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26. R. Ruggieri and E. Freed, unpublished observations.
 27. Cells were lysed in hypotonic lysis buffer [10 mM tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 5 mM MgCl₂, 25 mM NaF, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 100 mM Na₂VO₄, aprotinin (10 μg/ml), soybean trypsin inhibitor (10 μg/ml), 20 μM leupeptin, 1 mM Pefabloc] and nuclei were removed by centrifugation at 1500g. The supernatant was subjected to dounce homogenization and centrifuged again at 100,000g. The resulting supernatant is the S100 fraction. The sedimented material (P100 fraction) was solubilized in MAP kinase immunoprecipitation buffer (38) and centrifuged to remove Triton-insoluble material. Both S100 and detergent-soluble P100 fractions were subjected to immunoprecipitation.
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 38. Twenty millimolar tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 137 mM NaCl, 1 mM EGTA, 1% Triton X-100, 10% glycerol, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 100 μM Na₂VO₄, 50 mM NaF, aprotinin (10 μg/ml), 20 μM leupeptin, 1 mM Pefabloc (AEBSEF, Boehringer Mannheim).
 39. The Raf coding sequence was isolated with the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) as described (11). For use in the two-hybrid screen (16), the Raf gene was fused to the sequence encoding the Gal4 DNA-binding domain by subcloning into the pGBT8 plasmid (34) at Nco I and Sac I sites. Yeast (*S. cerevisiae*) strain YGH-1 (34) was used. The YGH-1 strain contains two reporter genes, *HIS3* and *lacZ*, which allow selection of cDNAs encoding proteins that interact with the product of the gene of interest. Raf 1-197 and Raf 186-333 were constructed as PCR products with pGEM Raf as template and primers including restriction linkers for cloning into pGBT8 at Nco I and Sac I. The Raf 303-648 plasmid was constructed by insertion of a PCR product coding for Raf amino acids 303 through 381 into pGBT8-Raf digested with Eco RI and Sal I. The 14-3-3 fusions isolated in the two-hybrid screen, included the sequence encoding the full-length 14-3-3 protein in frame with the Gal4 sequence. 14-3-3 β began at position -250 and had a deletion from -97 to -3. 14-3-3 ζ contained 80 bp of upstream sequence and had a deletion that ended at position -13.
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- leu2 ura3 trp1 can1*) (obtained from K. Matsumoto) to generate strain SY1984R-L.
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tions with anti-Glu-Glu Sepharose. Immune complexes were washed as described (11) and portions were assayed for kinase activity and protein immunoblot analysis.

49. The autoradiogram was scanned with a UMAX UC630 scanner and the Adobe Photoshop program. The density of the Raf bands was quantitated with the National Institutes of Health Image 1.44 computer program. The linearity range was established with a calibration curve.
50. We thank K. Matsumoto for communicating results before publication; T. Isobe for providing antiserum to the 14-3-3 proteins; S. Cook and J. Hancock for critical reading of the manuscript; B. Rubinfeld for providing pGBT8 APC; M. Callow and T. Vuong for technical assistance; and J. Huang, D. Ramirez, and J. Fitzsimmons for secretarial assistance.

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Stimulatory Effects of Yeast and Mammalian 14-3-3 Proteins on the Raf Protein Kinase

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Intracellular signaling from receptor tyrosine kinases in mammalian cells results in activation of a signal cascade that includes the guanine nucleotide-binding protein Ras and the protein kinases Raf, MEK [mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) or extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) kinase], and MAPK. MAPK activation that is dependent on the coupling of Ras and Raf was reconstituted in yeast. Yeast genes were isolated that, when overexpressed, enhanced the function of Raf. One of them is identical to *BMH1*, which encodes a protein similar to members of the mammalian 14-3-3 family. Bacterially synthesized mammalian 14-3-3 protein stimulated the activity of Raf prepared from yeast cells expressing c-Raf-1. Thus, the 14-3-3 protein may participate in or be required for activation of Raf.

Extracellular mitogenic agents, including a number of growth factors, impart their growth signal to the cell by stimulating an intracellular pathway consisting of kinases that are members of the Raf, MEK, and MAPK families. Raf activation appears to occur downstream of Ras, which is in turn activated by growth factors that signal through receptor protein tyrosine kinases (1). Thus, Ras and Raf are essential components of the MAPK pathway that controls cell proliferation. Raf binds to Ras when Ras is in its active, guanosine triphosphate-bound state, suggesting that Raf is a direct effector of Ras (2, 3). However, Ras by itself does not activate Raf in vitro, so there must be other molecules or mechanisms that are required for Raf activation. Ras may function in the activation of Raf

by recruiting Raf to the membrane (4).

Elements of the MAPK signaling pathway appear to have been conserved during evolution, because Ras and homologs of each of the kinases, except Raf, have been identified in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (5). One of the MAPK pathways in *S. cerevisiae* controls the response to mating pheromone (5). This signaling cascade consists of the Ste11, Ste7, and Fus3 or Kss1 kinases whose equivalents in mammals are MEK kinase (or Raf), MEK, and MAPK, respectively. Ste11, Ste7, and Fus3 or Kss1 act sequentially to transmit a signal to the transcription factor Ste12, which is required for the expression of mating-specific genes.

We identified a gain-of-function mutation of *STE7*, *STE7^{P368}* (6). Without pheromone stimulation, *Ste7^{P368}* has increased kinase activity and induces some mating responses. However, this activity is still dependent on the presence of the upstream kinase, Ste11. An activated form of mammalian Raf (Raf Δ N), but not normal c-Raf-1, can substitute for Ste11 activity in vivo (6). However, when c-Raf-1 and *Ste7^{P368}* are expressed together with mammalian H-Ras, the Ste11 deficiency is rescued by c-

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test this possibility, Raf was immunoprecipitated from yeast cells expressing c-Raf-1. The immune complexes were mixed with various concentrations of purified recombinant 14-3-3 (type η) protein and assayed for in vitro activation of recombinant *Xenopus* MEK as measured by phosphorylation of *Xenopus* MAPK (Fig. 4). The Raf immune complexes had MEK-kinase activity in the absence of the 14-3-3 protein, but this activity was enhanced by the 14-3-3 protein in a dose-dependent manner. At an optimal concentration of the 14-3-3 protein, three- to fourfold enhancement of the Raf activity was achieved. The immune complexes obtained from the control yeast cells lacking Raf showed essentially no MEK-kinase activity (Fig. 4). These results are consistent with the idea that the 14-3-3 protein binds directly to Raf and enhances its MEK-kinase activity.

The 14-3-3 protein is a soluble acidic protein and belongs to a multigene family (16). Members of the 14-3-3 protein family are thought to participate in activation of tyrosine and tryptophan hydroxylases in the presence of Ca^{2+} -calmodulin-dependent kinase II, regulation of protein kinase C (PKC), and activation of Ca^{2+} -dependent exocytosis in permeabilized

adrenal chromaffin cells. In these activation processes, two roles for 14-3-3 function have been proposed and each suggests a plausible mechanism for its role in Raf activation.

Binding of the 14-3-3 protein to the regulatory domain of aromatic hydroxylases has been proposed to induce an active conformation. Similarly, 14-3-3 binding to the NH_2 -terminal regulatory domain of Raf may induce an active conformation. The NH_2 -terminal domain is thought to inhibit the intrinsic kinase activity of Raf (12, 17). Inhibition could result from binding of the NH_2 -terminus to the catalytic region in the absence of a positive signal. This negative function may be relieved by a conformational change induced by binding of 14-3-3 and Ras. Our results on in vitro activation of Raf by the 14-3-3 protein are consistent with this hypothesis. However, we cannot eliminate the possibility that other factors are associated with the Raf immunoprecipitates and also participate in Raf activation.

Another possible role for 14-3-3 is to mediate translocation of proteins to the membrane. PKC translocates from the cytosol to the particulate fraction upon

activation. This translocation is mediated by RACKs (receptors for activated C kinase) and members of the annexin family that can act as RACKs (18). Members of the 14-3-3 family contain a short sequence of 16 amino acids similar to the COOH-terminus of annexins, which corresponds to the PKC binding site (19) (see Fig. 1). These observations point to a potential physiological role for 14-3-3 proteins as mediators of PKC translocation.

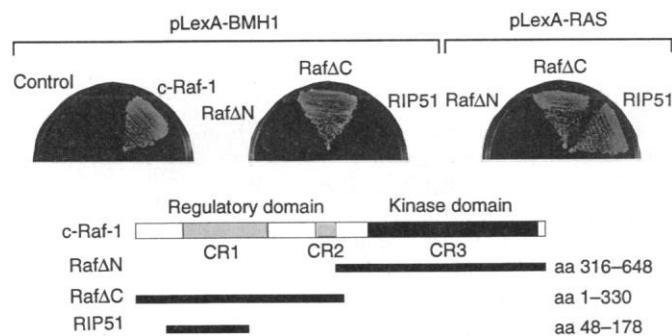
By extension, 14-3-3 could contribute to Raf translocation to the plasma membrane. Alternatively, it could act to anchor Raf to the membrane once it is localized there by Ras. The requirement for 14-3-3 (Bmh1) in the Ras-induced activation of Raf in yeast suggests that the protein works downstream of Ras. This order favors a model in which 14-3-3 protein contributes to Raf activation after the kinase has been localized to the membrane by Ras. Also consistent with this model, 14-3-3 proteins bind to Raf in the cytosol and follow it to the membrane contingent on localization by Ras or by the addition of lipid modifications to its COOH-terminus (20).

Our study identified the 14-3-3 family as proteins capable of activating Raf in vitro and in vivo in the yeast system. Some possible mechanisms for the action of 14-3-3 on Raf include its effects on conformation, membrane localization, stabilization of the Ras-Raf complex, or a combination of these. Important issues for further studies are to determine what mechanisms apply and to resolve the question of whether the 14-3-3-Raf interaction poises Raf for the decisive activation event or directly mediates it.

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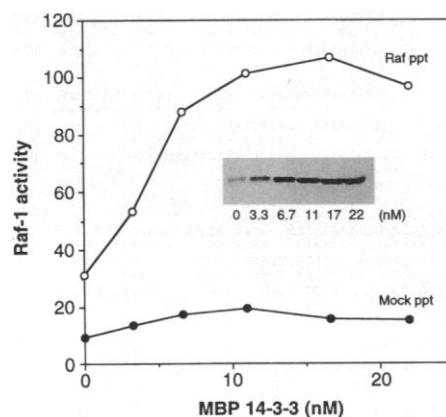
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Fig. 3. Interaction of Bmh1 with Raf. The reporter strain L40 (*MAT α LYS2::lexA-HIS3 URA3::lexA-lacZ his3 trp1 leu2*) was transformed with pLexA-BMH1, pLexA-RAS, and the indicated plasmids. An interaction between the fusion proteins expressed by the specified plasmids is demonstrated by the ability of the yeast strain



to grow on plates of SC-His containing 80 mM 3-AT. The control plasmid is pACTII (14). Full-length human c-Raf-1, Raf Δ N, and Raf Δ C were fused to an activation domain of Gal4 (14). Raf Δ N and Raf Δ C contain amino acids 316 to 648 and amino acids 1 to 330, respectively, of human c-Raf-1. A schematic of these Raf fusions is shown below the plates. CR1 and CR2 indicate the Raf conserved regions in the regulatory domain. CR3 is the kinase domain.

Fig. 4. In vitro activation of Raf by MBP-14-3-3. Immune complexes formed with antibody to human c-Raf-1 (23) and extracts of yeast cells expressing c-Raf-1 (strain SY1984-RP) (○) or lacking c-Raf-1 [strain SY1984-VP (24)] (●) were incubated with purified recombinant MEK (1.5 μ g), together with various amounts of purified MBP-14-3-3 (maltose-binding protein fused to 14-3-3 type η protein) (25, 26). The extent of MEK activation was assayed by its subsequent ability to ^{32}P phosphorylate catalytically inactive GST-MAPK (26). After electrophoresis, phosphorylation of the GST-MAPK was detected by autoradiography (inset) or quantified by an image analyzer and shown in arbitrary units; ppt, anti-Raf immunoprecipitates.



- be presented elsewhere (B. M. Yashar *et al.*, in preparation).
7. Strain SY1984-RP is SY1984 (*ste11Δ his3Δ FUS1::HIS3*) (27) transformed with pADU-Raf and pNC318-P368. pADU-Raf contains c-Raf-1 controlled from the *ADH1* promoter. pNC318-P368 carries the *STE7^{P368}* allele controlled from the *CYC1* promoter. SY1984-RP was transformed with a multicopy (YEp13) yeast genomic library. Of the 6800 transformants screened, 43 colonies were His⁺. Only six of these had a His⁺ phenotype that was dependent on the presence of pADU-Raf, pNC318-P368, and the library plasmid.
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 11. The *bmh1::LEU2* disruption allele of pG12-14 was constructed by insertion of a 2.7-kb Bgl II fragment of *LEU2* into the Bgl II site of *BMH1*. Strain SY1984-43 is identical to strain SY1984 (27) except that the *BMH1* locus is replaced with the *bmh1::LEU2* allele. It was constructed by a gene replacement with the 5.5-kb Xho I-Xba I fragment from pG12-14 (10). The resulting disruption was confirmed by Southern (DNA) blot analysis.
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 24. Strain SY1984-VP is SY1984 with pADU and pNC318-P368 (7).
 25. The expression plasmid pMAL-14-3-3, encoding the 14-3-3 protein fused to maltose-binding protein (MBP-14-3-3), was provided by Y. Takai and T. Isobe, and MBP-14-3-3 was purified from overexpressing *E. coli* (28).
 26. The activity of Raf was measured by its ability to activate *Xenopus* MEK. Recombinant histidine-tagged *Xenopus* MEK and catalytically inactive *Xenopus* glutathione-S-transferase (GST)-MAPK (K57D) were produced in *Escherichia coli* and purified as described (29). MEK activity was assayed by its ability to phosphorylate catalytically inactive MAPK as described (29).
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Molecular Evidence That the Myxozoan Protists Are Metazoans

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The evolutionary origins of the protistan phylum, Myxozoa, have long been questioned. Although these obligate parasites are like protozoans in many features, several aspects of their ontogeny and morphology have implied a closer relationship to metazoan lineages. Phylogenetic analyses of 18S ribosomal RNA sequences from myxozoans and other eukaryotes, with the use of parsimony, distance, and maximum-likelihood methods, support the hypothesis that myxozoans are closely related to the bilateral animals. These results suggest that the Myxozoa, long considered an assemblage of protozoans, should be considered a metazoan phylum.

The reconstruction of animal phylogeny has engaged scientists for over a century (1). With the advent of molecular characters, hypothesized relationships among some taxa have become solidified, whereas others remain contentious (2). Most biologists would agree, however, on the set of taxa that constitutes the Metazoa, or multicellular animals. Not since discovery of the Loricifera in the last decade has a phylum been formally added to this taxonomic group (3). Here, we present evidence that the Myxozoa, a phylum generally placed in the kingdom Protista (Protoctista) (4–6), shares its most recent common ancestor with a metazoan, not a protozoan, lineage.

The phylum Myxozoa comprises over 1100 described species of oligocellular, ob-

ligate endoparasites and is thus one of the largest protistan assemblages (4). Members of the class Myxosporia (the majority of myxozoans) principally infect teleost fishes, and members of the Actinosporia mainly infect aquatic, oligochaete worms (7). Myxosporia are either coelozoic within hollow organs or histozoic in solid tissues and cause tissue displacements and destruction and sometimes death of their hosts. For example, infections by the European parasite *Myxobolus cerebralis* in North American salmonid fish can cause serious losses to aquaculture industries. The avirulence of most myxosporians in their natural hosts, however, implies a long history of association (8).

The diagnostic feature of Myxozoa is the infective spore, a dispersal stage composed of distinct gametic (autogamic) cells and polar capsules with coiled, ejectable filaments, enveloped by valve-like somatic cells. Proliferative stages (trophozoites) are often multinuclear and may grow to macroscopic size (8). However, the complete life cycle is unknown, because myxozoans have been intractable to

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