch nicht eindeutig als funktionell identifiziert werden. Lokalisierungsstudien zeigten aber, dass sich Hrr25 in *S. cerevisiae* im Nucleus, sowie Zytoplama, der Knospe und der Verbindung zwischen Knospe und Mutterzelle befindet (82, 92, 116, 187).

Dort ist Hrr25 offensichtlich in eine Vielzahl unterschiedlicher zellulärer Prozesse involviert z.B. in DNA-Reparatur, Stress-Signaling, Sekretion, Meiose oder dem Kalzium-Signalweg (33, 72, 74, 92, 127, 145, 156, 157). Es bindet und phosphoryliert transkriptionell relevante Substrate, wie Swi6 und Crz1. Swi6 ist eine Untereinheit des SBF-Transkriptionsfaktors, welcher Reparaturgene bei DNA-Schäden durch beispielsweise <u>Methylmethans</u>ulfonat (MMS) aktiviert (72, 74). Crz1 ist ein Genaktivator, welcher durch den Ca²⁺/Calmodulin-Signalweg kontrolliert wird (92).

Für einen funktionellen Zusammenhang zwischen Hrr25 und Elongator spricht, dass beide in Assoziation mit der RNA-Polymerase II gefunden wurden (59, 136, 146). Desweiteren konnten in TAP-Aufreinigungen Interaktionen von Hrr25 mit den Elongatoruntereinheiten Elp1, Elp2 und Elp3, sowie der Phosphatase Sit4 einschließlich ihrer assoziierten Proteine Sap185 und Sap190 nachgewiesen werden (57, 73, 112, 156).

3.3.2. Phänotypische Eigenschaften deuten auf einen funktionellen Zusammenhang zwischen Hrr25 und Elongator hin

Die Analysen der phänotypischen Eigenschaften der untersuchten *hrr25*-Mutanten (*hrr25-3* und *hrr25-4*) bestärkten die Vermutung, dass Hrr25 in die Elp1-Phosphorylierung involviert sein könnte. *hrr25-3* vermittelt neben Zymocinresistenz, auch Sensitivität gegenüber
chemischem (Caffein, 6-Azauracil) bzw. thermischem Stress (Temperaturen über 39°C) und somit einen *elp*-ähnlichen Phänotyp (Manuskript 1). In Zellen mit Mutationen in den Elongator- (*elp1* Δ -*elp* 6Δ) oder Elongator-assoziierten Genen (*kti11* Δ -*kti13* Δ) liegt aufgrund fehlender Elongator-abhängiger U₃₄-Modifikation ein Funktionsverlust der Suppressor-tRNA *SUP4* vor (siehe Einleitung, Kapitel 1.3.) (80, 81). Somit können *ochre*-Stoppcodons der Reportergene *ade2-1* oder *can1-100* nicht mehr von *SUP4* in Tyrosin decodiert werden, was zu einer Rotfärbung der Kolonien bzw. Adeninauxotrophie oder Canavaninresistenz führt (80). Sowohl in *sit4* Δ - und *sap185* Δ *sap190* Δ , als auch in der *hrr25-4*-Mutante war ebenfalls eine Aufhebung des Suppressionseffekts von *SUP4* zu beobachten (Manuskript 1, Seite 81 und 85). Daraus lässt sich schlussfolgern, dass auch in Zellen mit gestörter Phosphobalance ein tRNA-Modifikationsdefekt vorliegt. Diese Befunde bestärken die Vermutung, dass der Elp1-Phosphorylierungsstatus für funktionelle Aspekte des Elongators innerhalb der tRNA-Modifikation von Bedeutung ist.

3.3.3. Kinasedomäne und C-terminaler Schwanz sind wichtig für die Wirkung des Zymocins und den Elp1-Phosphorylierungsstatus

Sequenzanalysen hatten gezeigt, dass beide untersuchten Mutationen hrr25-3 und hrr25-4 Aminosäureaustausche bedingen (116). In hrr25-3 führt die missense-Mutation G156T zu einer Substitution von Glutaminsäure in Asparaginsäure an der Postion 52. Obwohl es sich hierbei um eine konservative Mutation handelt, d.h. ein Austausch ähnlicher Aminosäuren erfolgt, scheint diese einen erheblichen Effekt auf die Aktivität und/oder Struktur des Proteins zu haben. Glutaminsäure an Position 52 befindet sich in der Nähe des ATP-Bindemotivs. Es ist eine in den Kinasedomänen aller vier Hefe CKI-Isoformen (192) und anderer Kinasen, wie Cdc28p, Kss1p, Fus3p und Raf1p (74), konservierte Aminosäure. Tatsächlich konnte in in vitro Kinaseassays gezeigt werden, dass rekombinantes Hrr25-3-Protein inaktiv ist (Manuskript 1, Seite 77). Das könnte die starken phänotypischen Einschränkungen der hrr25-3-Hefemutante erklären. Neben der Resistenz gegenüber Zymocin und der Ausprägung der elp-Phänotypen sind hrr25-3-Zellen in ihrem Wachstum sehr stark verzögert, zeigen eine abnorme Zellmorphologie, eine geringe Paarungseffizienz und sind nicht in Lage, in Gegenwart des Alkylierungsreagens MMS zu wachsen (Manuskript 1, Seite 77, unveröffentlichte Daten). Die Proteinstabilität von Hrr25-3, sowie die Interaktionen mit Elongatoruntereinheiten sind in der hrr25-3-Mutante dagegen nicht verändert (Manuskript 1, Seite 78). Somit können die beobachteten phänotypischen Veränderungen nicht im Fehlen des Proteins begründet sein. Die Akkumulierung der hypophosphorylierten Elp1-Form in *hrr25-3*-Zellen (Manuskript, Seite 80) bestärkt dagegen die aufgrund der durchgeführten *in vitro* Kinaseassays vermutete Hrr25-3-Inaktivität. Die Mutation *hrr25-3* hat somit einen Einfluss auf den Phosphorylierungsstatus von Elp1. Diese Gemeinsamkeit teilen die beiden Zymocinresistenten Mutanten *hrr25-3* und *hrr25-4*.

In *hrr25-4* erzeugt die *nonsense*-Mutation A1180T einen frühzeitigen Translationsabbruch nach der Postion 394 der Aminosäuresequenz (116). Das führt zu einer Verkürzung um 100 Aminosäuren und damit zum Verlust der C-terminalen Prolin-Glutamin-reichen Region, für welche eine Involvierung in Substratbindung und/oder zelluläre Lokalisierung des Proteins postuliert wird (74, 187). Westernanalysen zeigten, dass das um etwa 10 kDa verkürzte Hrr25-4-Protein zwar in wildtypähnlicher Konzentration in der Zelle vorliegt, die Verteilung im Sucrosegradienten aber eine zelluläre Misslokalisierung vermuten lässt (Manuskript 1, Seite 84.). Trotzdem ist die Bindung von Hrr25-4 an den Elongator nicht beeinflusst (Manuskript 1, Seite 78). Erstaunlicherweise zeigte rekombinantes Hrr25-4 Protein *in vitro* noch Kinaseaktivität. Diese Restaktivität von 33% im Vergleich zu Wildtyp-Hrr25 könnte eine Erklärung für die in phänotypischer und morphologischer Hinsicht milderen Phänotypen der *hrr25-4*-Mutante sein. Im Gegensatz zu *hrr25-3*- besitzen *hrr25-4*-Zellen kein signifikantes Wachstumsdefizit bei chemischem bzw. thermischem Stress und keine veränderte Zellmorphologie (Manuskript 1, Seite 77). Somit scheint die Restaktivität von Hrr25-4 ausreichend zu sein, um verschiedene zelluläre Prozesse aufrechtzuerhalten.

Zusammenfasssend kann festgestellt werden, dass die multifunktionelle CKI Hrr25 in S. cerevisiae an Prozessen beteiligt ist, die Elongator-abhängig und Elongator-unabhängig sind. So ist die Involvierung von Hrr25 in DNA-Reparatur sicher Elongator-unabhängig, da Deletionen der Elongatorgene ELP1-ELP6 oder Elongator-assoziierter Gene KTI11-KTI13 nicht zu einem Wachstumsdefizit in Gegenwart von MMS führen (116, unveröffentlichte Daten). Dagegen stehen die Zymocinresistenz der hrr25-3- und hrr25-4-Mutante sowie die elp-Phänotypen eindeutig mit Elongatorfunktionen im Zusammenhang. Die Kontrolle des Elp1-Phosphorylierungsstatus in Abhängigkeit von Hrr25 und Sit4 unterstützt die Funktion des Elongators innerhalb der tRNA-Modifikation und mRNA-Decodierung (Manuskript 1) (80, 89). In Wildtypzellen existiert das bereits erwähnte ausbalancierte Verhältnis zwischen hypound hyperphosphorylierter Elp1-Form (88). Sowohl Hyper- $(sit4\Delta)$ und $sap185\Delta sap190\Delta$), als auch Hypophosphorylierung (hrr25-3 und hrr25-4) von Elp1 scheinen mit Verlust dieser Elongatorfunktion assoziiert zu sein. Es wäre denkbar, dass die Aktivität des Elongators über die Elp1-Phosphorylierung reguliert wird. Liegt Elp1 nicht im Gleichgewicht zwischen hypo- und hyperphosphorylierter Form vor, wird aufgrund mangelnder oder verringerter Elongatoraktivität und damit verbundener tRNA-Untermodifikation an der Wobble-Position U_{34} verschiedener tRNAs Zymocinresistenz ausgeprägt.

3.3.4. Interaktion zwischen Hrr25 und Elongator ist Kti12-abhängig

Da die Integrität bzw. Assemblierung des Elongators in hrr25-4-Zellen nicht gestört ist (Manuskript 1, Seite 87), kann Hrr25 keine strukturelle Untereinheit des Elongators sein. Hrr25 kann somit vermutlich wie Kti12 (siehe Einleitung Kapitel 1.4.) als ein Protein angesehen werden, welches transient mit dem Elongator interagiert. Kti12 besitzt neben einer potentiellen ATP- oder GTP-Bindedomäne auch eine Calmodulin-Bindedomäne und wird als ein Protein mit putativ regulatorischer Funktion angesehen (16, 53, 131). Es hat eine gewisse Sonderstellung, da es das einzige bekannte Gen ist, dessen Deletion oder Überexpression *S. cerevisiae* Zymocinresistenz verleiht (46). Diese beiden Szenarien verhindern ($kti12\Delta$) bzw. verringern (mc*KT112*) eine Assoziation von Hrr25 mit dem Elongator (Manuskript 1, Seite 78). Weitere Bindungsstudien bestärkten die Vermutung, dass sich beide Proteine (Hrr25 und Kti12) in Bezug auf ihre Assoziation mit dem Elongator gegenseitig beeinflussen. So ist in hrr25-4 die Affinität des Elongators für Kti12 erhöht (Manuskript, Seite 83).

Sowohl eine hrr25-, als auch eine $kti12\Delta$ -Mutation führen neben Zymocinresistenz zu einer Akkumulation der hypophosphorylierten Elp1-Form (Tab. 5) (Manuskript 1) (88). Die Akkumulation der hypophosphorylierten Elp1-Form in einer $kti12\Delta$ -Mutante könnte somit darin begründet zu sein, dass die Kinase Hrr25 nicht am Elongator gebunden ist, um Elp1-Phosphorylierung direkt oder indirekt zu vermitteln.

Diese Daten implizieren, dass für die Rekrutierung von Hrr25 zum Elongator Kti12 eine Brückenfunktion besitzen könnte. Möglicherweise besteht die regulatorische Funktion von Kti12 darin, die Bindung und Ablösung von Hrr25 und dem Elongator zu vermitteln.

3.3.5. Antagonismus zwischen Caseinkinase Hrr25 und Phosphatase Sit4

In der Tabelle 5 sind alle bislang bekannten Mutationen erfasst, die zu Veränderungen im Elp1-Phosphorylierungsstatus führen. Erstaunlich ist, dass ein Verlust der Untereinheiten des HAP-Komplex (*ELP4-ELP6*) keinen Einfluss auf den Elp1-Phosphorylierungsstatus hat, obwohl beispielsweise eine *ELP6*-Deletion zu einen Verlust der Integrität des Elongators und der Kti12-Bindung führt (53). Dagegen führen Deletionen der Core-Elongatoruntereinheiten *ELP2* und *ELP3* erwartungsgemäß zu einer veränderten Elp1-Phosphorylierung (unveröffentlichte Daten). Somit kommt es in *S. cerevisiae* nach bisherigen Erkenntnissen durch *elp2*Δ-, *elp3*Δ-, *kti12*Δ- und *hrr25*-Mutationen zu einer Akkumulation der hypophosphorylierten Elp1-Form (Manuskript 1 und unveröffentlichte Daten) (88). Einen entgegengesetzten Effekt zeigen *sit4*Δ- und *sap185*Δ*sap190*Δ-Mutationen mit einer Akkumulation der hyperphosphorylierten Elp1-Form (88).

Tab. 5: Elp1-Phosphorylierungsstatus in Elongator-relevanten Mutanten. Orange: ausgeglichenesVerhältnis zwischen beiden Elp1-Formen; Gelb: Akkumulation der hypophosphorylierten Elp1-Form; Rot:Akkumulation der hyperphosphorylierten Elp1-Form

S. cerevisiae-Stamm	hypophosphorylierte	hyperphosphorylierte	
	Elp1-form	Elp1-form	
Wildtyp	Х	Х	
elp2∆	X		
elp3∆	X		
elp4∆	Х	Х	
elp5∆	X	Х	
elp6∆	X	X	
<i>kti12</i> ∆	X		
hrr25	Х		
sit4 Δ		Х	
hrr25 sit4∆	Х	Х	
kti12∆ sit4∆		X	
sap185∆ sap190∆		Х	

Um die entgegengesetzten Effekte von Hrr25 und Sit4 auf den Elp1-Phosphorylierungsstatus zu erklären, wurden bereits im vorliegenden Manuskript zwei denkbare Szenarien diskutiert. Dies ist zum einen eine direkte Phosphorylierung durch Hrr25/Kti12 bzw. die Aktivierung einer <u>El</u>ongator<u>k</u>inase (ELK), welche Elp1 phosphorylieren kann. Vorstellbar ist zum anderen aber auch eine indirekte Kontrolle der Sit4•Sap185/Sap190-abhängigen Elp1-Dephosphorylierung durch Hrr25 im Zusammenspiel mit Kti12. In Abb. 6 wurde versucht dies vereinfacht schematisch darzustellen. Aufgrund der bereits diskutierten Ergebnisse wird davon ausgegangen, dass Hrr25 *upstream* von Kti12 wirkt.



Abb. 6: Modell der Phosphorylierung bzw. Dephosphorylierung von Elp1. Putative Rollen von Hrr25/Kti12 bei der Elp1-Phosphorylierung oder als negative Regulatoren der Sit4-abhängigen Dephosphorylierung sind dargestellt. Hrr25 agiert dabei *upstream* von Kti12.

Wie bereits erwähnt akkumuliert Elp1 in der *hrr25-3-* und der *kti12* Δ -Einzelmutante in der hypophosphorylierten Form. Eine zusätzliche Deletion von *SIT4* in diesen Stämmen führt zu charakteristischen Veränderungen. Die resultierende *hrr25-3sit4* Δ -Doppelmutante zeigt jetzt neben der hypophosphorylierten- auch die hyperphosphorylierter Elp1-Form (Manuskript 1, Seite 82) (Tab. 5). Diese wildtyp-ähnliche Elp1-Phosphobalance geht in *hrr25-3sit4* Δ auch mit Zymocinsensitivität einher (Manuskript 1, Seite 82). Die *kti12* Δ *sit4* Δ -Doppelmutante akkumuliert dagegen ausschließlich hyperphosphoryliertes Elp1 und verhält sich Zymocinresistent (88) (Tab. 5). Gegen eine direkte Phosphorylierung von Elp1 durch Hrr25 oder Kti12 spricht somit in beiden Fällen das Erscheinen der hyperphosphorylierter Elp1-Form. Das impliziert, dass es in beiden Doppelmutanten eine andere Kinase geben muss, die Elp1 phosphorylieren kann. Aber auch die Möglichkeit ist nicht völlig auszuschließen, dass die Elp1-Phosphorylierung direkt durch Hrr25 und/oder Kti12 erfolgt und nur in dem Fall eines Defektes diese Funktion durch eine redundante Kinase in der *S. cerevisiae* übernommen wird. Kti12 zeigt zwar Ähnlichkeit zu der tRNA-abhängigen Kinase PSTK aus Archea (167). Gegen eine Elp1-Phosphorylierung durch Kti12 spricht aber, dass eine Kinaseaktivität in *S. cerevisiae* bisher nicht gezeigt werden konnte. Möglicherweise aktivieren Hrr25 und/oder Kti12 allein oder in Kombination miteinander eine <u>El</u>ongator<u>k</u>inase (Elk), welche Elp1 phosporyliert (Abb. 5). Da auch in groß angelegten Phosphorylom-Studien Elp1 bisher nicht als Substrat einer Kinase identifiziert werden konnte (139), ist dies eine interessante Aufgabe für die Zukunft.

Alternativ, d.h. unabhängig von einer Elongatorkinase, könnte eine indirekte Regulierung der Sit4-abhängigen Elp1-Dephosphorylierung durch Hrr25 im Zusammenspiel mit Kti12 stattfinden. Bereits im Calcineurin-Signalweg konnte Hrr25 eine Funktion als negativer Regulator zugeschrieben werden (92). Die Ca²⁺/Calmodulin-regulierte Proteinphosphatase Calcineurin und die Caseinkinase Hrr25 beeinflussen über Dephosphorylierung/Phosphorylierung wechselseitig die Aktivität des Zinkfinger-Transkriptionsfaktors Crz1 (112, 119, 174). Die Crz1-Dephosphorylierung durch Calcineurin bedingt eine Translokation vom Zytosol in den Nucleus, wo Crz1 über Bindung an sogenannte CDRE (Calcineurin-Dependent Response Elements) als Transkriptionsaktivator fungiert (174, 175). Im Gegensatz dazu verhindert eine Hrr25-abhängige Phosphorylierung im Nucleus eine weitere Akkumulation von Crz1 und führt zur Termination der Crz1-abhängigen Transkription (92). Es ist vorstellbar, dass auch die Lokalisation des Elongatorkomplexes zwischen Zytoplasma oder Nucleus über Phosphorylierung und Dephosphorylierung in Abhängigkeit von Hrr25/Kti12 und Sit4/Sap185/Sap190 reguliert wird. Kernlokalisiert könnte er so über Histonacetylierung in die Transkription (97, 136, 196, 197) und Zytoplasmalokalisiert in tRNA-Modifikation (42, 80, 81) involviert sein.

Zusammenfassend könnte es sich bei der Phosphorylierung/Dephosphorylierung von Elp1 um einen Prozess handeln, welcher in Abhängigkeit von der Caseinkinase Hrr25 und Kti12 sowie der Phosphatase Sit4 mit ihren Untereinheiten Sap185/Sap190 antagonistisch reguliert wird. Es ist aber auch denkbar, dass es sich bei der Elp1-Phosphorylierung um einen zyklischen Prozess handelt. Interessant ist in diesem Zusammenhang, dass in ChIP-Experimenten gezeigt werden konnte, dass Kti12 über das gesamte *S. cerevisiae*-Genom, sogar in nicht-transkribierten Bereichen, mit dem Chromatin assoziiert (46, 143). Da Kti12 sogar in Abwesenheit des Elongators Chomatin-assoziiert vorliegt, präferiert die Arbeitsgruppe um

Jesper Svjestrup (London Research Institute, England), dass Kti12 Elongator-unabhängige bzw. separate Funktionen besitzen könnte (59, 143). Da Hrr25 nur in Abhängigkeit von Kti12 mit dem Elongator interagieren kann, ist es vorstellbar, dass die Elp1-Phosphorylierung im Nucleus stattfindet. Möglicherweise besitzt hypo- und hyperphosphorylierter Elongator durch eine unterschiedliche Substratspezifität in verschiedenen Zellkompartimenten unterschiedliche Funktionen. Um den exakten Mechanismus sowie die funktionelle Signifikanz der Elp1-Phosphorylierung zu verstehen, bedarf es somit weiterer Experimente in der Zukunft.

3.4. Struktur-Funktionsanalyse des Elongatorkomplexes aus A. thaliana in Hefe

Die ursprüngliche Vermutung, dass in Hefe, Pflanzen und Mensch ein homologer bzw. strukturell ähnlicher Elongatorkomplex existiert, konnte inzwischen bestätigt werden. Der Nachweis eines pflanzlichen Elongatorkomplexes gelang der Arbeitsgruppe um Mieke van Lijsebettens durch TAP-Aufreinigungen in *A. thaliana*-Zellkulturen (unveröffentlichte Daten, Universität Gent, Belgien) (Tab. 1). Die Arbeitsgruppe um Jesper Q. Svejstrup reinigte den humanen Komplex aus Hela-Zellextrakten auf (70) (Tab. 1). Da Mutationen in jeder der Untereinheiten zu pleiotropen Effekten führen (siehe Einleitung), könnte dieser Proteinkomplex sowohl für ein-, als auch für mehrzellige Organismen eine wichtige koordinierende Rolle für Zellwachstum und Proliferation besitzen.

Daraus ergab sich die Fragestellung, ob der Elongator im Laufe der Evolution auch funktionell konserviert ist. In *S. cerevisiae* führt eine Deletion jeder einzelnen Elongatoruntereinheit, sowie des Elongator-Interaktors Kti12 zu Zymocinresistenz, Inaktivierung des tRNA-Suppressors *SUP4* und den beschriebenen *elp*-Phänotypen (52, 80, 86, 136). Diese phänotypischen Unterschiede zwischen Wildtypzellen und Elongatormutanten wurden für vergleichende Untersuchungen zur funktionellen Konservierung des Elongators zwischen *S. cerevisiae* und *A. thaliana* genutzt. Dafür wurden pflanzliches *AtELP1* und *AtELP3* allein oder in Kombination miteinander in entsprechenden *S. cerevisiae*-Mutanten (*elp1*Δ, *elp3*Δ und *elp1*Δ*elp3*Δ) exprimiert. Diese wurden anschließend mit Hilfe von Koimmunopräzipitations-Studien und zwei sensitiven Funktionstests (γ -Toxinassays und tRNA-Suppressionsassays) strukturell bzw. funktionell analysiert. Letztere ermöglichen es, die vom Elongator abhängige tRNA-Modifikation phänotypisch nachzuweisen (siehe Einleitung, Kapitel 1.3.).

3.4.1. Pflanzliche Elongatoruntereinheiten sind in Hefe funktionell

Frühere Untersuchungen unserer Arbeitsgruppe hatten gezeigt, dass eine conditionale Expression des pflanzlichen Homologs AtELP1 in einer $elp1\Delta$ -Hefemutante zu einer Wiederherstellung der Zymocinsensitivität führt (21). Das impliziert, dass die intrazellulär aktive γ -Untereinheit des Zymocins (52) die tRNA-Targets tRNA^{Glu}, tRNA^{Lys} und tRNA^{Gln} schneiden kann (89, 111). Da diese endonucleolytische Spaltung jedoch nur nach einer Elongator-abhängigen U₃₄-Modifikation erfolgen kann, spricht dieser Befund dafür, dass AtELP1 diese Elongatorfunktion in Hefe ersetzen kann. Das ist insofern sehr erstaunlich, da zum einen die Identität von S. cerevisiae Elp1 und A. thaliana AtELP1 nur 19% auf Aminosäureebene beträgt und zum anderen die elp-Phänotypen, wie Sensitivität gegenüber Caffein und Temperaturen über 39 °C, nicht komplementiert werden (21) (Tab. 5). Trotzdem impliziert der Zymocinphänotyp, dass AtELP1 in elp1A-Zellen in der Lage ist, neben der bereits erwähnten Elongator-abhängigen Modifikation verschiedener tRNAs, auch die Assemblierung des Elongatorkomplexes und dessen Assoziation mit Kti12 wiederherzustellen. Kti12 und dessen pflanzliches Homolog DRL1 werden als Elongatorassoziierte Proteine mit potentiell regulatorischer Funktion angesehen (46, 133, 143).



Abb. 7: Schematische Darstellung der Proteininteraktionen in den hybriden Elongatorkomplexen. Die Pfeile kennzeichnen die durch Koimmunopräzipitation bestätigten Protein-Protein-Interaktionen.

(A) Expression von AtELP1 in $elp1\Delta$ -Zellen.

(B) Expression von AtELP3 in $elp3\Delta$ -Zellen.

Blau: Untereinheiten des Elongators aus S. cerevisiae. Grün: jeweiliges Homolog aus A. thaliana.

Es konnte gezeigt werden, dass die in $elp1\Delta$ -Zellen zerstörte Integrität des Elongatorkomplexes durch eine *AtELP1*-Expression wiederhergestellt wird (Manuskript 2, Seite 110). Die nachgewiesenen Assoziationen implizieren, dass AtELP1 als struktureller Bestandteil in den Komplex eingebaut wird. Auch eine Bindung des Elongator-assoziierten Proteins Kti12, welches nur mit einen vollständig assembliertem Elongator interagiert (46, 53), war durch eine *AtELP1*-Expression wieder detektierbar (Manuskript 2, Seite 110). Dies lässt den Schluss zu, dass in *S. cerevisiae* tatsächlich ein aus Hefe- und Pflanzenuntereinheiten zusammengesetzter hybrider Elongatorkomplex entsteht, welcher durch den Nachweis verschiedener Assoziationen bestätigt werden konnte. Diese sind schematisch in Abb. 7A zusammengefasst sind.

Die Funktionalität des hybriden Elongatorkomplexes konnte, neben der Wiederherstellung von Zymocinsensitivität (21), durch einen zweiten funktionellen Test, den tRNA-Suppressionsassay, bestätigt werden. In elp1A-Zellen liegt aufgrund fehlender Elongatorabhängiger U₃₄-Modifikation auch ein Funktionsverlust der Suppressor-tRNA SUP4 vor (80). Somit können ochre-Stoppcodons wie zum Beispiel im ade2-1-Allel nicht mehr von SUP4 in Tyrosin decodiert werden, was zu einer Rotfärbung der Kolonien und einer Adeninauxotrophie führt (siehe Einleitung, Abb. 4) (80). Expression von Wildtyp ELP1 führt zu einer Weißfärbung der Kolonien und Adeninprototrophie (Abb. 8). Das bedeutet der Antisuppressor-Phänotyp der $elp1\Delta$ -Mutante wird komplementiert und ein Durchlesen des ade2-1 Gens ermöglicht wird. Der intermediäre Phänotyp in der Koloniefärbung und die schwache Adeninprototrophie bei der Expression des pflanzlichen Homologs AtELP1 deutet auf eine etwas verminderte Funktion des tRNA-Suppressors SUP4 hin (Abb. 8). Somit führt die Expression von AtELP1 in elp1\[]\[]ade2-1-Zellen zu einer partiellen Wiederherstellung der Elongator-abhängigen Modifikation der Suppressor tRNA SUP4. Die Entstehung eines hybriden Hefe-Pflanzen-Komplexes konnte somit durch tRNA-Suppressionsanalysen funktionell und durch Interaktionsstudien strukturell bestätigt werden.



Abb. 8: tRNA-Suppressionsassay. Expression von *AtELP1* in *elp1* Δ *ade2-1SUP4-*Zellen führt zu einer partiellen Wiederherstellung der Elongator-abhängigen Uridin-Modifikation an der tRNA Wobbleposition (U₃₄) von *SUP4*. Dies ermöglicht ein Überlesen der *ade2-1*-Mutation und somit Wachstum auf adeninlosem Medium und eine intermediäre Färbung der Kolonien.

Frühere Arbeiten hatten gezeigt, dass hochkonserviertes *AtELP3* dagegen nicht in der Lage ist, eine *elp3* Δ -Hefemutante zu komplementieren (198). Obwohl *S. cerevisiae* Elp3 und *A. thaliana* AtELP3 eine Identität von 66% auf Aminosäureebene besitzen und die als funktionelle Bereiche beschriebene *radical* SAM- und HAT-Domänen mit >70% am stärksten konserviert sind, konnte weder eine Komplementation des Zymocin-, *elp*- oder tRNA-Suppressions-Phänotyps beobachtet werden (Tab. 6) (Manuskript 2) (198). Interessanterweise war somit die größte (AtELP1), nicht aber die am stärksten konservierte Untereinheit (AtELP3) in der Lage die entsprechenden Hefemutanten zu komplementieren. In *S. cerevisiae* ist die Aktivität der HAT-Domäne von Elp3 essentiell für die Funktion des Elongators (52, 195, 196). Es ist die derzeit einzige Elongator-Untereinheit mit nachgewiesener katalytischer Funktion.

Tab. 6: Zusammenfassung der funktionellen und strukturellen Eigenschaften von $elp1\Delta$ -, $elp3\Delta$ - und $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ S. cerevisiae-Mutanten nach einer heterologen Expression von pflanzlichem AtELP1 und AtELP3 allein oder in Kombination miteinander.

Expression von:	AtELP1	AtELP3	AtELP1 & AtELP3
Wiederherstellung der:	in <i>elp1</i> Δ	in <i>elp3</i> ∆	in <i>elp1</i> \triangle <i>elp3</i> \triangle
Zymocinsensitivität	ja	nein	ja
elp-Phänotypen	nein	nein	nein
Elongator-Integrität	ja	ja	ja
Kti12-Elongator-Assoziation	ja	ja	ja
Entstehung eines hybriden Elongators	ja	ja	ja

Die heterologe Expression des A. thaliana-Homologs AtELP3 in elp3∆-Hefezellen führt aber zur Wiederherstellung der Integrität des Elongators (Manuskript 2, Seite 109). Auch das Elongator-assoziierte Protein Kti12 in war Interaktionsstudien wieder mit Elongatoruntereinheiten präzipitierbar (Manuskript 2, Seite 109). Für die Existenz eines hybriden Komplexes spricht auch hier, dass AtELP3 als struktureller Bestandteil des Elongators nachgewiesen werden konnte. Die im Manuskript 2 beschriebenen Interaktionen sind schematisch in Abb. 7B zusammengefasst. Da AtELP3 in diesem Komplex aufgrund der fehlenden Komplementation der funktionellen Phänotypen offenbar keine katalytische Aktivität besitzt, bestand die Vermutung, dass diese Funktion entweder in der pflanzlichen Untereinheit nicht erhalten blieb oder aber sie im hybriden Komplex bisher nicht entfaltet werden konnten. Für letztere Erklärung spricht die Tatsache, dass eine Co-Expression von AtELP3 und AtELP1 in einer $elp1\Delta elp3\Delta$ -Doppelmutante zu einer Komplementation in *S. cerevisiae* führt. Sowohl Sensitivität gegenüber Zymocin, als auch tRNA-Funktion konnten wiederhergestellt werden (Manuskript 2, Seite 113) (Tab. 6). Interaktionsstudien bestätigten nicht nur die strukturelle Integrität des Komplexes, sondern auch eine Interaktion mit dem Elongator-Interaktor Kti12. Desweiteren konnte auch ein Einbau beider *A. thaliana*-Proteine, in den Komplex nachgewiesen werden, was für einen funktionellen Komplex aus Hefe- und Pflanzen-Elongatoruntereinheiten spricht (Manuskript 2, Seite 111). Damit scheint die enzymatische AtELP3-Aktivität von AtELP1 abhängig zu sein. Möglicherweise sind gerade die spezifischen Elp1-Elp3-Interaktionen, welche zwischen heterologen Komponenten nicht möglich oder nicht stabil sind, eine Voraussetzung für die Funktion des Elongators bei der tRNA-Modifikation.

Zusammenfassend kann man davon ausgehen, dass es in Pflanzen einen Elongatorkomplex gibt, welcher nicht nur strukturell dem Hefe-Elongator ähnelt, sondern auch katalytische Aktivität besitzt. Komplementationsstudien zeigten eindeutig. dass tRNA-Modifikationsdefekte der Hefe-Elongatormutanten durch homologe Gene aus A. thaliana aufgehoben werden können. In Zusammenarbeit mit A. Byström (Universität Umea, Schweden) gelang mittels HPLC-Analyse der Nachweis, dass der Elongatorkomplex auch in Pflanzen in die tRNA-Modifikation involviert ist. AtELP3 wird in A. thaliana für die Bildung von ncm⁵- und mcm⁵s²-modifizierten Seitenketten des Uridins im Anticodonbereich von tRNAs benötigt (Manuskript 2, Seite 114). Die Deletion von AtELP3 führt somit auch in A. thaliana durch Elongatordefizienz zum Verlust der U₃₄-tRNA-Modifikationen. Durch diese Daten ist der Nachweis gelungen, dass die Funktion des Elongators innerhalb der tRNA-Modifikation offenbar evolutionär konserviert und somit nicht nur auf die Hefe beschränkt ist. Ob diese Modifikationen in Hefe und Pflanzen eine direkte oder indirekte Folge der Elongatoraktivität sind, bleibt abzuwarten. Perspektivisch soll durch die Entwicklung eines in vitro tRNA-Modifikationsassays diese Frage adressiert werden.

3.4.2. Ist der Elongator multifunktionell?

Aufgrund dieser Befunde erscheint es fraglich, ob der Elongator in *S. cerevisiae* tatsächlich direkt in die drei beschriebenen zellulären Prozesse Transkriptionselongation, Sekretion/Exozytose und tRNA-Modifikation (siehe Einleitung Kapitel 1.1.1.) eingreift und inwieweit diese Funktionen evolutionär konserviert sind (80, 102, 136, 149, 194, 195, 196).

Die pleiotropen Phänotypen, welche bei Elongatordefekten in den Organismen Hefe, Pflanze und Mensch zu beobachten sind, könnten ein Hinweis für einen multifunktionellen Komplex sein. Es besteht aber auch die Möglichkeit der Existenz eines übergeordneten Prozesses, welcher bei einem Defekt zu multiplen "downstream"-Effekten führt.

Die Gruppe um Anders Byström (Universität Umea, Schweden) postuliert, dass die physiologisch relevante Funktion des Elongators einzig in der tRNA-Modifikation liegt (80, 111). Sie zeigten, dass Elongator-abhängige Phänotypen durch Überexpression der zwei Elongator-abhängig modifizierten tRNA-Spezies tRNA^{Lys} und tRNA^{Gln} zumindest partiell unterdrückt werden können (42). Sowohl das Wachstumsdefizit, aber auch die Temperatursensitivität der *elp1* Δ -Mutante können dosisabhängig durch eine Überexpression dieser beiden hypomodifizierten tRNAs supprimiert werden (42). Ein ähnlicher Effekt ist bei sekretorischen Defekten bedingt durch eine *sec2-59*-Mutation zu beobachten. Eine *sec2-59*-Mutante zeigt Temperatursensitivität (128), welche durch eine zusätzliche Deletion von *ELP1-ELP6* supprimiert werden kann (149, 201). Die Überexpression hypomodifizierter tRNA^{Lys} und tRNA^{Gln} in der *sec2-59-*Einzelmutante (42). Die Anwesenheit eines intakten Elongators wird in beiden Fällen somit dafür nicht benötigt.

Die Gruppe um Jesper Svjestrup (London Research Institute, England) favorisiert dagegen einen Elongator mit zwei distinkten Funktionen (178). Und tatsächlich sind auch die Argumente überzeugend, die neben der tRNA-Modifikation für eine direkte Beteiligung des Elongators an transkriptionellen Prozessen sprechen. Seitdem der Elongator im Jahr 1999 erstmals als RNAPII-Holoenzym-assoziierter Proteinkomplex aus dem Chromatin von S. cerevisiae aufgereinigt wurde (136), gab es eine Reihe weiterer Daten, welche eine regulierende Funktion des Elongators während der Transkriptionselongation v.a. über die Elp3-assoziierte HAT-Aktivität, implizieren (70, 97, 195, 196, 197). Der Verlust von Elongatorkomponenten hat nicht nur eine verzögerte Genaktivierung zur Folge (196). Elongatordefekte führen in Kombination mit Defekten in der Chromatinmodifizierung (50), der Transkriptionselongation (91, 126) und der Ubiquitinierung (59) zu synthetischer Letalität. Desweiteren beinhaltet die Sequenz der größten Untereinheit des Elongators Elp1 eine nukleare Lokalisierungssequenz (NLS), über welche ein Transport in den Nucleus denkbar wäre (49). Dies würde eine Kombination zytoplasmatischer und kernlokalisierter Funktionen ermöglichen. Tatsächlich konnten duale Funktionen in Zytoplasma und Zellkern schon für andere Proteinkomplexe gezeigt werden. Zum Beispiel wurde der ebenfalls von Hefe bis Mensch konservierte Ccr4-Not-Komplex ursprünglich als Regulator der Genexpression beschrieben, bevor eine zytoplasmatische Rolle als RNA-Deadenylase während der RNA-Degradation gezeigt werden konnte (25). Vergleichbar dazu ist Ski8 im Zellkern in DNA-Rekombinationsereignisse und im Zytoplasma in den RNA-Metabolismus involviert (4). Analog dazu, könnte auch der Elongator durchaus zwei distinkte Funktionen besitzen. Kernlokalisiert könnte er über seine Elp3-assoziierte HAT-Aktivität in die Transkription und im Zytoplasma in tRNA-Modifikationsereignisse involviert sein. Welche Aufgabe der Elongator innerhalb der tRNA-Modifikation besitzt und wie dies in Beziehung steht zur RNAPII-Interaktion und der beschriebenen HAT-Aktivität, ist noch zu klären. Möglicherweise kann der Elongator über die Acetyltransferase-Aktivität der stark konservierten Elp3-Untereinheit direkt durch tRNA-Bindung die tRNA-Modifikation beeinflussen. Creppe et al. (2009) konnten bestätigen, dass der humane Elongator in distinkten Zellkompartimenten multiple Substrate acetyliert (28). Aufgereinigtes humanes Elp3 unterstützt im Zytoplama von Zellextrakten corticaler Neurone in vitro die Acetylierung von α -Tubulin in den Mikrotubulis (28). Das bedeutet, dass der Elongatorkomplex, welcher im Nukleus über Histonacetylierung (H3) vermutlich die Transkription fördert, im Zytoplasma Proteine wie α -Tubulin oder andere Substrate acetylieren kann.

Wie im Verlauf dieser Arbeit deutlich wurde, hat sich das Bild des Elongators in den vergangenen fünf Jahren grundlegend geändert. Zu Beginn dieser Arbeit war der Elongator ausschließlich in Hefe als ein Komplex charakterisiert wurden, der einerseits die Anpassung der Zelle an veränderte Umweltbedingungen beschleunigt (196) und anderseits für die Wirksamkeit von Zymocin, einem Killertoxin der Milchhefe K. lactis, verantwortlich ist (52). Als molekulare Ursache für diese disparaten Funktionen wurde ein transkriptioneller Einfluss des Elongators auf die RNAPII vermutet, gestützt durch die Isolierung des Komplexes mit der elongierenden hyperphosphorylierten Form der RNAPII (136). Neue Daten zeigen jetzt, dass der Komplex erstaunlicherweise nicht nur strukturell von der Hefe über Pflanzen bis zum Mensch stark konserviert ist, sondern offensichtlich auch funktionell. Wie in S. cerevisiae (80, 81) hat der Elongator auch eine essentielle Funktion bei der Uridin-Modifikation der Anticodon-Wobbleposition (U₃₄) von tRNAs in A. thaliana (Manuskript 2). Tatsächlich könnte dies eine evolutionär konservierte Funktion sein. Die molekularen Grundlagen sind noch weitgehend unverstanden und eine spannende Aufgabe für die Zukunft. Besonders die Beziehung zwischen der beschriebenen Histonacetylierungsfunktion des Elongators und seiner Fähigkeit tRNA zu binden, könnte ein interessanter Ansatz sein, um eine mögliche Rolle für die Koordination zwischen Transkription und Translation zu untersuchen. Letztlich sind also noch eine Reihe weiterer Analysen notwendig, um genau zu verstehen, welche Funktionen der Elongator in der einzelnen Zelle insbesondere für die intrazelluläre Signalverarbeitung und Koordination von Zellwachstum und Proliferation besitzt.

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5. ANHANG

ERKLÄRUNG

Hiermit erkläre ich, dass ich die vorliegende wissenschaftliche Arbeit selbstständig und ohne fremde Hilfe verfasst habe und andere als die von mir angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel nicht benutzt wurden. Die den benutzten Werken wörtlich oder inhaltlich entnommenen Stellen wurden als solche kenntlich gemacht.

Mit dieser Arbeit bewerbe ich mich erstmals um die Erlangung des Doktorgrades.

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Constance Mehlgarten

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LEBENSLAUF

PERSÖNLICHE DATEN:

Name:	Constance Mehlgarten
Anschrift:	August-Bebel-Strasse 16, 06179 Teutschenthal / OT Zscherben
Geburtsdatum:	17. Januar 1973
Geburtsort:	Halle/Saale
Staatsangehörigkeit:	deutsch
Familienstand:	Lebensgemeinschaft, 1 Kind

AUSBILDUNG UND BERUFLICHE QUALIFIKATION:

- 1979 1989 4. Polytechnische Oberschule "Werner Seelenbinder", Halle/Saale
- 1989 1992 Ausbildung an der Medizinischen Berufsfachschule der Medizinischen Fakultät der Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg

Abschluss: Medizinische-technische Laboratoriumsassistentin (MTLA)

- 1992 1999 Arbeit als MTLA in der Laborgemeinschaft Halle
- 1995 1998 Abendgymnasium "Schule des Zweiten Bildungsweges" Halle/Saale
- 1998 2003 Biochemiestudium an der Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg
- 2003 Diplomarbeit am Institut für Genetik der Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg in der Gruppe von Herr PD Dr. habil. Raffael Schaffrath
 - Thema: *KTI14/HRR25*, ein *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* Caseinkinasegen, das die Toxizität des *Kluyveromyces lactis* Zymocins kontrolliert

Abschluss: Diplom-Biochemikerin

- 2003 "FEBS Summer-Fellowship" an der University of Dundee, Schottland
- 2004-2009 Promotionsarbeit am Institut für Biologie der Martin-Luther-Universität Halle-Wittenberg in der Arbeitsgruppe Molekulargenetik von Herr PD Dr. habil.
 Raffael Schaffrath (bis 2007) und Frau Professor Dr. Karin D. Breunig.
 - Thema: Das *Kluyveromyces lactis* Killertoxin: Regulatoren des Zellimports und der intrazellulären Wirkung in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*