Evolution of Gene Order and Chromosome Number in Saccharomyces, Kluyveromyces and Related Fungi

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Received 11 July 1997; accepted 26 October 1997

The extent to which the order of genes along chromosomes is conserved between *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and related species was studied by analysing data from DNA sequence databases. As expected, the extent of gene order conservation decreases with increasing evolutionary distance. About 59% of adjacent gene pairs in *Kluyveromyces lactis* or *K. marxianus* are also adjacent in *S. cerevisiae*, and a further 16% of *Kluyveromyces* neighbours can be explained in terms of the inferred ancestral gene order in *Saccharomyces* prior to the occurrence of an ancient whole-genome duplication. Only 13% of *Candida albicans* linkages, and no *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* linkages, are conserved. Analysis of gene order arrangements, chromosome numbers, and ribosomal RNA sequences suggests that genome duplication occurred before the divergence of the four species in *Saccharomyces* sensu stricto (all of which have 16 chromosomes), but after this lineage had diverged from *Saccharomyces kluyveri* and the *Kluyveromyces lactis/marxianus* species assemblage. © 1998 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Yeast 14: 443-457, 1998.

KEY WORDS — evolution; polyploidy; gene duplication; gene order; LEU2

INTRODUCTION

The order of genes on a chromosome can be changed during evolution by transposition, translocation, deletion, inversion, or gene duplication, but little is known about the rates at which these processes occur. In mammals and plants many large linkage groups are conserved across species (Copeland et al., 1993; Moore et al., 1995; Paterson et al., 1996) at least at the low level of resolution provided by genetic linkage maps as compared to complete genomic sequences. In eubacteria, virtually no conservation of gene order is seen between Haemophilus influenzae and Escherichia coli (Mushegian and Koonin, 1996) but there is almost complete conservation between the more closely related species Mycoplasma genitalium and M. pneumoniae (Himmelreich et al., 1997).

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Contract/grant sponsor: Forbairt. Contract/grant sponsor: European Union.

gene order in ascomycete fungi, particularly between Saccharomyces cerevisiae and Kluyveromyces lactis (for example, Stark and Milner, 1989; Bergkamp-Steffens et al., 1992; Mulder et al., 1994; Wesolowski-Louvel and Fukuhara, 1995) or Ashbya gossypii (Altmann-Jöhl and Philippsen, 1996). The completion of the yeast genome sequence (Goffeau et al., 1997) now makes it possible to relate fragmentary gene order information from many fungi to the S. cerevisiae gene map, and so to investigate the extent of gene order conservation in different species. In particular, we have re-analysed EMBL database sequences to look for previously unrecognized homologues of S. cerevisiae genes in the regions upstream or downstream of known genes from other fungi, and so gathered additional gene order information.

Several authors have reported conservation of

Interpretation of gene order data is complicated by the presence of many large duplicated chromosomal regions in *S. cerevisiae* (Mewes *et al.*, 1997; Philippsen *et al.*, 1997; Wolfe and Shields, 1997). We have shown by molecular clock analysis that several of these duplicated regions originated in

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the *S. cerevisiae* lineage after it had split off from the lineage leading to *K. lactis*, and proposed that all 55 duplicated chromosomal regions arose simultaneously in a whole-genome duplication making yeast, in effect, a degenerate tetraploid. Some regions of the *K. lactis* genome have gene orders that correspond to an amalgamation of genes from both copies of duplicated regions in *S. cerevisiae* (Wolfe and Shields, 1997), which is consistent with ancient tetraploidy in *S. cerevisiae*.

Figure 1 summarizes our model of yeast gene order evolution through tetraploidy, gene deletion and reciprocal translocation. In this study we have used gene adjacency conservation (the extent to which adjacent genes in one species are also adjacent in another) as a measure of gene order conservation. Gene adjacency is changed to a large extent by gene deletion, and to a lesser extent by reciprocal translocation. In the model (Figure 1) we assumed that genes are deleted one at a time, not as large groups of neighbouring genes. This is approximately true because, if each of the ~ 320 intervals between the duplicated genes (paralogues) making up the large duplicated regions in yeast is considered separately, there is a strong correlation between the numbers of unique genes in each pair of 'sister' intervals (Coissac et al., 1997).

Reciprocal translocations in a duplicated genome such as S. cerevisiae can be divided into two classes which we term 'illegitimate' and 'legitimate', depending on the genomic locations of the recombining sites. This is not the same as the classification of recombinations as illegitimate or legitimate, which depends on whether the recombining sites have local sequence similarity (not genomic location similarity). Illegitimate translocation involves reciprocal recombination between apparently random sites in two chromosomes. Each illegitimate translocation increases the number of duplicated chromosomal blocks by two. because it breaks up two large blocks into four smaller ones (Figure 1c). The recombination sites need not have any sequence similarity, although in practice repeated DNA sequences of some sort might be involved. The intergenic regions in which illegitimate reciprocal translocations are inferred to have happened during S. cerevisiae evolution are now very divergent in sequence and it is impossible to tell whether or not recombination events were guided by local sequence similarity. The important point is that the two recombining sites are *not* at equivalent locations within sister

duplicated chromosomal regions. In the sense used here, all reciprocal translocations happening in a species without a duplicated genome (such as *K. lactis*) are illegitimate.

The second class of reciprocal translocations that can occur in a duplicated genome is 'legitimate'. These translocations involve recombination within a pair of paralogous genes derived from genome duplication. They appear to be rare, because the chromosomes of the other species of Saccharomyces sensu stricto (S. paradoxus, S. bayanus, S. pastorianus) are generally collinear with those of S. cerevisiae. Ryu et al. (1996) mapped one legitimate reciprocal translocation of this type, between S. cerevisiae and S. bayanus, to a point inside duplicated block 3 on S. cerevisiae chromosomes II and IV. The total number of legitimate reciprocal translocations in S. bayanus is probably less than ten (Ryu et al., 1996), and none have been detected in S. paradoxus (Naumov et al., 1992; Hawthorne and Philippsen, 1994). A legitimate reciprocal translocation exchanges the flanking unique markers on each side of the pair of paralogues where the recombination occurred (Figure 1d). This has no effect on the number of blocks in the genome, and the only effect on gene adjacency concerns the genes immediately beside the paralogues. Legitimate reciprocal translocations can probably only occur during a limited period after genome duplication, before sequence divergence between the paralogues becomes too great. Moreover, these events can only be detected if a speciation also occurs during this time period. We have included legitimate reciprocal translocations in Figure 1 because this model is general to any organism undergoing genome duplication, and even though legitimate reciprocal translocations are rare in yeast they may be more frequent in other degenerate polyploid species (Morizot, 1990). We emphasise that legitimate reciprocal translocations, as defined here, can only occur in genome-duplicated organisms.

S. cerevisiae and its close relatives have an unusually large number of chromosomes as compared to other yeasts, despite having similar genome sizes (de Jonge et al., 1986; Sor and Fukuhara, 1989). The discovery that the duplicated regions in S. cerevisiae include three pairs of centromeres (CEN2/CEN4; CEN8/CEN11; CEN3/CEN14), and that two of these can be related to two of the six K. lactis centromeres (Figure 2a), prompted us to re-examine data on chromosome numbers and genome sizes in ascomycetes in the

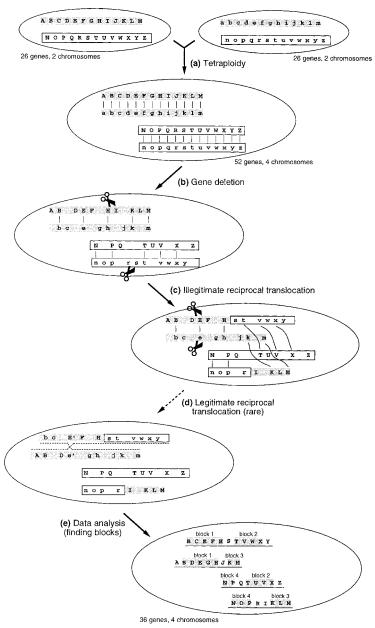


Figure 1. Model of gene order evolution in a duplicated genome such as yeast. A schematic genome is shown with two chromosomes (one grey, one boxed) and 26 genes (letters A–Z). Upper- and lower-case lettering is used to distinguish between the two original sets of chromosomes giving rise to the tetraploid. Vertical lines connect orthologous genes. Stage (c) shows the state of the genome after gene deletion and a single 'illegitimate' reciprocal translocation. Stage (d) illustrates the effect of a rare 'legitimate' reciprocal translocation (involving recombination within a pair of paralogues), such as happened in *S. bayanus* (Ryu *et al.*, 1996). This produces two new hybrid genes (designated E' and e') and new combinations of unique genes within blocks (for example, placing gene C near gene F in block 1). Stage (e) shows how this genome would be interpreted using a block-finding method (only upper-case lettering is used because, in practice, it is not possible to determine the origin of each gene in a pair but only to recognize that they are duplicates).

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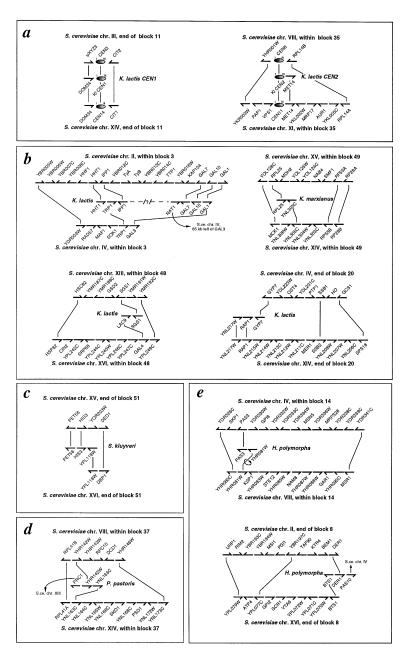


Figure 2. Gene order relationships between some ascomycete species and duplicated regions in *S. cerevisiae*. Arrows indicate the direction of transcription of genes and are not to scale. Vertical lines connect orthologous genes. (a) Relationship between two *K. lactis* centromeres (Heus *et al.*, 1993) and two pairs of *S. cerevisiae* centromeres. Shaded ovals denote centromeres with the relative positions of the CDE I and CDE III elements indicated. \(\psi XYZ3\) is a DOM34-related pseudogene on yeast chromosome III (Lalo *et al.*, 1993). Other panels show *S. cerevisiae* relationships to regions from: (b) *Kluyveromyces* species (Webster and Dickson, 1988; Stark and Milner, 1989; Bergkamp-Steffens *et al.*, 1992; Larson *et al.*, 1994; this study); (c) *Saccharomyces kluyveri* (Weinstock and Strathern, 1993); (d) *Pichia pastoris* (Ohi *et al.*, 1996); (e) *Hansenula polymorpha* (Nuttley *et al.*, 1995; Baerends *et al.*, 1996).

light of new ribosomal RNA-based phylogenies for these species (Cai et al., 1996; James et al., 1997).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Approximately 1000 sequences from hemiascomycete species other than S. cerevisiae and Schizosaccharomyces pombe were taken from the EMBL database (release 50 and subsequent daily updates until September 1997). These were searched using BLASTX against the database of all 5790 S. cerevisiae proteins used in Wolfe and Shields (1997; http://acer. gen. tcd. ie/~khwolfe/ yeast). The significance of matches was assessed by eye, to permit inclusion of some very short but highly conserved sequence matches that occurred at the ends of database sequences. The S. pombe dataset comprised 1.577 megabases (55 cosmids in 27 contigs) from chromosome I sequenced at the Sanger Centre, and a consistent significance threshold (BLASTP high score ≥ 200) was used in the analysis of this data. In analyses of the extents of linkage conservation between species, genes that do not have homologues in S. cerevisiae were treated as if they were non-existent.

New gene order data was obtained from *K. lactis* by single-pass sequencing of subclones adjacent to previously cloned genes. We identified a *K. lactis* homologue of *SGS1* by sequencing from a *HindIII* site 2 kb downstream of *LAC9* in pJ431 (Salmeron and Johnston, 1986), and a homologue of *YML050W* by sequencing from an *XhoI* site 1 kb downstream of *GAL80* in pKLGAL80 (Zenke *et al.*, 1993).

Yeast strain designations in different culture collections were interconverted using the World-Wide Web-accessible catalogues of the Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures, Netherlands (CBS; http://www. cbs. knaw. nl), the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC; http://www. atcc. org) and Teikyo University Institute of Medical Microbiology (TIMM; http://timm. main. teikyo-u. ac. jp).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Extent of gene order conservation

We used the BLASTX program (Altschul et al., 1990) to search every sequence from hemiasco-

mycete fungi (excluding S. cerevisiae and S. *pombe*) in the EMBL database against a library of all protein sequences encoded by the S. cerevisiae genome (Goffeau et al., 1997). BLASTX compares the conceptual six-frame translations of a DNA query sequence against a protein sequence library and so will find matches even if the query sequence is not annotated or contains frameshifts. These searches identified 147 hemiascomycete sequences that contain two adjacent genes (or fragments of genes), both of which have homologues in S. cerevisiae (Tables 1 and 2). A similar analysis of data from the S. pombe genome project identified 625 pairs of adjacent S. pombe genes with S. cerevisiae homologues. The adjacent pairs from other species were then compared to the maps of S. cerevisiae genes and duplicated chromosomal regions (Wolfe and Shields, 1997). Four possible categories of gene order conservation were recognized (Table 1), depending on whether transcriptional orientation was conserved, and on whether the S. cerevisiae genes were adjacent on the same chromosome or were on 'sister' copies of a duplicated chromosomal block (Figure 2).

This information was placed in a phylogenetic context using an approximate tree of 18S ribosomal RNA sequences (Figure 3). The extent of linkage conservation falls off with increasing evolutionary distance from S. cerevisiae. At the extremes, gene order is completely conserved in the three other species of Saccharomyces sensu stricto (S. paradoxus, S. bayanus and S. pastorianus), whereas there is no linkage conservation at all in S. pombe. In K. lactis and K. marxianus 74–83% of adjacent pairs can be explained in terms of the S. cerevisiae map after allowance is made for block duplications and inversions in S. cerevisiae. The conservation values are lower for the more distantly related species Candida albicans (13%), C. maltosa (33%) and Hansenula polymorpha (18%), as well as for *Pichia pastoris* (20%), which could not be shown in Figure 3 because its 18S rRNA has not been sequenced but which is expected to lie among these deep branches. Gene order data from other species are scarce but are generally consistent with phylogenetic position (Figure 3). The complete lack of adjacency conservation in the large sample of S. pombe genes serves as a control experiment to show that the levels of conservation in other ascomycetes are significant even though they are low.

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Table 1. Extent of gene order conservation between S. cerevisiae and other ascomycetes.

	Adjacent pairs known	Adjacent in S. cerevisiae		Conserved between blocks ^a			Total
Species		Same orientation	Inverted	Same orientation	Inverted		conservation (%) ^b
Ashbya gossypii	4	4	0	0	0	0	100
Candida albicans	31	1	2	1	0	27	13
Candida glabrata	2	2	0	0	0	0	100
Candida guilliermondii	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Candida maltosa	6	1	1	0	0	4	33
Candida parapsilosis	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Candida tropicalis	2	0	0	0	0	2	0
Candida utilis ^c	3	1	0	1	0	1 ^d	66
Hanseniaspora uvarum ^c	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Hansenula anomala ^c	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Hansenula polymorpha	11	0	0	1	1	9	18
Kluyveromyces lactis	31	18	0	4	1	8^{d}	74
Kluyveromyces marxianus	6	4	0	1	0	1	83
Pichia pastoris ^c	5	0	0	1	0	4	20
Schwannomyces occidentalis ^c	2	0	0	0	0	2	0
Yamadazyma ohmeri ^c	1	0	1	0	0	0	100
Yarrowia lipolytica	5	1	0	0	0	4	20
Zygosaccharomyces rouxii	1	1	0	0	0	0	100
Saccharomyces kluyveri	4	2	0	1	0	1	75
Saccharomyces carlsbergensis ^e	19	19	0	0	0	0	100
Saccharomyces monacensis ^e	1	1	0	0	0	0	100
Saccharomyces pastorianus ^e	1	1	0	0	0	0	100
Saccharomyces paradoxus	6	6	0	0	0	0	100
Saccharomyces bayanus ^f	1	1	0	0	0	0	100
Saccharomyces uvarum ^f	1	1	0	0	0	0	100
Schizosaccharomyces pombe	625	0	0	0	0	625	0

^aSee Figures 2 and 4.

Comparison of Kluyveromyces results to theoretical predictions

Analysis of *Kluyveromyces* data shows that 22 out of 37 adjacent gene pairs (59%) are also adjacent in *S. cerevisiae*, and six out of 37 (16%) are conserved between duplicated blocks (Table 1). Is this consistent with the hypothesis of whole genome duplication in *S. cerevisiae*?

To predict these two quantities, which we term 'adjacency conservation' and 'block conservation',

we need to take account of three factors: (i) the incompleteness of the map of duplicated regions in the yeast genome; (ii) the break-up of adjacencies caused by reciprocal translocations; and (iii) the presence of duplicated genes in *S. cerevisiae* which will increase the number of apparent conserved adjacencies. Assuming random single-gene deletions, the predicted extent of adjacency conservation is $P_{adj} = t\{1 - 0.5(1 - 2d)^2\}$, and of block conservation is $P_{block} = t\{b0.5(1 - 2d)^2\}$, where d is the proportion of original genes retained in

^bSum of all four categories of conservation.

^cSpecies not shown in Figure 3 (full-length rRNA sequence not available).

dIncludes one pair that are almost adjacent in S. cerevisiae (see Table 2).

[°]S. carlsbergensis is probably an allotetraploid hybrid between S. monacensis and S. cerevisiae (Hansen and Kielland-Brandt, 1994). Taxonomically, S. carlsbergensis and S. monacensis are regarded as synonyms of S. pastorianus (Barnett, 1992), but MET2 gene sequences from S. monacensis (CBS 1503, the type strain) and the lager chromosome of S. carlsbergensis (CBS 1513, type strain) are identical and different from that of S. pastorianus (CBS 1538, type strain) (Hansen and Kielland-Brandt, 1994).

f.S. uvarum (type strain: CBS 395) is regarded as a synonym of S. bayanus (type strain: CBS 380) (Barnett, 1992) and their MET2 sequences are identical (Hansen and Kielland-Brandt, 1994).

Table 2. Ascomycete EMBL database entries containing two or more genes with S. cerevisiae homologues.^a

Accession numbers ^b	Genes ^c	Linkage conservation
Ashbya gossypii:		
A29820	TEF2→ MUD1→	conserved on II
X91046 and ref. 1	$RSC6 \rightarrow THR4 \rightarrow \leftarrow CTR86 \leftarrow PWP2$	conserved on III
Candida albicans:		
U13193	$STE6 \rightarrow \leftarrow UBA1$	conserved on XI
U58133	RAD16→ LYS2→	inverted on II
AF000120/AF000121	$PET8 \rightarrow NFS1 \rightarrow LEU2 \rightarrow$	III/XIV, beside block 11 (see Figure 4)
D83180/D83181	$CEG1 \rightarrow \leftarrow FRE1$	not conserved
L04305	ERG7→ ←YCR010C	not conserved
L04943	$ENO1 \rightarrow \leftarrow YLR231C$	not conserved
L08824	$FMS1 \rightarrow YPL225W \rightarrow$	not conserved
L25759	$OYE2 \rightarrow \leftarrow YHR052W$	not conserved
M29935	$TEF1 \rightarrow \leftarrow YPL247C$	not conserved
M94160	\leftarrow PEP8 CDC25 \rightarrow \leftarrow HTB1	not conserved
M94674	←IAH1 MAL32→ ←YNL321W	not conserved
S65451/J04230	HSP12→ TMP1→	not conserved
U09781	PTR2→ ←YPL009C	not conserved
U37371/X78466	CCT8→ ←TRP1 ←YJL029C	not conserved
U67193	ERG11→THR1→	not conserved ^d
U72980	STE7→ ←TAF61	not conserved
X52420/X96850/X88804	$CHS2 \rightarrow SRM1 \rightarrow \leftarrow POL3$	not conserved
X53823	YJL084C→ YBR008C→	not conserved
X62496	$YLR326W \rightarrow \leftarrow YDR357C$	not conserved
X74952	FAS1→ ←YLR410W	not conserved
X76689	CAN1→ ←HAL2	not conserved
X78968	DFR1→ ←YJL054W	not conserved
X81025	RAD14→ HSP82→	not conserved
Y10377	TOP2→ ←SDH1	not conserved
Z25870	$CDC10 \rightarrow RAD27 \rightarrow$	not conserved
Z54197	UBI4→ YHL030W→	not conserved
Candida glabrata:	031.	100 001001 100
M69146	ACE1→ ←YGL164C	conserved on VII
X97320 and ref. 2	SEC14→ ←NAM7	conserved on XIII
Candida maltosa:		
D29759	←GAL10 GAL1→	conserved on II
X05459/X72939	NFS1→ LEU2→	inverted on III (see Figure 4)
D12717	FRE2→ ERG11→	not conserved
D12718	DIT2→ ←YPL135W	not conserved
M58322	$ADE1 \rightarrow \leftarrow YHR031C$	not conserved
X17310	HIS5→ YMR188C→	not conserved
Candida parapsilosis:	THIS TIMETOOC T	not conserved
X99635	URA3→ ←YIL006W	not conserved
Candida tropicalis:	ORAS / CTILOUUW	not conscived
M23673	ERG11→ THR1→	not conserved ^d
X54875	$VMA2 \rightarrow \leftarrow YJL200C$	not conserved
Candida utilis:	VMA2 - TJL200C	not conscived
D67040	←RPL41B YHR142W→	conserved on VIII
M16014	LEU2→ ←RLP7	III/XIV, beside block 11 (see Figure 4)
D14851/D32213	$ERG10 \rightarrow \leftarrow SHA3$	almost conserved; S. ce. XVI has
D17031/D32213	LKOI0→ ←SIIA3	ERG10→ YPL027W→ ←SHA3
Hansenula anomala:		$EKU10 \rightarrow 1 L02/W \rightarrow \leftarrow 3 L W$
X16051	CYB2→ ←SDS22	not conserved
	$C \circ DZ \rightarrow \leftarrow SDSZZ$	not conserved
Hansenula polymorpha: U37763	YHR081W→ PAS3→	IV/VIII blook 14 invested
03//03	$111KU01W \rightarrow FASS \rightarrow$	IV/VIII, block 14, inverted
		(see Figure 2e)

Table 2. Ascomycete EMBL database entries containing two or more genes with S. cerevisiae homologues.^a

Accession numbers ^b	Genes ^c	Linkage conservation
U22930	←BTS1 DER1→ PAS10→	BTS1-DER1 is conserved on II/XVI
		near block 8 (see Figure 2e)
A06214	$YOR388C \rightarrow PCL1 \rightarrow$	not conserved
A11156	←YOR155C TRP3→	not conserved
A11168/X02424	GUK1→ ←RVS161 TKL1→	not conserved
U00889	LEU2→ YOL105C→	not conserved (see Figure 4)
U40996	$YLR364W \rightarrow YOR374W \rightarrow$	not conserved
X58862	←YFR021W YML070W→	not conserved
Z46868	$SPR1 \rightarrow YKL034W \rightarrow$	not conserved
Hanseniaspora uvarum:	PD C1 VEL 017C	
U13635	$PDC1 \rightarrow \leftarrow YFL017C$	not conserved
Kluyveromyces lactis:	DETTI IVI DA	
L25779	←RFT1 HAP3→	conserved on II
U65983 and ref. 3	TKL2→ LYS2→	conserved on II
U04714	ERD1→ ←YDR412W	conserved on IV
X76027	$APA2 \rightarrow QCR7 \rightarrow$	conserved on IV
U48701	$CDC68 \rightarrow \leftarrow CHC1$	conserved on VII
L05777/L05772	←RPL32 RPL30A→	conserved on VII
X76026	$ERG20 \rightarrow QCR8 \rightarrow$	conserved on X
X74292	←YLR181C SWI6→	conserved on XII
Z21512 and this study	$GAL80 \rightarrow YML050W \rightarrow$	conserved on XIII
AJ001358	$URA5 \rightarrow \leftarrow SEC65$	conserved on XIII
A26615	$RPL41A \rightarrow YNL161W \rightarrow$	conserved on XIV
M68870	$GAL11 \rightarrow YOL049W \rightarrow$	conserved on XV
A36834	$YOL119C \rightarrow RP28A \rightarrow$	conserved on XV
X07039	←GAL1 GAL10→ GAL7→ ←NAT1	GAL genes are conserved on II (see Figure 2b)
X70373/X07038 and ref. 4	←ZWF1 ←YNL240C KEX2→ YTP1→	conserved on XIV but S. ce. has LAP3 between YNL240C and KEX2
X14230	$HHT1 \rightarrow TRP1 \rightarrow \leftarrow IPP1$	II/IV, in block 3 (see Figure 2b)
X65545	RLP7→ LEU2→	III/XIV, near block 11 (see Figure 4)
X73629	$YNL217W \rightarrow RAP1 \rightarrow \leftarrow GYP7$	IV/XIV, near block 20 (see Figure 2)
M15210 and this study	$GAL4 \rightarrow \leftarrow SGS1$	XIII/XVI, in block 48 (see Figure 2b
A27712/X17654	←LAG2 PGK1→	not conserved
U19586	←KIN28 MRF1→	not conserved
U72486	MET17→ ←YLL015W	not conserved
X52871 and ref. 5	←GAP1 ADH1→	not conserved
X76028	←CTF18 CBF1→	not conserved
Z17316	$GLO1 \rightarrow PFK2 \rightarrow$	not conserved
Kluyveromyces marxianus:		
D10580	←YHR142W RPL41B→	conserved on VIII
S53438/S53436/S53434	CRY2→ ←RPS24A RPL46→	conserved on X
X69583	RED1→ RPS33B→	conserved on XII
S53422	RPL25→ ←YNL305C	XV/XVI, in block 49 (see Figure 2b)
X57202	YHL040C→ SUC2→	not conserved
Pichia guilliermondii:		
Z74991/Z49093	$TOP2 \rightarrow RIB1 \rightarrow$	not conserved
Pichia guilliermondii: Z74991/Z49093	TOP2→ RIB1→	not conserved
Pichia pastoris:		
X87987	←YNL163C ←YHR142W PRC1→	YNL163C-YHR142W is conserved in block 37 (see Figure 2d)
T 1 5 0 1 4 0	RRN3→ YMR026C→	not conserved
U58140		
U58140 U69170	HIS3→ TTP1→	not conserved

Table 2. Ascomycete EMBL database entries containing two or more genes with S. cerevisiae homologues.^a

Accession numbers ^b	Genes ^c	Linkage conservation
Schwanniomyces occident	alis:	
S38381	YIL172C→ PTC2→	not conserved
U23210	$ADE2 \rightarrow \leftarrow YBL028C$	not conserved
Yamadazyma ohmeri:		
Z35101	NFS1→ LEU2→	inverted on III (see Figure 4)
Yarrowia lipolytica:		
Z22571/Z22570	URA5→ ←SEC65	conserved on XIII
X99537/X99538	←YGL054C SEC62→	not conserved
M17741	$GYP7 \rightarrow PRB1 \rightarrow$	not conserved
M91598	$PGK1 \rightarrow \leftarrow YDR541C$	not conserved
X69988	$POT1 \rightarrow \leftarrow HSP42$	not conserved
Zygosaccharomyces roux		
D00134	$TDH2 \rightarrow \leftarrow YJR008W$	conserved
Saccharomyces kluyveri:		
M82964	CDC25→ IMH1→	conserved on XII
Z14125	\leftarrow PET56 HIS3 \rightarrow \leftarrow YPL118W	XV/XVI, beside block 51
		(see Figure 2c)
X56042	←COX17 CYR1→	not conserved
Saccharomyces carlsberge	ensis ^e :	
'lager' chromosomes:	Trovala of the order	
Z86109	YCL010C thru CEN3f	conserved on III
U13062	$BIK1 \rightarrow HIS4 \rightarrow YCL031C \rightarrow$	conserved on III
L26504	$MET10 \rightarrow \leftarrow SMC2$	conserved on VI
cerevisiae-like chromosor		
K01752/K01609	←GAL1 GAL10→ GAL7→	conserved on II
M12601/M27823	←AGT1 ←YGR291C MAL12→	conserved on VII
X01100	$RP28B \rightarrow RP55B \rightarrow \leftarrow YNL303W \leftarrow YNL304W$	conserved on XIV
Saccharomyces monacens		1 777
Y08688	\leftarrow ORM1 ACB1 \rightarrow	conserved on VII
Saccharomyces pastorian		
D86480	$YGR178C \rightarrow ATF2 \rightarrow$	conserved on VII
Saccharomyces paradoxu		
X73886	$DED81 \rightarrow ARG4 \rightarrow \leftarrow YSC83$	conserved on VIII
X94370	$YHL037C \rightarrow CBP2 \rightarrow \leftarrow YHL039W$	conserved on VIII
X12864	←RHC18 NAM2→ ←YLR381W	conserved on XII
Saccharomyces bayanus: D12534	ACTI VELOVOW	conserved on VI
	$ACT1 \rightarrow \leftarrow YFL040W$	conserved on VI
Saccharomyces uvarum: X07976	SUV3→ ERG10→	conserved on XVI
AU/9/U	SUVS→ ENGIU→	Conscived on AVI

^aFor simplicity, we have listed only one *S. cerevisiae* 'homologue' for each gene. For some sequences there were two or more equally similar *S. cerevisiae* genes and we examined all possibilities for linkage conservation. For some genes, such as transketolase (*TKLI*; Flechner *et al.*, 1996; Schenk *et al.*, 1997), sequences from different ascomycetes may not be true orthologues.

bWhere multiple accession numbers are listed the sequences overlap. Additional references: 1, Altmann-Jöhl and Philippsen (1996); 2, Dundon and Islam (1997) and W. Dundon, personal communication; 3, Jacoby and Heinisch (1997); 4, Wesolowski-Louvel and Fukuhara (1995); 5, Shuster (1990).

^cOnly S. cerevisiae gene names are listed. Arrows indicate direction of transcription.

^dThe $ERG11 \rightarrow THR1 \rightarrow$ linkage is conserved betwen C. albicans and C. tropicalis but not S. cerevisiae.

eS. carlsbergensis sequences are described as either 'cerevisiae-like' or 'lager' based on degree of similarity to the S. cerevisiae genome sequence in intergenic spacer regions. 'Lager' sequences are probably derived from S. monacensis (Hansen and Kielland-Brandt, 1994).

^fTen genes (Andersen and Nilsson-Tillgren, 1997). The *DOM34* homologue *XYZ3* (Lalo *et al.*, 1993; see Figure 2a) is intact on this *S. carlsbergensis* chromosome but not in *S. cerevisiae*. Homologues of *S. cerevisiae CWH36* and *YCL006C* are not intact on this *S. carlsbergensis* chromosome and are either pseudogenes in *S. carlsbergensis* or spurious ORFs in *S. cerevisiae*.

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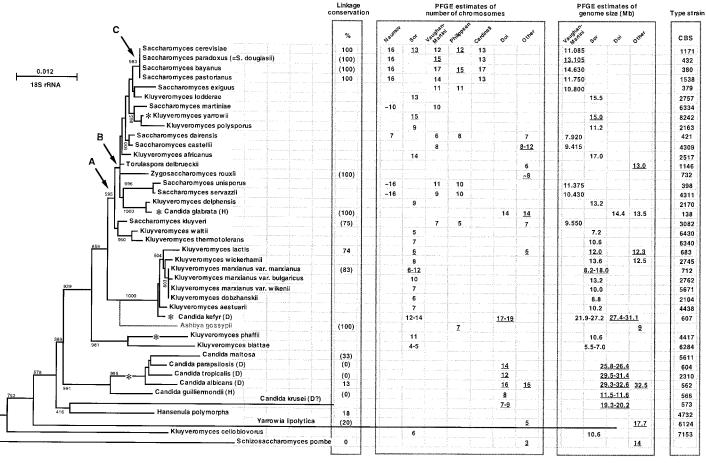


Figure 3. 18S ribosomal RNA phylogeny of some ascomycetes and summary of published data on their genomes. The phylogenetic tree is essentially the same as those published by Cai et al. (1996) and James et al. (1997) and was produced by the neighbour-joining method from a ClustalW alignment (Thompson et al., 1994) of near-full-length sequences, Bootstrap values (1000 replicates) that are not shown were below 500. Points A, B and C are discussed in the text. Asterisks indicate places where major changes in chromosome number may have occurred. H and D after Candida species names indicate their designation as either haploid or diploid by Doi et al. (1992; Candida krusei was described as 'probably diploid'). The 'Linkage conservation' panel refers to the 'Total Conservation' column in Table 1; values in parentheses are based on fewer than 10 linked pairs. The 'Number of chromosomes' and 'Genome size' panels summarize estimates from pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) experiments by several laboratories. Tildes in estimates of chromosome number indicate cases where no explicit statement was made in the text of the cited reference. The type strains of each species are named in the rightmost panel. These strains were used for most of the PFGE analyses (except where indicated by underlining), and rRNA sequencing (all except C. glabrata and Ashbya gossypii). The placement of A. gossypii is an estimate based on its position in a separate tree drawn from the 800 bases of 18S rRNA sequence that are available for this species (Messner et al., 1995), but is consistent with the results of Prillinger et al. (1997) for its close relative Holleya sinecauda. Major references: Jäger and Philippsen (1989); Sor and Fukuhara (1989); Doi et al. (1992); Naumov et al. (1992; 1995); Vaughan-Martini et al. (1993); Cardinali and Martini (1994). Other references for chromosome number: P. Philippsen, personal communication (A. gossypii); Vaughan-Martini and Barcaccia (1996; S. dairensis, S. castellii); Oda and Tonomura (1995; T. delbrueckii, Z. rouxii); Kaufmann and Merz (1989; C. glabrata); Weinstock and Strathern (1993; S. kluyveri); Heus et al. (1993; K. lactis); Chu et al. (1993; C. albicans). Other references for genome size: Maleszka and Clark-Walker (1993; T. delbrueckii, C. glabrata, K. lactis, K. wickerhamii); P. Philippsen, personal communication (A. gossypii); Chu et al. (1993; C. albicans); Vernis et al. (1997; Y. lipolytica); Hoheisel et al. (1993; S. pombe).

duplicate after tetraploidy; b is the fraction of the genome covered by the map of duplicated blocks; and t is the probability that two genes that were originally adjacent have not been separated by a reciprocal translocation.

Under the genome-duplication hypothesis every region of the yeast genome should be paired with a 'sister' region, but so far we have only been able to map 50% of the genome into duplicated blocks (Wolfe and Shields, 1997). The other half of the genome is assumed to contain many additional small, fragmented blocks, as well as undiscovered end fragments of the known blocks. We have estimated elsewhere (C.S. and K.H.W., in preparation) that the combined fraction of the genome occupied by blocks that have been at least partially discovered is b=0.68, that d=0.08, and that about 85 reciprocal translocations occurred within the yeast genome after its duplication. We estimated previously that the age of the whole-genome duplication was 0.71 times the age of the divergence between S. cerevisiae and K. lactis (Wolfe and Shields, 1997), so assuming a molecular clock for translocations this suggests that approximately 240 translocations have occurred between S. cerevisiae and K. lactis. Each translocation disrupts two adjacencies (Figure 1c), so 480 breakpoints among ~ 5400 original genes yields a value of t=0.91. Substituting these values into the formulae above gives $P_{adj} = 0.59$ and $P_{block} = 0.22$, which are reasonably close to the observed values. There are many uncertainties and approximations in these calculations, but they indicate that the observed extent of linkage conservation in K. lactis is consistent with the genome-duplication hypothesis.

Inversions at LEU2

Table 1 includes a few examples where linkage of a pair of adjacent genes has been conserved between *S. cerevisiae* and another species, but the transcriptional orientation of one of the genes has been inverted. The relationship between *LEU2* and its neighbours is interesting because data are available from a range of species (Figure 4). We interpret Figure 4 to mean that the four genes *LEU2*, *NFS1*, *PET8* and *RLP7* were all adjacent in an ascomycete ancestor. Genome duplication and subsequent deletions in *S. cerevisiae* left *LEU2* and *NFS1* on chromosome III, but *PET8* and *RLP7* on chromosome XIV; this may be an extension of duplicated block 11 (Wolfe and Shields, 1997; see

also Lalo *et al.*, 1993), which lies to the right of these genes. However, the orientation of LEU2 in S. cerevisiae and C. utilis is opposite to that in other species (see also Sharp and Wolfe, 1993), and no simple explanation for the current gene arrangements is apparent. One possible (but convoluted) explanation of the data in Figure 4 is that the ancestral gene order was $\leftarrow LEU2 \leftarrow NFS1$ $\leftarrow PET8 \leftarrow RLP7$, with an inversion of LEU2 in S. cerevisiae, an independent multigene inversion in C. utilis spanning the three-gene cluster LEU2-NFS1-PET8 bringing LEU2 and RLP7 into their present tail-to-tail arrangement, and a transposition of NFS1-PET8 to elsewhere in the K. lactis genome.

Evolution of chromosome number and genome size

We tried to examine the evolution of chromosome number and genome size in ascomycetes by combining the 18S ribosomal RNA phylogeny with published pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) profiles for the same species (Figure 3). The PFGE technique tends to underestimate the number of chromosomes because bands may co-migrate on gels, but there is a qualitative difference between Saccharomyces sensu stricto and other yeasts in terms of the presence of many small chromosomes of <500 kb (de Jonge et al., 1986; Johnston and Mortimer, 1986; Vaughan-Martini et al., 1993). There is also considerable variation among laboratories in PFGE results (Figure 3), so apparent differences between species are probably only reliable if the data come from a single laboratory.

Much of Figure 3 is inconclusive as regards chromosome number evolution. This is caused by poor resolution (low bootstrap values) in the phylogenetic tree, as well as possible inaccuracies in the PFGE data and/or possible aneuploidy, as seen in industrial and clinical strains of yeast (Johnston et al., 1989; Hadfield et al., 1995; Clemons et al., 1997). However, as pointed out by others (de Jonge et al., 1986; Johnston and Mortimer, 1986; Sor and Fukuhara, 1989), most of the species that lie on the deeper branches (below point A in Figure 3), including the C. albicans group and the K. lactis/K. marxianus group, have haploid chromosome numbers of between six and eight, which implies an approximate doubling in Saccharomyces sensu stricto. A parsimonious explanation of the data in Figure 3 alone is that chromosome number increased from 6-8 to 16 454 R. S. KEOGH *et al.*

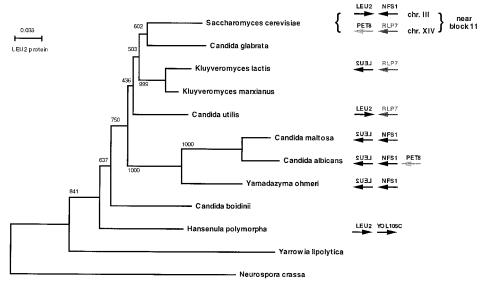


Figure 4. Evolution of gene order and orientation near *LEU2*. Arrows indicate directions of gene transcription and are not to scale. The phylogenetic tree was drawn by the neighbour-joining method from a ClustalW alignment (Thompson *et al.*, 1994) of *LEU2* protein sequences. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown. There is no information about genes neighbouring *LEU2* in some species. References (from top to bottom of the tree): Goffeau *et al.* (1997); Kitada (1997); Zhang *et al.* (1992); Bergkamp *et al.* (1991); Hamasawa *et al.* (1987); Becher *et al.* (1994); Plant and Poulter (1997); Piredda and Gaillardin (1994); Sakai and Tani (1992); Agaphonov *et al.* (1994); Davidow *et al.* (1987); Li *et al.* (1993).

somewhere on the *S. cerevisiae* lineage between points A and C.

The arrangement of one set of adjacent genes in Saccharomyces kluyveri (PET56-HIS3-YPL118W; Figure 2c; Weinstock and Strathern, 1993) indicates that genome duplication in S. cerevisiae occurred after S. kluyveri and S. cerevisiae diverged. This is consistent with S. kluyveri having only seven chromosomes (eight in one strain; Vaughan-Martini et al., 1993; Weinstock and Strathern, 1993), and places the whole-genome duplication somewhere between points B and C (Figure 3).

Figure 3 suggests that several other major changes in ploidy may have occurred during ascomycete evolution. The clearest example is the comparison of *K. blattae* to its close relative *K. phaffii*, which contains approximately twice as much DNA and twice as many chromosomes (Sor and Fukuhara, 1989). A ploidy change may also have occurred between *K. delphensis* and its close relative *C. glabrata* (genetically haploid; Whelan, 1987; Doi *et al.*, 1992), which have similar genome sizes but 9 and 14 PFGE bands, respectively. Other apparent substantial changes are marked by aster-

isks in Figure 3. Sor and Fukuhara (1989) reported a wide range of genome sizes and chromosome numbers in *K. marxianus* var. *marxianus*, and some strains (such as CBS 1553 with 12 chromosomes and 18·0 megabases) may be tetraploid with respect to others.

Many asexual ascomycete species such as C. albicans appear to be permanently stuck in a diploid state. Given sufficient time, an asexual diploid genome would be expected to undergo 'haploidization' (Ohno, 1970) as its alleles diverge in sequence from one another, or allele deletions occur. In C. albicans alleles are highly similar in sequence (Miyasaki et al., 1994), but some divergence is apparent in terms of the sizes of allelic chromosomes (Chu et al., 1993). Whether asexual lineages can persist for long times has been questioned (Berbee and Taylor, 1993) but if they can, haploidization will cause gene order changes as in Figure 1. It is possible that repeated cycles of long periods of asexuality followed by sexual exchanges could result in multiple successive genome duplications followed by downsizing, with consequent turnover of the gene order during each cycle.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The relationship shown in Figure 2d was first noted by Bobby Baum (Yeast Update 4.6, March 1996). We thank P. Philippsen for *Ashbya* information, and two anonymous reviewers for helpful comments. This study was supported by Forbairt and the European Union biotechnology programme.

NOTE ADDED IN PROOF

Recent EMBL database updates include three further examples of pairs of adjacent genes in *K. lactis* that are distributed on sister blocks in *S. cerevisiae*, similar to those in Figure 2b. These are accession numbers U93209 (ARG8→ ←KRE1, corresponding to block 49 on yeast chromosomes XIV and XV), AF023920 (←YDR101C PDA1→, block 13 on chromosomes IV and V), and AF022776 (UBP2→ YDR372C→, block 23 on chromosomes IV and XV).

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