A Visual Screen of Protein Localization during Sporulation Identifies New Components of Prospore Membrane-Associated Complexes in Budding Yeast

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During ascospore formation in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, the secretory pathway is reorganized to create new intracellular compartments, termed prospore membranes. Prospore membranes engulf the nuclei produced by the meiotic divisions, giving rise to individual spores. The shape and growth of prospore membranes are constrained by cytoskeletal structures, such as septin proteins, that associate with the membranes. Green fluorescent protein (GFP) fusions to various proteins that associate with septins at the bud neck during vegetative growth as well as to proteins encoded by genes that are transcriptionally induced during sporulation were examined for their cellular localization during prospore membrane growth. We report localizations for over 100 different GFP fusions, including over 30 proteins localized to the prospore membrane compartment. In particular, the screen identified *IRC10* as a new component of the leading-edge protein complex (LEP), a ring structure localized to the lip of the prospore membrane. Localization of Irc10 to the leading edge is dependent on *SSP1*, but not *ADY3*. Loss of *IRC10* caused no obvious phenotype, but an *ady3 irc10* mutant was completely defective in sporulation and displayed prospore membrane morphologies similar to those of an *ssp1* strain. These results reveal the architecture of the LEP and provide insight into the evolution of this membrane-organizing complex.

Comprehensive localization studies have provided a wealth of information about the functions of different *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* proteins (1, 2). To date, most studies have examined protein localization only during mitotic growth in rich medium. The localization of proteins that are expressed only under specific conditions has not been systematically examined. Moreover, constitutively expressed proteins can also be relocalized under different conditions. Many examples of such changes in distribution occur when yeast cells undergo sporulation (3–6).

When diploid yeast cells are starved for nitrogen in the presence of a nonfermentable carbon source, they exit the mitotic cycle and enter the developmental program of meiosis and sporulation (7). Spores are created in an unusual cell division in which membranes are formed *de novo* in the cytosol and enclose each of the daughter nuclei produced by meiosis. These prospore membranes initially form on the cytoplasmic face of each of the four spindle pole bodies (SPBs) present in meiosis II. The membranes then expand beyond the SPBs to engulf the nuclei. As they do so, their shape is constrained by membrane-associated protein complexes.

One of these membrane-associated complexes, the leading-edge protein complex (LEP), composed of the proteins Ssp1, Ady3, and Don1, forms a ring structure at the lip of the prospore membrane (8–10). The LEP is organized in a stratified fashion, with *SSP1* being required for the localization of *Ady3* and *Don1* and *ADY3* being required for the localization of *Don1*. The LEP helps to control the shape of the prospore membrane and is proposed to exert an outward force that keeps the mouth of the prospore membrane open, in opposition to other proteins that promote membrane curvature and closure (11). Removal of the LEP at the end of meiosis II is essential for closure of the prospore membrane (12, 13).

In the course of meiosis and spore formation, several hundred proteins are induced in coordinated waves of gene expression (14, 15). These induced genes can be further subdivided both by their time of expression (e.g., early genes and middle genes) and into those whose transcripts are detectable in vegetative cells but further induced during sporulation or those whose expression is detectable only in sporulating cells. While many of these sporulation-specific genes are required for progression through meiosis and spore morphogenesis, deletion studies have revealed clear phenotypes for only about 30% of these genes (16, 17). In addition to sporulation-specific genes, constitutively expressed proteins also play important roles in sporulation, and in some cases, these proteins are relocalized during sporulation (3–6).

The septin proteins, components of a second prospore membrane-associated complex, provide an example of the redistribution of vegetative functions during sporulation (3). In vegetative cells, septins localize to a ring at the bud neck. The septin ring has several important functions, including functions as a barrier to the diffusion of proteins between the mother and the bud, as a landmark to direct cytokinesis functions to the bud neck, and as a scaffold upon which different signal transduction pathways are organized (18–20). In contrast, in sporulating cells, septin rings at the plasma membrane disappear and the proteins localize as bars or sheets that extend along the nucleus-proximal bilayer of the prospore membrane from the leading edge toward the SPB (21). The organization of septins within these sheets is likely different.

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from that in a septin ring both because of the different structure and because two of the vegetative septins, Cdc12 and Cdc11, are replaced with sporulation-specific paralogs, Spr3 and Spr28 (3, 22, 23). This change in composition raises the question of whether other proteins that colocalize with the septins at the bud neck still associate with septins at the prospore membrane.

To identify new proteins involved in prospore membrane assembly, the localization of green fluorescent protein (GFP) fusions to proteins encoded by over 300 sporulation-induced genes as well as 90 GFP fusions reported to localize to the bud neck in mitotic cells (2) was examined during meiosis II. Together, these two screens analyzed 435 GFP fusions, and we report the meiosis II localization of 113 fusion proteins. The results identify multiple new proteins localized to the prospore membrane, including new components of both the leading-edge complex and the septin complex. Characterization of the new leading-edge component, IRC10, provides insight into the evolution of this complex.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Yeast media and strains.** Standard yeast techniques and media were used (24). Strain genotypes are listed in Table 1. The GFP fusion strains used for screening were from the genome-wide GFP-tagged collection (2). To construct the triple mutant haploids, IRC10 was deleted from strains AN117-4B and AN117-16D by PCR-mediated transformation using the kanMX6 cassette (5, 25). YKR015c and YIL043w were then serially deleted from the AN117-4B irc10Δ strain using the HIS3MX6 and hphMX4 gene cassettes, respectively (25, 26). This MATα triple mutant haploid (CTRL2) was mated to the irc10Δ mutant, sporulated, and dissected. CTRL2 was constructed by mating of a MATα triple mutant segregant from that cross back to CTRL2. To generate mutants in combination with ady3Δ, CTRL2 was crossed to AN1070 (10), and the resulting diploid was sporulated and dissected. Because two kanMX6 knockout segregants are segregating in this cross, all the mutants were confirmed by PCR analysis of the haploid segregants.

Strains CTRL21 to CTRL25 were constructed by mating of segregants from that cross. Strain NY551 was made by PCR-mediated deletion of SSP1 using kanMX6 in strains AN117-4B and AN117-16D and was provided by H. Tachikawa. Strain CTRL26 was constructed by mating of segregants from a cross of CTRL2 to MNH08, a strain with a PCR-mediated knockout of DON1 in strain AN117-16D provided by Mark Nickas.

**GFP screen.** For analysis, the MATα strains carrying the GFP fusions were panned from 96-well plates to individual petri dishes in sets of 48. These patches were replica plated to synthetic-dextrose (SD) plates spread with a lawn of AN117-4B carrying pRS426-RFP-Spo2051-91. Only diploids from mating between the strains can grow on this medium. After 2 days of incubation, patches were replica plated to a fresh SD plate, incubated overnight, and then replica plated to sporulation (SPO) medium. SPO plates were incubated from 16 to 20 h at room temperature before cells were transferred to microscope slides for examination. All diploids were analyzed on two separate days.

**Plasmids.** The high-copy-number plasmids carrying YKR015c and YIL043w are from the yeast tiling array collection (27). The prospore membrane marker pRS426-RFP-Spo2051-91 and DON1::GFP plasmid pSB9 have been described elsewhere (21, 28). pRS426-IRC10::GFP was constructed by amplification of the IRC10::GFP fusion from the genome of the GFP tag collection haploid using the oligonucleotides CT01 and MN0170, which engineered Not1 and BglII restriction sites on either end of the fragment, respectively. After digestion with these two enzymes, the fragment was ligated into Not1-BamHI-digested pRS426 (29). pRS314-SSP1::YFP was constructed by digestion of pRS314-SSP1::HA (12) with Ascl and PacI and replacement of the hemagglutinin (HA) tag with a yeast codon-optimized version of yellow fluorescent protein (YFP). This YFP gene was made by de novo synthesis (purchased from GeneWiz, NJ) and is flanked by Ascl and PacI sites in pUC7. pRS314-SPR28-RFP was provided by H. Tachikawa. pRS426-PCK1-GFP was made by amplification of the PCK1::GFP fusion from chromosomal DNA using oligonucleotides BLO3 and HT16, which introduce Xhol and BglII sites at the 5’ and 3’ ends of the fragment, respectively. Following Xhol-BglII digestion, the PCR product was cloned into Xhol-BamHI-digested pRS426.

**Electron microscopy.** Cells were stained with KmnO₄ and prepared for electron microscopy as described previously (30). Images were collected on a FEI BioTwin12 microscope at 80 kV using an ATR digital camera.

### Table 1. Strains used in this study

| Strain     | Genotype                                                                 | Reference or source |
|------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------|
| AN120      | MATαMATα ura3 leu2 trp1::hisG trp1::hisG his3ΔSK his3ΔSK lys2 lys2 arg4-Nsp1 ARG4 RME1::LEU2 HphMX4::LYS2 ho::LYS2 ho::LYS2 | 5                   |
| AN246      | AN120 plus ady3Δ::kanMX6 ady3Δ::kanMX6                                    | 10                  |
| CTL20      | AN120 plus irc10Δ::kanMX6 irc10Δ::kanMX6 ykr015cΔ::HIS3MX6 ykr015cΔ::HIS3MX6 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 | This study          |
| CTL21      | AN120 plus ady3Δ::kanMX6 irc10Δ::kanMX6 ykr015cΔ::HIS3MX6 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 | This study          |
| CTL22      | AN120 plus ady3Δ::kanMX6 ykr015cΔ::HIS3MX6 ykr015cΔ::HIS3MX6 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 | This study          |
| CTL23      | AN120 plus ady3Δ::kanMX6 ykr015cΔ::HIS3MX6 ykr015cΔ::HIS3MX6 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 | This study          |
| CTL24      | AN120 plus ady3Δ::kanMX6 ykr015cΔ::HIS3MX6 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 | This study          |
| CTL25      | AN120 plus ady3Δ::kanMX6 ykr015cΔ::HIS3MX6 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 | This study          |
| CTL26      | AN120 plus don1Δ::HIS3MX6 don1Δ::HIS3MX6 irc10Δ::kanMX6 irc10Δ::kanMX6 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4 | This study          |
| NY551      | AN120 plus ssplΔ::kanMX6 ssplΔ::kanMX6                                    | This study          |
| AN117-4B   | MATα ura3 leu2 trp1::hisG his3ΔSK lys2 arg4-Nsp1 rme1Δ::LEU2 ho::LYS2       | 5                   |
| CTL2       | AN117-4B plus irc10Δ::kanMX6 ykr015cΔ::HIS3MX6 yjl043w::ΔHphMX4             | This study          |
| AN117-16D  | MATα ura3 leu2 trp1::hisG his3ΔSK lys2 ho::LYS2                             | 5                   |
| MNH08      | AN117-16D plus don1Δ::HIS3MX6                                            | This study          |
| AN1070     | AN117-16D plus ady3Δ::kanMX6                                             | 10                  |
| GFP-tagged strains | MATα ura3 leu2 Δ his3Δ mer15Δ GENEX::GFP                                        | 2                   |
Fluorescence microscopy. Images were collected on either a Zeiss Axioplan2 microscope with a Zeiss mKM digital camera or a Zeiss AxioObserver Z.1 microscope with a Hamamatsu ERG camera. Image stacks were deconvolved using Axiovision (version 4.7) software.

RESULTS

Localization of GFP fusion proteins during sporulation. To create the diploid cells necessary for sporulation studies, MATα strains from the genome-wide collection (2) carrying an integrated C-terminal GFP fusion under the control of the genes’ native promoters were mated to a MATα strain carrying the prospore membrane marker RFP-Spo205.1-91, consisting of red fluorescent protein (RFP) combined with Spo20 from residues 51 to 91 (28). The resulting diploids were sporulated on plates at 23°C for ~18 h and examined by fluorescence microscopy. Sporulating cells in the appropriate stage of meiosis were identified by the presence and morphology of the prospore membranes (12). Two factors were found to complicate the analysis of GFP localization. First, autofluorescence of the spore wall produced a signal at the spore periphery in the GFP channel in mature spores. Because of this autofluorescence, only cells displaying the small round or elongated prospore membrane morphology characteristic of cells in mid-meiosis II (12) were used to assess GFP localization. Second, due to the extensive autophagy occurring in sporulating cells, all the cells showed various degrees of GFP and RFP signals in the vacuolar lumen, presumably caused by incomplete degradation of the fusion proteins. This vacuolar signal particularly complicated the assessment of weak GFP signals. Therefore, localizations are reported only for those GFP fusions that were clearly distinguishable above the vacuolar background.

In all, 435 fusions were examined (for a complete list of fusions tested, see Table S1 in the supplemental material), and the various protein localization patterns seen for 113 fusions are listed in Table 2. The proteins were assigned to a variety of different locations, with the largest groups being the prospore membrane (31) and the nucleus (13). In addition, we identified a novel localization, as detailed below. Representative examples for different localization patterns are shown in Fig. 1.

Prospore membrane. From proteins encoded by sporulation-induced genes, 17 GFP fusions displayed uniform localization along the entire prospore membrane, as indicated by colocalization with the prospore membrane marker RFP-Spo205 (1-91). On the basis of analysis of the predicted protein sequences, these fusions could be further divided into likely peripheral membrane proteins, integral membrane proteins, and secreted proteins whose fluorescence patterns represented localization to the lumen of the prospore membrane compartment. The predicted nature of each protein is listed in Table 2. The secreted proteins included Sga1, a glucoamylase capable of degrading both glycogen and starch (Fig. 1A to C) (32). On the basis of the biochemical fractionation of vegetative cells ectopically expressing Sga1, the protein had been reported to localize to the vacuole (32). Localization to the prospore membrane lumen suggests that the enzymatic activity of Sga1 is involved in spore wall assembly instead of storage carbohydrate metabolism.

The peripheral membrane proteins that localized to the prospore membrane included Vps13. Vps13 localizes to the endosome during vegetative growth (2). Thus, movement of Vps13 to the prospore membrane is an example of developmentally regulated relocalization (33). The importance of this movement is shown by the requirement for Vps13 from proper prospore membrane for-

### TABLE 2 GFP fusion localizations

| Protein and localization | Gene(s) |
|-------------------------|---------|
| Proteins encoded by sporulation-induced genes | |
| Prospore membrane | |
| Peripheral | YGR266w, CSR1, RRT5, YGL015c, MSO1, HUL4, VPS13, YNL018c, SSP2, SMA1 |
| Integral | YFL040w, SMA2, YNL019c |
| Secreted | SGA1, SPR1, CDA1, YGL138c |
| Punctate | YCR030k |
| Mitochondria | FMP10, YIL055c, YLH47, SPB6, YGL230k, YKR005c, MRRP17, SRI4 |
| Mitochondria | LAG1, POM34, CUE4, SPS2², SPS2³, SCS2, GAS4⁴ |
| Mitochondria | NUS1, TGL4, TGL3, LDS1, SPS4, LDS2, SRT1 |
| Leading edge | SPP1, IRC10, ADY3 |
| Spindle pole body | CNM67, SPO74, SPO21, MPC54, SPC29, TUB4 |
| Spindle | TUB3 |
| Cytoplasm | PRD1, THR4, RVS167, YMR196w, PBP2 |
| Cytoplasm | YKL071w, FVY8 |
| Cytoplasm | PEX22, SED4, YMR114c, MNE1, CHS5, YML119w, OSA2, DC11, HRR25, YSP2 |
| Septin | YSW1, SPR3, SPR28 |
| Vacular membrane | YCK3, FET5 |
| Bud neck-localized proteins | |
| Prospore membrane (uniform) | EXO84, SEC5, SEC3, YAP1802, SEC15, CHS7, SEC6, EXO70, APS2, BUD6, CBK1, BNI1, RGD1, BEM2, BUD2, KEL1 |
| Puncta on prospore membrane | AKL1, SPR1, YAP1801, HOS3, SEC8 |
| Septins | PKC1, CDC10, SHS1, CDC12, CDC13 |
| Prospore cytoplasm | CMD1 |
| Mitochondria | BEM1 |

*The localization of Sps22, Sps2, and Gas4 to the endoplasmic reticulum is likely a fusion artifact (see the text).
Gene products involved in meiotic chromosome metabolism (Pch2, Dmc1, Mnd1, Hop1, Mek1, and Mei5), histones (Htz1) (Fig. 1G to I), and putative transcription factors (Gat4 and Gis1). Of note, the transcription factor Gis1 was localized to the nucleus throughout meiosis. GIS1 is required for the induction of several genes late in the sporulation process, after meiosis is completed (16, 40). The continual localization of Gis1 to the nucleus indicates that its activity late in sporulation is not controlled by regulated nuclear import.

Several fusions displayed localization to the nuclear envelope/endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (Fig. 1J to L). This localization often appeared to be similar to the mitochondrial localization, with concentration in the area between the prospore membranes, but the GFP signal from the rims of the segregating nuclei within the prospore membrane could also be seen. In addition to proteins previously localized to this organelle (Ssc2, Lag1, and Pom33), this set included three proteins (Sp2, Sp32, and Gas4) that are predicted to be glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored spore wall components (16, 41). As carboxy-terminal GFP fusions were used in this study and the carboxyl-terminal transmembrane domain of GPI-anchored proteins is removed in the ER during attachment of the anchor (42), the GFP localization for these three proteins likely represents an artifact of the GFP fusion.

**Lipid droplets.** Seven fusions displayed a localization in which the proteins appeared to concentrate along one side of the prospore membrane (Fig. 1M to O). The GFP and RFP fluorescence often appeared to only partially overlap, suggesting that these proteins are adjacent to, rather than on, the membrane. Three of these gene products (Srt1, Tgl3, and Tgl4) have been reported to localize to lipid droplets in vegetative cells, and recently, it has been demonstrated that this pattern represents a subset of lipid droplets that associate specifically with the ascal side of prospore membranes (43). As lipid droplets do not associate with the plasma membrane in vegetative cells, this is a novel behavior for this organelle. The functional significance of the association between the lipid droplets and the prospore membrane remains to be determined.

**Cytoplasm.** Two different cytoplasmic localization patterns were identified in the screen. Some fusions, such as Ymr196w-GFP, were uniformly distributed throughout the cytoplasm, both inside and outside the prospore membranes (Fig. 1P to R). In contrast, the fusions to Fyv8 and Ykl071w concentrated within the presumptive spore cytoplasm inside the prospore membrane prior to membrane closure (Fig. 1S to U). Previously, we have seen that other GFP fusions can rapidly diffuse between the cytoplasm and the prospore membrane.
PKC1::GFP strain was crossed to a strain carrying an GFP fusion to the sporulation-specific septin SPR28, and colocalization of Pkc1 with Spr28 was examined. Pkc1-GFP clearly colocalized with septin bars in meiosis II cells (Fig. 2G). As septins at the prospore membrane can sometimes appear as patches, the fusions showing patchy localization were similarly examined for colocalization with Spr28-RFP. None of these fusions showed a consistent relationship to the position of the septins (unpublished observations). Thus, of all the bud neck-localized proteins examined, only one, Pkc1, displayed colocalization with the septins at the prospore membrane.

Characterization of a new LEP component. Our initial screen identified one new protein that localized to the leading edge of the prospore membrane, Irc10 (Fig. 1Y, Z, and a). The known components of the leading-edge complex are arranged in a stratified fashion with Ssp1, the key component that links the other proteins to the leading edge (9). To examine how Irc10 fits into this arrangement, Irc10-GFP localization was examined in ssp1Δ and ady3Δ strains. The IRC10::GFP fusion was first placed into a strain expressing IRC10::GFP and RFP-Spo2051-91; (J to L) an irc10Δ ykro15cΔ yjl043wΔ strain (CTL20) expressing DON1::GFP and RFP-Spo2051-91. Arrows, examples of GFP localization at the leading edge. Bar = 1 μm.

Sequence searches revealed two potential paralogs of IRC10 in the S. cerevisiae genome, YKR015c and YJL043w. The region of the proteins with the highest homology to each other is an ~130-
amino-acid domain at the N termini. Iterative BLAST searches revealed that proteins with this domain are present in other yeast species as well, including Ashbya gossypii and Kluyveromyces lactis (Fig. 4), though only one family member is present in these other yeast genomes.

Interestingly, both YKR015c and YJL043w are also sporulation-induced genes (14, 15). We were, however, unable to detect any localization for the GFP fusions to YKR015c or YJL043w (unpublished observations). Strains with single gene deletions of IRC10, YKR015c, or YJL043w showed no sporulation defects (17). To test for possible redundancy, we constructed an irc10Δ ykr015cΔ yjl043wΔ triple mutant diploid and examined sporulation. No significant sporulation defect was seen in the triple mutant (Table 3). Consistent with the lack of phenotype, the localization of Don1-GFP to the leading edge was unaffected in the triple mutant (Fig. 3). As ADY3 is required for Don1 localization, this indicates that ADY3 is also at the leading edge in the irc10Δ ykr015cΔ yjl043wΔ mutant. Thus, Ady3/Don1 and Irc10 are independently recruited to the leading edge by Ssp1.

**ADY3 and IRC10 have overlapping functions.** The independent localization of Ady3 and Irc10 to prosome membranes raises the possibility that they play redundant roles at the leading edge. An ady3Δ strain was crossed to an irc10Δ ykr015cΔ yjl043wΔ triple mutant, and a quadruple mutant diploid, as well as various triple mutant combinations, was constructed. The quadruple mutant failed to sporulate, indicating that the combined loss of these leading-edge genes blocked spore formation (Table 3). Interestingly, an ady3Δ ykr015cΔ yjl043wΔ triple mutant sporulated well, whereas an ady3Δ irc10Δ double mutant failed to sporulate, suggesting that IRC10 is specifically required in the absence of ADY3 (Table 3). To assess whether YKR015c or YJL043w has any function at the leading edge, each gene was introduced into an ady3Δ irc10Δ strain on a high-copy-number plasmid. No rescue of the ady3Δ irc10Δ sporulation defect was seen with either gene, though the IRC10::GFP fusion largely rescued the sporulation defect (Table 3). Despite their homology to and coregulation with IRC10, it is unclear whether YKR015c or YJL043w plays any role during spore formation.

Deletion of ADY3 removed both Ady3 and Don1 from the LEP. Therefore, the synthetic phenotype of ady3Δ and irc10Δ strains could conceivably be due to redundancy between IRC10 and DON1. To test this, a don1Δ ady3Δ ykr015cΔ yjl043wΔ quadruple mutant was constructed and tested for sporulation (Table 3). This strain sporulated with an efficiency similar to that of both the don1Δ and irc10Δ ykr015cΔ yjl043wΔ strains, indicating that the loss of spore formation in the ady3Δ irc10Δ strain is due to functional overlap of IRC10 with ADY3 and not DON1.

**An ady3Δ irc10Δ mutant phenocopies ssp1Δ.** To determine the nature of the ady3Δ irc10Δ sporulation defect, cells were examined in a transmission electron microscope. In contrast to wild-type cells, where cytoplasmic material was found between the nuclear envelope and the prospore membrane (Fig. 5A and B), prosome membranes in ady3Δ irc10Δ cells were closely apposed to the nuclear envelope (Fig. 5C and D) and frequently appeared to close prematurely, resulting in the pinching off of fragments of the nucleus. These phenotypes are very reminiscent of those seen in ssp1Δ mutants, where there is no leading-edge complex (9) (Fig. 5E and F). In postmeiotic cells, prosome membranes in the ady3Δ
irc10Δ mutant rounded up and contained both nuclei and associated cytoplasm (Fig. 5H). However, no mitochondria were seen in the cytoplasm of these prospores, and spore development arrested at this stage.

The collapsed morphology of the prospore membrane during nuclear engulfment could be explained by loss of Ssp1 from the leading edge in the double mutant. To examine this possibility, a plasmid carrying an SSP1::YFP fusion was used to examine localization of Ssp1. The SSP1::YFP construct only partially complemented the sporulation defect of irc10Δ cells (Table 3). Perhaps reflecting this partial function, when expressed in wild-type cells, the fusion localized to the leading edge but also to puncta along the prospore membrane (Fig. 6A to C). In the ady3Δ irc10Δ strain, fluorescence from Ssp1-YFP localized to the leading edge, and abnormal accumulation of fluorescence elsewhere on the prospore membrane was also seen (Fig. 6D to F). Though at least some Ssp1 was present at the leading edge, the prospore membrane morphology still appeared to be abnormal, and no sporulation was seen in the ady3Δ irc10Δ cells expressing SSP1::YFP (Table 3). ADY3 and IRC10 are, therefore, not required for Ssp1 to find the leading edge of the prospore membrane. However, in their absence, LEP function is compromised.

**FIG 5** Prospore membrane morphology in ady3Δ irc10Δ cells. Strains were sporulated for 8 h before fixation and embedding for electron microscopy. (A) Prospore membrane in the wild type (AN120), indicated by an arrow. N, nucleus. (B) Higher magnification of the boxed area in panel A. (C) Prospore membrane in ady3Δ irc10Δ (CTL22), indicated by an arrow. (D) Higher magnification of the boxed area in panel C. (E) Prospore membrane in spplΔ (NY551), indicated by an arrow. (F) Higher magnification of the boxed area in panel E. (G) Prospore membrane, indicated by an arrow, in a postmeiotic WT cell. N, nucleus; M, mitochondrion; L, a lipid droplet. (H) Prospore membrane in a postmeiotic ady3Δ irc10Δ cell. Labels are as described for panel G. Bars = 1 μm (A, C, E, G, and H) and 500 nm (B, D, and F).

**FIG 6** Localization of Ssp1 in ady3Δ irc10Δ cells. For each set of three images, the left panel shows the GFP fluorescence, the middle panel shows the prospore membrane, and the right panel is the merged image. (A to C) Wild type (AN120) expressing SSP1::YFP and RFP-Spo2051-91. (D to F and G to I) an ady3Δ irc10Δ strain (CTL22) expressing SSP1::YFP and RFP-Spo2051-91. Arrows, Ssp1-YFP puncta at the leading edge; arrowheads, puncta elsewhere on the prospore membrane. Bar = 1 μm.

**DISCUSSION**

Transcriptional studies have identified several hundred genes that are induced during sporulation. Though many of these genes are sporulation specific in their expression, only about 30% of the genes display a clear sporulation phenotype when deleted. In the absence of a mutant phenotype, the localization of the proteins may provide insight into their functions. Functional redundancy appears to be extensive between genes involved in sporulation (43). Generation of multiple mutant strains combining genes whose products have similar localizations, as shown here for ADY3 and IRC10, might be an effective strategy to reveal functions for different gene products.

In vegetative cells, septin rings serve as scaffolds to localize many proteins important for cell signaling and cytokinesis and act as a barrier to diffusion between the mother and daughter cells. However, the role of septins in sporulation is unclear. Of 90 proteins reported to localize to the bud neck during vegetative growth, 28 displayed a clear localization in sporulating cells. Only one of these, Pkc1-GFP, colocalized with septins at the prospore membrane. The organization and composition of the septin filaments at the prospore membrane were distinct from those at the bud neck, and these results further distinguish the vegetative and sporulation septin complexes. The Glc7-Gip1 phosphatase colocalizes with the septins at the prospore membrane (21). These complexes thus contain both a phosphatase and a kinase. While the septins themselves are dispensable for sporulation, Gip1-Glc7 is necessary both for septin organization and spore wall development (21, 22). The possible role of PKC1 in spore formation remains to be explored.

**Protein function in the leading-edge complex.** The leading-edge complex is essential for proper spore formation. The ring at the prospore membrane lip acts to keep the mouth of the prospore membrane open during membrane expansion. In the ady3Δ irc10Δ mutant, Ssp1 could still localize to the leading edge. Nonetheless the membrane collapsed, as in an spplΔ strain. This indicates that either Ady3 or Irc10 is required for Ssp1 to form a stable
ring that can maintain the size of the prospore membrane opening. Thus, the minimal LEP consists of Ssp1 plus a stabilizing factor (Ady3 or Irc10). An irc10Δ mutant has no sporulation phenotype, while an ady3Δ mutant displays reduced spore formation due to a mitochondrial segregation defect (10), indicating that ADY3 is somewhat more important for LEP function than IRC10. In light of the results described here, the mitochondrial segregation defect of ady3Δ may not reflect a direct role for ADY3 in the transit of mitochondria into the spore. Rather, it may be that for a fraction of spores forming in ady3Δ cells, the prospore membrane opening is too small to accommodate the entry of mitochondria into the spores. The more extreme morphological defects seen in the ady3Δ irc10Δ cells may similarly explain the absence of mitochondria within postmeiotic prospore membranes in this mutant.

IRC10 was originally identified in a genome-wide screen for deletions that increase the frequency of Rad52 foci during vegetative growth, a phenotype suggestive of increased recombinational DNA repair in the mutant (47). No increased rate of recombination was seen in the irc10Δ mutant, however. Given the highly sporation-induced expression of IRC10 and its function at the leading edge described here, it is unclear how the mutant causes an alteration of Rad52 localization, though at least one other highly sporation-induced gene, IRC18/OSW6, was identified in the same screen (14, 47).

Evolution of the LEP. Ascospore formation is cytotologically similar in all yeasts and requires analogous protein complexes. However, where the proteins of these complexes have been identified, there is often no homology between proteins of orthologous structures in different yeasts. For example, in both S. pombe and S. cerevisiae, a vesicle-docking complex on the cytoplasmic surface of the spindle pole body serves as the initiation site for prospore membrane assembly, yet the protein components of these structures are unrelated (48). Similarly, the S. pombe analog of Ssp1, the leading-edge protein Meu14, is not related by sequence to the S. cerevisiae protein (49). The discovery of functional overlap between Ady3 and Irc10 provides insight into how changes in the protein components can occur within essential complexes.

Proteins related to Ssp1 and Irc10 can be found in species such as A. gossypii and K. lactis that diverged from S. cerevisiae prior to the whole-genome duplication event (50, 51). The transcription of the A. gossypii ortholog of IRC10, AFR221w, was recently reported to be increased in sporulating cells, suggesting that it may similarly function in sporulation (52). In contrast, ADY3 arose from the whole-genome duplication as a second copy of the CNM67 gene, encoding a constitutive SBP component (50, 51, 53). Therefore, there is no direct ADY3 ortholog present in A. gossypii or K. lactis.

Ssp1 transiently interacts with SBP components early in prospore membrane formation (9). One possible scenario for the evolution of ADY3, therefore, is that the duplication of CNM67 allowed one copy (ADY3) to diverge and maintain an interaction with Ssp1 at the leading edge, and maintenance of the Ady3-Ssp1 interaction relieved the need for Irc10 at the leading edge. Why, then, does S. cerevisiae retain IRC10? One possibility is that IRC10 is still required for sporulation under conditions different from those used in the laboratory. Alternatively, as ADY3 is more important for leading-edge function than IRC10 in S. cerevisiae, it may be that S. cerevisiae is an example of an organism in the process of replacing a component of a complex essential for sporulation with an unrelated protein. Testing this hypothesis will require examining the phenotypes and localization of SSP1, IRC10, and CNM67 orthologs in yeast such as A. gossypii.

In sum, we conducted a systematic visual screen of the localization of proteins during sporulation. The results of this screen provide insight into a variety of processes and complexes, including sporulation-specific organellar proteins, new components of known protein complexes, and a novel localization pattern requiring further investigation. Though only about 7% of the GFP fusion collection was examined in the screen, the methodology described could be adapted to automated platforms to allow screening of the entire collection.

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