ORIGINAL PAPER

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The *Aspergillus nidulans* sulphur regulatory gene *sconB* encodes a protein with WD40 repeats and an F-box

Received: 9 June 1997 / Accepted: 14 August 1997

Abstract The *Aspergillus nidulans* gene sconB, one of the four identified genes controlling sulphur metabolite repression, was cloned and analysed. It encodes a polypeptide of 678 amino acids containing seven WD repeats characteristic of the large WD40 family of eukaryotic regulatory proteins. The SCONB protein has nuclear localisation signals and is very similar to the Neurospora crassa SCON2 and Saccharomyces cerevisiae Met30 proteins, both of which are involved in the regulation of sulphur metabolism. The N. crassa scon-2 gene complements the sconB2 mutation. All three proteins also contain a newly identified motif, the F-box, found in a number of eukaryotic regulatory proteins. This motif is responsible, at least in some cases, for ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis. The *sconB* transcript is derepressed under sulphur limitation conditions and partly repressed by high methionine.

Key words $sconB \cdot Aspergillus$ nidulans \cdot Sulphur regulation \cdot F-box \cdot WD repeats

Introduction

Aspergillus nidulans is able to utilise a wide range of compounds as sole sulphur source (for a review, see Paszewski et al. 1994). Sulphur uptake and assimilation in A. nidulans, as in other fungi, are carried out by a set of enzymes encoded by coordinately expressed structural genes. There is a strong selective advantage in the expression of these genes only when a suitable substrate is available. The phenomenon known as sulphur metabolite repression leads to the repression of genes involved

Communicated by C.A.M.J.J. van den Hondel

R. Natorff \cdot M. Piotrowska \cdot A. Paszewski (\boxtimes) Institute of Biochemistry and Biophysics, Polish Academy of Sciences, 5A Pawińskiego Str, 02-106 Warsaw, Poland Fax: +48-39121623; email: apasz@ibbrain.ibb.waw.pl in the utilisation of sulphur sources other than preferentially utilised organic sulphur compounds like methionine. These include primarily genes coding for enzymes of the sulphate assimilation pathway, sulphohydrolases and, to a lesser extent, enzymes of the alternative pathway of cysteine synthesis. Therefore, under repression conditions (in the presence of a high concentration of methionine) the cells are resistant to toxic analogues of sulphate (chromate and selenate), which are taken up by the sulphate permease.

In Neurospora sulphur metabolite repression is abolished by mutations in the $scon^c$ gene (Burton and Metzenberg 1972), now designated scon-1, and in the scon-2 gene. The latter gene has been cloned and sequenced (Paietta 1990; Kumar and Paietta 1995). It codes for a protein very similar to the Saccharomyces cerevisiae Met30 protein, which is also involved in sulphur regulation (Thomas et al. 1995). On the basis of epistatic relationships and gene expression analysis, Paietta (1990) proposed a tentative regulatory hierarchy in Neurospora. The model comprises the two scon genes, which control expression of the $\alpha ys-3$ locus. The latter, a major positive regulator of sulphur-related structural genes (Marzluf and Metzenberg 1968), encodes a DNAbinding protein (Fu et al. 1989; Fu and Marzluf 1990).

In A. nidulans sulphur metabolism is controlled by four genetically defined *trans*-acting, apparently inhibitory scon (A, B, C, D) regulatory genes. The scon mutations suppress lesions in the cysteine to homocysteine pathway (metA, metB, and metG loci) owing to the derepression of the alternative pathway of homocysteine synthesis involving homocysteine synthase (Nadolska-Lutyk et al. 1989; Natorff et al. 1993). Mutations in scon genes, which phenotypically resemble the Neurospora scon mutations, lead to constitutive derepression of several enzymes of sulphur metabolism, including sulphate permease, rendering the strains sensitive to selenate and chromate, even in the presence of methionine. Nothing is known about the mechanism of action of these genes or the possible interactions between their protein products.

We report the cloning and characterisation of the A. nidulans scon B^+ gene. Analysis of the deduced amino acid sequence revealed the presence of seven highly conserved tandem repeats of the so-called WD40 motif. The SCONB protein shows a high degree of similarity with S. cerevisiae Met30 (Thomas et al. 1995) and Neurospora crassa SCON2 (Kumar and Paietta 1995) proteins, which are both involved in the regulation of sulphur metabolism. In addition, the $sconB$ and $scon-2$ genes reciprocally complement each other in heterologous transformations (see below, and J. Paietta, personal communication). All three proteins belong to an expanding family of regulatory proteins (the WD40 protein family) known to mediate a diverse array of cellular functions (Neer et al. 1994). In addition, they contain a newly identified motif, the F-box, found in a number of regulatory proteins, including some involved in the control of the cell cycle (Bai et al. 1996).

Materials and methods

Strains

The following strains of A. nidulans from our collection, which carry standard markers (Clutterbuck 1994; Martinelli 1994), were used: pyroA4 yA2; argB2 nicA2 biA1; and pyrG89 metA17 pyroA4 paba $\overrightarrow{A2}$. The scon strains used were: sconB2 argB2 nic $\overrightarrow{A2}$ biA1; sconA25 pyroA4 yA2; sconB2 pyroA4 yA2; sconC3 pyroA4 yA2; and sconD6 pyroA4 yA2. The wild-type strains used as a reference in the experiments were *pyroA4 yA2*; and *anA1 biA1 phenA2*.

The *Escherichia coli* strains used were DH5 α , and XL1-Blue (Stratagene).

Media and growth conditions

The A. nidulans strains were grown on solid and liquid media: minimal medium (MM), containing 2 mM sulphate (Paszewski and Grabski 1974), and MM-S (minimal minus sulphate) in which sulphates were replaced by the corresponding chlorides. The latter was supplemented with L-methionine at 5 mM (high sulphur), 0.25 mM (low sulphur) or 0.05 mM (limiting sulphur). For transformation, strains were grown in complete medium (Martinelli 1994). Cultures were started by inoculation of 100 ml medium with 3±5 ml of a heavy conidial suspension and grown with shaking (200 rpm) at 37° C for 16 h. Mycelia were harvested by filtration, washed with distilled water and immediately used for protoplast preparation or nucleic acid isolation.

Strains of E. coli were grown in standard media, LB, $2 \times TY$ or NZY (Sambrook et al. 1989), as required. Antibiotics were used at the following concentrations: ampicillin, $50 \mu g/ml$; kanamycin, 50 μ g/ml; tetracycline, 35 μ g/ml.

Plasmids, libraries and synthetic primers

pUC19 and pBluescript II KS and SK were from Stratagene. The $pGM32$ plasmid carrying the *N. crassa pyr-4* gene (as a nonhomologous selectable marker in A. nidulans) was obtained from G. Turner. The pHELP1 and ARp1 plasmids (Gems et al. 1991), obtained from J. Clutterbuck, contain the AMA1 sequence, which enables autonomous replication. The ARp1 plasmid also contains the $argB^+$ gene. Co-transformation with these plasmids results in as much as 200-fold increase in transformation efficiency (Gems and Clutterbuck 1993). The pIC19R plasmid containing a fragment of the A. nidulans γ -actin gene (Fidel et al. 1988) was obtained from R. Bradshaw. The A. nidulans chromosome-specific cosmid pWE15 and pLORIST2 gene libraries (Brody et al. 1991) and the A. nidulans λ ZapII 24 h developmental cDNA library constructed by R. Aramayo were obtained from the Fungal Genetics Stock Center, Kansas City, Kansas, USA. The pscon2 plasmid containing the entire $scon-2$ gene from N. crassa was kindly provided by J. V. Paietta.

The following oligonucleotides were used for primer extension: B2L 5' TCCAGAACTGACACCATTCGCCTCGCTTGAT 3' B4L 5' CAGTGACCGAAGACGAACAAGGAGCGAAGC 3'

Transformation and strategy for sconB gene selection

Protoplasts of the sconB2 argB2 nicA2 biA1 strain were obtained after Novozyme 234 treatment. Mycelium (1 g of wet weight) was resuspended in $10-15$ ml of 0.6 M KCl buffered at pH 6.0 with 10 mM phosphate buffer; 2 mg/ml Novozyme 234 and 2 mg/ml helicase were added. The mixture was incubated on an orbital shaker at 37° C for 90 min. Protoplasts were separated from mycelial debris by filtration through a Buchner funnel with a sintered glass disc (pore size $16-40 \mu m$). The protoplasts were centrifuged at $3500 \times g$ for 10 min, washed twice in 0.6 M KCl and once in 1.2 M sorbitol, 50 mM $CaCl₂$, 10 mM TRIS-HCl, pH 7.5. Then the protoplasts were resuspended in the same solution to a final concentration of $1-5 \times 10^8$ /ml.

Selection for $sconB⁺$ transformants relied on the sensitivity of scon strains to selenate under repressive (i.e. high methionine) conditions. Selenate, a toxic analogue of sulphate is transported into the cell by sulphate permease. Expression of the enzyme is repressed in the methionine-grown wild-type strain which, unlike $scon$ ^{$-$} mutants is thus resistant to selenate in the presence of this amino acid. Therefore, $sconB⁺$ transformants were selected on the basis of their selenate resistance on high methionine medium.

Protoplasts of the sconB2 argB2 strain were cotransformed to the wild-type phenotype (scon⁺ arg⁺) with DNA isolated from the fraction of the A. nidulas cosmid gene library covering chromosome I (divided into subpools), and the ARp1 helper plasmid. Transformation mixes $(1-5 \times 10^7$ protoplasts and 1-5 µg DNA per plate) were transferred to 1 ml 25% polyethylene glycol in 50 mM $CaCl₂$, 10 mM TRIS-HCl, pH 7.5, then diluted with 3 ml 1.2 M sorbitol in 50 mM CaCl₂, 10 mM TRIS-HCl, pH 7.5, supplemented with 4 ml selective medium and overlaid on $\overline{M}M-S$ plates containing 5 mM L-methionine and 1.2 M sorbitol. After 24 h incubation the plates were overlaid with 5 ml of $MM-S$ solid medium (melted and cooled to 55° C) supplemented with 5 mM methionine and 1 mM sodium selenate. The final concentration of selenate was 0.2 mM. Under these conditions only arg^+ scon⁺ transformants that have become prototrophic for arginine and resistant to selenate can grow. The same transformation mix (or a suitable dilution) was applied to $MM-S$ plus methionine medium to estimate the transformation frequency to arg^+ . The subpool that gave scon⁺ arg⁺ transformants was further subdivided in order to identify which of the 96 clones (Metzenberg and Kang 1987) transforms the recipient strain to selenate resistance. Selenate-resistant transformants were subsequently tested to check whether they had regained wild-type regulation of the tester enzyme arylsulphatase, which is derepressed in the *scon*⁻ mutants (Natorff et al. 1993).

Transformation of E. coli was by the standard calcium chloride method (Sambrook et al. 1989).

Cloning of sconB cDNA

A cDNA copy of $sconB$ was isolated from the λ ZAPII library by probing of about 5×10^5 phage clones with the digoxygenin-labeled 0.7-kb NruI-ClaI fragment from the 5' end of the sconB gene. This was done according to the Stratagene protocol.

DNA sequencing

Subclones of the sconB gene in pUC19 or pBluescript KS and SK vectors were sequenced on both strands using an ALF automatic sequencer (Pharmacia), or manually, using the Sequenase Version 2.0 system (USB) and appropriate primers and synthetic oligonucleotides as required.

RNA isolation

A. nidulans mycelia were harvested by filtration and blotted on filter paper. Some 500 mg of wet mycelium was ground in a mortar with an equal amount of baked glass powder (obtained by grinding broken glass in a mortar) and 5 ml of TRI Reagent (Molecular Research Center; Chomczyński 1993). The subsequent steps of total RNA extraction and mRNA isolation on oligo(dT) columns (MRC) were carried out according to the supplier's instructions.

Mapping of the $5'$ and $3'$ mRNA termini of $sconB$

The $sconB$ transcription initiation sites were mapped by primerextension analysis. The oligonucleotides B4L and B2L (complementary to the sense strand at positions -157 to -187 and -439 to -472 relative to the initiator AUG, respectively) were hybridized to 5 lg of total RNA isolated from the wild-type strain grown in minimal medium. The primer was then extended with 200 U of reverse transcriptase (BRL or Promega) at 42° C for 2 h, using $\lceil \alpha^{32}P \rceil dCTP$ (according to the protocol for first-strand cDNA synthesis using Superscript II RT, Gibco BRL). The reaction product was fractionated by 8% denaturing gel electrophoresis in parallel with DNA sequencing reactions initiated with the same primer. The $3'$ end of sconB mRNA was determined by sequencing of two sconB cDNA clones.

Northern blot analysis

A sample containing $3-4 \mu$ g poly(A) RNA in FORMAzol (Molecular Research Center) was mixed with an equal amount of loading buffer (4.4 M formaldehyde, 40 mM MOPS, 10 mM sodium acetate, 2 mM EDTA) and denatured by heading at 55° C for 15 min, followed by immediate cooling on ice. The mRNA was fractionated by gel electrophoresis in 1.2% (or 1.4%) agarose containing 1.1% formaldehyde. After electrophoresis, the mRNA was transferred to a nylon membrane (Hybond N, Amersham) by overnight capillary blotting in 20×SSC and fixed to the membrane by UV cross-linking for 1.5 min. Filters were prehybridized for 4 h at 42° C in 50% formamide, 5×SSC, 100 µg/ml denatured herring sperm DNA, 5×Denhardt's (0.1% BSA, 0.1% Ficoll 400, 0.1% polyvinyl pyrrolidone 40,000), 0.5% SDS. The DNA probes were α -³²P-labelled using the random primed labelling kit (MegaPrime or RediPrime Amersham) and hybridization was allowed to proceed for 40 h at 42° C. Membranes were washed two times (10 min each) in $2\times$ SSC, 0.1% SDS at room temperature, 0.1 \times SSC, 0.1% SDS at room temperature and $0.1 \times$ SSC, 0.1% SDS at 42°C and subjected to autoradiography at -80° C.

Computer sequence analysis

The following analyses were done with GCG software (version 8.1) on a Silicon Graphics Challenge computer. Homology searches were carried out against the GenBank (release 95.0), EMBL (release 47.0), Swiss-Prot (release 33.0) and RIR (release 48.0) databases using BLAST (Altschul et al. 1990) and FASTA (Wisconsin package, version 8.0.1). Motifs and features of the polypeptide were searched with PROSITE (release 13.0; Appel et al. 1994) and the cellular location of the protein was predicted with PSORT (Nakai and Kanehisa 1992). The ImageQuant version 3.3 program (Molecular Dynamics) was used for quantification of hybridization signals.

Results

Isolation of sconB-complementing clone

The selection strategy (see Materials and methods) led to identification of one 16-kb cosmid clone, designated L17:A10, that transformed the *sconB2* strain to selenate resistance on high methionine. Interestingly, only 20% of these transformants did not stain for the tester enzyme arylsulphatase, i.e. had regained complete wildtype sulphur regulation.

The cosmid was digested with a series of restriction endonucleases and the restriction fragments obtained were used along with the ARp1 helper plasmid to transform the sconB2 argB2 strain to the sconB⁺ argB⁺ phenotype. A 2.6-kb BamHI-EcoRI fragment was the smallest fragment found to complement the sconB2 mutation. Further deletions at either end of this fragment abolished the complementing ability.

We have also shown that the A. nidulans sconB2 mutant recovers the wild-type phenotype after transformation with heterologous pscon2 plasmid containing the entire scon-2 gene from N. crassa.

Sequence and organisation of the $sconB⁺$ gene

The *BamHI-EcoRI* fragment containing the $sconB^+$ gene was subcloned in pUC19 (psconB) and sequenced on both strands. The DNA sequence contains a single open reading frame (ORF) of 2081 bp, interrupted at its 5¢ end by one small intron of 47 bp, as determined by comparison of $sconB⁺$ genomic and cDNA sequences $(Figs. 1, 2)$. In order to confirm that we had cloned the sconB gene, one of the most phenotypically extreme sconB alleles (sconB9) was sequenced. It was found that the mutation changed the translational initiation codon ATG to GTG.

Transcriptional initiation sites were mapped by primer-extension analysis. For this purpose we had to subclone an additional 2-kb BglII fragment of the primary cosmid that overlaps the 2.6-kb BamHI-EcoRI fragment by 0.6 kb. This gave us about 1.7 kb of sequence upstream of the initiation ATG of the *sconB* gene. Primer-extension products gave strong bands corresponding to initiation sites at positions -238 and -338 and weaker bands at -443 and -514 (Fig. 3). The transcriptional start at position -338 is in good agreement with the size of the transcript, estimated to be about 2.7 kb by denaturing gel electrophoresis. The longest cDNA copy isolated and sequenced from the library had a 5' UTR (untranslated region) of 268 nucleotides, indicating that at least some transcripts start upstream of the -238 position. If transcription starts at the fourth and third uppermost initiation sites the long leader formed contains three or two short ORFs, respectively. As shown in Fig. 2 there are nine consensus sequences recognized by the N. crassa CYS3 major

sulphur regulatory protein (Li and Marzluf 1996) in the $sconB$ promoter. The promoter also contains five potential binding sites for the A. nidulans AREA regulatory protein (Kudla et al. 1990; Caddick 1994) and six for the CREA factor (Kelly 1994).

The 3' end of sconB mRNA occurs 223 or 226 bp downstream from the translation termination site as determined by sequencing of two independent cDNA clones of the $sconB$ gene (Fig. 2).

Sequence analysis of the SCONB protein

The $sconB⁺$ gene encodes a polypeptide of 678 amino acids and a calculated molecular mass of 76.07 kDa. The C-terminal part of the SCONB protein contains seven internal repeats of about 40 amino acids. Each repeat exhibits a characteristic pattern of residues highlighted by strongly conserved Gly-His (GH) in part A and Try-Asp (WD) dipeptides in part B, separated by regions that are variable in both sequence and length (Fig. 4a), (van der Voorn and Ploegh 1992). This repeated motif, named WD-40 (or β -transducin repeat), was first found in the β -subunit of heterotrimeric GTPbinding proteins (Fong et al. 1986). The WD40 repeats of SCONBp are arranged tandemly. In repeat 5 the A part is separated from the B part by a spacer of 63 amino acids (Fig. 4b).

The SCONB protein shows high similarity/identity to the *N. crassa* SCON2 $(74\%/55.6\%$, respectively) and S. cerevisiae Met30 (63%/43.9) proteins, involved in the regulation of sulphur metabolism (Paietta 1990; Thomas et al. 1995) (Fig. 5). In addition, the SCONB protein exhibits a strongly conserved domain, placed N-terminal to the WD40 repeats, that defines a subset of WD proteins, including SCON2, Met30 and also yeast CDC4, Xenopus BTrCP and mouse MD6 (Kumar and Paietta 1995). This domain comprises a newly described motif of 41 amino acids, called the F-box, found in a number of eukaryotic regulatory proteins (see Discussion).

The results of PSORT analysis revealed the presence of three nuclear localisation signals (NLS) in the SCONB protein giving a high probability (the score was 0.98) that it is localised in the nucleus.

Fig. 1 Restriction map of the 4-kb *BgIII-EcoRI* fragment containing the entire sconB gene. Organisation of the mRNA as deduced from cDNA sequencing and primer extension studies is shown below. The exons are indicated as grey boxes. The AUG start and UAA termination codons of the 2081-bp $sconB^+$ open reading frame (ORF) are indicated. The smallest DNA fragment (BamHI-EcoRI) that complements the sconB2 mutation is shown

Analysis of $sconB^+$ gene expression

mRNA was isolated from A. nidulans wild-type and sconA25, B2, C3, D6 strains grown on high and low levels of sulphur (i.e., repressing and derepressing conditions). Northern blots were probed with the $32P$ -labelled 1.1-kb *BglII* cDNA fragment of the *sconB* gene. The constitutively expressed γ -actin gene was used as a control. In the wild type, the *sconB* transcript is present at all levels of sulphur. Its level is twofold increased under sulphur limitation (i.e. when methionine at a concentration of 0.05 mM is the only sulphur source) as compared with low sulphur conditions (0.25 mM methionine, or 2 mM sulphate, as a sole sulphur source) and somewhat reduced in the presence of high methionine (Fig. 6a).

The transcript is present in the sconA25, sconB2 and sconD6 strains at levels comparable to those of the wild type grown under the same conditions, with the exception of the sconC3 strain, where it is about threefold decreased (Fig. 6b).

Fig. 2 Nucleotide sequence of the $sconB^+$ gene and deduced amino acid sequence of its product. The sequence is numbered relative to the initiator ATG codon. The coding sequence is given in bold, uppercase letters. The $sconB^+$ transcriptional initiation sites (at positions -238 , -338 , -443 and -514) are indicated with vertical arrows (\downarrow). The thin bar at position -268 indicates the 5' end of the longest cDNA clone. Palindromic sequences (10 bp in length) are marked by *converging horizontal arrows* $(\rightarrow\leftarrow)$. Sequences similar to the *Neurospora crassa* CYS-3 transcription factor binding site are boxed. Sequences homologous to the AREA recognition site are underlined twice. Sequences potentially binding CREA protein are in italic and bold. The start codons of additional short uORFs present in the 5^{\prime} UTR are marked in *bold* (atg) and stop codons are *underlined* (tga, taa). The 3' end sequence obtained from sequencing of two independent sconB cDNA clones is shown in italic. Polyadenylation sites are marked by (A). Polyadenylation signal is in italic and underlined. The sequence of the above 2.6-kb BamHI-EcoRI fragment has been deposited in the EMBL/GenBank data base under accession number U21220

the smallest transforming fragment

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Disruption of the $sconB$ gene

Plasmid pGMBC was designed as a vector for targeted disruption of the A . nidulans scon B gene via homologous recombination. It was constructed by inserting a 0.9-kb $BamHI-ClaI$ fragment of the $sconB$ gene into the pGM32 plasmid (containing the N. crassa pyr-4 gene, which is able to complement the A . nidulans $pyrG89$ mutation). Disruption of the *sconB* gene was done by transformation of the pyrG89 metA17 pyroA4 pabaA2 strain with the pGMBC plasmid (Fig. 7). It led to the separation of the coding region from the promoter. All pyr^+ transformants obtained were found to be simultaneously met^+ , i.e. the disruption of the $sconB$ gene led to the $sconB$ phenotype mainfested by suppression of the $metAI7$ mutation. This was confirmed genetically by crossing two disruptant strains with the wild type. Disruption of the sconB gene was confirmed by Southern hybridisation (data not shown).

attttctaaatt(A)atc(A)

260

T G C A

Fig. 3 Mapping the 5 \prime end of the *sconB* mRNA by primer extension analysis. Using the synthetic primers B4L and B2L, three strong bands and one weaker band were obtained (right lanes). A parallel sequencing reaction with the same primers mapped transcriptional initiation sites at positions -238 , -338 , -443 , and -514

 $\mathbf a$

Discussion

The *sconB* sulphur regulatory gene described here codes for a protein belonging to the extended family of socalled WD40 proteins, which are characterized by highly conserved repeating motifs usually ending with Trp-Asp (WD). These proteins, found almost exclusively in eukaryotes, play diverse cellular functions, being involved in signal transduction, cell cycle regulation, vesicular trafficking, mRNA processing and regulation of gene expression (for a review see Neer et al. 1994). Those involved in signal transduction are almost entirely composed of WD40 repeats, while other proteins, like SCONB, also contain N-terminal or (less frequently) C-terminal extensions. Although the function of WD40 motifs is unknown, it is postulated that they play a role in protein-protein interactions.

Analysis of the *sconB* promoter revealed the presence of nine CYS3 recognition sites. Two are in excellent agreement with the CYS3 consensus sequence (9/10 and 10/10) and are near each other. The presence of a number of CREA-and AREA-responsive elements is also noteworthy. Whether these motifs have regulatory significance remains to be determined.

The sconB mRNA has an unusually long 5' UTR that may contain three or two short upstream open reading frames (uORFs) if transcription starts from the uppermost initiation site. The longest uORF might encode a protein of 126 amino acids. Other A. nidulans regulatory genes with long UTRs have been described (stuA, creA, bimG and the TATA binding protein-encoding gene); some of these also contain short uORFs (Kucharski and

Fig. 4a Consensus sequence of WD40 repeats according to Neer et al. (1994). **b** WD40 repeats of the SCONB protein

Bartnik 1997 and references therein). Such leader ORFs might play a role in the regulation of translation (for a review see Kozak 1991; Hinnebusch 1988; Oliviera and McCarthy 1995).

Computer analysis of the SCONB protein strongly suggests nuclear localisation. This is consistent with its regulatory role, direct or indirect, in gene expression which, by analogy with the *N. crassa* SCON2 protein (Paietta 1990) must occur at the transcriptional level. The SCONB protein shows a high similarity to the S. cerevisiae Met30 and N. crassa SCON2 proteins. The fact that the $scon-2$ ⁺ gene complements the $sconB2$ mutation and the *sconB* gene complements the *scon-2* mutation (J. Paietta, personal communication) indicates that this similarity extends to their physiological function.

All three proteins are involved in the regulation of sulphur metabolism, which might suggest that they form a subfamily of WD40 proteins specific for this area of metabolism, at least in fungi. These proteins share a strongly conserved N-terminal domain with the yeast CDC4, Xenopus BTrCP and mouse MD6 proteins (Kumar and Paietta 1995). This domain contains a newly described motif, the F-box (Bai et al. 1996) found in some cell cycle regulators such as human cyclin F and yeast CDC4; the latter also belongs to the WD40 family. Evidently the WD and F-box families overlap, in that there are proteins that contain both motifs. Bai et al. (1996) found that cyclin F and CDC4 bind, through the Fig. 5 Alignment of the Aspergillus nidulans SCONB, N. crassa SCON2 and Saccharomyces cerevisiae Met30 proteins. The F-box, WD40 repeats, and nuclear localisation signals (NLS) are indicated

Fig. 6a, b Northern blot analysis of the sconB transcript. a The wildtype strain grown in minimal minus sulphate medium supplemented with 0.05, or 0.25 or 5 mM L-methionine as a sole sulphur source. **b** The wild-type and *scon*-strains grown in minimal medium plus sulphate (2 mM) without $(-)$, or with $(+)$ the addition of 5 mM L-methionine

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F-box, the Skp1 protein, which leads to ubiquitin-mediated destruction of the former. However, the authors suggest on the basis of available data that there may be Skp 1 associations with F-box proteins that result in events unrelated to proteolysis. In this connection it is worth mentioning that the A. nidulans scon C^+ gene, which we have recently cloned (Piotrowska et al., in preparation) encodes a protein homologous to Skp1. It is, therefore, tempting to speculate that the $sconB$ and sconC gene products interact. This suggestion is supported by the fact that the plasmid carrying the sconB gene transforms the sconC3 mutant to the wild-type phenotype (our unpublished results). This may be due to overproduction of the SCONB protein.

It is also possible that the SCONB, SCON2 and Met30 proteins have a larger range of action than regulation of sulphur metabolism, given that the screening methods with which the mutants were isolated might not have uncovered other phenotypes. In this connection it is worth noting that the Met30 and Skp1 genes are essential in S. cerevisiae (Thomas et al. 1995; Bai et al. 1996). The finding that the $sconB9$ mutant, which lacks a translational initiation codon, and the *sconB* disruptant both act as suppressors of the *metA17* mutation strongly suggests that the $sconB$ gene is non-essential for A. nidulans. The conclusion is supported by the properties of the newly isolated mutation, which leads to methionine auxotrophy. This mutation is epistatic to sconB2 and no sconB transcript was detected in such a strain (unpublished results).

In spite of the structural and functional similarity between the *sconB* and *scon-2* genes there are marked differences in the regulation of their expression. The sconB gene is expressed under all sulphur conditions, while no *scon-2* transcript was found when cells were grown under repressing (i.e. high methionine) conditions (Paietta 1990). It is possible that there are differences in the organisation of the sulphur regulatory systems between Aspergillus and Neurospora that account for the observed differences in the regulation of $sconB$ and $scon-$ 2 gene expression. Some evidence supports this hypoth-

Fig. 7 Diagrammatic representation of the homologous recombination of plasmid pGMBC at the chromosomal sconB locus. The restriction map around the $sconB$ locus with and without an integrated pGMBC plasmid is shown. The BamHI restriction fragments that were detected by the use of an α -³²P-labelled 1.1-kb BglII fragment as a probe are indicated as hybridised fragments. The part of plasmid pGMBC (BamHI-ClaI) homologous to the chromosomal sconB gene is marked by a filled black bar, and the corresponding region of the chromosomal sconB gene by a checked bar. Arrows indicate the orientations of genes

esis. In *Neurospora* the $cys-3$ gene has been identified (Marzluf and Metzenberg 1968), mutations in which lead to cysteine auxotrophy. Its product is a positive regulator of a set of structural genes involved in sulphur metabolism. In spite of many efforts and various experimental approaches, neither mutants equivalent to the Neurospora cys-3 gene nor cys-3-homologous sequences have been isolated so far in *Aspergillus* (our unpublished results, and G. Turner, personal communication) although, interestingly, there are sequences in the *sconB* promotor strongly resembling CYS3-binding sites.

Another observation that suggests differences in sulphur regulatory systems between the two fungi is the finding of Katz et al. (1996) that the extracellular protease is not regulated by any of the Aspergillus scon genes, which contrasts with Neurospora where the synthesis of the enzyme is under the control of the cys-3 and, indirectly, scon-2 genes (Hanson and Marzluf 1973; Marzluf 1975).

Until other *Aspergillus scon* genes have been characterised, we shall not attempt to present a model of the sulphur regulatory system. In Neurospora it has been postulated that three regulatory genes, scon-1, scon-2, and cys-3, act in a hierarchical order in which the *scon-1* is a positive regulator of the *scon-2* gene, which, in turn, is a negative regulator of the cys-3 gene (Kumar and Paietta 1995). The fact that $cys-3$ mRNA is not detectable under repressing conditions in the wild-type strain, but can be detected in the scon-2 mutant is consistent with this model. What does not seem consistent with the model is the fact that scon-2 gene transcription is repressed in mycelia grown in high sulphur medium. Under these conditions the scon-2 gene product should be present to prevent expression of the $\alpha ys-3$ gene. Thus there may be yet another gene in the sulphur regulatory cascade in Neurospora, situated between the scon-2 and $\cos 3$ genes, which is a negative regulator of the latter and is itself positively regulated by the SCON2 protein. The existence of at least four *scon*-type genes in *Asper*gillus gives some support to this hypothesis.

Acknowledgements We thank Dr. Ewa Bartnik for critical reading of the manuscript. This work was supported by the Polish State Committee of Scientific Research, grant number P 20300407.

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