The *TIME FOR COFFEE* Gene Maintains the Amplitude and Timing of Arabidopsis Circadian Clocks[™]

Anthony Hall,^{a,1} Ruth M. Bastow,^{a,1,2} Seth J. Davis,^{a,3} Shigeru Hanano,^{a,3} Harriet G. McWatters,^{a,4} Victoria Hibberd,^a Mark R. Doyle,^b Sibum Sung,^b Karen J. Halliday,^c Richard M. Amasino,^b and Andrew J. Millar^{a,5}

- ^a Department of Biological Sciences, University of Warwick, Coventry CV4 7AL, United Kingdom
- ^b Department of Biochemistry and Program in Cellular and Molecular Biology, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin 53706
- ^c School of Biological Sciences, University of Bristol, Bristol BS8 1UG, United Kingdom

Plants synchronize developmental and metabolic processes with the earth's 24-h rotation through the integration of circadian rhythms and responses to light. We characterize the *time for coffee* (*tic*) mutant that disrupts circadian gating, photoperiodism, and multiple circadian rhythms, with differential effects among rhythms. *TIC* is distinct in physiological functions and genetic map position from other rhythm mutants and their homologous loci. Detailed rhythm analysis shows that the chlorophyll *a/b*-binding protein gene expression rhythm requires *TIC* function in the mid to late subjective night, when human activity may require coffee, in contrast to the function of *EARLY-FLOWERING3* (*ELF3*) in the late day to early night. *tic* mutants misexpress genes that are thought to be critical for circadian timing, consistent with our functional analysis. Thus, we identify *TIC* as a regulator of the clock gene circuit. In contrast to *tic* and *elf3* single mutants, *tic elf3* double mutants are completely arrhythmic. Even the robust circadian clock of plants cannot function with defects at two different phases.

INTRODUCTION

The circadian system includes an oscillator that generates biological rhythms with a period of ~24 h (reviewed by Hayama and Coupland, 2003; Stanewsky, 2003). In higher plants, these circadian rhythms control many processes, including the emission of floral fragrances (Kolosova et al., 2001), elongation growth (Dowson-Day and Millar, 1999; Jouve et al., 1999), photoperiodism (Yanovsky and Kay, 2003), and the expression of \sim 6% of RNAs in the model plant Arabidopsis (Harmer et al., 2000; Schaffer et al., 2001). The period length under constant environmental conditions has been a useful experimental tool, for example, in identifying mutants that affect the oscillator (Millar et al., 1995), although period also is modulated by light signaling pathways (reviewed by Hayama and Coupland, 2003). The latter normally mediate the entrainment of the whole circadian system to the 24-h period of the environmental day/night cycle, so alterations in the circadian period are not expressed directly in nature. Rather, mutations that would alter the period under constant conditions lead to an altered phase of entrainment

(Yanovsky and Kay, 2002). Thus, the entrained circadian system generates appropriate responses throughout the diurnal cycle, coupling a temporal sequence of biological processes to the rhythmic environment.

Mathematical models of gene regulation can give an oscillating solution if they include a negative feedback circuit that operates with a delay (reviewed by Goldbeter, 2002). The first loop proposed within the plant circadian clock depends on the repression of TIMING OF CAB EXPRESSION1 (TOC1) in the early subjective day by the products of LATE ELONGATED HY-POCOTYL (LHY) and CIRCADIAN CLOCK-ASSOCIATED 1 (CCA1) (Harmer et al., 2000; Alabadi et al., 2001, 2002; Mizoguchi et al., 2002). The CCA1 and LHY proteins are homologous DNA binding proteins that recognize a sequence present in the TOC1 promoter (Harmer et al., 2000; Alabadi et al., 2001) in the early subjective day (Schaffer et al., 1998; Kim et al., 2003). TOC1 expression in the late day to early night is proposed to activate the transcription of CCA1/LHY, completing the loop (Alabadi et al., 2001). The activation could be indirect, because it takes >8 h from the peak of TOC1 expression and requires at least three other genes, EARLY FLOWERING3 (ELF3) (Schaffer et al., 1998), GIGANTEA (GI) (Fowler et al., 1999), and ELF4 (Doyle et al., 2002). The latter are expressed in the evening and encode plant-specific proteins of unknown biochemical activity. gi mutants alter period (Fowler et al., 1999; Park et al., 1999), elf3 mutants are arrhythmic in light but not in darkness (Hicks et al., 1996), and elf4 mutants first lose rhythmic accuracy and then become arrhythmic in light and darkness (Doyle et al., 2002).

This diversity of phenotypes indicates that the cognate wildtype genes have different functions in the clock regulatory net-

Article, publication date, and citation information can be found at www.plantcell.org/cgi/doi/10.1105/tpc.013730.

¹ These authors contributed equally to this work.

 $^{^2\,\}mbox{Current}$ address: John Innes Centre, Norwich Research Park, Colney, Norwich NR4 7UH, UK.

³ Current address: Max Planck Institute for Plant Breeding Research, Carl-von-Linné-Weg 10, D-50829 Köln, Germany.

⁴ Current address: Department of Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford OX1 3RB, UK.

⁵To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail andrew. millar@warwick.ac.uk; fax 44-024-7652 3701.

^[W]Online version contains Web-only data.

work. Mutants in these evening-expressed genes can all have elongated hypocotyls, however, suggesting that their wild-type functions have some overlap. By contrast, the *lhy cca1* double mutant has a short hypocotyl (Alabadi et al., 2002). Arabidopsis *PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR* genes, with sequence similarity to *TOC1*, also are expressed rhythmically and affect hypocotyl elongation and circadian period and/or amplitude when overexpressed (Matsushika et al., 2002; Sato et al., 2002) or disrupted (Eriksson et al., 2003), although their exact circadian function is unknown.

Here, we describe *time for coffee* (*tic*), a circadian mutant of Arabidopsis that has phenotypes affecting many aspects of biological rhythms and photoperiodism. We located *TIC* function to the mid to late subjective night, a phase at which any human activity often requires coffee, by testing its phase of action within the circadian cycle, its regulation of other clock-related genes, and its interaction with *elf3*. This spectrum of phenotypes indicates that *TIC* is important in the generation of circadian rhythms.

RESULTS

tic Reduces the Amplitude and Accuracy of Circadian Rhythms

tic was identified in an ethyl methanesulfonate—mutagenized population of the CHLOROPHYLL a/b-BINDING PROTEIN gene promoter: LUCIFERASE (CAB:LUC) transgenic line by its altered pattern of reporter gene expression under constant light. The observed tic phenotype was a very-low-amplitude luminescence rhythm (see Figure 1C of Millar et al., 1995). The tic phenotype segregated as a monogenic recessive trait in the F1 and F2 generations of successive backcrosses to the CAB:LUC parent (data not shown). Because it is fully recessive, the mutation is potentially caused by an absence of TIC function.

We tested several circadian rhythms to characterize the mutant and to allow comparisons with other clock mutants. Seedlings were grown under 12-h-light/12-h-dark cycles (12L:12D) at constant temperature to entrain the circadian clock and then transferred to constant conditions to reveal circadian rhythms. Ambient lighting affects all circadian clocks, so we tested rhythms under various light conditions. We confirmed the low amplitude of CAB:LUC luminescence rhythms in tic seedlings under constant bright white light (LL; Figure 1A), dim red plus blue light (R+B; Figure 1C), and dim red light (data not shown). The mean level of CAB expression remained within the wild-type range in all conditions, so drastically altered expression levels did not conceal ongoing rhythms. Rather, the rhythms that were detected in tic mutants lost amplitude after 2 to 3 days (referred to as "damping"), whereas the wild type remained robustly rhythmic under all conditions (Figures 1A and 1C).

Mathematical analysis confirmed that rhythms in *tic* seedlings were significantly weaker than those in the wild type: only 1 of 20 and 4 of 46 *tic* seedlings gave rhythms within the wild-type range of robustness in LL (see supplemental data online) and R+B (Figure 1D), respectively. Although the detected rhythms were weaker than those seen in the wild type, they were stronger than those detected in arrhythmic mutants such as *elf3* (McWatters et al., 2000), because at least 70% of

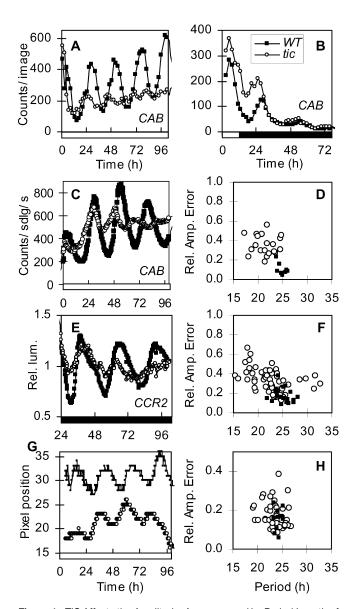


Figure 1. *TIC* Affects the Amplitude, Accuracy, and/or Period Length of Multiple Circadian Rhythms.

Transgenic seedlings carrying the *LUC* reporter genes indicated were entrained under 12L:12D cycles for 7 days, after which luminescence (Counts) was monitored in the wild type (WT; closed squares) and in *tic* (open circles).

- (A) CAB:LUC under constant white light.
- (B) CAB:LUC under one LD cycle followed by DD.
- (C) CAB:LUC under R+B.
- (E) CCR2:LUC under DD.
- (G) Leaf movements were monitored under constant white light.
- (D), (F), and (H) Mathematical analysis of experiments represented in (C), (E), and (G), respectively. Period estimates for individual seedlings [D] and [F]) and leaves (H) are plotted against their relative amplitude errors (Rel. Amp. Error).

Open bars indicate light intervals, and closed bars indicate dark intervals. The data shown represent mean luminescence from representative pools of 10 to 14 seedlings ([A] and [B]), mean luminescence (C) or normalized luminescence (Rel. lum.; [E]) from 17 to 45 individual seedling records, or representative traces of vertical leaf positions (Pixel position; [G]) from images of 11 wild-type and 41 tic leaves.

tic seedlings produced a period in the circadian range under all conditions. The mean period of the CAB expression rhythm in tic was shorter than that in the wild type: 21.8 \pm 0.7 h (SE) for tic in LL versus 23.9 \pm 0.2 h for the wild type, and 20.9 \pm 0.3 h for tic in R+B versus 26.1 \pm 0.2 h for the wild type. In each case, the variance of period was significantly greater in tic than in the wild type, as demonstrated by the F statistic (P < 0.005 in each case). The tic mutation profoundly affected several circadian characteristics, consistent with a function for TIC in the circadian clock that controls CAB expression in the light.

When plants were transferred to constant darkness (DD), tic seedlings showed a clear peak of rhythmic CAB:LUC expression at a phase \sim 5 h earlier than did wild-type seedlings (Figure 1B). The decrease in mean CAB expression level was unchanged in tic (Figure 1B), so circadian period cannot be assessed with this marker under DD. Expression of COLD AND CIRCADIAN REGULATED2 (CCR2; also known as AtGRP7) did not show such damping in wild-type plants under DD. tic mutants had a shortened period of CCR2 expression, with an average period of 21.3 \pm 0.41 h compared with 25.0 \pm 0.35 h in the wild type (Figures 1E and 1F). CCR2 expression rhythms also lost amplitude in tic mutants during the DD time course, which was reflected in the fact that only 38 of 81 tic seedlings had a CCR2 expression rhythm within the wild-type range of robustness. Therefore, tic affects clock function in both light and darkness. However, a greater proportion of tic mutants had robust CCR2 expression in DD than had robust CAB expression in the light, and the initial phase of CCR2 expression in tic was not obviously different from that in the wild type (Figure 1E), in contrast to the early phase of CAB expression.

We tested rhythms of leaf movement in LL as an independent rhythmic marker. Again, tic plants showed a broader range of periods than did wild-type plants (Figures 1G and 1H), but the mean period was longer (25.5 \pm 0.3 h) than in the wild type (23.8 \pm 0.1 h) and the majority of tic leaf movement rhythms (35 of 41) were within the wild-type range of robustness, in contrast to CAB expression rhythms. Rhythms of CCR2 expression in R+B (see supplemental data online) also showed a high percentage of robustly rhythmic tic plants (29 of 34) with a slightly longer mean period but greater variability $(23.8 \pm 0.3 \text{ h versus } 23.0 \pm 0.3 \text{ h for the wild type})$. Thus, the tic mutation reduced the robustness and/or period accuracy of circadian timing in all our assays, showing qualitatively that wild-type TIC is a component of the circadian system. However, the importance of TIC function varies among the many circadian clocks that are present in the plant, because the tic mutation altered the period and phase of some but not all circadian rhythms.

tic Affects the Circadian Gating of Light Responses

The complex interaction of light signaling with the plant circadian clock is affected specifically by mutations such as *elf3*. The pattern of *CAB* expression reflects several aspects of this interaction (Millar and Kay, 1996), including the alteration of circadian phase according to the photoperiod of the entraining day/night cycle and the rhythmic antagonism of light responses in the early subjective night (termed circadian gating). To deter-

mine whether the tic mutant affected this regulation, we monitored CAB expression under 8L:16D or 16L:8D cycles followed by a transfer to DD. The light intervals consisted of low-intensity red light to reveal any enhanced responsiveness to light. During 8L:16D cycles, the acute and circadian peaks could not be distinguished within the short photoperiod. During 16L:8D cycles, the acute response was relatively small in the wild type, and the higher circadian peak at approximately midday was followed by a decline in CAB expression (Figure 2A). Neither a circadian peak nor a decline before dusk was evident in tic seedlings under 16L:8D (Figure 2B), consistent with the low amplitude of circadian rhythms in LL (Figure 1). The peak of CAB expression in DD occurred ~4 h earlier after 8L:16D cycles than after 16L:8D in both genotypes, indicating that entrainment in tic remains sensitive to photoperiod despite its earlier average phase (Figures 2A and 2B). Both genotypes showed increased CAB expression in anticipation of dawn and acute activation of similar magnitude after each light-on signal, indicating that this light response is not enhanced in tic mutants.

We tested the circadian gating of the acute response to light by transferring plants grown in 12L:12D to DD and monitoring the induction of CAB expression after treatment at various times with a white light pulse. Wild-type seedlings showed clear circadian gating of CAB induction (Figure 2C). The size of the acute response to a light pulse varied rhythmically, with maximal responses at 28 h (coinciding with peak CAB expression in DD) and minimal responses during the subjective nights at 14 h and 38 to 40 h (Figure 2C) (Millar and Kay, 1996; McWatters et al., 2000). Light pulses at all phases activated CAB expression in tic seedlings (Figure 2C). The maximal acute response occurred at an earlier phase (24 h) but reached a level similar to that of the wild type (Figure 2C). The smallest acute response in tic (at 14 h) was fourfold larger than the wild-type minima; for comparison, the acute response in elf3 at 14 h was 15-fold greater than that in the wild type (McWatters et al., 2000). Therefore, tic showed a partial defect in circadian gating: the altered waveform of CAB expression at the end of a long photoperiod (Figure 2B) is consistent with the mutant's failure to suppress light responses fully at this phase.

Genetic Mapping

The tic mutation was mapped to chromosome III by scoring the early-phase phenotype of CAB:LUC in DD in the F2 generation after a cross of tic to the Columbia accession (see Methods). tic is not allelic with elf3, which maps to chromosome II, but it is linked to an ELF3-like sequence named ESSENCE OF ELF3 CON-SENSUS (EEC) (Liu et al., 2001). Given the phenotypic similarities between tic and elf3, EEC was a candidate gene for TIC. First, we created a cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence marker that segregated in our mapping population based on genomic sequence in the upstream region of EEC. Three recombination events were present between EEC and tic in a population of 46 tic mutants. Second, rhythms of leaf movement and gene expression were very similar to those seen in the wild type (data not shown), unlike the tic phenotype, in the transgenic line eec-1 that carried a homozygous T-DNA insertion within the EEC coding region (see supplemental data online). Third, the F1 progeny

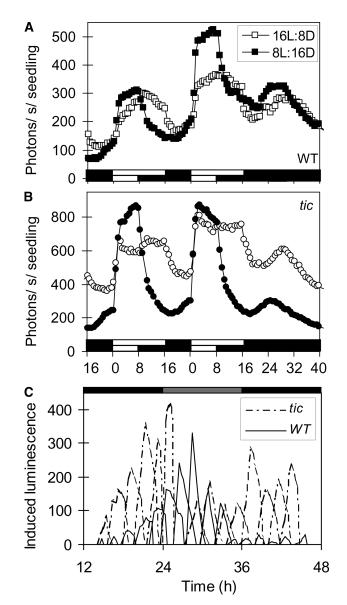


Figure 2. *TIC* Is Required for the Diurnal and Gated Regulation of *CAB* Expression.

(A) and (B) Wild-type (WT) (A) and tic (B) seedlings were entrained to either 16L:8D (open symbols) or 8L:16D (closed symbols). CAB:LUC luminescence was monitored under red light/dark cycles with the same photoperiod for 3 days before transfer to DD. Open bars indicate light intervals, and closed bars indicate dark intervals. Data shown represent means of luminescence from 16 to 24 individual seedling records.

(C) Wild-type (solid lines) or *tic* (dashed lines) seedlings were entrained to standard 12L:12D cycles and transferred to DD at 12 h after lights on (time 12 h). Replicate samples of 16 to 24 seedlings were exposed to 20 min of white light every 2 h. *CAB:LUC* luminescence was monitored for 2 h before and 4 h after the light pulse. The mean acute response (Induced luminescence) was calculated by subtracting of each seedling's prepulse luminescence. The black bar indicates subjective night, and the gray bar indicates subjective day, both in constant darkness.

of a cross between *tic* and *eec-1* showed rhythms of *CCR2* gene expression that were indistinguishable from those of wild-type controls (data not shown). Thus, *tic* is not an *EEC* allele.

tic Mutants Are Early Flowering and Have Altered Morphology

Arabidopsis flowers seasonally, partly in response to daylength. The photoperiodic mechanism depends on the circadian gating of *CONSTANS* (*CO*) activation by light (reviewed by Yanovsky and Kay, 2003). Because *tic* affected the gated light induction of *CAB*, we tested flowering time in *tic* plants under long and short photoperiods to determine if the *tic* mutation altered this photoperiodic response. Most wild-type Arabidopsis lines are facultative long-day plants (Figure 3C) that flower with fewer leaves in long days than in short days. *tic* was early flowering and insensitive to photoperiod, because it flowered with fewer leaves than its parent line in long and short days (Figure 3C). The C24 genetic background of the *tic* mutant delayed its flowering compared with the Columbia accession; otherwise, the photoperiodic defect in *tic* was broadly comparable to that of aphotoperiodic mutants such as *elf3* (Figure 3C).

Although elf3 plants share some circadian phenotypes with tic mutants, the mutants' morphology is strikingly different. elf3 seedlings have elongated hypocotyls, particularly when grown in short photoperiods of white light, whereas tic hypocotyls are similar to wild-type hypocotyls or slightly shorter (Figures 3A and 3D). elf3 plants have long petioles with small leaf blades (Zagotta et al., 1992), whereas the tic rosette is close to that of the wild type in architecture but slightly smaller (Figure 3B). Both mutants are paler green than the wild type (Figure 3B), and tic plants form new leaves more slowly than do wild-type plants, especially in short days (data not shown); the latter phenotype might be masked in elf3, because it produces so few leaves. Such alterations in color and gross morphology have been noted in other clock-related mutants and attributed to altered circadian regulation and/or interactions with phytochrome B signaling (Green et al., 2002). In particular, Ihy-11 cca1-1 and Ihy RNAi cca1-1 are small, paler plants with short hypocotyls and normal leaf shape, similar to tic (Alabadi et al., 2002; Mizoguchi et al., 2002). The short-period, damping circadian rhythms of the double mutants in LL and DD also are similar to but more severe than the tic phenotypes.

Therefore, we tested hypocotyl elongation in more detail, comparing *tic* with transgenic lines that carry homozygous T-DNA insertions that disrupt the *LHY* and/or *CCA1* genes in a homogeneous genetic background (Wassilewskija). *tic* and the single *lhy* mutant had slightly reduced hypocotyl elongation in all fluence rates of red light (Figures 3E and 3F); *cca1* behaved identically to *lhy* (data not shown), whereas *elf3* has a long-hypocotyl phenotype in red light (Zagotta et al., 1996; Reed et al., 2000). *lhy cca1* showed a striking short-hypocotyl phenotype that was fluence rate dependent, indicating that *LHY* and *CCA1* negatively regulate high-fluence-rate red light signaling in the hypocotyl (Figure 3) (Alabadi et al., 2002). Therefore, the morphology of *tic* mutants is closer to that of *lhy* and *cca1*, which are defective in genes that are expressed approximately at dawn (Schaffer et al., 1998; Wang and Tobin, 1998; Alabadi

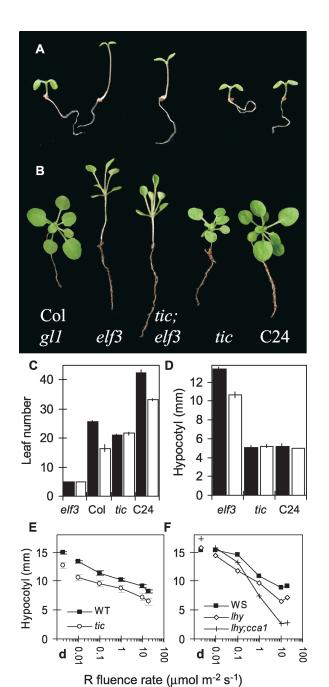


Figure 3. TIC Affects Light- and Photoperiod-Regulated Development.

(A) and (B) Morphology of the *elf3-1* and *tic* mutants, their cognate parents, and a double mutant (labeled at bottom) after 7 days (A) or 21 days (B) of growth in 8L:16D. Col, Columbia wild type.

(C) and **(D)** Flowering time **(C)** and hypocotyl elongation **(D)** of *elf3-1* and *tic* under 16L:8D (open bars) and 8L:16D (closed bars). Total fluence was equal under both photoperiods. Flowering time is scored as the number of rosette leaves when inflorescence reached 1 cm (mean \pm SE, n=16 to 29). Hypocotyl lengths are means \pm SE (n=30 to 55) after 4 days of growth.

(E) and (F) Fluence rate response curves for hypocotyl elongation after 4 days of growth under constant red light (R) at the fluence rates indicated or in darkness (d).

et al., 2001), than it is to that of *elf3*, which lacks a dusk-expressed gating function (McWatters et al., 2000; Covington et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2001).

tic Affects the CAB Clock in the Mid to Late Night

We previously used a "release" protocol to show that the circadian oscillator in elf3 was arrested by light \sim 10 h after lights on (McWatters et al., 2000), which coincides with the peak of ELF3 expression (Hicks et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2001). We repeated the release assay, comparing tic with its wild-type parent (Figure 4). Briefly, seedlings were entrained to 12L:12D before being transferred to LL at predicated dawn (0 h). Replicate samples were transferred to darkness at 2-h intervals, so a sample receiving 12 h of light would be equivalent to that shown in Figure 1B. The average time of the first peak of CAB expression in DD was plotted against the duration of the preceding light interval (Figure 4A). The peak phase in the wild type was affected only marginally by the single light-dark transition, because the peaks of CAB expression occurred close to the phases predicted from the discontinued light/dark (LD) cycle, at 28 to 30 h or 52 to 54 h after the last dark-light transition at 0 h (Figure 4A). CAB expression in tic seedlings peaked \sim 6 h earlier than that in the wild type (as in Figure 1B) in samples that received up to 15 to 17 h of light. With 19 h of light or more, the time of the peak was set by the final light-dark transitions, not by the preceding LD cycle (Figure 4A), indicating that the oscillator was arrested in the light and restarted in darkness. The apparent arrest in tic plants occurred after 9 h longer light exposure than in elf3-1 plants (McWatters et al., 2000). Thus, TIC function affects the circadian clock in the mid to late night phase and not at the dusk phase when ELF3 functions.

We then tested tic mutants in a release assay after entrainment to warm 24°C/cold 18°C (WC) cycles in constant light instead of LD cycles at a constant 22°C. Previously, this treatment had clearly restored free-running circadian oscillations to plants carrying the weak allele elf3-7, although their CAB expression was completely arrhythmic in LL (McWatters et al., 2000; Reed et al., 2000). The phase of CAB expression under DD in the wild type was set largely by the entraining WC cycle, with little modification by the final light-dark transition (Figure 4B), similar to the result after LD entrainment (Figure 4A). Plants that were held for 4 h or 30 to 32 h in constant conditions had an intermediate phase of CAB expression that was not observed after LD entrainment (Figure 4B). The fact that the light-dark transition had reset the circadian clock of these plants indicates that WC entrainment left the circadian clock more sensitive to the light-dark transition than did LD entrainment. tic plants that were entrained to WC cycles and held for up to 4 h in constant condi-

⁽E) tic mutants (open circles) compared with the C24 parent (closed squares).

⁽F) T-DNA insertion mutants *lhy* (open diamonds) and *lhy cca1* (crosses) compared with the Wassilewskija parent (WS; closed squares). Data are means \pm SE (n=30 to 35); SE bars are smaller than the symbols in **(F)**. WT, wild type.

tions peaked at the same intermediate phase in DD as the wild type. Thus, WC cycles corrected the early phase of *CAB* expression observed in *tic* plants under LD cycles (Figure 4A). *CAB* expression reverted to an early phase in *tic* plants kept for up to 16 h in constant conditions (Figure 4B). After 18 h or more under constant conditions, phase was set again by the final light-dark transition, consistent with the result after LD entrainment (Figure 4B). Thus, the *tic* mutation severely affected the circadian clock that controls *CAB* expression in a manner that could not be rescued by a light-independent entraining signal.

TIC Affects Distinct Circadian Components from ELF3

The release assays (Figure 4) showed that *TIC* functioned in the mid to late night. The circadian gating assay (Figure 2C), by contrast, revealed a gating defect in *tic* that was manifest approximately at dusk, similar to the *elf3* defect, raising the possibility that *TIC* and *ELF3* functioned together at the dusk phase. To resolve these two possibilities, we constructed and characterized *tic elf3-1*. Double mutant plants have the elongated hypocotyl and rosette architecture of *elf3* but at the reduced size of *tic* (Figures 3A and 3B). The absence of epistasis indicated

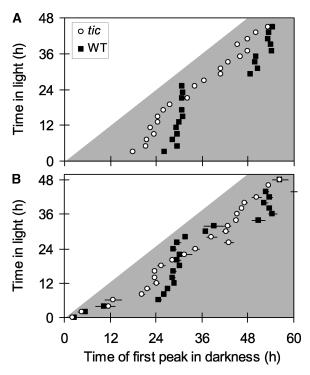


Figure 4. Release Assays Show That the Clock in *tic* Arrests in the Subjective Morning.

Wild-type (WT; closed squares) and tic (open circles) seedlings were entrained for 7 days to 12L:12D cycles at constant 22°C (A) or for 12 h at 24°C and 12 h at 18°C in LL (B). At 0 h (subjective dawn), all seedlings were transferred to LL and 22°C (open area). Replicate samples of 10 to 16 seedlings were transferred to DD and 22°C (shaded area) at 2-h intervals, and CAB:LUC luminescence was monitored. Data shown represent mean phases of peak luminescence \pm SE (most error bars are smaller than the symbols).

that *TIC* and *ELF3* have at least partly independent functions. In LL, *CAB* expression of double mutant seedlings was not distinguishable from the complete arrhythmia of the *elf3* parent (Figure 5A).

Both single mutants produced a peak of CAB expression at an early phase in DD (Figure 5B) and showed clear anticipation of dawn in all LD cycles tested (Figures 5C and 5D). In DD, populations of the double mutant appeared completely arrhythmic after entrainment under all conditions tested, including R+B (Figure 5B), low red light (see supplemental data online), and bright white light (see supplemental data online). Individual plants exhibited a variety of fluctuations with few or no circadian characteristics (see supplemental data online). Under LD cycles, CAB expression in the double mutant formed a square wave without anticipation of light-dark transitions (Figure 5C), in contrast to the wild type and single mutants. Circadian regulation is required for anticipation, whereas the square wave observed is consistent with a response to light that lacks any circadian component. The double mutant phenotypes clearly were more severe than those of either parent, again indicating that TIC and ELF3 affect rhythmic regulation at least in part by different mechanisms. We tested CAB expression in the double mutant during and after temperature entrainment but found no consistent rhythms or anticipation of temperature transitions (data not shown). The double mutant abolished circadian function as completely as any mutant genotype yet described, comparable to plants that overexpress CCA1 and LHY (Schaffer et al., 1998; Wang and Tobin, 1998).

TIC Affects the Expression of Candidate Clock Components

We tested the accumulation of transcripts that encode candidate clock components in the single tic and elf3 mutants and in tic elf3 plants transferred from LD cycles to constant light. Figure 6 shows that CCA1 and LHY RNA levels peaked at approximately the time of actual and predicted lights on in the wild type, whereas TOC1 and GI RNA levels peaked at the end of the day (10 h after lights on), as described previously (Schaffer et al., 1998; Wang and Tobin, 1998; Fowler et al., 1999; Strayer et al., 2000). CCA1 expression in tic reached slightly lower peak levels than that in the wild type before and after lights on (Figure 6A) and showed a normal pattern of diurnal regulation. The TOC1 RNA level in tic plants was normal before dawn, increased slightly after dawn, and reached almost its peak level at 6 h after dawn, when the wild type hardly expressed TOC1 (Figure 6B). elf3 plants accumulated very little CCA1 RNA at any phase, reaching ~10% of the wild-type peak at 2 h after dawn: this pattern is similar to the weak, light-induced expression of CCA1 in elf4 mutants (Doyle et al., 2002).

The pattern of *TOC1* RNA abundance in *elf3* mutants was very similar to that in *tic* plants, so the effect of the *tic* mutation may be similar to the severe reduction of *CCA1* expression in the *elf3* mutant. The maximal *TOC1* RNA level in *tic* and *elf3* mutants was approximately half that in the wild type, resulting in a 5- to 10-fold lower amplitude of rhythmic *TOC1* expression overall. Peak levels of *LHY* transcript were reduced approximately twofold in *tic* mutants, although the peak time remained

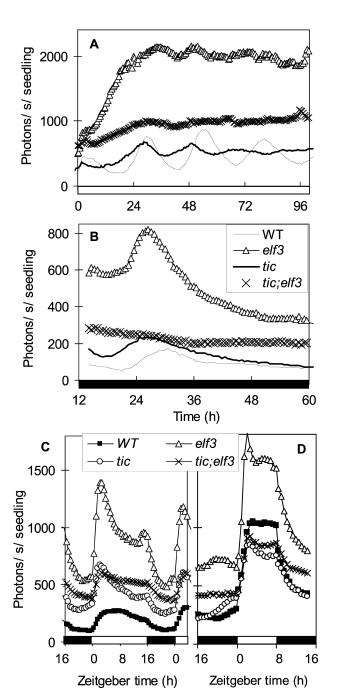


Figure 5. CAB2:LUC Luminescence Is Arrhythmic in tic elf3-1.

(A) and (B) Seedlings of the C24 parent (fine line), tic (heavy line), elf3-1 (open triangles), and tic elf3-1 (crosses) were grown in standard 12L: 12D conditions. CAB:LUC luminescence was monitored under constant R+B (as in Figure 1C) (A) or DD (as in Figure 1B) (B). Data presented are means of 22 to 25 individual seedling traces. SE values (not shown) are smaller than the symbols representing the double mutant in all cases. WT, wild type.

(C) and **(D)** Seedlings of the C24 parent (closed squares), *tic* (open circles), *elf3-1* (open triangles), and *tic elf3-1* (crosses) were entrained to and *CAB:LUC* luminescence was monitored under 16L:8D **(C)** or 8L: 16D **(D)**. Open bars indicate light intervals, and closed bars indicate dark intervals. Data shown represent means of 12 individual seedling traces.

just after dawn, as in the wild type (Figure 6C). *GI* RNA levels in *tic* mutants peaked well before those in the wild type, at a level fourfold lower than in the wild type. Thus, rhythms of *LHY* and *GI* transcript accumulation also had lower amplitudes in the *tic* mutants.

tic elf3 showed very-low-amplitude rhythms for both *CCA1* and *TOC1* transcripts (Figures 6D and 6E). The mean levels varied between experiments, possibly indicating that the clock gene network in the double mutant can be driven by environmental or developmental signals, which the wild-type network is buffered against. *CCA1* RNA levels peaked during the day, as in elf3, rather than at dawn, as in the wild type. The peak level was intermediate between the low level in elf3 and the nearly normal peak in tic. TOC1 RNA accumulation in the double mutant was similar to that in the single mutants.

DISCUSSION

We have identified TIC as a component of the Arabidopsis circadian system. The tic mutant affected a range of phenotypes, including free-running circadian rhythms in light and darkness (Figure 1), rhythmic gating of light-activated CAB expression (Figure 2), hypocotyl elongation, and early, aphotoperiodic flowering (Figure 3). However, the morphological phenotype of tic was distinct from that of elf3, a previously described aphotoperiodic and gating mutant. tic mutants are morphologically more similar to Ihy and cca1 (Figure 3). A release assay for circadian clock function (Figure 4) indicated that TIC affects CAB rhythms in the mid to late night, in contrast to ELF3, which both functions and is expressed approximately at dusk (McWatters et al., 2000; Covington et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2001). The RNA accumulation patterns of candidate clock components were reduced to low amplitudes in tic (Figure 6). tic elf3 showed additive morphological, rhythmic, and gene expression phenotypes (Figures 3, 5, and 6), consistent with the ELF3 and TIC functions affecting different components of the circadian system.

tic Affects Rhythmic Markers Differentially

The *tic* mutation affects *CAB* expression rhythms more than the rhythms of leaf movement (Figures 1G and 1H) and *CCR2* expression (see supplemental data online) in the light. The latter have increased variability of period but retain a mean period close to or slightly longer than the wild type, in contrast to the short period of *CAB* expression in *tic*. This effect is unlikely to reflect a trivial difference in the light intensity or sample preparation for leaf-movement assays, because the period of *CAB* expression was affected in both dim and bright light (Figures 1A and 1C) and because the *CCR2* expression assays were conducted in exactly the same conditions as the *CAB* assays that showed a short period (Figure 1C). Rather, the *tic* phenotype emphasizes the heterogeneity of circadian rhythms in wild-type plants.

Plants and animals contain many copies of the circadian clock mechanism, probably one per cell; the clocks in plants are not tightly coupled to each other or to a central pacemaker (Thain et al., 2000). Wild-type plants maintain circadian rhythms

with different periods (Sai and Johnson, 1999; Hall et al., 2002; Michael et al., 2003), indicating a subtle difference in the underlying circadian oscillators. For example, *CCR2* expression can have a different period than *CAB* and *CCA1* expression (Eriksson et al., 2003). In several such cases, the rhythms are known to be expressed in different cell types (Hennessey and Field, 1992; Thain et al., 2002). Mutations in candidate clock components typically affect all of the rhythms tested, indicating that a qualitatively similar biochemical mechanism underlies the clocks of all cells. The common mechanism is likely to be quantitatively modulated in a cell-specific manner, but the nature of

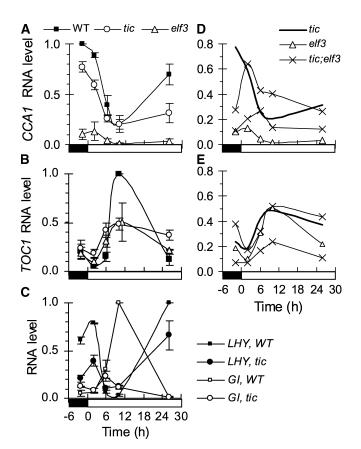


Figure 6. TIC Is Required for the Normal Regulation of Clock-Associated RNAs.

Seedlings were grown in standard 12L:12D conditions followed by constant light and harvested at the times indicated. Total RNA was assayed by real-time reverse transcriptase–mediated PCR for the accumulation of CCA1 RNA (**[A]** and **[D]**), TOC1 RNA (**[B]** and **[E]**), or GI and LHY RNA (**C**) relative to an internal ACTIN control. In (**A**) and (**B**), symbols represent means \pm SE of the C24 parent (closed squares), tic (open circles), and elf3-1 (open triangles). In (**C**), symbols represent RNA of LHY (closed symbols) and GI (open symbols) in tic (large symbols) and the C24 parent (small symbols). In (**D**) and (**E**), RNA levels in the double mutant had consistently low amplitude but were variable in mean levels, so the results of two independent experiments are shown: tic elf3-1 (crosses) compared with the single mutants tic (solid line) and elf3-1 (open triangles). The maximum level in the wild type (WT) was set to 1 for each experiment.

this modulation is unclear, not least because the spatial expression patterns of clock-associated genes are poorly described. In general, the circadian rhythms assayed in whole plants reflect a sample of the circadian clocks. Results derived from different rhythms must be compared with caution, because the sample of clocks will differ among rhythms. Specifically, CCR2:LUC is expressed in a wide range of cells, many of which are outside of the mesophyll layers that express CAB: LUC (our unpublished results). The differential effects we observed in tic could be attributable to an allele-specific effect, such as a local expression defect in the mesophyll. More likely, TIC function in the wild type may be most important for controlling the circadian period in CAB-expressing cells, although it is required for accurate and/or robust rhythms in all cells.

TIC Functions in the Circadian Clock

Our results suggest that TIC contributes to the amplitude of circadian clocks. All of the transcripts of candidate clock components showed low-amplitude rhythms in tic (Figure 6). If these components directly regulate output genes, then low-amplitude oscillations in these components will cause low-amplitude output rhythms. Consistent with this notion, LHY and CCA1 are thought to bind to the CAB and CCR2 promoters, from which we observed low-amplitude expression rhythms (Wang and Tobin, 1998; Green and Tobin, 1999; Harmer et al., 2000; Michael and McClung, 2002). The amplitude of output rhythms need not directly reflect the oscillator's amplitude if a more complex output pathway is involved, as may be the case for leaf movement. Variation in the period of all rhythms will be increased, as we observed, because the noise inherent in biological systems will have a greater impact on a low-amplitude regulator than on a higher amplitude regulator, all else being equal.

The release assay (Figure 4) provides a more discriminating, phase-specific test for clock function by using the rhythm of CAB expression. A defect in circadian timing appeared late in the subjective day in elf3 mutants under these conditions (McWatters et al., 2000) but in the mid to late night in tic mutants (Figure 4). Thus, wild-type TIC functions ~9 h after ELF3 in the circadian clock that controls CAB expression. The loss of amplitude in other rhythms presumably is the result of a smaller effect at the same, mid to late night phase, although TIC could have additional functions at other phases. The CAB gating defect in tic (Figure 2C) is obvious 5 h earlier than the CAB rhythm arrest, raising the possibility that the effect on gating is secondary. The early flowering of tic in 8L:16D is likely to result from an early phase of the photoperiodic response rhythm, such as that caused by the early expression of CO RNA (Figure 3) (Yanovsky and Kay, 2002).

Two factors complicate the inference of a mechanism of TIC function. First, the phase of oscillator arrest in tic mutants, 19 h after lights on, might best be compared with a phase of \sim 24 h in the wild type, because the phase of CAB expression in tic is \sim 5 h early. Second, our whole-seedling RNA samples include transcripts from many cells that do not express CAB, so the RNA data do not necessarily reflect the mid to late night arrest. Nonetheless, the early peak of TOC1 RNA is consistent with reduced repression by CCA1 and LHY (Alabadi et al., 2001). It is

unclear whether the minor reductions in *LHY* and *CCA1* RNA accumulation in *tic* are sufficient to cause the observed derepression of *TOC1*, so post-transcriptional effects and/or effects on other, similar repressors are possible. The *tic* mutation also must affect unknown activators of *TOC1* and *GI*, because neither transcript reaches its wild-type peak level in *tic* mutants.

TIC is unlikely to function specifically in light signaling. This is because *tic* mutants can show similar circadian defects under all lighting conditions (Figure 1). Depending on the rhythm tested (see above), the phase of CAB expression had a normal dependence on the entraining photoperiod (Figure 2), the acute light activation of CAB expression reached levels close to wild-type levels (Figures 2 and 5), and the hypocotyl-elongation phenotype in *tic* had little dependence on fluence rate (Figure 3). Only the restoration of a wild-type phase of CAB expression by temperature entrainment in LL (Figure 4B) linked TIC function to a clock component(s) that is more important for light than for temperature input.

Arrhythmia in tic elf3

A function for TIC in the mid to late night also explains the phenotypes of tic elf3. We constructed the double mutants because the overtly similar phenotypes of elf3 and tic (defective gating and early phase of CAB expression in DD) suggested that the two mutations might show an epistatic interaction if TIC, like ELF3, affected the circadian clock via the gating mechanism. Almost all phenotypes in the double mutant were additive or intermediate between the single mutant parents (intermediate morphology [Figure 3]; complete arrhythmia [Figure 5]; intermediate CCA1 expression levels [Figure 6]), consistent with the two genes affecting the clock at different phases through different molecular components. The pattern of TOC1 expression, by contrast, was similar in tic and elf3 single mutants and in their double mutants (Figure 6), indicating that both genes regulate TOC1 by the same, or overlapping, mechanisms. This is the result expected if the strong elf3-1 mutation reduced CCA1 transcript levels to such an extent (Figure 6) that CCA1 was no longer an effective repressor of TOC1. Any effect of tic in altering the repressive function of CCA1 would have little or no effect on TOC1 expression in the elf3 background. tic elf3 was as fully arrhythmic as any Arabidopsis mutant described to date (Figures 5 and 6), presumably because the circadian cycle cannot function with defects in two distinct phases.

METHODS

Plant Materials

tic was identified as a low-amplitude ethyl methanesulfonate mutant of the CHLOROPHYLL a/b-BINDING PROTEIN gene promoter. LUCIFERASE (CAB:LUC) transgenic line in the C24 ecotype of Arabidopsis thaliana, as described (Millar et al., 1995). tic was backcrossed at least three times to the CAB:LUC parent before the physiological tests described. The CCR2:LUC construct (Doyle et al., 2002) was transformed into tic and its C24 parent line; several independent transformants gave essentially identical results. Transgenic CAB:LUC lines in the elf3-1 background have been described (Hicks et al., 1996) and were crossed to tic mutants

to produce *tic elf3*. Putative double mutants were selected by their flowering time and morphology. Their genotypes were confirmed using a cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence marker for the *elf3-1* mutant allele (Hicks et al., 2001) and markers closely linked to *tic* (see below). Wassilewskija transgenic lines carrying insertions in the *EEC*, *LHY*, and *CCA1* genes (referred to as eec, *lhy*, and *cca1*) were identified in the Arabidopsis Functional Genomics Consortium population (Krysan et al., 1999). Allele numbers *eec-1*, *lhy-21*, and *cca1-11* distinguish them from previously described alleles. The T-DNA locations can be viewed in the supplemental data online: *cca1-11*, 80 bp upstream from the translation start codon; *lhy-21*, 100 bp after the start of the seventh exon; and *eec-1*, 100 bp after the start of the first intron. No cognate RNA transcripts were detectable by reverse transcriptase–mediated PCR in homozygous mutants (data not shown).

Growth Conditions

Seedlings for luminescence or leaf-movement analysis were grown under 12-h-light/12-h-dark cycles (12L:12D) as described (Dowson-Day and Millar, 1999; Thain et al., 2000). Light sources were as described (McWatters et al., 2000; Doyle et al., 2002) except that dim red light (Figures 2A and 2B) was provided by red light–emitting diodes (~2 μ mol·m $^{-2}$ ·s $^{-1}$). Photoperiod effects on hypocotyl growth and flowering time (Figure 3) were assessed in conditions that provided equal fluences: 8L:16D at 80 μ mol·m $^{-2}$ ·s $^{-1}$ and 16L:8D at 40 μ mol·m $^{-2}$ ·s $^{-1}$ cool-white fluorescent light. Fluence response curves for hypocotyl elongation (Figure 3) were performed on standard medium without sucrose, as described (Halliday et al., 1999). Plants for RNA analysis (Figure 6) were grown in the same conditions used for luminescence assays (Figure 1A).

Genetic Mapping

The tic mutation was mapped to chromosome III by scoring the earlyphase phenotype in DD in the F2 generation of a cross to the Columbia wild type. The phenotypic analysis was confirmed in later generations by scoring the photoperiodic defects of CAB:LUC expression under 16L:8D photoperiods. DNA from 46 mutant F2 plants was analyzed using the cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence markers g4711, EEC, and AP600. g4711 (38 centimorgan [cM] on chromosome 3) was assayed as described (http://www.arabidopsis.org); after Ddel cleavage, the C24 allele has the same banding pattern as Landsberg erecta. EEC is at positions 84,000 to 85,104 bp of clone MXL8 (28 cM), amplified with PCR primers 5'-ACCAGTGACCGTGTGAGACTGTG-3' and 5'-AGAGGA-TCTAAAACTTTTTTTCGTT-3' and cleaved with Alul. AP600 is located at 439 to 1439 bp of clone MAG2 (20 cM on chromosome 3), amplified with PCR primers 5'-GTTGAAGATCATTATACTGCAGGAA-3' and 5'-TGGATGTGTAGAAGTTAACAACACA-3' and cleaved with Alul. The AP600 amplicon spans the Cereon polymorphisms CER464273 and CER464279, one of which gave an Alul-cleavable polymorphism (Jander et al., 2002). Of 92 tic chromosomes tested, 12 recombinations were observed with AP600, 5 with g4711, and 3 with EEC, giving a map position of \sim 32 cM on the Arabidopsis genetic map.

Rhythm Analysis

Luminescence levels were measured and analyzed either by ultra-low-light video imaging (Thain et al., 2000) or with an automated luminometer (McWatters et al., 2000). Leaf movement rhythms were measured by time-lapse imaging (Dowson-Day and Millar, 1999). In each case, rhythmic traces were scored by fast Fourier transform-non-linear least squares analysis (Plautz et al., 1997) as having a circadian period if the strongest period detected was in the 15- to 35-h range (Dowson-Day and Millar, 1999). Mean periods and standard errors were variance-weighted

Table 1. Primers Used in This Study

Primer	Gene Number	Direction	Sequence (5' to 3')
ACT2	At5g09810	Forward	CAGTGTCTGGATCGGAGGAT
ACT2	At5g09810	Reverse	TGAACAATCGATGGACCTGA
CCA1	At2g46830	Forward	GATGATGTTGAGGCGGATG
CCA1	At2g46830	Reverse	TGGTGTTAACTGAGCTGTGAAG
LHY	At1g01060	Forward	CTTCTTCCTGTATGCGCTCC
LHY	At1g01060	Reverse	CTGGAGATTTCGAAGCCAAG
TOC1	At5g61380	Forward	TCACCATGAGCCAATGAAAA
TOC1	At5g61380	Reverse	TTGAAACTTCTCCGCCAAAC
GI	At1g22770	Forward	GGTCGACGGTTTATCCAATCTA
GI	At1g22770	Reverse	CGGACTATTCATTCCGTTCTTC
ELF3	At2g25930	Forward	ACGTTTCTGGAGAGCAAGGA
ELF3	At2g25930	Reverse	GAGCAAGAGATCCGGTGATG

(Millar et al., 1995). The variability of periods was compared using the *F* statistic based on the unweighted (arithmetic) standard deviation of period estimates. Rhythmic robustness was assessed using the relative amplitude error (RAE): a rhythm is described as being within the wild-type range of robustness if its RAE value is less than the wild-type mean RAE plus 2 SD (cf. 1 SD in Hicks et al., 1996). Release assays (Figure 4) were conducted as described (McWatters et al., 2000). All data are representative of two or three independent experiments.

Quantitative PCR Analysis

Seven-day-old seedlings that had been entrained in 12L:12D at 22°C were harvested intact into liquid nitrogen. Total RNA was isolated and treated with DNase using a Qiagen RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Crawley, UK) according to the manufacturer's instructions. One microgram of total RNA was reverse-transcribed according to the manufacturer's instructions (BD Bioscience, Cowley, UK). A total of 2.5 µL of each cDNA preparation was assayed by quantitative PCR in a LightCycler (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) using premixed buffer and CyberGold dye (Biogene, Cambridge, UK). PCR conditions for each primer set were optimized using a glass capillary MgCl₂ optimization kit (Biogene; 4 mM MgCl₂ for ACT2 and 3 mM for other primers). The primers used are listed in Table 1. The efficiency of amplification was assessed relative to an actin standard. Each RNA sample was assayed in triplicate. RNAs were assayed from two to three independent biological replicates. Expression levels were calculated relative to ACT2 using a comparative threshold cycle method (Applied Biosystems, 1997); levels were normalized to the maximum level of each RNA in the wild type, which was set to 1.

Upon request, materials integral to the findings presented in this publication and not available in public stock centers will be made available in a timely manner to all investigators on similar terms for noncommercial research purposes. To obtain materials, please contact Andrew J. Millar, andrew.millar@warwick.ac.uk.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to David Somers and Steve Kay for preliminary mapping data, to our colleagues and two anonymous reviewers for their input, to the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center and Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre for seed stocks, and to Nazir Shariff and Paul Goode for expert technical assistance. This work was supported by grants from the Biotechnology and Biological Science Research Council (G10325 and G15231) to A.J.M. and from the National Science Foundation (0133663 and 0209786) to R.M.A. R.M.B. was supported by a postgraduate studentship from the Gatsby Charitable Foundation. S.H. was supported in

part by a postdoctoral fellowship from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. S.J.D. is a Department of Energy Fellow of the Life Sciences Research Foundation. The luminescence imaging facility at Warwick was established with Biotechnology and Biological Science Research Council, Gatsby Charitable Foundation, and Royal Society funding to A.J.M.

Received May 16, 2003; accepted September 3, 2003.

REFERENCES

- Alabadi, D., Oyama, T., Yanovsky, M.J., Harmon, F.G., Mas, P., and Kay, S.A. (2001). Reciprocal regulation between TOC1 and LHY/ CCA1. Science 293, 880–883.
- Alabadi, D., Yanovsky, M.J., Mas, P., Harmer, S.L., and Kay, S.A. (2002). Critical role for CCA1 and LHY in maintaining circadian rhythmicity in Arabidopsis. Curr. Biol. 12, 757–761.
- **Applied Biosystems** (1997). ABI PRISM Sequence Detection System User Bulletin. (Foster City, CA: Applied Biosystems), pp. 11–15.
- Covington, M.F., Panda, S., Liu, X.L., Strayer, C.A., Wagner, D.R., and Kay, S.A. (2001). ELF3 modulates resetting of the circadian clock in Arabidopsis. Plant Cell 13, 1305–1315.
- Dowson-Day, M.J., and Millar, A.J. (1999). Circadian dysfunction causes aberrant hypocotyl elongation patterns in Arabidopsis. Plant J. 17, 63–71.
- Doyle, M.R., Davis, S.J., Bastow, R.M., McWatters, H.G., Kozma-Bognar, L., Nagy, F., Millar, A.J., and Amasino, R.M. (2002). The ELF4 gene controls circadian rhythms and flowering time in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Nature 419, 74–77.
- Eriksson, M.E., Hanano, S., Southern, M.M., Hall, A., and Millar, A.J. (2003). Response regulator homologues have complementary, light-dependent functions in the *Arabidopsis* circadian clock. Planta, in press.
- Fowler, S., Lee, K., Onouchi, H., Samach, A., Richardson, K., Coupland, G., and Putterill, J. (1999). GIGANTEA: A circadian clock-controlled gene that regulates photoperiodic flowering in Arabidopsis and encodes a protein with several possible membrane-spanning domains. EMBO J. 18, 4679–4688.
- **Goldbeter, A.** (2002). Computational approaches to cellular rhythms. Nature **420**, 238–245.
- Green, R.M., Tingay, S., Wang, Z.Y., and Tobin, E.M. (2002). Circadian rhythms confer a higher level of fitness to Arabidopsis plants. Plant Physiol. 129, 576–584.
- Green, R.M., and Tobin, E.M. (1999). Loss of the circadian clock-associated protein I in Arabidopsis results in altered clock-regulated gene expression. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 96, 4176–4179.
- Hall, A., Kozma-Bognar, L., Bastow, R.M., Nagy, F., and Millar, A.J. (2002). Distinct regulation of CAB and PHYB gene expression by similar circadian clocks. Plant J. 32, 529–537.
- Halliday, K.J., Hudson, M., Ni, M., Qin, M.M., and Quail, P.H. (1999).
 poc1: An Arabidopsis mutant perturbed in phytochrome signaling because of a T DNA insertion in the promoter of PIF3, a gene encoding a phytochrome-interacting bHLH protein. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 96, 5832–5837.
- Harmer, S.L., Hogenesch, J.B., Straume, M., Chang, H.S., Han, B., Zhu, T., Wang, X., Kreps, J.A., and Kay, S.A. (2000). Orchestrated transcription of key pathways in Arabidopsis by the circadian clock. Science 290, 2110–2113.
- **Hayama, R., and Coupland, G.** (2003). Shedding light on the circadian clock and the photoperiodic control of flowering. Curr. Opin. Plant Biol. **6,** 13–19.

- **Hennessey, T.L., and Field, C.B.** (1992). Evidence of multiple circadian oscillators in bean plants. J. Biol. Rhythms **7,** 105–113.
- Hicks, K.A., Albertson, T.M., and Wagner, D.R. (2001). EARLY FLOWERING3 encodes a novel protein that regulates circadian clock function and flowering in Arabidopsis. Plant Cell 13, 1281–1292.
- Hicks, K.A., Millar, A.J., Carré, I.A., Somers, D.E., Straume, M., Meeks-Wagner, D.R., and Kay, S.A. (1996). Conditional circadian dysfunction of the Arabidopsis early-flowering 3 mutant. Science 274, 790–792.
- Jander, G., Norris, S.R., Rounsley, S.D., Bush, D.F., Levin, I.M., and Last, R.L. (2002). Arabidopsis map-based cloning in the post-genome era. Plant Physiol. 129, 440–450.
- Jouve, L., Gaspar, T., Kevers, C., Greppin, H., and Agosti, R.D. (1999). Involvement of indole-3-acetic acid in the circadian growth of the first internode of Arabidopsis. Planta 209, 136–142.
- Kim, J.Y., Song, H.R., Taylor, B.L., and Carre, I.A. (2003). Light-regulated translation mediates gated induction of the Arabidopsis clock protein LHY. EMBO J. 22, 935–944.
- Kolosova, N., Gorenstein, N., Kish, C.M., and Dudareva, N. (2001).
 Regulation of circadian methyl benzoate emission in diurnally and nocturnally emitting plants. Plant Cell 13, 2333–2347.
- Krysan, P.J., Young, J.C., and Sussman, M.R. (1999). T-DNA as an insertional mutagen in Arabidopsis. Plant Cell **11**, 2283–2290.
- Liu, X.L., Covington, M.F., Fankhauser, C., Chory, J., and Wagner, D.R. (2001). *ELF3* encodes a circadian clock-regulated nuclear protein that functions in an Arabidopsis *PHYB* signal transduction pathway. Plant Cell **13**, 1293–1304.
- Matsushika, A., Imamura, A., Yamashino, T., and Mizuno, T. (2002). Aberrant expression of the light-inducible and circadian-regulated APRR9 gene belonging to the circadian-associated APRR1/TOC1 quintet results in the phenotype of early flowering in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Plant Cell Physiol. **43**, 833–843.
- McWatters, H.G., Bastow, R.M., Hall, A., and Millar, A.J. (2000). The ELF3 zeitnehmer regulates light signalling to the circadian clock. Nature 408, 716–720.
- Michael, T.P., and McClung, C.R. (2002). Phase-specific circadian clock regulatory elements in Arabidopsis. Plant Physiol. **130**, 627–638.
- Michael, T.P., Salome, P.A., and McClung, C.R. (2003). Two Arabidopsis circadian oscillators can be distinguished by differential temperature sensitivity. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 100, 6878–6883.
- Millar, A.J., Carré, I.A., Strayer, C.A., Chua, N.H., and Kay, S.A. (1995). Circadian clock mutants in *Arabidopsis* identified by luciferase imaging. Science **267**, 1161–1163.
- Millar, A.J., and Kay, S.A. (1996). Integration of circadian and phototransduction pathways in the network controlling CAB gene transcription in Arabidopsis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 93, 15491–15496
- Mizoguchi, T., Wheatley, K., Hanzawa, Y., Wright, L., Mizoguchi, M., Song, H.R., Carre, I.A., and Coupland, G. (2002). LHY and CCA1 are partially redundant genes required to maintain circadian rhythms in Arabidopsis. Dev. Cell **2**, 629–641.
- Park, D.H., Somers, D.E., Kim, Y.S., Choy, Y.H., Lim, H.K., Soh, M.S.,

- Kim, H.J., Kay, S.A., and Nam, H.G. (1999). Control of circadian rhythms and photoperiodic flowering by the *Arabidopsis GIGANTEA* gene. Science **285**, 1579–1582.
- Plautz, J.D., Straume, M., Stanewsky, R., Jamison, C.F., Brandes, C., Dowse, H.B., Hall, J.C., and Kay, S.A. (1997). Quantitative analysis of *Drosophila period* gene transcription in living animals. J. Biol. Rhythms 12, 204–217.
- Reed, J.W., Nagpal, P., Bastow, R.M., Solomon, K.S., Dowson-Day, M.J., Elumalai, R.P., and Millar, A.J. (2000). Independent action of ELF3 and phyB to control hypocotyl elongation and flowering time. Plant Physiol. 122, 1149–1160.
- Sai, J., and Johnson, C.H. (1999). Different circadian oscillators control Ca²⁺ fluxes and Lhcb gene expression. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 96, 11659–11663.
- Sato, E., Nakamichi, N., Yamashino, T., and Mizuno, T. (2002). Aberrant expression of the Arabidopsis circadian-regulated APRR5 gene belonging to the APRR1/TOC1 quintet results in early flowering and hypersensitiveness to light in early photomorphogenesis. Plant Cell Physiol. 43, 1374–1385.
- Schaffer, R., Landgraf, J., Monica, A., Simon, B., Larson, M., and Wisman, E. (2001). Microarray analysis of diurnal and circadian-regulated genes in Arabidopsis. Plant Cell 13, 113–123.
- Schaffer, R., Ramsay, N., Samach, A., Corden, S., Putterill, J., Carré, I.A., and Coupland, G. (1998). The late elongated hypocotyl mutation of Arabidopsis disrupts circadian rhythms and the photoperiodic control of flowering. Cell 93, 1219–1229.
- Stanewsky, R. (2003). Genetic analysis of the circadian system in *Drosophila melanogaster* and mammals. J. Neurobiol. **54**, 111–147.
- Strayer, C., Oyama, T., Schultz, T.F., Raman, R., Somers, D.E., Mas, P., Panda, S., Kreps, J.A., and Kay, S.A. (2000). Cloning of the *Arabidopsis* clock gene *TOC1*, an autoregulatory response regulator homolog. Science 289, 768–771.
- Thain, S.C., Hall, A., and Millar, A.J. (2000). Functional independence of circadian clocks that regulate plant gene expression. Curr. Biol. 10, 951–956.
- Thain, S.C., Murtas, G., Lynn, J.R., McGrath, R.B., and Millar, A.J. (2002). The circadian clock that controls gene expression in Arabidopsis is tissue specific. Plant Physiol. 130, 102–110.
- Wang, Z.-Y., and Tobin, E.M. (1998). Constitutive expression of the Circadian Clock Associated 1 (CCA1) gene disrupts circadian rhythms and suppresses its own expression. Cell 93, 1207–1217.
- Yanovsky, M.J., and Kay, S.A. (2002). Molecular basis of seasonal time measurement in Arabidopsis. Nature 419, 308–312.
- Yanovsky, M.J., and Kay, S.A. (2003). Living by the calendar: How plants know when to flower. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. 4, 265–276.
- Zagotta, M.T., Hicks, K.A., Jacobs, C.I., Young, J.C., Hangarter, R.P., and Meeks-Wagner, D.R. (1996). The Arabidopsis *ELF3* gene regulates vegetative photomorphogenesis and the photoperiodic induction of flowering. Plant J. 10, 691–702.
- Zagotta, M.T., Shannon, S., Jacobs, C., and Meeks-Wagner, D.R. (1992). Early-flowering mutants of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Aust. J. Plant Physiol. **19**, 411–418.

Supplementary figure 1. TIC differentially affects rhythmic markers

(A) Mathematical analysis of *CAB:LUC* expression data for individual seedlings (n=20) of WT (filled squares) and *tic* mutant (open circles) assayed under LL, in parallel with those shown in Fig. 1A.

(B) Mathematical analysis of *CCR2:LUC* expression data for individual seedlings (n=19-34) of WT (filled squares) and *tic* mutant (open circles) assayed under constant R+B, in parallel with those shown in Fig. 1C. (C) *CAB:LUC* luminescence of *tic;elf3-1* double mutants entrained under 16L:8D (open symbols) or 8L:16D (filled symbols). *CAB:LUC* luminescence was monitored under R:D cycles with the same photoperiod for 3 days before transfer to DD, as in Fig. 2A, 2B. Open bars, light interval; filled bars, dark interval. Data presented are means of luminescence from 16 individual seedling records.

(D, E) *CAB:LUC* luminescence of *tic;elf3-1* double mutants in DD. Data presented are relative luminescence traces from individual seedlings in one of the experiments represented by Fig. 5B, showing the variety of expression patterns in the double mutant (filled squares, crosses). These include (D) lowamplitude fluctuations with rising or falling luminescence and (E) ultradian patterns. The mean values for luminescence in *elf3-1* (open triangles) and *tic* (solid line) seedlings are shown for comparison. Filled bar, dark interval.

Supplementary figure 2. Structure and identification of *lhy*, *cca1* and *eec* mutant alleles.

T-DNA insertion alleles were identified by PCR amplification of pooled genomic DNAs using the following primers:

CCA1F: AAAGCTGAATCATCTCTTCAGCCACTAGT CCA1R: AGTCAAATGTTACAGGAAGACTATGGACA LHYF: CTCTGTTTGGCTGCTGAGAAACTTATAGA LHYR: AACCTGACATGACCAAAGAAATGTTCGGA EECF:TGGAATAGAAGCACAAAAGTCTATCTT EECR: ACACGCTCTCTTAACACGTCAAAAT

T-DNA primers: JL202/JL270

T-DNA location and orientation are shown relative to the open reading frame (wide bars) and introns (intervening line) of each gene.

