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GRANT NO: DAMD17-95-1-5003

TITLE: Identification of Novel Candidate Tumor Suppressor Genes Using C. Elegans as a Model

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REPORT DATE: September 29, 1995

TYPE OF REPORT: Annual

19951124 055



PREPARED FOR: U.S. Army Medical Research and Materiel Command Fort Detrick, Frederick, Maryland 21702-5012

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REPORT DOC	UMENTATION PA	GE	Form Approved OMB No. 0704-0188
Public reporting burden for this collection of informa gathering and maintaining the data needed, and com collection of information, including suggestions for r Davis Highway, Suite 1204, Arlington, VA 222024300	tion is estimated to average 1 hour per re pleting and reviewing the collection of in educing this burden, to Washington Head 2, and to the Office of Management and B	esponse, including the time for re formation. Send comments rega quarters Services, Directorate for udget, Paperwork Reduction Proj	viewing instructions, searching existing data source rding this burden estimate or any other aspect of th r information Operations and Reports, 1215 Jefferso lect (0704-0188), Washington, DC 20503.
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4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE	Candidate Tumor Sup	pressor	5. FUNDING NUMBERS
Genes Using C. Elegans a	s a Model		DAMD17-95-1-5003
6. AUTHOR(S) Paul W. Sternberg, Ph.D.			
7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME	(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)		8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION
California Institute of Pasadena, California 91	Technology 125		
9. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENC	Y NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES)		10. SPONSORING / MONITORING
U.S. Army Medical Resear Fort Detrick	rch and Materiel Com	mand	AGENCY REPORT NUMBER
Frederick, Maryland 21	/02-5012		
11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES			
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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	1
PROGRESS	3
1. Analysis of sli-1	3
2. Analysis of <i>sli-2</i>	4
3. Analysis of rok-1	5
4. New genes	18
5. Interactions	18
CONCLUSIONS	21
PROGRESS BY TASK	22
REFERENCES	23

# Introduction

An important short-term goal of breast cancer research is to identify candidate genes for identifying precancerous cells and cancerous cells. Ideally, precancerous or cancerous cells could be characterized by a set of molecular markers. These markers would best be chosen from the set of genes altered during early stages of precancer formation. It is also crucial to understand the cellular regulatory pathways in which these genes act. C. elegans molecular genetics provides a facile model system with which to identify and to examine gene interactions in vivo [reviewed by Sternberg, 1993]. For example, it has been clearly shown that the C. elegans ras protein LET-60 acts downstream of EGF-receptor homolog LET-23 [Han & Sternberg, 1990; Aroian et al. 1990], that the adaptor protein SEM-5 acts between LET-23 and ras [Clark et al., 1992a; Katz, et al., submitted] and that the LIN-45 raf protein acts downstream of LET-60 ras [Han et al., 1993]. This universal signaling pathway is the target of many mutations contributing to oncogenesis in humans. Overexpression or activation by mutation of LIN-3, LET-23, LET-60 results in excessive vulval differentiation; thus activation of the homologous genes leads to cancer in humans and vulval differentiation in nematodes. Therefore, negative regulators of vulval differentiation defined by loss-of-function mutations that lead to excessive signaling are analogous to tumor suppressor loci.

Using the powerful genetics of *C. elegans*, we have identified five pathways of negative regulation of LET-23 mediated signaling have been identified. We are carrying out genetic screens that can identify additional genes involved in negative regulation, either in known pathways or in new ones. Our genetic studies have identified several negative regulators of LET-23-mediated signaling in *C. elegans* [reviewed by Sternberg, 1994]: SLI-1 [Jongeward et al., 1995; Yoon et al., 1995], UNC-101 [Lee et al., 1994], ROK-1 [see details below], LIN-15 [Ferguson & Horvitz, 1989; Huang et al., 1994]. ROK-2 was identified by our screens this past year. In general, these negative regulators are redundant, such that elimination of any one has no effect on the normal signal transduction. In the absence of two regulators, excessive vulval differentiation occurs. These genetic properties are similar to the synergistic action of oncogenic mutations, where several mutations are necessary for a phenotypic change. However, such synthetic mutations are difficult to study except in genetically facile organisms such as *C. elegans*.

If we can identify many loci possibly involved in the analogous processes in *C. ele*gans, and identify human homologs, this will help human geneticists in several ways. First, this will provide candidate genes for the positional cloning of tumor suppressor loci defined by human cancer genetics. Second, this will provide molecular probes with which to examine tumorous tissue for alterations. The sooner we can identify the many potential tumor suppressor loci, the more effectively that analysis of the role of tumor suppressor mutation in breat cancer initiation and progression can be assessed. Current technology easily allows parallel processing of samples, and is thus limited by the number of molecular probes. Lastly, we can link together tumor suppressor genes in functional pathways, much as we have been able to do for the LET-23-mediated pathway. If there are multiple pathways of tumor suppressor gene action, then we need to know how to intervene in each one.

One implication of multistep carcinogenesis is that synergism occurs between mutations. The genetics of the negative regulators that we have identified is analogous: mutation of SLI-1 or ROK-1 alone causes no defect, yet inactivation of both leads to increased signaling. The roles of such apparently redundant genes are difficult to study except in powerful genetic systems; *C. elegans* vulval differentiation provides such a system.



Figure 1. Pathway for the major EGF-R signaling pathway in humans and the analogous LET-23-mediated signaling pathway in *C. elegans*. Arrows indicated positive regulation; bars represent negative regulation. Other components are known.

The oncoprotein cbl has come under intense study during the past year. Notably, a second cbl gene, cbl-b has been identified from huma breast epitheilial cells [Keane et al., 1995]. In addition, cbl has been shown to be phosphorylated and associate with a variety of signal transducing proteins in a number of cell types. This has raised the interest in the basic molecular biology of cbl, and hence of SLI-1. Gratifyingly, the nematode genetic studies that were the basis of this project suggested a direct interaction with EGF-receptor. Indeed several laboratories have demonstrated such an association [D. Bowtell & W. Langdon, submitted; J. Schlessinger, pers. comm.; Hartley et al., 1995; Tanaka et al., 1995].

# Progress

The goal of this project is to identify potential tumor suppressor genes and link them into functional pathways with each other, and with known proto-oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes. C. elegans vulval differentiation provides a facile model system with which to study EGF-receptor/c-neu-mediated signal transduction and its regulation. The C. elegans sli-1, sli-2 and rok-1 genes negatively regulate LET-23. We are using C. elegans molecular genetics to study and clone these genes in C. elegans, and will use molecular biology to clone their human homologs. The specific goals of the project are as follows.

- **1.** Analyze SLI-1 function in *C. elegans* through molecular genetics.
- 2. Molecularly clone *sli-2*.
- 3. Molecularly clone rok-1.
- 4. Identify and clone additional genes acting in concert with *sli-1*, *sli-2*, and *rok-1*
- 5. Examine the functional interactions of *sli-1*, *sli-2*, *rok-1* in regulating other conserved signaling pathways.
- 6. Clone human *sli-2*, *rok-1*, and newly identifed genes from human breast tissue libraries to generate reagents with which to test the hypothesis that these are novel tumor suppressor loci.
- 7. Test the functional homology of *c-cbl* and *sli-1* by introducing the human cDNA into transgenic nematodes defective in *sli-1*.

In the following, progress on goals 1-5 is described.

# 1. Molecular genetics of *sli-1*

We identified the sli-1 locus as a negative regulator of LET-23, the *C. elegans* homolog of EGF-R/c-neu/HER3/HER4, using extragenic suppressor analysis [Jongeward et al., 1995]. We cloned the sli-1 locus by correlating genetic and physical maps and rescuing a sli-1 mutant in transgenic nematodes [Yoon et al., 1995]. A 10.5 kilobase genomic fragment has the ability to provide all known functions of sli-1 in transgenic animals, i.e., it rescues the suppression phenotype of *let-23*. In addition, increased copy number of the sli-1 locus enhances several phenotypes of a *let-23* mutation, supporting our hypothesis that this normally functions as a negative regulator of LET-23-mediated signaling.

c-cbl and sli-1 both contain a so-called Ring Finger  $[CX_2C_{9-27}CX_{1-3}HX_2CX_2CX_{6-48}CX_2C]$  putative metal binding finger [Lovering et al., 1993]. The truncated, oncogenic form of v-cbl is missing the finger, as is the truncated form found in HUT78 T cell lymphoma cells [Blake & Langdon, 1992]. To determine whether deletion of the ring finger decreases or increases SLI-1 activity, we constructed by site-directed mutagenesis of the genomic clone truncated forms of the SLI-1 protein. We analyzed two constructs in transgenic animals that are defective in endogenous sli-1, scoring the phenotypes of sli-1 mutants: suppression of let-23 lethal, vulvaless, spicule and P12 defects. We found that there is no dominant effect.

We have isolated more than 12 alleles of *sli-1* [Jongeward et al., 1995]. We will determine the molecular basis of these mutations using techniques standard in my laboratory [Han & Sternberg, 1991; Aroian et al., 1993, 1994; Lee et al., 1994].

These mutations will reveal functionally important regions of SLI-1. Certain sli-1 alleles display intragenic complementation. For example, sy102 in trans to sy112 is wild-type for its suppression phenotype. These might be in distinct exons, or in functional domains. We have sequenced the sy102 and sy112 alleles, have found several candiate mutations, and are now resequencing to confirm that they are not PCR artefacts.

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In collaboration with Dr. Andy Golden [NCI, Frederick], we are expressing *sli-1* in insect cells to make antisera.

To test the hypothesis that sli-1 mutations bypass the requirement for Ras, strains mutant in a series of *let-60 ras* alleles [Beitel et al., 1990] and sli-1(sy143) were constructed. The lethality but not the vulvalessness of *let-60* mutations were suppressed in the F1 generation (Table 1). F2 homozygoetes from homozygous let-60 mothers all died, consistent without previous observations that sli-1(sy143) does not suppress complte loss-of-function *let-60* mutations for viability [Jongeward et al., 1995]. This observation indicates that during vulval induction, sli-1 is regulating ras activation. The interactions of sli-1 with sem-5 [Clark et al., 1992a] are now being tested.

Table 1. Suppression of the inviability but not the vulvalessness of *let-60 ras* mutations by a *sli-1* mutation. The phenotypes of F1 homozygous *let-60* animals from heterozygous mothers were determined for four partially defective, recessive *let-60 ras* mutations (Beitel et al., 1990). We anlayzed less informative alleles previously [Jongeward et al., 1995]. *let-60* homozygotes were identifed with a closely linked marker *unc-24*. For viability counts, the total progeny of 10 hermaphrodites of each genotype were counted (approx. 2000 hatched larvae per strain), and the number of Unc (*let-60/let-60*) adults compared to total progeny.

Ras genotype	Viability		Vulval diffe	erentiation
····· 3-···· //···	sli-1(+)	sli-1(-)	<u>sli-1(+)</u>	<u>sli-1(-)</u>
+	100%	100%	3.0	3.0
let-60(n2022)	16	85	2.99	2.95
let-60(n1876)	14	100	0.0	0.052
let-60(n2034)	17	87	0.045	0.086
let-60(n2035)	22	89	0.016	0.034

sli-1 act only in certain tissues [Jongeward et al., 1995]. To determine if this is simply due to it not eing expressed in all tissues, we will examine expression of the sli-1 gene. We constructed fusion genes with sli-1 genomic sequences and either lacZ or Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP) as reporters [Fire et al., 1990; Chalfie et al., 1994]. Transgenic animals will be analyzed for expression of sli-1.

# 2. Genetics and molecular cloning of *sli-2*

One gene that is likely to act in concert with *sli-1* is *sli-2*, defined by a single allele, *sy262*. *sy262* was isolated as an "unlinked non-complementer" of *sli-1*.

We mapped sli-2 to C. elegans linkage group V, between unc-46 and dpy-11, a region of 2 mu. Of 66 recombinants between unc-46 and dpy-11, 3 recombinants were between unc-46 and sli-2, and 63 were between sli-2 and dpy-11. Therefore, sli-2maps closer to unc-46. Using 95% confidence intervals estimates, sli-2 lies in a region spanned by approximately 150 kb of genomic clones. Yeast artificial chromsome (YAC) and cosmid clnoes covering this region have been prepraed. We will now inject cosmid and YAC clones into let-23(sy1); sli-2(sy262) animals to test for rescue of the hyperinduced phenotype caused by sli-2 in this background.

# 3. Genetics and molecular cloning of rok-1

**Overview:** We identified the rok-1 (regulator of kinase) locus (IV) of the nematode C. elegans in a genetic screen for new negative regulators of the vulval induction pathway. At 20°C, rok-1(sy247) causes essentially no phenotypes in an otherwise wild-type background. However, in combination with mutations in other negative regulator genes, unc-101, and sli-1, it causes pleiotropic effects including excessive vulval differentiation larval lethality and abnormal spicules. Animals defective in all three negative regulatory genes have a greater extent of vulval differentiation than any single or double mutants. rok-1(sy247) causes a slight temperature-sensitive gonad-dependent excessive vulval differentiation. We propose that rok- 1 defines a fifth negative regulatory activity acting on the vulval induction pathway. rok-1 differs in other negative regulators in that it appears to be exclusively on stimulated activity of the signaling pathway. The apparent redundancy differs with respect to different phenotypes. We have molecularly cloned the rok-1 locus by correlating the genetic and physical maps in the  $rok \cdot I$  region of chromsome IV, and identifying an 11.5 kb genomic clone that complements a rok-1 mutation in transgenic nematodes.

We suspected for two reasons that there should be more negative regulators in addition to the genes previously identified such as unc-101 and sli-1: 1) molecular analyses of unc-101 and sli-1 suggest that the interaction of these two genes may not be direct and that more genes may be involved in this interaction, and 2) the phenotype of unc-101; sli-1 double mutants is not 100% penetrant, that is, only ~50% of the population of the animals of the genotype unc-101; sli-1 show excessive vulval differentiation whereas the remaining individuals are wild type, suggesting that there may be additional negative regulators. In this study, we took advantage of the fact that sli-1 mutations can cause a synthetic Muv phenotype in combination with unc-101 mutations (Jongeward & Sternberg, 1995). We performed genetic screens where we isolated mutants with excessive vulval differentiation after mutagenizing sli-1 mutant animals.

## Strains and general methods.

Methods for culturing and handling the nematode and general genetic methods were described by Brenner (Brenner, 1974). All genetic experiments were performed at 20 °C except when specified. The standard strain N2 was from Brenner (1974). The markers for linkage mapping and three factor crosses of rok-1(sy247)are as follows: LG I: dpy-5(e61); LG II: dpy-10(e128); LG III: dpy-17(e164); LG IV: dpy-20(e1282), unc-22(s7), unc-31(e169), unc-24(e138), dpy-13(e184), dpy-4(e1166); LG V: dpy-11(e224); LG X: dpy-3(e27), unc-1(e719), sli-1(sy143). The alleles for examining genetic interactions of rok-1(sy247) are as follows: *let-23(sy1)* (Aroian and Sternberg, 1991) *unc-101(sy108)*, *sli-1(sy143)*, *lin-15(sy197)* and *lin-15(n744)*.

We observed the extent of vulval differentiation using Nomarski optics as described in (Han and Sternberg, 1990). We observed the vulva differentiation of the animals in their L3 molt stage, when the induced VPCs should have divided twice to generate four daughter cells and uninduced VPCs have divided once to generate two daughter cells. The average number of induced VPCs were calculated as the total number of induced VPCs divided by the number of animals observed. The average number of induced VPCs is in wild-type animals is three, and that in Hin animals is greater than three.

To ablate the anchor cell, we performed microsurgery using a laser microbeam. The procedure for microsurgery was described in (Avery and Horvitz, 1987, Sulston and White, 1980). We ablated the Z1, Z2, Z3, and Z4 cells, which include the precursors of the germ line, the gonad and the anchor cell, in the very early L1 stage animals. When the ablated animals are in their L3 molt, we observed their vulval differentiation using Nomarski optics as described above.

After transferring freshly laid eggs from a culture plate to a new plate, we counted the number of adults after three days. The viability of a mutant strain is calculated as follows. viability (%) = number of adult animals / number of eggs x 100; lethality (%) = 100 - viability (%). The viability of wild-type strain N2 is theoretically 100%, but due to damage during egg transfer, or animals that escape from the plate, the viability of N2 was calculated as 94 %.

# Identification of rok-1 and rok-2 as negative regulators of vulval differentiation in C. elegans

To identify additional negative regulators of vulval differentiation, we performed a genetic screen in which we mutagenized sli-1(sy143) animals, and looked for animals with greater than wild-type vulval differentiation (Figure 2). Since sli-1(sy143) suppresses the vulvaless phenotype of lin-2, lin-7, lin-10, and let-23 mutations to a Hin phenotype (Jongeward et al., 1995), and causes a multivulva phenotype with unc-101 mutations (Yoon et al., 1995), we expected to recover alleles of these genes from our mutagenesis as well as mutations in new genes. Also we expected to recover mutations in any gene downstream in the vulval induction pathway that cause a multivulva phenotype, for example, lin-1. Indeed, we recovered eight lin-2 alleles, five lin-10 alleles, one unc-101 allele, one lin-1 allele as well two mutations that define new genes, rok-1(sy247) and rok-2(sy(317).

**Figure 2**. **Mutagenesis of** *sli-1* **homozygotes.** (A) Schematic of the mutagenesis procedure. This scheme is for isolating recessive mutations that cause hyperinduction of VPCs in the presence of a *sli-1* mutation. *sli-1(sy143)* animals are mutagenized with EMS as chemical mutagen. Mutated chromosomes exist as heterozygotes in the F1 progeny, and show phenotypes in the F2. EMS = ethyl methane sulfonate, Hin = hyperinduced, WT = wild type, and m= a new mutation. (B). Results of the *sli-1* mutageness. *lin-2* and *lin-10* mutations were the most frequent mutations recovered. One allele of *lin-1* and *unc-101* were recovered in addition to mutations in two new genes, *rok*-

1 and rok-2 Specifically, we mutagenized 10,000 F1 chromosome sets of sli-1(sy143) by ethyl methane sulfonate (EMS), and screened F2 progeny for mutants with more than wild-type vulval induction (hyperinduced; Hin), which are indicated by the presence of additional bump(s) on the ventral side of the animals which is visible under a dissecting microscope. From the first round of mutagenesis, we analyzed the candidate mutants, and found that *lin-2* and *lin-10* mutations had the highest recovery frequency. Thereafter, we performed the complementation tests with lin-2 and lin-10 alleles as soon as we isolated candidate Hin animals to see if they are alleles of these genes. If any candidate complemented lin-2 and lin-10 mutations, we proceeded to further map the mutations. We performed backcrosses with either a wild-type (N2) or a *sli-1* strain. Three to four days after crossing N2 or *sli-1(sy143)* males with the Hin animals from the mutagenesis, we transferred many L4 hermaphrodites to a new plate, and the next day we transferred single wild-type animals to new plates. We scored F2 animals for the segregation of wild type, hyperinduced, and vulvaless "bag" phenotypes. If we observed 3/16 of the F2 progeny of N2 backcross were egg laving-defective (Egl) due to a vulvaless phenotype, we concluded that the new mutation is dependent on the presence of sli-1 mutations and is an allele of a vulvaless gene unlinked to X. If we observed about the same number of F2 Hin animals (1/4) from both N2 and sli-1 backcrosses and few or no vulvaless animals in N2 backcross, we concluded that either the mutation is dependent on the presence of sli-1 and linked to X, or the mutation is independent of sli-1. If 1/4 of sli-1 backcross F2 and 1/16 of N2 backcross F2 are Hin, and no F2 animals in N2 backcross are vulvaless, then this mutation is dependent on the presence of *sli-1*, and is not an allele of a vulvaless gene.



#### Characterization of *rok-1(sy247)*

rok-1(sy247) causes a Hin phenotype in the presence of a *sli-1* mutation. Under Nomarski optics, the average number of VPCs differentiating as vulval in the *rok-1*; *sli-1* double mutants is 3.8 VPCs, compared with 3.0 of N2 wild type or *sli-1* single mutants. A gonad ablation experiment showed that vulval induction in these Hin animals is still dependent on the presence of the gonad; no vulval induction was observed in four gonad-ablated animals. This gonad-dependency is different from that of *unc-101*; *sli-1* double mutants, since the *unc-101*; *sli-1* double mutants still display some vulval induction after gonad ablation (Yoon et al., 1995).

rok-1(sy247) causes additional phenotypes in the presence of a sli-1 mutation. The double mutants of rok-1; sli-1 genotype show partial lethality: Some of the progeny of the homozygous mothers died as embryos or early larvae (55.6%, n=261; 15%, n=93; 25% @ 25°C, n=116). We constructed rok-1(sy247); him-5(e1490); sli-1(sy143) triple mutants to examine the male phenotype of rok-1(sy247) in the presence of sli-1 mutations. The males display an abnormal spicule structure, and the mating capability is abolished in these males.

We mapped  $rok \cdot 1(sy247)$  using linkage mapping and three factor crosses (Table 2) between  $dpy \cdot 20$  and  $unc \cdot 31$  on the chromosome IV. We found that the deficiencies sDf22 and sDf60 delete the  $rok \cdot 1$  locus.

**Table 2. Genetic mapping of** *rok-1(sy247)***:** Three factor crosses performed in a *sli-1(sy143)* background. See Materials and Methods for detail. Dpy, dumpy phenotype; nDpy, non-Dpy; Unc, uncoordinated; nUnc, non-uncoordinated. Hin, hyperinduced, indidative of *sy247* intreaction with sli-1.

Genotype of heterozygotes	Phenotype of Recombinants selected	Number of recombinants segregating Hin progeny	
dpy-13 unc-24/rok-1	Dpy non-Unc	3/3	
unc-22 unc-31	Unc-31 non-Unc-22	0/3	
unc-31 dpy-4/rok-1	Unc non-Dpy	0/27	
unc-22 dpy-4/rok-1	Dpy non-Unc	4/5	
dpy-20 unc-31/rok-1	Dpy non-Unc	12/13	
dpy-20 unc-31/rok-1	Unc non-Dpy	1/9	

The  $rok \cdot 1(sy247)$  mutation reduces  $rok \cdot 1$  activity. We compared the extent of vulval differentiation in  $rok \cdot 1(sy247) / rok \cdot 1(sy247)$ ;  $sli \cdot 1(sy143) / sli \cdot 1(sy143)$  animals with that in  $sDf22 / rok \cdot 1(sy247)$ ;  $sli \cdot 1(sy143) / sli \cdot 1(sy143)$  animals. We found that the vulval phenotype of  $rok \cdot 1(sy247) / rok \cdot 1(sy247)$ ;  $sli \cdot 1(sy143) / sli \cdot 1(sy143)$  animals. We found that the severe as that of  $sDf22 / rok \cdot 1(sy247)$ ;  $sli \cdot 1(sy143) / sli \cdot 1(sy143)$  animals. We also compared the lethality of the heterozygotes of  $sDf22 / rok \cdot 1(sy247)$ ;  $sli \cdot 1(sy143)$  animals. We also that of  $rok \cdot 1(sy247) / rok \cdot 1(sy247)$ ;  $sli \cdot 1(sy143)$  animals. We found that the homozygotes of the genotype  $dpy \cdot 13 rok \cdot 1(sy247) / dpy \cdot 13 rok \cdot 1(sy247)$ ;  $sli \cdot 1(sy143)$  has as severe a lethality phenotype as the heterozygotes of the genotype  $sDf22 / dpy \cdot 13 rok \cdot 1(sy247)$ ;  $sli \cdot 1$  Therefore, the sy247 mutation reduces the  $rok \cdot 1$  activity.

Experimental details: We used marker; sli-1 double mutants to map rok-1(sy247) by linkage mapping, because rok-1 needs the presence of sli-1 mutations to show a Hin phenotype (see Results). For marker; sli-1 strains, we mated marker/+ males with sli-1(sy143) hermaphrodites, and obtained marker or + / + ; sli-1/ $\phi$  males. These males were mated with sli-1 hermaphrodites, and their hermaphrodite progeny were transferred to individual plates and checked for segregation of marker; sli-1. We followed a standard mapping method as described in (Brenner, 1974).

We then used the triple mutants of dpy-13 unc-24; sli-1, unc-22 dpy-4; sli-1, unc-22 unc-31; sli-1, dpy-20 unc-31; sli-1 and unc-31 dpy-4; sli-1 strains to map rok-1(sy247) by three factor crosses. We mated N2 males with these marker strains, and the male progeny of genotype marker/+;  $sli-1/\phi$  were mated into rok-1(sy247); sli-1(sy143) hermaphrodites. We isolated many L4 progeny from this mating, isolated recombinant animals in the next generation from the plates that segregated parental markers, and checked the segregation of the Hin phenotype in the next rok-1 mapped very close to unc-31, because from the three factor generation. crosses using unc-22 unc-31; sli-1 and unc-31 dpy-4; sli-1, rok-1 was inseparable from the unc-31 locus. None of 3 Unc-31 non-Unc-22 recombinants from unc-22 unc-31/ rok-1 heterozygous mothers, and none of 27 Unc-31 nonDpy-4 recombinants from unc-31 dpy-4/ rok-1 mothers segregated Hin progeny. We then used dpy-20 unc-31; sli-1 to map further rok-1(sy247). Twelve of thirteen Dpy non-Unc recombinants segregated Hin animals, and 1 out of 9 Unc non-Dpy recombinants segregated Hin progeny. We also performed complementation tests with the deficiencies sDf22and *sDf60*.

sDf22/nT1 heat-shocked males were mated with dpy-13 unc-24;sli-1 hermaphrodites, and individual male progeny, whose genotype are either sDf22/dpy-13 unc-24 or nT1/dpy-13 unc-24;  $sli-1/\phi$ , from this mating were mated with dpy-13 rok-1; sli-1 hermaphrodites. Non-Dpy cross-progeny of each mating, whose genotype is either nT1/ dpy-13 rok-1; sli-1 or sDf22/ dpy-13 rok-1; sli-1, were examined for their vulval induction. From one plate, 9 non-Dpy cross-progeny were obtained, and they showed an average of 3.8 VPCs induced, which is virtually indistinguishable from rok-1(sy247) / rok-1(sy247); sli-1(sy143) / sli-1(sy143) animals. Moreover, four of nine animals had more than three VPCs induced (44 %), similar to rok-1(sy247) / rok-1(sy247); sli-1(sy143) / sli-1(sy143) animals. Another plate had three nonDpy progeny with wild-type vulval differentiation, indicating that the genotype of these animals was nT1/dpy- 13 rok-1; sli-1. For lethality comparison, we scored the heterozygotes of the genotype sDf22/dpy-13 rok-1(sy247); sli-1 for their segregation of Dpy and nonDpy progeny. From the heterozygotes of the genotype  $sDf22/dpy-13 \ rok-1(sy247); \ sli-1, \ 271$  animals were Dpy, and 139 animals, nonDpy. The ratio of Dpy animals to nonDpy animals is 2:1. If the lethality of heterozygotes of the genotype sDf22 / dpy-13 rok-1(sy247); sli-1 had been enhanced, the ratio of Dpy/nonDpy would have been less than 2.

**New** *rok-1* **alleles.** Since *rok-1* in *trans* to a deletion of the locus has a similar phenotype to *rok-1* homozygotes, and the deletion does not enhance the synthetic lethality with *sli-1*, the *sy247* mutation likely severely reduces activity of the *rok-1* locus,

and thus ROK-1 is a negative regulator of LET-23-mediated signaling. Since rok-1(sy247)/Df; sli-1/sli-1 is viable and has a phenotype, we screened for additional alleles of rok-1 to facilitate the molecular cloning and to confirm that we are analyzing loss-of-function alleles. We mutagenized sli-1 males and mated them with rok-1 unc-31; sli-1 hermaphrodites. We then screened approximately 4000 cross-progeny (non-Unc-31) for multivulva animals. We obtained two such animals, which should be rok-1(sy247) unc-31/rok-1(new); sli-1/sli-1. We will retest to confirm that these strains harbor rok-1 mutations, and map them with respect to unc-31. We will sequence the mutant alleles to confirm the molecular cloning.

#### rok-1(sy247) causes a temperature-sensitive hyperinduction of VPCs

We outcrossed rok-1(sy247). At 20°C, we found that rok-1(sy247) animals display wild-type vulval differentiation. We obtained rok-1(sy247) males by heatshock at 30° C for six hours, and found that they had wild-type spicules and normal mating capability at 20°C. There is no detectable lethality in the single mutant (viability was 91% compared to 94% for N2). Therefore, the rok-1(sy247) mutation alone does not cause any visible phenotype at 20°C. At 25°C, however, rok-1(sy247) homozygotes show excessive vulval differentiation. Specifically, out of 25 animals observed by Nomarski optics, 5 animals had more than three VPCs induced to become vulval cells. All five animals had P4.p cells induced. The sy247 allele displays a partially penetrant temperature sensitive multivulva phenotype: at 20°C, none of 22 animals had extra vulval differentiation, while at 25°, an average of 3.1 VPCs induced (n=25). None of eight animals at 20° nor at 25° had vulval differentiation in the absence of the gonad.

Table 3. Vulval differentiation of single, double, and triple mutants carrying *unc-101, rok-1,* or *sli-1*. Vulval induction of each animal was examined using Nomarski optics. For intact animals, Average numbers of induced VPCs per animal, and percentage of the animals having more than three induced VPCs are also shown. Wild-type vulval induction is three VPCs per animal. The maximum number of VPCs that can be induced is six. For the gonad-ablated animals, the average numbers of induced VPCs per animal after ablation are shown. The numbers shown in the parentheses are the numbers of animals examined.

	Intact		Gon	ad-ablated
Genotype	Avg. # VPCs Difff	<u>% with &gt;3</u>	Avg.	<u> # VPCs Difff</u>
+	3	0	0	(>10)
sli-1	3	0	0	(6)
rok-1	3	0	0	(6)
unc-101	3	0	0	(6)
rok-1; sli-1	3.8	64	0	(4)
unc-101; sli-1	3.8	65	1.9	(7)
unc-101; rok-1	3.5	47	0	(10)
unc-101; rok-1; sli-1	4.9	100	2	(9)

Prior to these experiments, four negative regulatory activities had been identified in the vulval induction pathway: they are represented by lin-15(A), lin-15(B), sli-1, and unc-101. To examine how rok-1 interact with other negative regulators, we con-

structed double mutants or triple mutants containing mutations in these negative regulatory genes. The extent of vulval differentiation of these mutants is summarized in Table 3.

unc-101; rok-1 double mutants have an average of 3.5 VPCs induced (n=19). As described above, rok-1; sli-1 double mutants have an average of 3.8 VPCs induced. unc-101; sli-1 double mutants show an average of 3.7 VPCs differentiating as vulval (Yoon et al., 1995). Interestingly, unc-101; rok-1; sli-1 triple mutants show an even greater extent of vulval differentiation (an average of 4.9 VPCs) than any of the three double mutant combinations. When comparing the percentage of Hin animals in these mutants, the enhanced phenotype becomes more obvious. In any single mutants, no animal shows greater than wild-type induction. In double mutants, 47 to 65 % of animals in the populations show greater than wild-type induction, and in the triple mutants, 100 % of animals in the population show greater than wild-type induction, and in the triple mutants, 100 % of animals in the population show greater than wild-type induction, and in the triple mutants, 100 % of animals in the population show greater than wild-type induction, and in the triple mutants, 100 % of animals in the population show greater than wild-type induction, and in the triple mutants, 100 % of animals in the population show greater than wild-type induction. Therefore, rok-1 defines a new redundant negative regulator of vulval induction, acting together with unc-101 and sli-1.

We examined whether vulval differentiation in the double and triple mutants of unc-101, sli-1, and rok-1 is dependent on the presence of the anchor cell. We ablated the precursor cells of the gonad and the anchor cell, and observed the animals at their L3 molt stages to examine the extent of vulval differentiation (Table 3). In the double mutants of rok-1; sli-1 and rok-1; unc-101, none of the ablated animals displayed vulval differentiation (n=4, and 10, respectively). In the ablated triple mutants of unc-101; rok-1; sli-1, the average number of VPCs induced was 2.0 VPCs per animal (n=9), which is virtually identical to that of unc-101; sli-1 double mutants.

Strain constructions: For rok-1(sy247) single mutant strain, we used an unc-31 dpy-4 chromosome to balance rok-1(sy247), as it maps within 0.2 m.u. of unc-31. Single males from the mating between unc-31 dpy-4/ + males and rok-1(sy247); sli-1(sy143) hermaphrodites were mated with unc-31 dpy-4 hermaphrodites. Males of the genotype unc-31 dpy-4/ rok-1; sli-1/ø will generate Unc Dpy male cross progeny from this mating, and males of the genotype rok - 1/+;  $sli - 1/\phi$  will not generate any Unc Dpy male cross progeny. From a mating plate with Unc Dpy males, we picked wild-type males whose genotype should be unc-31 dpy-4/ rok-1;  $sli-1/\phi$ , and mated them with unc-31 dpy-4 hermaphrodites. We then mated the wild-type male progeny of this mating, whose genotype should be unc-31 dpy-4/ rok-1;  $+/\phi$ , with unc-31 dpy-4 hermaphrodites. Wild-type cross progeny of from this mating have the genotype of unc-31 dpy-4/rok-1; +/+. Among the progeny of these mothers, we picked many wild-type L4 animals to individual plates. Animals that did not segregate any Unc, Dpy, or Unc Dpy animals were of the genotype rok-1; +. We confirmed the presence of  $rok \cdot 1(sy247)$  in this final strain by mating  $rok \cdot 1(sy247)$ hermaphrodites with *sli-1* males and checking segregation of Hin animals in the F2.

For unc-101; rok-1 double mutants, we isolated non-Unc progeny from the mating of rok-1(sy247) males with unc-101 hermaphrodites, whose genotype is unc-101/+; rok-1/+. We observed the Unc progeny of these mothers by Nomarski optics, and found that some of them are Hin. These Hin Unc animals are of the genotype of unc-101; rok-1. For unc-101; rok-1; sli-1 triple mutants, from the mating of unc-101/+ males with rok-1; sli-1 hermaphrodites, we isolated unc-101 or +/ +; rok-1/+; sli-1/+ progeny. In the next generation, we selected non-Unc Hin animals from the plate with Unc segregants, and among the progeny of these Hin animals, we isolated Unc animals whose genotype should be unc-101; rok-1; sli-1.

For rok-1; lin-15 (A or B) double mutants, we used unc-31 dpy-4; lin-15 (A or B) strains in the construction. We mated the rok-1 males with hermaphrodites of the genotype unc-31 dpy-4; lin-15. The male progeny from this mating, whose genotype should be unc-31 dpy-4/ rok-1; lin-15/ $\phi$ , were mated again with hermaphrodites of the genotype unc-31 dpy-4; lin-15. The non-Unc non-Dpy hermaphrodite cross-progeny from this mating are of the genotype unc-31 dpy-4 / rok-1; lin-15/lin-15. Among the progeny of these hermaphrodites, the non-Unc non-Dpy animals that do not segregate any Unc Dpy progeny were of the genotype rok-1/rok-1; lin-15/lin-15.

For *let-23(sy1)*; rok-1(sy247) double mutants, we first constructed sy1; unc-31 dpy-4 strains. From the mating of rok-1(sy247) males with sy1; unc-31 dpy-4 hermaphrodites, we isolated cross-progeny whose genotype is sy1/+; rok-1/unc-31 dpy-4. We picked many individual non-Unc-31 non-Dpy-4 Vul animals in the next generation, whose genotype could be one of the two classes: sy1/sy1; rok-1/rok-1 or sy1/sy1; rok-1/unc-31 dpy-4, depending on whether rok-1(sy247) suppresses the vulvaless phenotype. If  $rok \cdot 1(sy247)$  does not suppress the vulvaless phenotype to wild type or Hin, 1/3 of the non-Unc-31 non-Dpy-4 Vul animals would be of the first class, which is the wanted genotype, and segregate no Dpy Unc animals. The other 2/3 of the non-Unc-31 non-Dpy-4 Vul animals would be of the second class, and segregate Dpy Unc animals. If rok - 1(sy 247) does suppress the vulvaless phenotype, then all the non-Unc-31 non-Dpy-4 Vul animals would be of the second class, and segregate 1/4 of Unc Dpy Vul animals, 2/4 of non-Unc non-Dpy Vul animals that segregate Unc Dpy progeny, and 1/4 of non-Unc non-Dpy non-Vul animals that do not segregate any Unc Dpy animals. Animals of the last category are of the genotype *let-23(sv1*): rok-1(sv247).

For the *unc-101; let-23; rok-1* strain, we mated *let-23(sy1); rok-1(sy247)* males with *unc-101(sy108); rok-1(sy247)* hermaphrodites. From the cross progeny of the mating, whose genotype is *unc-101/+; let-23/+; rok-1/rok-1*, we picked nonUnc vulvaless animals, whose genotype is *unc-101* or +/+; *let-23/let-23; rok-1/rok-1*. The Unc progeny form these mothers are of the genotype *unc-101; let-23; rok-1*.

For let-23; rok-1; sli-1 and unc-101; let-23; rok-1; sli-1 mutants, we mated let-23(sy1); rok-1(sy247) males with unc-101(sy108); rok-1(sy247); sli-1(sy143) hermaphrodites. From the cross progeny of this mating, whose genotype is unc-101/+; let-23/+; rok-1/rok-1; sli-1/+, we picked nonUnc vulvaless animals whose genotype is unc-101 or + /+; let-23/let-23; rok-1/rok-1; sli-1 or +/+ (note that some of let-23; rok-1 double mutants are still vulvaless since the vulvaless phenotype is not completely suppressed by the rok-1 mutation, see the results for details). Among the progeny of the animals above that segregated Unc progeny, we picked nonUnc hyperinduced animals whose genotype should be unc-101 or +/ +; let-23/let-23; rok-1/rok-1; sli-1/sli-1. The Unc progeny from the above mothers are of the genotype unc-101; let-23; rok-1; sli-1, and the animals that do not segregate any Unc progeny are of the genotype let-23; rok-1; sli-1. Lethality. We also compared the lethality associated with variety of single, double, and triple mutants (Table 4). The *sli-1* and *rok-1* mutations do not cause any lethality alone, whereas *unc-101* mutations result in about 45 % lethality: 45 % of the progeny of *unc-101* homozygous mothers die. As described above, 56 % of *rok-1*; *sli-1* double mutants die before adulthood. Double mutants defective in both *unc-101* and *sli-1* show 54% lethality, which is not significantly different from the *unc-101* single mutants. Therefore, *sli-1* mutations do not enhance the lethality caused by *unc-101* mutations. By contrast, double mutants of *unc-101*; *rok-1* show enhanced lethality: 82 % lethality (n= 185). Therefore, a *rok-1* mutation enhances the lethality caused by *unc-101* mutations. The lethality of the triple mutants was about 79 % (n= 109), indistinguishable from that of *unc-101*; *rok-1* double mutants. The lethality of *rok-1*; *lin-15(A)* or *rok-1*; *lin-15(B)* was essentially identical to wild type.

**Table 4**. Viability table of single, double, and triple mutants carrying *unc-101*, *rok-1*, *sli-1*, and/or *lin-15A*, and *B*. Viability was calculated as number of adult animals divided by number of eggs picked for examination.

Genotype	Viability %	N
+	94	96
sli-1	92	278
rok-1	100	
unc-101	55	521
rok-1; sli-1	44	261
unc-101; sli-1	ca. 50	
unc-101; rok-1	18	185
unc-101; rok-1; sli-1	21	109

sli-1 was identified by its mutations that suppress the vulvaless phenotype of let-23 mutations. To test whether rok-1 can also suppress a mutation in let-23 gene, an EGFR homolog, we constructed a let-23(sy1); rok-1(sy247) double mutant strain. sy1 is an allele that is suppressed by unc-101 or sli-1 mutations from an average of 0.8 VPC induced per animal to 3.5 VPCs per animal. The let-23(sy1); rok-1(sy247) double mutants displayed an average of 2.3 VPCs induced per animal. Therefore, rok-1(sy247) can suppress the let-23(sy1) mutation, though not as well as the other two negative regulator mutations.

As described above, let-23(sy1) is the allele that was used for identifying *unc-101* and sli-1 as negative regulators of vulval differentiation (Jongeward et al., 1995). The let-23(sy1) mutant phenotype is suppressed by *unc-101* or sli-1 mutations from a vulvaless phenotype to not only a wild-type vulva but also greater than wild-type vulval differentiation (Lee et al, 1994; Jongeward et al., 1995). One possible explanation for that is that let-23(sy1) is defective both in the positive and negative activity of the LET-23 receptor (Aroian and Sternberg, 1990). To further elucidate the nature of let-23(sy1) and its interaction with negative regulators, we examined the phenotypes of a variety of triple and quadruple mutants bearing let-23(sy1) and *rok-1*, *unc-101*, and/or sli-1 (Table 6). The presence of the sy1 mutation enhanced the extent of vulval differentiation in all the combination of double and triple mutants

tants bearing *unc-101*, *sli-1*, and *rok-1* mutations, suggesting that the *sy1* mutation is indeed defective in both the positive and negative role of the receptor. Mutations in negative regulator genes can suppress the reduced positive activity of the LET-23 receptor caused by the *sy1* mutation, and cause synergistic effect with the *sy1* mutation in their negative roles, that is, greater extent of vulval differentiation. It is not clear whether the negative activity stimulated by LET-23 defines another negative regulation pathway. After ablation of the precursors of the gonad and the anchor cell, *unc-101;let-23(sy1)*; *sli-1* and *unc-101*; *let-23(sy1)*; *rok-1*; *sli-1* mutant animals displayed partially gonad-independent vulval differentiation.

**Table 5.** Synergistic interactions of *rok-1*, *sli-1* and *unc-101*. Vulval differentiation scored in a *let-23(sy1*) background. Average numbers of induced VPCs per animal in the mutant animals bearing *unc-101*, *rok-1*, and *sli-1* mutations in the *let-23(sy1)* genetic background. The average numbers of induced VPCs per animal with or without the gonad at 20°C are shown.

Genotype (all <i>let-23(sy1)</i> )	<u>AC+</u>	<u>AC-</u>
+	0.8	0
unc-101;	3.6	0
rok-1	2.2	0
sli-1	4.3	0
unc-101; lsli-1	4.3	0 (5)
rok-1; sli-1	5.5	0 (8)
unc-101;l sli-1	5.0	1.0
unc-101; rok-1; sli-1	5.5	2.0 (10)

We propose that rok-1 defines a new negative regulator of the vulval induction pathway. First, the triple mutants of *unc-101; rok-1; sli-1* display a greater extent of vulval differentiation than any double mutant. In these triple mutants, all the animals observed under Nomarski optics showed greater than wild-type differentiation, while in double mutants some animals showed wild-type induction, and some, greater than wild-type differentiation. It is probable that in the triple mutants, the sensitivity of VPCs are greater than that of VPCs in the double mutants where they show fluctuations of induction level in individual animals. Second, rok-1(sy247)mutation suppresses the vulvaless phenotype of *lin-7* and *let-23(sy1)*, though not as well as the other two negative regulators. Third, the rok-1(sy247) mutation alone can cause excessive vulval differentiation at higher temperature (25°C).

The ablation experiments of unc-101; sli-1, unc-101; rok-1 and unc-101; rok-1; sli-1 mutants suggest that rok-1 activity may be involved either in negative regulation of the activity of the vulval induction pathway only after activation by the signal, or in negative regulation of the signal in the anchor cell. We rule out the possibility that rok-1 is active exclusively in the anchor cell, because the rok-1; lin-15(A) double mutant animals still display vulval differentiation after the ablation of the gonad. The fact that both sli-1 and rok-1 behaves as if they were class B symmut genes and that mutations in both the genes still cause an excessive vulval differentiation (note that

mutations in the same class of synmuv genes normally do not cause an excessive vulval differentiation) again suggest that *rok-1* and *sli-1* are in a distinct pathway from *lin-15* and that there may be a quantitative threshold for their activity to be effective for negative regulation.

The fact that any single mutation in these five classes of negative regulator genes does not cause excessive vulval differentiation alone (except for rok-1 at 25°C) indicates that the activities of these genes have redundant functions that may act to ensure high fidelity. Multistep carcinogenesis is an analogous process, requireing mmultiple mutations in a variety of proto-oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes. In higher organisms, activation of an EGFR pathway by oncogenic mutations is one of the causes of cancer. Similarly, in *C. elegans*, activation of an EGFR pathway by gain-of-function mutations of *lin-3* (EGF homolog), *let-23* (EGFR homolog), and *let-60* (ras homolog) result in excessive vulval differentiation. Thus, these mutations can be considered 'oncogenic' to some extent. It is possible that the negative regulatory genes in vulval induction may help to define novel tumor suppressor genes.

All three double mutant combinations of *unc-101*, *rok-1*, and *sli-1* are hyperinduced, and the triple mutants show an even higher hyperinduction, suggesting that the activity of each gene is partially independent of those the others so that the loss of activities is additive. By contrast, the lethality associated with unc-101 single mutants or unc-101; rok-1 double mutants is not enhanced by the presence of a sli-1 mutation. A sli-1 mutation does enhance the lethality of a rok-1 mutation, suggesting that activity of *sli-1* for survival may be independent of that of *rok-1*, but may be overlapping with that of unc-101. The causes of the lethality associated with sli-1 and unc-101 mutations and that with a rok-1 mutation seem to be independent: if these genes are in the same pathway for survival, the lethality should not be increased by adding a rok-1 mutation. Therefore, these three genes show different redundant aspects in different gene activities. A possible explanation for the different redundancies is that while these genes are involved in the same biochemical pathway in different cells ortissues, cellular processes in these different cells or tissues may have different sensitivities to a loss of activities of these three genes. Another possibility is that these genes are involved in different pathways in different cells for different effects. We hypothesize two different "two out of three" redundancies for three activities required for prevention of excessive vulval induction and survival of animals: two of the three activities may be sufficient for proper function of these systems. We assume that all three genes may act as different activities for regulation of vulval induction. Then any double mutants would be defective in two of the three activities, causing a greater than wild-type vulval differentiation. For survival of an animal, we assume that *unc-101* may be involved in two of the activities, rok-1 in the third, and sli-1 in one of the activities in which unc-101 is involved. If so, unc-101 single mutants would show some lethality, while the other two single mutants would not, and unc-101; rok-1 double mutant animals show about the same lethality as unc-101; rok-1; sli-1 triple mutant animals. There may be other redundant essential genes interacting with unc-101, rok-1, and sli-1, because all the triple mutants do not die.

#### Molecular cloning of *rok-1*...

We identifed rok-1 in a genetic screen for mutations that result in excessive vulval differentiation in a sli-1 background. rok-1(sy247) is silent as a homozygote, but displays excessive vulval induction in combination with a mutation in sli-1. In addition, rok-1; sli-1 double mutants display partial synthetic lethality 15-75% of doubly mutant animals die before adulthood. Thus, rok-1 and sli-1 are partially redundant for some functions. Like sli-1 mutations, rok-1 mutations suppress a truncated LET-23 mutation that is defective in vulval induction. Since triple mutants defective in unc-101, rok-1 and sli-1 are more severely affected than any double mutant, we infer that rok-1 defines another pathway. We therefore sought to molecularly clone rok-1.

We mapped rok-1 to nematode chromosome IV, close and to the left of unc-31, which correlate the genetic and physical maps and constrain rok-1 to a region of approximately 100 kilobases (Fig. 3). This region is covered by 20 cosmid clones with two regions docvered by YAC but not cosmid clones [Coulson et al., 1986, 1988, pers. comm.]. We tested six cosmids for their ability to rescue rok-1 phenotypes (e.g., conferring a multivulva phenotype in combination with a mutation of sli-1) in transgenic animals. We found that cosmid C01C7 but not W03F4, F26E1, K09D4, W07C5 or F45E5 rescued a rok-1 mutation (Table 6). We generated a restriction map of C01C7, and tested subclones for their ability to rescue a rok-1 mutant. By this method we have identified a 14 kilobase subclone comprising 11.5 kb of nematode genomic DNA that contains rok-1 (Fig. 4).





ham-1

unc-31

Table 6. Data for rescue of *rok-1* mutant phenotype in transgenic animals. Injection method of Mello et al. (1991). Note that not every trangenic line expresses input DNAs; thus some of the C01C7+K09D4 pooled injections resulted in lines that failed to resuce the *rok-1* mutation. Injection protocol: *rok-1(sy247)* is a temperature sensitive mutation: at 20°C 18/38 (47%) dpy-20, rok-1(sy247); sli-1 animals are multivulva, while at 25°C 30/34 (88%) dpy-20, rok-1(sy247); sli-1 animals are multivulva. dpy-20(e1282), rok-1(sy247); sli-1(sy143) animals were injected with 7.5 ng/µl test cosmid, 15ng/µl pMH86 (rescues dpy-20; Han and Sternberg, 1990) made up to a final concentration of 150 ng/µl with pBluescript and incubated at 25°C. Control data: *rok-1(sy247); sli-1(sy143)* animals at 25°C are 11/14 (79%) multivulva and *sli-1(sy143)* animals at 25°C are 0/16 (0%) multivulva.

cosmid injected	Transgenic line	<mark>% multivulva</mark>	no. animals scored
none	no rescue	79%	
rok-1(+) control	rescue	0%	
W03F4 + F26E1 (no rescue)	#1/1 #1/2 #1/3 #1/4 #1/5	89% 67% 80% 67% 82%	9 6 15 6 28
C01C7 + K09D4	#4/1	0%	22
( rescue)	#4/2 #4/3 #4/4 #4/6 #4/7 #4/8 #4/10 #8/1 #8/2 #8/3 #8/4 #8/4	0% 0% 0% 100% 0% 20% 0% 10% 0% 10% 0%	18 14 7 24 10 9 10 5 10 10 10 11
W07F4 + F45E5	#9/1	100%	1
	#9/4	75%	8
(no rescue)	#9/5	75%	12
	#9/6	40%	5
	#9/8	79%	14
C01C7 (rescue)	#3/1 #3/2 #3/3	0% 15% 0%	24 26 22
K09D4	#1/6	83%	6
	#1/7	78%	9
(no rescue)	#1/9	86%	7
	#1/13	75%	8
	#1/14	100%	6

# Figure 4. Restriction map of C01C7 and location of minimal rescuing subclone.



# 4. Identification and cloning of additional negative regulators

We have carried out one screen for additional genes that interact with sli-1 (see Fig.2). We discovered a mutation sy317 that defines a locus we tentatively call rok-2. This mutation appears to map to chromosome III, but additional genetic mapping is required to confirm this linkage.

# 5. Gene interactions

To help elucidate the roles of sli-1, sli-2 and rok-1 in regulating signaling, we will are using pathway analysis *in vivo*. sli-1, rok-1 and unc-101 are in distinct pathways because double mutants display more severe phenotypes than the single mutant. To test whether sli-1 and sli-2 act in the same pathway, we constructed and examined double mutant strains. The double mutant [sli-2; sli-1] has the same phenotype as either single mutants, and we thus conclude that sli-1 and sli-2 are in a common pathway. Similarly, we demonstrated that a rok-1; rok-2 double mutant is more severe than either single mutant. Additional double mutants will be constructed with rok-2.

lin-15 A and lin-15B. The lin-15 locus encodes two functions, lin-15A and lin-15B. Certain mutations of lin-15 abolish functions of both the class A and class B, resulting in a multivulva phenotype. Other mutations in *lin-15*, however, abolish either class A or class B function, resulting in no vulval differentiation defect (Ferguson and Horvitz, 1989). To display a multivulva phenotype, both class A and class B functions must be mutated. No double mutants of the same classes cause vulval defects. *sli-1* can act as a class B multivulva gene at 25°C, as double mutants of genotype lin-15A; sli-1(sy143) display a gonad-independent Muv phenotype at 25°C. To examine whether rok-1 can interact with a lin-15A and/or lin-15B gene, we constructed a double mutant strain of rok-1(sy247); lin-15(sy197 or n744). lin-15(sy197) is a class A gene and lin-15(n744) is a class B gene. The average number of induced VPCs of the rok-1; lin-15(B) double mutant animals was 3 at 20°C, and 3.2 (n=21) at 25°C (Table 7). This number is not significantly different from the induction level of rok-1(sv247) single mutant. The average number of induced VPCs of the rok-1; lin-15(A) was 3.5 at 20°C, and 5.5 at 25°C. Therefore, like sli-1, rok-1 behaves as if it were a class B gene. The vulval induction of rok-1; lin-15(n744) was dependent on the presence of the gonad, because no induction was observed after the ablation of the gonad in these animals. However, the induction of rok-1; lin-15(sy197) was partially independent of the presence of the gonad, because an average of 2.4 to 3.2 VPCs were induced even in the absence of the gonad. We note that

-	20°C		$25^{\circ}C$	
	<b>AC(+)</b>	<b>AC(-)</b>	<b>AC(+)</b>	AC(-)
rok-1(sy247)	3	0 (8)	3.1	0 (8)
lin-15(Å)	3	0 (6)	3	0 (9)
lin-15(B)	3	ND	3	$\mathbf{ND}$
rok-1(sv247); lin-15(A)	3.5	2.4(5)	5.5	3.2(16)
rok - 1(sv247): lin - 15(B)	3	0 (5)	3.2	0(5)

if *sli-1* were a typical class B gene, then we would have recovered multiple class A mutations, which we did not.

We propose that *lin-15A*, *lin-15B*, *unc-101*, *sli-1*, and *rok-1* define five negative regulatory activities. A combination of activities of all these negative regulators will ensure that only three VPCs out of six VPCs, which all have the potentials to generate vulval cells, are induced by the LIN-3 signal. One way to differentiate the roles of these negative regulators is to examine their effect on the basal and ligand-stimulated activity of LET-23 receptor signaling, which could be performed by comparing the extent of vulval differentiation of the animals defective in different sets of genes. lin-15A and lin-15B regulate the basal activity of the signaling since mutations that delete lin-15A and lin-15B cause all six VPCs to generate vulval tissue even in the absence of the gonad (Ferguson et al., 1987; Huang et al., 1994; Clark et al., 1994). The combination of the *unc-101* and *sli-1* gene activity may negatively regulate the basal activity of the vulval induction pathway as well as the activated activity of the pathway, while rok-1 does not seem to be involved in negative regulation of the basal activity. The ablation experiment showed that the double mutants of unc-101; sli-1 and the triple mutants of unc-101; rok-1; sli-1 displayed some extent of vulval differentiation (~2 VPCs per animal) after ablation of the entire gonad, whereas the double mutants of unc-101; rok-1 and rok-1; sli-1 did not display any vulval differentiation after ablation. We cannot rule out the possibility that unc-101 and sli-1 are involved solely in negative regulation of stimulated activity of the LET-23 signaling, because our ablation experiments could not eliminate the expression of lin-3 in other cells than the anchor cell, for example, the tail cells. *lin-3* may be involved in the specification of the P12 neuroblast fate earlier in development (L. Jiang & P. Sternberg, unpublished obs.). Interestingly, in all the cases where partially gonadindependent vulval differentiation occurs after ablation of the gonad of the mutants bearing unc-101, sli-1, and/or rok-1 mutations, the VPCs located posteriorly are preferentially induced (not shown). We speculate that the VPCs might be so sensitive to the signal that they might be able to respond to the signal from the tail. The rok-1(sy247); lin-15(sy197) mutant animals did not show any posteriorly biased induction after gonad ablation, suggesting that lin-15 is only involved in negative regulation of the basal activity of the receptor signaling, not affecting the sensitivity of VPCs, and that lowering negative regulation of both basal and stimulated activity of the receptor signaling can cause an excessive vulval differentiation. In the ablated animals showing biased induction, they show pair-wise induction bias within P5.p /P6.p and P7.p/P8.p cell pairs: P6.p and P8.p cells are more frequently induced

than P5.p or P7.p cells after gonad ablation. This may implicate different potential sensitivity of anterior and posterior cells in these pairs, as is seen in other nematode species such a *Mesorhabditis* n. sp. (Sommer and Sternberg, 1994).

**Table 8.** Summary of nteractions among negative regulatory mutants. WT, Double mutant is wild-type; Muv, double mutant is at least partially multivulva; nd, not yet determined.

lin-15A lin-15B unc-101	<i>lin-15B</i> Muv	<i>unc-101</i> WT WT	<i>sli-1</i> Muv [25°] WT Muv	<i>sli-2</i> nd nd nd WT	<b>rok-1</b> Muv WT Muv Muv	<i>rok-2</i> nd nd nd Muv
sli-2 rok-1						·

**Overexpression of SLI-1, SLI-2 or ROK-1**. We have constructed a *sli-1* cDNA under the control of a heatshock (hsp16) promoter/enhancer (A. Fire, pers. comm.' Stringham and Candido, 1993), and are now constructing transgenic animals.

# **Progress by task as per original Statement of Work:**

A brief description of progress on each task for the first year is listed.

Task 1A. Determine whether SLI-1 truncation decreases or increases activity of the protein as assayed in transgenic animals [months 1-6]. a. construct truncated forms by site-directed mutagenesis. •Two mutant forms of *sli-1* that mimic the structure of oncogenic cbl mutants have been constructed. One is a truncation equivalent to original oncogenic form of cbl, v-cbl; the second is a 17 amino acid deletion corresponding to the mouse cell line form of cbl. **b. establish transgenic lines.** •Transgenic animals carrying these constructs have been made. **c. examine phenotype.** •The 17 amino acid deleted form causes no dominant phenotypes but restores *sli-1(+)* function. [on schedule]

#### Task 1B. Determine expression of SLI-1 in C. elegans

•A *lacZ* and green fluorescent protein (GFP) version of *sli-1* have been constructed and transgenic lines are being established. [on schedule]

Task 2. Molecular cloning of SLI-2 from C. elegans. a. Correlation of genetic and physical mapping will identify a region of genomic DNA including the sli-2 locus and less than 150 kilobases of DNA. [months 1-6]. • sli-2 has been mapped to a region of 150 kb [on schedule] b. Microinjection of cloned genomic DNA will be used to define the smallest region of DNA that provides sli-2 function in transgenic animals [months 7-12]. [behind schedule]

Task 3. Molecular cloning of ROK-1 from *C. elegans.* a. Correlation of genetic and physical mapping will identify a region of genomic DNA including the *rok-1* locus and less than 150 kilobases of DNA. [months 1-3]. •*rok-1* locus mapped between *ham-1* and *unc-31*, a region of 100 kilobases. b. Microinjection of cloned genomic DNA will be used to define the smallest region of DNA that provides *rok-1* function in transgenic animals [months 4-9]. •Rescue with a cosmid has been successful. A subclone that rescues identified [on schedule]

Task 4. Identification by genetic screens of new loci.

a. Screen for new mutations, carry out screens in parallel. [months 1-24]. •A modified screen for *sli-1* synthetics has been devised, to lower the background of *lin-2*, *lin-7* and *lin-10* mutants. [on schedule]

b. Genetic mapping and complementation of new mutations, parallel experiments [months 3-27] •A new locus has been identified by its synergism with sli-1. This locus, tentatively called "rok-2(sy317)" maps to III [on schedule]

**Task 5. Examination interactions of genes in vivo** [1 month, parttime/experiment] •[on schedule]

Task 7. Introduction of c-cbl cDNA into transgenic nematodes. a. Construct *sli-1/c-cbl* hybrid genes [months 6-7]. b. Examine phentypes of transgenic animals [months 8-14]. •*sli-1* minigene construction is in progress. [behind schedule]

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