The GTS1 Gene, Which Contains a Gly-Thr Repeat, Affects the Timing of Budding and Cell Size of the Yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae

KAZUHIRO MITSUI, SO-ICHI YAGUCHI, AND KUNIO TSURUGI*

Department of Biochemistry, Yamanashi Medical University, Tamaho, Nakakoma, Yamanashi 409-38, Japan

Received 7 February 1994/Returned for modification 16 March 1994/Accepted 17 May 1994

A gene with an open reading frame encoding ^a protein of 417 amino acid residues with ^a Gly-Thr repeat was isolated from the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae by using synthetic oligonucleotides encoding three Gly-Thr dimers as probes. The deduced amino acid sequence showed partial homology to the clock-affecting gene, per, of Drosophila melanogaster in the regions including the GT repeat. The function of the gene, named GTS1, was examined by characterizing the phenotypes of transformants with different copy numbers of the GTS1 gene produced either by inactivating the GTS1 gene by gene disruption (TMAgts1) or by transformation with multicopy plasmid pPER119 (TMpGTS1). They grew at similar rates during the exponential growth phase, but the lag phases were shorter for TMAgtsl and longer for TMpGTS1 cells than that for the wild type. Analyses of their cell cycle parameters using synchronized cells revealed that the unbudding period changed as a function of gene dosage; that is, the periods of TMAgts1 and TMpGTS1 were about 20% shorter and longer, respectively, than that of the wild-type. Another significant change in the transformants was detected in the distribution of the cell size. The mean cell volume of the TMAgtsl cells in the unbudded period (single cells) was 27% smaller than that of single wild-type cells, whereas that of single TMpGTS1 cells was 48% larger. Furthermore, in the temperature-sensitive cdc4 mutant, the GTS1 gene affected the timing of budding at the restrictive temperature. Thus, the GTS1 gene product appears to modulate the timing of budding to obtain an appropriate cell size independent of the DNA replication cycle.

Among the genes known to affect biological clocks, the period gene (per) of Drosophila melanogaster (24, 37) and the frequency gene (frq) of Neurospora crassa (31) were the first to be isolated and sequenced. Characteristically, the amino acid sequences deduced from the nucleotide sequences of both genes each contained a Gly-Thr/Ser repeat which is shared by proteoglycans comprising a polysaccharide attachment site (31, 37, 43). Although the GT repeats are polymorphic in length and in sequence among the species of Drosophila (10, 11, 16, 34, 35, 48, 51), the presence of the GT repeat in the clockaffecting genes from evolutionarily remote species, Drosophila and Neurospora species, implies that this sequence plays an important role in most, if not all, clock-affecting proteins.

The nature of per mutant phenotypes suggested that the gene product is an integral component of the circadian clock: mutations either shorten (per^s), lengthen (per¹), or abolish (*per* \degree) not only the period of circadian rhythms (19) but also the rhythm with a much shorter period during the male courtship song (26, 52). Furthermore, the period of the circadian rhythm of D. melanogaster changes depending upon the gene dose (4, 12, 45). Thus, a gene dose-dependent control and pleiotropic mutant phenotypes affecting various rhythmic biological processes were shown to be present in some mutant alleles of a typical clock gene.

Biological clocks are considered to be ubiquitous in eukaryotic and prokaryotic organisms (for a review, see reference 18). Even in yeasts, a few lines of evidence for the presence of a biological clock have been reported, although no clock-related genes have yet been designated. Edmunds and coinvestigators demonstrated that the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae shows a circadian rhythm in cell division activity when cultured at low temperatures, although only about one-half of the cells divided during any one light-dark cycle and the period often varied considerably (14). Later, they reported that the cell division cycle is regulated by a circadian oscillator by using the unicellular algal flagellate Euglena gracilis (1). Furthermore, Hartwell suggested the presence of an intracellular timer in yeasts which regulates the timing of bud initiation, since the temperature-sensitive mutant cdc4 initiates buds periodically independent of DNA replication and cell division at restrictive temperatures (20, 21).

In this study, we isolated a potential clock gene from the yeast S. cerevisiae using synthetic oligonucleotides encoding three GT repeats. A positive clone contained an open reading frame (ORF) which encodes a protein of 417 amino acid residues and which has some homology to other clock genes in the primary sequence and potential protein motifs. The function of the putative clock gene was examined by characterizing the phenotypes of transformants with different copy numbers of the gene produced either by inactivating the gene by gene disruption or by transformation with a multicopy plasmid harboring the gene. Analyses of the cell cycle parameters of the transformants by using synchronized cells showed that the unbudding period and cell sizes increased as a function of the gene dosage.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Yeast strains and media. Strains of the yeast S. cerevisiae IFO10151 (MATa ade2 his3-532 trp1-289 ura3-1,2 can' Inos⁻) and IFO10094 (MAT α cdc4 canl his2 hom3 leu2-1 lys9 met1 pet8 rad4 trp2 ura3) were obtained from the Institute for Fermentation (Osaka, Japan) and used for transformation.

^{*} Corresponding author. Mailing address: Department of Biochemistry, Yamanashi Medical University, 1110 Shimokato, Tamaho, Nakakoma, Yamanashi 409-38, Japan. Phone: 0552-73-1111. Fax: 0552- 73-6784.

FIG. 1. (a) Physical map of the DNA fragment containing ^a gene with ^a GT repeat, named GTSJ. The fragment was cloned from ^a genomic library from S. cerevisiae by using YEp24 as a vector, and the recombinant plasmid was named pPER119. Hatched and dark boxes indicate the positions of the GTSI gene and GT repeat, respectively. The thick line at the top indicates the KpnI-SpeI fragment (634 bp) used for Southern and Northern blotting (Fig. 4a and b), and arrows indicate the regions corresponding to synthetic primers for RT-PCR (Fig. 4c). B/Sau, BamHI-Sau3AI junction. (b) Physical map of the pPER119-derived DNA fragment with a GTS1 gene disrupted with the ura3 gene (gts1::ura3).

Cells were either cultured in YPAD (rich) medium (2% polypeptone, 1% yeast extract, 40μ g of adenine sulfate per ml, and 2% glucose) or in ^a synthetic medium consisting of 0.67% yeast nitrogen base without amino acids, 2% glucose, and 20 μ g each of histidine, tryptophan, and adenine per ml. Uracil was added at 20 μ g/ml when required.

Isolation of the GT repeat-containing gene (GTSI). A genomic library constructed in plasmid YEp24 with DNA fragments from S. cerevisiae DBY 939 (suc2-215^{am}) obtained by partial digestion with Sau3AI was screened with ³²P-labeled oligonucleotides of the form 5'-d(CCNGTNCCNGTNCC NGTNCC)-3', which are complementary to the sense strand of DNA encoding three GT repeats (N represents A, G, C, or T). Three positive clones were isolated, and all of them contained mutually overlapping DNA regions. The one with the longest insert (10.1 kbp), named pPER119, was used throughout this study (Fig. la). The nucleotide sequence of the 2.4-kbp SalI-SpeI fragment was determined by the method of Sanger et al. (41).

Production of transformants. To produce a GTS1 genedisrupted transformant, the GTSJ gene was disrupted with the URA3 gene according to the method of Rothstein (40). A 4.5-kbp Sall-Sacl fragment containing GTSJ was dissected from pPER119 and inserted into $pU\tilde{C}19$ in the multicloning site, yielding ^a recombinant plasmid, pUCGTS. A 442-bp BamHI-KpnI fragment of pUCGTS was then replaced with a BamHI-KpnI fragment containing URA3, generating the recombinant plasmid pUCAGTS1 (gts1::URA3) (Fig. 1b). A 1,994-bp EcoRI-EcoRI fragment containing gtsl::URA3 was used to transform S. cerevisiae IFO10151 or IFO10094 with a $cdc4$ mutation by the lithium acetate procedure. Several Ura⁺ colonies were obtained, and one of the transformants, designated TMAgtsl, was further studied. A high-copy-number transformant of the gene GTSJ, named TMpGTS1, was obtained by transformation of yeast IF010151 with the multicopy plasmid YEp24 containing a Sall-Sacl fragment from pPER119.

To obtain a Ura⁺ wild-type cell as a control, IFO10151 was transformed with YEp24 and named WTp24. To rescue the GTS1-inactivated transformant, the mitotically stable vector pRS414 containing a centromere sequence (CEN6) (44) was

inserted with an SphI-SacI fragment from pPER119 at the multicloning site and the resulting recombinant plasmid (pCT119) was transfected into TMAgts1, yielding transformant TMAcGTS1.

Southern and Northern blots. For Southern blots, $10 \mu g$ of DNAs prepared from the wild-type and transformed Ura' strains was digested with either HindIll, PstI, XbaI, or EcoRI and hybridized with the $32P$ -labeled KpnI-SpeI fragment from pPER119 (Fig. la). For Northern blot analysis of RNA products of GTS1, yeast total RNA was extracted with guanidine isothiocyanate (9). Total cellular RNA (20 μ g) was separated in a 1.2% agarose gel, blotted onto a nylon membrane, and hybridized with the $32P$ -labeled oligonucleotides used to screen the gene. When necessary, RNA samples were digested with ² U of RQ-1 RNase-free DNase (Promega Corp., Madison, Wis.) at 37°C for 30 min in a reaction mixture containing ⁴⁰ mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8), ¹⁰ mM NaCl, ⁶ mM $MgCl₂$, and 10 mM CaCl₂ prior to gel electrophoresis.

Detection of the GTS1 transcript by PCR. The GTS1 mRNA was detected by reverse transcription PCR (RT-PCR) as described elsewhere (25). Briefly, 1μ g of total RNA digested with RNase-free DNase was reverse transcribed into cDNA with Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (Life Technologies, Inc., Grand Island, N.Y.) and random primers (hexadeoxyoligonucleotides) and then amplified with Taq DNA polymerase (Perkin-Elmer Cetus, Norwalk, Conn.) by using N-terminal [5'-d(TAGTCACATATGAGGTTTAG GAGTTCTTCC)-3'] and C-terminal [5'-d(AGTGTAAGCT TATTACTTAGTGTCACTCTA)-3'] synthetic oligonucleotides as primers (Fig. la).

Preparation of anti-Gts1 antibody. A HincII-EcoRI fragment from GTS1 was inserted into pUC119 which was dissected at the HincII and EcoRI site, and then an SphI-HincII fragment was deleted from the recombinant plasmid to ligate the ORFs of $lacZ$ (at nucleotide position $+24$) and GTS1 (at +39) in frame to produce pLacZ-GTS1, as shown in Fig. 5a. The construct pLacZ-GTSI was transfected into Escherichia coli XL1-Blue (Stratagene, La Jolla, Calif.), and recombinant Gtsl protein was synthesized in the form of inclusion bodies. These were precipitated from cell lysates by centrifugation at 13,500 \times g for 5 min at 4°C and by six washes with 0.5% Triton X-100 containing ²⁵ mM Tris-HCI (pH 8.0), ³⁰ mM NaCl, and ¹⁰ mM EDTA (30). The precipitate was then washed eight times with 1 to 8^{6} M urea in 25 mM Tris-HCI (pH 8.0) containing 1 mM EDTA (42) and then dissolved in GTC (5.5) M guanidine thiocyanate, ²⁵ mM sodium citrate, 0.5% Sarkosyl, 0.1 M β -mercaptoethanol). During dialysis against phosphate-buffered saline, the solution became turbid, and the resultant suspension was centrifuged at $21,000 \times g$ for 30 min at 4°C. The precipitate contained a pure protein with a molecular mass of 45 kDa, as determined by sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) (27). This protein matched the molecular mass of the LacZ-Gtsl recombinant protein, while the supernatant contained contaminating proteins. Antiserum was raised against the 45-kDa protein in mice injected four times at 2-week intervals with $100 \mu g$ of protein emulsified with complete adjuvant.

Western blots and enzymatic deglycosylation. To prepare protein extracts, cells were harvested, washed once with icecold distilled water, resuspended in ⁵⁰ mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.7)-50 mM NaCl-10 mM β -mercaptoethanol-10% glycerolprotease inhibitors (5 mM EDTA, ¹⁰ mM benzamidine HCl, ¹⁰ mM N-ethylmaleimide, ¹⁰ mM aminocaproic acid, ¹ mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, and 0.1 mM pepstatin A), and lysed by vortexing in the presence of acid-washed beads. Supernatants were clarified by centrifugation in a microcentrifuge at 15,000 \times g for 15 min at 4°C. Protein estimation was performed by the Bio-Rad protein assay, and 10μ g of protein was applied to SDS-PAGE. Western blot (immunoblot) analysis was performed essentially according to the method of Towbin et al. (49), and blots were stained by the ECL detection system (Amersham, Amersham, United Kingdom). To investigate the glycosylation state of the Gtsl protein, total protein (10 μ g) was digested with endo- β -N-acetylglucosaminidase H (8), heparitinase (36), or chondroitinase ABC (36) prior to SDS-PAGE as described previously. Concanavalin A-Sepharose precipitation of total protein was carried out as described by Sweet and Pelham (47).

Determination of growth curves and timing of bud emergence. Cells at a concentration of 10^6 /ml were cultured in the synthetic medium at 30°C, and growth curves were determined by measuring the A_{550} . To determine the timing of budding, the cells cultured to the stationary phase in the synthetic medium at 30°C were diluted four times with fresh synthetic medium and cultured at 30°C. At the times indicated, cell samples were removed and the percentage of budded cells was measured under a microscope with a Nomarski lens (BX50; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) after a brief sonication (22). Dark dead cells were not counted.

Cell cycle synchronization and determination of cell cycle parameters. The cell cycle parameters were determined with virgin cells after synchronization with α -factor. Yeasts were grown at 30°C for ⁴ days in YPAD medium, and virgin cells were collected on a sucrose density gradient (15). The cells were synchronized with 10 μ M α -factor for 2.5 h at 30°C. After the cells were washed five times with ¹⁰ volumes of YPAD medium at 4^oC, they were suspended in the same medium at a concentration of 10^7 /ml and incubated at 30° C. At the times indicated, cell samples were removed and the percentage of budded cells was measured (22). The cell cycle parameters were estimated as explained in the legend to Fig. 7.

Determination of cell size. The cell volumes were determined by measuring the diameters of cells in the log phase. Cells were grown in YPAD medium at 30°C until the A_{600} reached 0.55 and were then transferred to 0°C. After a brief sonication, the cells were appropriately diluted with YPAD medium and photographs were taken under a microscope. The

volumes of single cells and mother cells having buds were calculated by measuring the diameters of cells enlarged on photographic papers, assuming that the cells were spherical. The size distribution was determined by flow cytometry using cells in the stationary phase. Cells were cultured at 30°C for 3 days in YPAD medium and examined by flow cytometry (EPICS Profile; Coulter Corp., Hialeah, Fla.) without fixation.

RESULTS

Isolation of ^a gene with ^a GT repeat from the yeast S. cerevisiae. A genomic library constructed with Sau3AI DNA fragments from the yeast S. cerevisiae was screened with synthetic oligonucleotides encoding three Gly-Thr repeats as probes. Of three positive clones containing mutually overlapping physical maps, that with the longest insert (10.1 kbp, named pPER119; Fig. la) was used throughout this study. As the Gly-Thr/Ser repeat (GT repeat) site was located on the KpnI-SpeI fragment (Fig. la), the nucleotide sequence of about 2.4 kb around the GT repeat was determined (Fig. 2). There was only one substantial ORF, encoding a protein of 417 amino acid residues containing the GT repeat in frame with ^a molecular mass of 45,688 (Fig. 2). This ORF does not contain any consensus sequence for an intron. In the ⁵' flanking region of the ORF, there were two potential TUF-binding sequences running in different directions with 85% homology to the consensus sequence (50), and an atypical poly(A) addition signal was found in the ³' flanking region (Fig. 2). The yeast TUF factor is known as ^a general DNA-binding factor interacting with specific sequences found upstream of a majority of genes encoding components of the translational machinery (like ribosomal proteins) and of many other genes (50). The size of RNA product should therefore be about 1.8 kb. The repeat site was located in the carboxyl-terminal region (nucleotide positions 332 to 358) containing 11 Gly-Ser/Thr dimers encoded by GGCA/TCA with two interruptions. Screening the NBRF and SWISSPROT databases with the sequence deduced from the nucleotide sequence of the $GTS1$ gene revealed that a carboxyl-terminal portion of 156 amino acid residues (positions ²²² to 378) containing the GT repeat had substantial homology with a portion (positions 593 to 747) of the per gene product from D. melanogaster (1) (22.6% identity and 61.9% similarity [Fig. 3]). Although the GT repeat region showed particularly high homology, the rest of the homologous region (positions 222 to 332) still had 59% similarity whereas the identity was low (14%).

The gene transcript. Southern blots of DNA digests with either HindlIl, PstI, XbaI, or EcoRI revealed that yeast possesses a single copy of the gene per haploid (Fig. 4a, for EcoRI and XbaI digests). The gene transcript of about 1.8 kb, which matches the size predicted from the nucleotide sequence analysis, was detected by Northern blotting (Fig. 4b). The level of the gene transcript was considered to be markedly low and fragile, since an exposure of as long as 7 days was required to detect a very faint signal, even when freshly labeled probes were used, and the 1.8-kb band was usually accompanied by degraded materials. Thus, the presence of the product was confirmed by RT-PCR, which showed one discrete band of the size corresponding to that estimated from the nucleotide sequence of the gene (Fig. 4c). Thus, the gene is considered to be functional and is named GTSI (the first gene containing GT dimers from budding yeast). Although the GTSJ product was the only GT-containing protein isolated by this screening, there is no denying that there are more GT proteins in S. cerevisiae.

To detect the protein product of the GTSI gene in S.

GTCGACAAATACACCGGTGGCACGGAGGCTGAATGTTGGTCATTTTGAGAGCCGGTATT 59 $\mathbf{1}$ TACCACAACTGTATCTAATCTCTTGATCGGCATCTTTTTGCTTCTATGCTTTTGTTGTTT 119 60 120 GCTTGATATTTTTTGTTTTTAATGAACTGTAAGCACACAGAGCTATGGGATGTGTGGCAA 179 180 TGACTGTATATATATGTATATATATATATATATATATATATATATTTATTTATTTATI'TA 239 TTTAAAATATAGCTACGTATGCGCCAGTTGTTTTTATCAGCTTTGCTTCTGGCCACATTT 299 240 CAACCAGGTCTCAGAGGATATATGGGCCAGAAGGCCCCTTTACACACTTTTGAGATGCGA 359 300 360 TGAGTCTTCCAAGGTAGGAGCATATGCCTCCAACAGACTTCGGCCCGAAGCATGCTGTGC 419 420 TCACGGGAATTATATTGTGTGAAGCACATGGCACACTTTCCAAAAAAGAGTCAGAATGAG 479 TCAGCCGGATAACCAAACGCGGACTGTGGCGCCACGGAAAACAGTGTGGCAAATTTATGG 480 539 GCGGCTAATCTGCAAGCTCTATGCCTGGAAATGTAGATGTAATAATCAAGACACTTTTGT 540 599 239 600 TCTTTCGTGTATAGTGCATGAAGGTTAAACCTCCGTAAATTCCTTGAACTCTTCTGGAAT 659 660 TCCAAATTCTTTTCTTATCTGTTCTGGCTTCAAAAAGAATTTCTTGTATAAATAATCAAT 719 720 GAGAATCTCAATGTTATCAGTAGTTTTCTCCAGATGCACTTTTTTTACGGCCATCTCTAA 779 780 ATGCTTCACAAAAGGGTGGAAGAAGAACATTTTCTCTTGATCAATCATTAAI'ATAGATGG 839 840 899 AGGCAGCGTTCTGTCAATCACAGATTATAGTTTATTTATACTTAGTCAAAAATGAGGTTT
Mar F 900 AGGAGTTCTTCCCATAGCCTTAAAACATGTTGACAGAGAATTAAAGGAGTTGATTAATTCG 959 960 TCCGAGAATGCCCAATAAATGCGGTGAATGTGGTAATTTCTACCCAACTTGGTGCTCAGTT 1019 1020 AATTTGGGGTTTTCCTTTGTGGTAGGTGTGCCTGTTGTTGATAGAAAAGTTTLCGGTAGC 1079 1080 AGAGACGACGATGCCTTTTCTAACGTTAAATCACTATCAATGGATAGATGGACAAGAG 1139 1140 GATATCGATGAATTAGTGAGTCTTGGAGGCAATAAGGGGAATGCTCGGTTCTGGAATGCT 1199 1200 AAAAATGTCCCTTTTGCTTTGATGGAGATGATGAGAGCCATCGTGGAGCATTACATT 1259 1250 AGAGACAAGTATATTTTGGGTAAATTCAGGTATGATGAAATAAAGCCTGAAGACTTTGGA 1319 1320 TCCAGAATGGATGATTTTGATGGGGAATCGGACAGGTTTGATGAAAGAAATAGAAGTAGG 1379 144 S R M D D F D G E S D R F D E R N R S R 163 1380 AGCAGGAGCAGATCTCLATCTTTCTATAAAGGGGCCATAATAGGTCTGACTACGGCGGT 1439 1440 TCCAGGGACTCATTCCAAAGCAGTGGAAGCAGATATTCTAGGCAACTGGCAGAACTCAAG 1499 184 S R D S F Q S S G S R Y S R Q L A E L K 203 1500 GACATGGGTTTCGGTGATACAAACAAAAATTTAGATGCATTATCGTCCGCTCACGGAAAT 1559 1550 ATCAATAGAGCAATCGATTATCTAGAAAAAAGTTCAAGTTCAAGAAATAGTGTATCGGCA 1619 1620 GCAGCGACAACATCAACTCCGCCCCTGCCCAGGAGACGTGCGACAACAAGTGGCCCACAG 1679 244 A A T T S T P P L P R R R A T T S G P Q 263 1680 CCAGCTATTTTGATGGTACAAATGTAATCACGCCAGATTTACTTCAAATTCAGCATCT 1739 1740 TTTGTAGAAGCAAAGCCAGCAGTTTTCGATGGTACCCTTCAACAGTATTACGATCCTGCT 1799 1800 ACCGGAATGATATATGTAGATCAGCAGCAATACGCCATGGCTATGCAACAGCAGCAACAG 1859 304 T G M ^I Y V D Q Q Q Y A M A M Q Q Q Q Q 323 1860 CAACAGCAACAGCTTGCTGTTGCCACAGGCTCAGGCTCAGGCACAGGCACAGGCACAGGC 1919 1920 TCAAGTTCAGGCTCAGGCTCAGGCTCAGGCCCAGGCTCAGGCTCAAGCACAGCAGATCCA 1979 1980 GATGCAACAGCTTCAGATGCAGCAACAGCAACAGGCGCCATTATCTTTTCAGCAAATGTC 2039 364 D A T A S D A A T A T G A ^I F S A N V 383 2940 GCAAGGAGGAAACCTGCCACAAGGTTATTETACACACAATAAAAATAAGATACATTGCC 2099 2100 GCTGCTCCGCATTACATATCATATAGAGTGACACTAAGTAATTAAATGACACTAAGTAAC 2159 404 A A P 1I Y ^I S Y R V T L S N *8* 2160 GAAAGATATCTGTAAACAACGACTATATACCAGAATTAGTCATATTCTCTATTGTATTCA 2219 2220 CCCTACACAGCCGCATTACACAGCTGCTCCGGACGTTTTACGCTGCACATCAATGACTAA 2279 2280 TACCACTGTATTTGATCCACACTTAGCGCAAAAGTCACCTGGGTGGCGTTTTCCGCTCGC 2339 2340 GCTCCGCCGGTGAGAGCGAGAAAAAAAAAAGGGATTGGGCGGTAATGTAAGGAAAACCCA 2399 2400 CTAGA

FIG. 2. The nucleotide sequence of the 2.4-kbp SalI-SpeI fragment and the deduced amino acid sequence of the largest ORF. The GT repeat site is underlined with ^a heavy line; the predicted TUF factor-binding sites (nucleotide positions 613 and 629) and $poly(A)$ addition signal (position 2194) are underlined with light lines.

cerevisiae, a polyclonal antibody was raised against a recombinant LacZ-Gtsl protein overproduced in E. coli by using a recombinant plasmid (Fig. Sa). Western blots using the antibody detected a positive protein of about 45 kDa, which is close to the size predicted from the nucleotide sequence (Fig. Sb), suggesting that the Gtsl protein was expressed in growing yeast cells. Digestions of the protein extracts with enzymes that remove carbohydrate side chains (endo-β-N-acetylglucosaminidase H, heparitinase, and chondroitinase ABC) have no effect on the mobility of the Gtsl protein, as determined by PAGE. Furthermore, the protein did not bind to the lectin concanavalin A, unlike most yeast glycoproteins, as determined by concanavalin A-Sepharose precipitation (data not shown). Thus, the Gtsl protein appeared unglycosylated.

FIG. 3. Homology of carboxyl-terminal segments of putative GTSJ and per (D. melanogaster) gene products showing 22.6% identity in a defined region ($>$ to $<$). Colons and dots indicate identical and similar amino acid residues, respectively.

Production of transformants. To study the function of the gene in S. cerevisiae, we constructed two kinds of transformants of IFO10151 and investigated their phenotypes. One is the gene-disrupted transformant, named $TM\Delta gts1$, whose $GTSI$ gene was inactivated by transformation with a disrupted GTSJ gene (gtsl::URA3) (Fig. 1b). The other was a high-copynumber transformant, named TMpGTS1, which was transformed with a recombinant plasmid of YEp24 containing a Sall-Sacl fragment from pPER119. The integration of the disrupted gene gtsl::URA3 in a homologous region was confirmed by Southern blotting (Fig. 4a). The EcoRI and XbaI fragments from transformant $TM\Delta gts1$ were longer than those from the wild-type cell because of insertion of the URA3 gene and elimination of an XbaI site, respectively, in agreement with the physical maps (Fig. 1). Northern blots (Fig. 4b) showed that the high-copy-number transformant TMpGTS1 contained much more of the 1.8-kb RNA product than did the wild type (Fig. 4b) and that it was undetectable in the gene-disrupted $transformat$ TM Δ gts1 (Fig. 4b). The absence of the transcript in TMAgtsl was confirmed by RT-PCR (Fig. 4c). Furthermore, Western blots showed that transformant TMpGTS1 contained about 20 times more protein than did the wild-type cell, whereas transformant TMAgtsl contained none (Fig. Sb). As transformant TMAgtsl grew in the absence of the Gtsl protein, the protein was shown not to be essential for cell viability.

Effect of the gene on cell growth. To examine whether the gene affects cellular growth rate, growth curves for the wild type and the two transformants during the culture in the synthetic medium at 30°C were compared by monitoring the turbidity at 550 nm (Fig. 6a). Although their growth rates were similar during the exponential growth phase, the lag phase was reproducibly the shortest for transformant TMAgtsl and longest for the multicopy transformant TMpGTS1, although the difference between the transformants and the wild-type cells was small. To confirm the difference in the duration of the lag phase, the timing of the first bud formation was determined after the addition of fresh medium (Fig. 6b). As expected, the timing of the first budding was shortest for $TM\Delta g t s1$ and longest for TMpGTS1, although the timing was generally shorter in this experiment than that in the experiment for Fig. 6a, probably because the initial cell concentration was higher. Thus, the timing of bud emergence after the transfer to the fresh medium was affected by the GTS1 gene and roughly

FIG. 4. (a) Southern blot of the GTS1 gene in DNAs from the wild-type strain (IF010151) and transformant TMAgtsl, which was produced by transformation with the 1,994-bp EcoRI-EcoRI fragment containing gtsl::URA3. DNAs (10 μ g) were digested with EcoRI or XbaI and hybridized with the ³²P-labeled KpnI-SpeI fragment from pPER119 as marked in Fig. 1a. The lengths of the DNA fragments were determined with HindIII fragments of λ phage DNA as the standard. (b) Northern blots of RNA products of the GTS1 gene. Total cellular RNAs from TMpGTS1 (the high-copy-number transformant with pPER119), the wild-type cell, and TM Δ gts1 (10 µg) were separated in a 1.2% agarose gel, blotted onto a nylon membrane, and hybridized with the ³²P-labeled KpnI-SpeI fragment from pPER119. (c) Detection of GTS1 mRNA by RT-PCR (29). One microgram of total RNA from the wild-type cell, TMAgtsl, and TMpGTS1 was reverse transcribed into cDNA with reverse transcriptase (lanes +) by using random primers (hexadeoxyoligonucleotides) and then amplified with Taq DNA polymerase by using N- and C-terminal synthetic oligonucleotides (as marked in Fig. la) as primers. Control experiments without reverse transcriptase (lanes -) show the absence of DNA contamination in RNA samples.

dependent on the level of the Gtsl protein. That is, the more protein was present, the longer the period of the lag phase of culture was.

 Ura^+ wild-type WTp24 cells produced by transformation with YEp24 followed essentially the same time course of budding as that of the Ura⁻ wild-type cells, ruling out the effect of uracil on the growth rate (data not shown). Further-

more, TMAcGTS1, which was produced by transformation of the gene-disrupted transformant TMAgtsl with a centromere plasmid harbbring the GTS1 gene (pCT119), restored the timing of budding to that of the wild-type cells (Fig. 6b), suggesting that the timing of budding was affected by the $GTSI$ gene.

The low percentage of budding cells at peaks in Fig. 6b,

FIG. 5. Western blots using antisera raised against LacZ-Gtsl recombinant protein. (a) The structure of the recombinant plasmid pLacZ-GTS1. Plasmid pUC119 was inserted with the HincII-EcoRI fragment from GTS1, and the ORFs of lacZ (at nucleotide position +24) and GTSJ (at +39) were ligated in frame. (b) Total proteins from TMpGTS1 (the high-copy-number transformant with pPER119), the wild-type cell, and TMAgts1 (10 μ g each) were separated on a polyacrylamide gel and electrophoretically blotted. The Gts1 protein was detected by the ECL method with antiserum raised against the LacZ-Gts1 recombinant protein purified from \tilde{E} . coli and overexpressed, depending on recombinant plasmid pLacZ-GTS1.

FIG. 6. (a) Growth curves of the wild-type strain (\bullet) and transformants TMAgts1 (\Box) and TMpGTS1 (\triangle). Cells at a concentration of 10⁶/ml were cultured in the synthetic medium at 30°C, and growth curves were determined by measuring the A_{550} . (b) Time course of budding of the wild-type strain (\bullet) and transformants TMAgts1 (\Box), TMpGTS1 (\triangle), and TMAcGTS1 (\bigcirc). TMAcGTS1 is TMAgts1 cells transformed with a centromere plasmid inserted with the GTSI gene. Cells cultured to the stationary phase in synthetic medium at 30° C were diluted four times with fresh medium and transferred to 30°C at time zero. At the times indicated, cell samples were removed and the percentage of budded cells was determined by microscopy after a brief sonication.

especially that of the multicopy transformant TMpGTS1, was not due to an increase of dead cells, because only live cells were counted by Nomarski imaging. It is probably because the cell populations are of various ages having different growing activities, and so cell-to-cell variations in the timing of budding spread as the average timing of the population was delayed. However, after taking it into account, the timing of budding of TMpGTS1 was considered to be extremely varied compared with that of the other cells. This may be due to variations in the copy number of the plasmid harboring the GTSI gene.

Effect of the gene on timing of bud emergence during the cell cycle. Although both transformants showed growth rates similar to that of the wild-type, according to the turbidity (Fig. 6a), the possibility that the timing of budding during the growing phase is also affected by the gene cannot be ruled out. To determine the effect of the GTSI gene on the cell cycle parameters precisely, virgin cells were isolated from the wild type and transformants to avoid age-related variations in growth activity, and their growth was examined after synchronization with α -factor, which stops the cell cycle at the START point (21, 23) (Fig. 7). Identical experiments were repeated three times, and the results were summarized in Table 1. Although overall profiles of the time courses were quite similar among the experiments, the standard deviation values estimated were somewhat large. This is probably because cells were sensitive to synchronization conditions using α -factor. Anyway, the most significant changes were reproducible in the unbudded periods of mother (parent) cells, whereas differences among them in the budded period were not significant. The unbudded period of mother cells was 19% shorter in TMAgtsl and 18% longer in TMpGTS1 than that of the wild-type cells. This result suggested that the timing of budding of mother cells is modulated by the GTS1 gene roughly in a dose-dependent manner. It should be noted that transformant TMAcGTS1 showed essentially the same time course as that of the wild type (Fig. 7), indicating again that the GTS1 gene affected the timing of budding in TM Δ gts1.

The result also showed that the unbudded periods of the daughter (virgin) cells from the START point were changed

similarly to those of mother cells (Table 1). Furthermore, isolated virgin cells grown in a rich medium without α -factor followed essentially the same time course of bud emergence as those shown in Fig. 6b, in which the cell populations are of various ages. The length of the unbudding period after the first bud emergence was shortened for TMAgtsl and lengthened for TMpGTS1 by about 20% compared with that for wild-type cells (data not shown). These results suggested that the timing of budding of daughter cells is also affected by the gene.

Effect of GTS1 on cell size. As the GTS1 gene affects the duration of the unbudded phase of the cell cycle while little affecting the growth rate, we presumed that cell sizes are affected. The size distribution of cells in the exponential growth phase was determined without cell fixation (Table 2). The mean cell volume of $TM\Delta gts1$ cells in either the unbudded period (single cells consisting mostly of daughter cells) or the budded period (mother cells) was 27 or 31% less than that of wild-type cells, respectively, whereas that of TMpGTS1 cells was 48 or 39% more, respectively. It is notable that the standard deviation value for the single TMpGTS1 cells is twice that of the others, suggesting a higher degree of variation in cell size. A similar result was obtained by flow cytometry of unfixed (fresh) cells in the stationary phase (data not shown). The mean cell sizes of $TM\Delta gts1$ cells were smaller than those of wild-type cells, and that of TMpGTS1 cells is distributed more widely with a relatively high proportion of large cells.

Effect of GTS1 on the timing of budding of cdc4 mutants. Previously, Hartwell presented a hypothesis that a cellular clock controls bud emergence, as the cdc4 mutant initiates budding periodically independent of the DNA division cycle at the restrictive temperature (20). To address this hypothesis, the effect of the GTS1 gene was examined with a $cdc⁴$ mutant which initiates two or three buds periodically in the absence of DNA replication and cell separation at the restrictive temperature (20). A gene-disrupted transformant (TMAgtsl/cdc4) and an overexpressed transformant (TMpGTS1/cdc4) were constructed from the cdc4 mutant, and the time course of budding was determined after transfer to the restrictive temperature (Fig. 8). Although determination of the interval

FIG. 7. (a) Cell cycle of virgin cells from the wild-type strain (IFO10151) (\bullet) and transformants TMAgts1 (\Box), TMpGTS1 (\triangle), and TMAcGTS1 (O) after synchronization with α -factor. Virgin cells collected on a sucrose density gradient were synchronized with 10 μ M α -factor for 2.5 h at 30°C. After extensive washing with fresh YPAD medium at 4°C, they were suspended at a concentration of 10⁷ cells per ml of YPAD medium and transferred to 30°C at time zero. At the times indicated, cell samples were removed and the percentage of budded cells was measured. (b) The cell cycle parameters were roughly estimated and are summarized in Table 1. Abbreviations for the cell cycle parameters: D' and P, generation times of daughter (virgin) and parent cells, respectively; Ud' and Up, unbudded periods of daughter and parent cells, respectively; B, budded periods of daughter and parent cells, which are identical (20). Here, Ud' was defined as the period from the time of release from α -factor to the midpoint of the ascending slope of the first peak (the mean time of appearance of the first bud). Thus, it was probably shorter than the normal Ud (15), as the cells were arrested in the late G_1 phase by α -factor. The daughter cells from the first bud (the first peak) initiated budding later than those from the second bud of the parent cells (the second peak), consequently making the second trough shallow.

between the first and second buddings was impossible as the synchronization of the cell cycle was too incomplete, it is apparent that the timing of budding, at least that of the first bud, is shortened in TMAgtsl/cdc4 and delayed in TMpGTS1/ cdc4 compared with that in control cdc4 cells. Thus, it is suggested that the GTS1 gene product influences the timing of budding independent of the DNA division cycle.

DISCUSSION

Characterization of the GTSI gene. In this study, we isolated a gene, named GTSJ, from the yeast S. cerevisiae by using synthetic oligonucleotides encoding three GT repeats as probes which are shared by clock-affecting genes from D.

TABLE 1. Summary of cell cycle parameters of the wild type (IF010151) and transformants TMAgts1 and TMpGTS1

Strain	Length (min \pm SD) of cell cycle parameter ["]				
	Udʻ	в	Up	Р	
Wild type	57.0 ± 4.3	51.7 ± 6.8	32.8 ± 3.8	85.3 ± 5.9	
$TM\Delta g$ ts1	48.0 ± 4.2	53.3 ± 6.0	26.3 ± 4.1	81.3 ± 10.9	
TMpGTS1	64.3 ± 6.3	52.7 ± 5.8	37.7 ± 5.1	92.0 ± 12.3	

" Cell cycle parameters are estimated from the results of three independent experiments as described in the legend to Fig. 7, and the abbreviations are defined there. Briefly, virgin cells were synchronized with 10 μ M α -factor. After extensive washing with fresh YPAD medium at 4°C, they were suspended in YPAD medium $(10^7 \text{ cells per ml})$ and transferred to 30° C at time zero. Time courses of budding were determined by measuring the percentage of budded cells, and cell cycle parameters were estimated.

melanogaster and N. crassa (24, 31, 37). A positive clone of 10.1 kbp in length contained an ORF encoding ^a protein of ⁴¹⁷ amino acid residues without any consensus sequence for an intron (Fig. 2). The gene was considered functional because the RNA and protein products detected by Northern and Western blotting, respectively, had molecular sizes matching those predicted by the nucleotide sequence. Furthermore, a PCR product of ^a size identical to that predicted from the nucleotide sequence was detected, although the complete cDNA has not been cloned yet.

Structural significance of the predicted GTSI product. The GTS1 product predicted from the nucleotide sequence is much smaller than the *per* and *frq* proteins, which have $1,218$ (type A,

TABLE 2. Distribution of cell volume of the wild type (IFO10151) and transformants TMAgtsl and TMpGTS1

Strain	Results ^a (mean \pm SD) for:			
	Single cells		Mother cells	
	Diam (μm)	Vol (μm^3)	Diam (μm)	Vol (μm^3)
IFO10151 $TM\Delta g$ ts1 TMpGTS1	4.09 ± 0.35 3.70 ± 0.30 4.66 ± 0.70	35.8 ± 3.1 26.5 ± 3.4 53.0 ± 6.3	5.12 ± 0.38 4.52 ± 0.40 5.71 ± 0.39	70.2 ± 5.2 48.3 ± 6.9 97.4 ± 6.7

' The cell volumes were determined by measuring the diameters of cells in the log phase. Cells were grown in YPAD medium at 30° C until the A_{600} reached 0.55. After a brief sonication at 0°C, the cells were appropriately diluted with YPAD medium, and photographs were taken under ^a microscope. The volumes of single cells and mother cells having buds were calculated by measuring the diameters of cells enlarged on photographic papers.

FIG. 8. Time course of budding of the $cdc4$ mutant (IFO10094) (\bullet and \bigcirc) and transformants TM Δ gts1/cdc4 (\blacksquare and \Box) and TMpGTS1/ cdc4 (\blacktriangle and \triangle) after transfer to the restrictive temperature. Cells were grown overnight at 23°C in YPAD medium and transferred to 37°C at time zero. At the times indicated, samples of cells were removed and the percentages of cells with one (closed symbols) and two (open symbols) buds were measured by microscopy after brief sonication.

the most abundant transcript) and 788 residues, respectively. However, screening the protein databases revealed that a carboxyl-terminal portion of 156 amino acid residues containing the GT repeat site has substantial homology with ^a portion of the per product (Fig. 3). As the frq protein reportedly is similar to the per protein in the region containing the GT repeat (31), it is likely that $GTSI$ is evolutionarily related to per and frq. The GT/S motif constitutes the attachment site of the glycosaminoglycan chain to the core protein of proteoglycans (5) , and the *per* product is attached to a sugar chain which is sensitive to heparitinase (37) and heparinase 11 (2). However, a polyclonal antibody against the Gtsl protein reacted with a protein of 45 kDa, which approximately matches the size predicted by the nucleotide sequences of the gene, and both assays of enzymatic deglycosylation and concanavalin A-Sepharose binding suggested that the Gtsl protein was unglycosylated. In addition to the GT repeat, the Gtsl protein contains a glutamine-rich tract which is shared among Perrelated proteins that are similar to the per, ARNT, and SIM products (32) and some nuclear proteins, such as the transcription regulatory factor HAP2 and homeotic proteins in the fruit fly. However, unlike these proteins, the Gtsl protein does not contain a typical nuclear targeting sequence (N-MIIKRNK DKS-RKKKKNK) (38), although it has some strands of basic amino acids. This does not mean, however, that Gtsl is absolutely ^a cytoplasmic protein, since about 50% of nuclear proteins do not contain the nuclear targeting sequence (38).

Function of the GTS1 gene in S. cerevisiae. The function of the GTSJ gene was examined by characterizing the phenotypes of gene-disrupted $(TM\Delta gts1)$ and high-copy-number (TMpGTS1) transformants of the gene. The phenotypes of the transformants were found in the growth curves and the cell cycle parameters with or without α -factor synchronization. The unbudding period of the mother as well as daughter (virgin) cells changed as a function of the gene dosage. In other words, the period of the gene-disrupted transformant TMAgtsl was shortened and that of the transformant TMpGTS1 was lengthened compared with the period of wild-type cells. Furthermore, the GTS1 gene influences the timing of budding independent of the cycle consisting of DNA replication, nuclear division, and cytokinesis using the *cdc4* mutation (Fig. 8).

Another significant change in transformants of the GTSJ gene was in the distribution of cell size. Direct measurements of the cell diameter in the log phase showed that the mean cell volumes of mother and daughter TMAgtsl cells were about 30% smaller than those of the wild-type, whereas those of TMpGTS1 cells were about 44% larger (Table 2). This is supported by observations from flow cytometry of the cells in the stationary phase. These results suggested that when the GTS1 gene is inactive, the cell begins to bud earlier than normal, resulting in premature budding and consequently the formation of smaller cells. On the other hand, when the GTSJ gene is overexpressed, budding is delayed to a somewhat variable extent and abnormally large cells are formed. In turn, this means that the GTS1 gene primarily affects the timing of budding rather than the growth rate in S. cerevisiae. The low ability of TMpGTS1 to control the cell size and the timing of bud emergence may be due to cell-to-cell variations in the copy number of the plasmid harboring the GTSJ gene.

Previously, Edmunds et al. (14) demonstrated that the yeast S. cerevisiae shows a circadian rhythm in cell division activity when the cells are cultured at low temperatures to elongate the generation time. At the same time they reported the incomplete synchronization of cell division and difficulties in obtaining clear-cut rhythmicity in the yeast (14). We could not reproducibly synchronize cell division with a light-and-dark cycle, although we followed their methods and changed the duration of the cycle and intensity of the illumination. Thus, it is premature to refer to the GTS1 gene as a yeast clock gene. In this respect, Euglena gracilis may be more useful, as its cell division is easily synchronized with the light-and-dark cycle (1).

So far, several cell size mutants have been isolated in S. cerevisiae. Strains with the nonlethal mutation in $WHI1$ (13, 46), which was later identified as a dominant mutation of cyclin ³ (CLN3) (33), as well as in the WHI2 locus, produce abnormally small cells (13). The products of CDC25 (a modulator of yeast adenylate cyclase) and RAS2 also participate in cell size modulation via the regulation of cyclic AMP metabolism, which controls the critical size for bud initiation $(3, 6, 7, 39)$. More recently, an *RCS1* locus whose disruption mutant produces cells that are twice the size of cells of the parental strain has been reported (17). At present, it is generally recognized that cyclins and cdc28 kinase play a major role in the regulation of cell size by controlling the rate of the cell cycle in yeasts and higher organisms (28, 29). Differing from these genes, whose inactivation increases the cell size, inactivation of the GTSJ gene decreases the cell size. The functional mechanism of the GTS1 gene should be studied in relation to these genes, especially to those of cyclins.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Kachio Tasaka and Sadaki Yokota for their help for raising antibodies.

This work was supported by grants-in-aid for scientific research (04304055 and 05454628) from the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture of Japan.

REFERENCES

- 1. Anderson, R. W., D. L. Laval-Martin, and L. N. Edmunds, Jr. 1985. Cell cycle oscillators: temperature compensation of the circadian rhythm of cell division in Euglena. Exp. Cell Res. 157:144-158.
- 2. Bargiello, T. A., L. Saez, M. K. Baylies, G. Gasic, M. W. Young, and D. C. Spray. 1987. The *Drosophila* clock gene *per* affects intracellular junctional communication. Nature (London) 328: 686-691.
- 3. Baroni, M. D., E. Martegani, P. Monti, and L. Alberghina. 1989. Cell size modulation by CDC25 and RAS2 genes in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 9:2715-2723.
- 4. Baylies, M. K., T. A. Bargiello, F. R. Jackson, and M. W. Young. 1987. Changes in abundance or structure of the per gene product can alter periodicity of the Drosophila clock. Nature (London) 326:390-392.
- 5. Bourdon, M. A., A. Oldberg, M. Pierschbacher, and E. Ruoslahti. 1985. Molecular cloning and sequence analysis of a chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan cDNA. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82:1321- 1325.
- 6. Broek, D., T. Toda, T. Michaeli, L. Levin, C. Birchmeier, M. Zoller, S. Powers, and M. Wigler. 1987. The S. cerevisiae CDC25 gene product regulates the RAS/adenylate cyclase pathway. Cell 48:789-799.
- 7. Camonis, J., M. Kalekine, D. Gondre, H. Garreau, E. Boy-Marcotte, and M. Jacquet. 1986. Characterization, cloning and sequence analysis of the CDC25 gene which controls the cyclic AMP levels of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. EMBO J. 5:375-380.
- 8. Cheifetz, S., J. L. Andres, and J. Massague. 1988. The transforming growth factor- β receptor type III is a membrane proteoglycan: domain structure of the receptor. J. Biol. Chem. 263:16984-16991.
- 9. Chomczynski, P., and N. Sacchi. 1987. Single-step method of RNA isolation by acid guanidine thiocyanate-phenol-chloroform extraction. Anal. Biochem. 162:156-159.
- 10. Colot, H. V., J. C. Hall, and M. Rosbash. 1988. Interspecific comparison of the period gene of Drosophila reveals large blocks of non-conserved coding DNA. EMBO J. 7:3929-3937.
- 11. Costa, R., A. A. Peixoto, J. R. Thackeray, R. Dalgleish, and C. P. Kyriacou. 1991. Length polymorphism in the threonine-glycineencoding repeat region of the period gene in Drosophila. J. Mol. Evol. 32:238-246.
- 12. Cote, G. G., and S. Brody. 1986. Circadian rhythms in Drosophila melanogaster: analysis of period as a function of gene dosage at the per locus. J. Theor. Biol. 121:487-503.
- 13. Cross, F. R. 1988. DAFI, a mutant gene affecting size control, pheromone arrest, and cell cycle kinetics of Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol. Cell. Biol. 8:4675-4684.
- 14. Edmunds, L. N., Jr., R. I. Apter, P. J. Rosenthal, W. K. Shen, and J. R. Woodward. 1979. Light effects in yeast: persisting oscillations in cell division activity and amino acid transport in cultures of Saccharomyces cerevisiae entrained by light and dark cycles. Photochem. Photobiol. 30:595-601.
- 15. Egilmez, N. K., J. B. Chen, and S. M. Jazwinski. 1990. Preparation and partial characterization of old yeast cells. J. Gerontol. 45:B9- B17.
- 16. Ewer, J., M. Hamblen-Coyle, M. Rosbash, and J. C. Hall. 1990. Requirement for period gene expression in the adult and not during development for locomotor activity rhythms of imaginal Drosophila melanogaster. J. Neurogenet. 7:31-73.
- 17. Gil, R., J. Zueco, R. Sentandreu, and E. Herrero. 1991. RCS1, a gene involved in controlling cell size in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Yeast 7:1-14.
- 18. Hall, J. C. 1990. Genetics of circadian rhythms. Annu. Rev. Genet. 24:659-697.
- 19. Hamblen-Coyle, M., R. J. Konopka, L. J. Zwiebel, H. V. Colot, H. B. Dowse, M. Rosbash, and J. C. Hall. 1989. A new mutation at the period locus of Drosophila melanogaster with some novel effects on circadian rhythms. J. Neurogenet. 5:229-256.
- 20. Hartwell, L. H. 1971. Genetic control of the cell division cycle in yeast. II. Genes controlling DNA replication and its initiation. J. Mol. Biol. 59:183-194.
- 21. Hartwell, L. H., J. Culotti, J. R. Pringle, and B. R. Reid. 1974. Genetic control of the cell division cycle in yeast. Science 183:46- 51.
- 22. Hartwell, L. H., and M. W. Unger. 1977. Unequal division in Saccharomyces cerevisiae and its implications for the control of cell division. J. Cell Biol. 75:422-435.
- 23. lida, H., and I. Yahara. 1984. Specific early-Gl blocks accompanied with stringent response in Saccharomyces cerevisiae lead to growth arrest in resting state similar to the GO of higher eukaryotes. J. Cell Biol. 98:1185-1193.
- 24. Jackson, F. R., T. A. Bargiello, S.-H. Yun, and M. W. Young. 1986.

Product of per locus of Drosophila shares homology with proteoglycans. Nature (London) 320:185-188.

- 25. Kawasaki, E. S., and A. M. Wang. 1989. Detection of gene expression, p. 89-97. In H. A. Erlich (ed.), PCR technology. Stockton Press, New York.
- 26. Kyriacou, C. P., and J. C. Hall. 1980. Circadian rhythm mutations in Drosophila melanogaster affect short-term fluctuation in the male's courtship song. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 77:6729-6733.
- 27. Laemmli, U. K. 1970. Cleavage of structural proteins during the assembly of the head of the bacteriophage T4. Nature (London) 227:680-685.
- 28. Lew, D. J., N. L. Marini, and S. I. Reed. 1992. Different Gl cyclins control the timing of cell cycle commitment in mother and daughter cells of the budding yeast S. cerevisiae. Cell 69:317-327.
- 29. Linskens, M. L., M. Tyers, and B. Futcher. 1993. CLN3 functions in both daughter and mother cells of S. cerevisiae. Cell 72:487-488.
- 30. Marston, F. A. O., P. A. Lowe, M. T. Doel, J. M. Schoemaker, S. White, and S. Angal. 1984. Purification of calf prochymosin (prorennin) synthesized in Escherichia coli. Bio/Technology 2:800- 804.
- 31. McClung, C. R., B. A. Fox, and J. C. Dunlap. 1989. The Neurospora clock gene frequency shares a sequence element with the Drosophila clock gene period. Nature (London) 339:558-562.
- 32. Nambu, J. R., J. 0. Lewis, K. A. Wharton, Jr., and S. T. Crews. 1991. The Drosophila single-minded gene encodes a helix-loophelix protein that acts as ^a master regulator of CNS midline development. Cell 67:1157-1167.
- 33. Nash, R., G. Tokiwa, S. Anand, K. Erickson, and A. B. Futcher. 1988. The WHII⁺ gene of Saccharomyces cerevisiae tethers cell division to cell size and is ^a cyclin homolog. EMBO J. 7:4335-4346.
- 34. Peixoto, A. A., S. Campesan, R. Costa, and C. P. Kyriacou. 1993. Molecular evolution of a repetitive region within the per gene of Drosophila. Mol. Biol. Evol. 10:127-139.
- 35. Peixoto, A. A., R. Costa, D. A. Wheeler, J. C. Hall, and C. P. Kyriacou. 1992. Evolution of the threonine-glycine repeat region of the period gene in the melanogaster species subgroup of Drosophila. J. Mol. Evol. 35:411-419.
- 36. Pelham, H. R. B., K. G. Hardwick, and M. J. Lewis. 1988. Sorting of soluble ER proteins in yeast. EMBO J. 7:1757-1762.
- 37. Reddy, P., A. C. Jacquier, N. Abovich, G. Petersen, and M. Rosbash. 1986. The period clock locus of D. melanogaster for a proteoglycan. Cell 46:53-61.
- 38. Robbins, J., S. M. Dilworth, R. A. Laskey, and C. Dingwall. 1991. Two interdependent basic domains in nucleoplasmin nuclear targeting sequence: identification of a class of bipartile nuclear targeting sequence. Cell 64:615-623.
- 39. Robinson, L. C., J. B. Gibbs, M. S. Marshall, I. S. Sigal, and K. Tatchell. 1987. CDC25: a component of the RAS-adenylate cyclase pathway in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Science 235:1218-1221.
- 40. Rothstein, R. J. 1983. One-step gene disruption in yeast. Methods Enzymol. 101:202-211.
- 41. Sanger, F., S. Nicklen, and A. R. Coulson. 1977. DNA sequencing with chain-terminating inhibitors. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74:5463-5467.
- 42. Schoner, R. G., L. F. Ellis, and B. E. Schoner. 1985. Isolation and purification of protein granules from Escherichia coli cells overproducing bovine growth hormone. Bio/Technology 3:151-154.
- 43. Shin, H.-P., T. A. Bargiello, B. T. Clark, F. R. Jackson, and M. W. Young. 1985. An unusual coding sequence from a Drosophila clock gene is conserved in vertebrates. Nature (London) 317:445-448.
- 44. Sikorski, R. S., and P. Hieter. 1989. A system of shuttle vectors and yeast host strains designed for efficient manipulation of DNA in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Genetics 122:19-27.
- 45. Smith, R. F., and R. J. Konopka. 1982. Effects of dosage alterations at the per locus on the period of the circadian clock of Drosophila. Mol. Gen. Genet. 185:30-36.
- 46. Sudbery, P. E., A. R. Goodey, and B. L. A. Carter. 1980. Genes which control cell proliferation in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Nature (London) 288:401-404.
- 47. Sweet, D. J., and H. R. B. Pelham. 1992. The Saccharomyces cerevisiae SEC20 gene encodes a membrane glycoprotein which is sorted by the HDEL retrieval system. EMBO J. 11:423-432.
- 48. Thackeray, J. R., and C. P. Kyriacou. 1990. Molecular evolution in

the Drosophila yakuba period locus. J. Mol. Evol. 31:389-401.

- 49. Towbin, H., T. Staehelin, and J. Gordon. 1979. Electrophoretic transfer of proteins from polyacrylamide gels to nitrocellulose sheets: procedure and some applications. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 76:4350-4354.
- 50. Vignais, M.-L., J. Huet, J.-M. Buhler, and A. Sentenac. 1990. Contacts between the factor TUF and RPG sequences. J. Biol. Chem. 265:14669-14674.
- 51. Yu, Q., H. V. Colot, C. P. Kyriacou, J. C. Hall, and M. Rosbash. 1987. Behavior modification by in vitro mutagenesis of a variable region within the period gene of Drosophila. Nature (London) 326:765-769.
- 52. Zehring, W. A., D. A. Wheeler, P. Reddy, R. J. Konopka, C. P. Kyriacou, M. Rosbash, and J. C. Hall. 1984. P-element transformation with period locus DNA restores rhythmicity to mutant, arrhythmic Drosophila melanogaster. Cell 39:369-376.