Molecular Analysis of a Transposon-Induced Deletion of the nivea Locus in Antirrhinum majus

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ABSTRACT

The transposable element Tam3 of Antirrhinum majus is capable of causing large-scale chromosomal restructuring. It induced a large deletion at the nivea locus, to produce the allele niv:529. The deletion removed the entire nivea coding region while the element remains intact with the potential to induce further rearrangements. Genetic experiments showed that the endpoint of the deletion (called x) is closely linked to nivea. The DNA sequences of niv:529, a genomic excision of Tam3 from niv:529, and the original genomic position of x have been determined. These data suggest that the deletion could have resulted from an abortive transposition or through breakage and religation.

TRANSPOSABLE elements, both prokaryotic and eukaryotic are well known for their ability to induce large and small-scale rearrangements as a result of transpositional or recombination events. Bacterial IS elements and transposons can transpose via a replicative mechanism. Association of an element with a new site of insertion is accompanied by replication of the element and integration. Intermolecular transposition results in cointegrate formation, while intramolecular transposition leads to either deletions or inversions. Inversions and deletions may also result from intramolecular recombination between elements, this process requiring host functions (reviewed by CALOS and MILLER 1980; IIDA, MEYER and ARBER 1983; HEFFRON 1983; KLECKNER 1983).

In yeast, large-scale rearrangements, induced by Ty elements and *delta* sequences, appear not to result from transposition events; instead deletions and inversions arise from intramolecular recombination, while intermolecular recombinations can also generate translocations and duplications (reviewed by ROEDER and FINK 1983).

In Drosophila melanogaster P elements are commonly found at the breakpoints of large-scale deletions and inversions (BERG, ENGELS and KREBER 1980; ENGELS and PRESTON 1984), suggesting that breakage occurs at or near elements with subsequent rearrangement of the intervening sequences, although generation of these is not necessarily associated with transposition of the elements. Another group of D. melanogaster elements, called FB, often form composite elements (TE) which may induce very large, cytologically detectable deletions of flanking sequences on excision (ISING and BLOCK 1981). MCCLINTOCK (1953, 1954), by genetic means, detected large-scale deletions of chromosomal regions flanking Ds elements in maize. These deletions occurred only in the presence of an active Ac element. Smaller-scale deletions of flanking sequences induced by Ac have also been observed (DOONER, ENGLISH and RALSTON 1988), and are apparently a result of aberrant steps during transposition.

Tam3, a transposon that moves by excision and reintegration, has also induced a variety of large-scale rearrangements, which may modify or abolish the activity of an adjacent gene: deletions, dispersions and insertions have been described at nivea (MARTIN, MACKAY and CARPENTER 1988) and an inversion at pallida (ROBBINS, CARPENTER and COEN 1989). Analysis of these rearrangements and the small sequence rearrangements resulting from excisions of Tam3 (from the nivea and pallida loci) has allowed a model for Tam3 excision and transposition to be formulated (COEN, CARPENTER and MARTIN 1986; COEN and CARPENTER 1988; ROBBINS, CARPENTER and COEN 1989). It is proposed that staggered nicks are made in the sequences immediately flanking the element which, on ligation, form hairpins. Nicking of these hairpins and the subsequent religation and DNA repair would be responsible for the small sequence alterations at Tam3 excision sites. A further aspect of this model demands a physical association between the donor and recipient sites before transposition occurs, making transposition to linked sites most likely. It is suggested that a break occurs in the flanking sequences at one end of the element, the element then invades at a new position along the chromosome, this is followed by breakage at the other end of the element and its transfer to the new integration site. An

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alternative model for plant transposable element excision has been proposed by SAEDLER and NEVERS (1985) which involves formation of a DNA-transposase complex where the inverted termini of the element are brought together. Staggered nicks occur in the sequences flanking the element which are then susceptible to the action of DNA repair enzymes, causing the small rearrangements at transposable element excision sites.

In the phenotypically unstable line J.I. 98, Tam3 has inserted in the promoter region of the nivea gene that encodes the enzyme chalcone synthase. The transposon is inserted 29 bp upstream from the TATA box and creates a 8-bp duplication of the target sequence. The phenotype of J.I. 98 is pale red because of the reduction in chalcone synthase gene expression caused by the insertion, with full red flakes or spots caused by somatic excision of the element from the gene, allowing restoration of full gene expression (SOMMER et al. 1985). Germinal excision of the element can result in full red revertant flowers. Other alleles of the *nivea* locus may be generated through imprecise excisions of the element (CARPENTER, MAR-TIN and COEN 1987). A similar allelic series has been observed at *pallida* where Tam3 is also inserted in the promoter region (COEN, CARPENTER and MARTIN 1986). Indeed imprecise excisions are a common feature of plant transposable elements (SCHWARZ-SOM-MER et al. 1985; SAEDLER and NEVERS 1985; SAEDLER, SCHWARZ-SOMMER and GIERL 1985).

In this paper one rearrangement, a deletion of the nivea coding region (allele niv-:529), was analysed in detail by cloning and DNA sequencing and the exact breakpoints of the deletion were defined. Some of the genetic properties of the deleted sequences were characterized. Subsequent activity of Tam3 in this deletion-derivative was analyzed, including precise and imprecise excisions and a secondary large-scale rearrangement of DNA. The analysis supports the previously proposed model of COEN, CARPENTER and MARTIN (1986); COEN and CARPENTER (1988) and ROBBINS, CARPENTER and COEN (1989) for Tam3 transposition, suggesting that the deletion arose as a result of an abortive transposition, however an alternative mechanism involving breakage at a specific sequence is also conceivable.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Antirrhinum majus stocks: Most of the alleles described are derived from the *niv*^{**:}98 allele of J.I. stock 98 (HAR-RISON and CARPENTER 1979, SOMMER *et al.* 1985 and MAR-TIN, MACKAY and CARPENTER 1988). *niv*⁻:529 and *niv*⁻:570 were maintained as heterozygotes, due to homozygous lethality, with a pigmented allele *niv*:532 (MARTIN, MACKAY and CARPENTER 1988). Stock J.I. 45 carries the white *niv*⁻: 45 allele, the mutation is due to a stable insertion into the *nivea* coding region (CARPENTER, MARTIN and COEN 1987). *niv*⁻:560 is a stable white allele, caused by an imprecise excision of Tam³ from the *nivea* gene (MARTIN, MACKAY and CARPENTER 1988). J.I. stock 5A ($pal^{rec}:5A$) has been described by HARRISON and FINCHAM (1964).

Isolation of Antirrhinum majus genomic DNA: Genomic DNA was prepared from frozen leaves as described by MARTIN *et al.* (1985).

Southern hybridization of plant genomic DNA: Southern hybridizations were carried out according to SOUTHERN (1975) and WAHL, STERN and STARK (1979), as modified by SOMMER *et al.* (1985). Filters were washed twice in $0.1 \times$ SSC (0.15 M sodium chloride, 0.015 M sodium citrate, pH 7.0), 0.5% SDS at 65° for 30 min.

Cloning of plant genomic DNA into λ EMBL4: An aliquot of 100–200 μ g of genomic DNA was partially digested with *Eco*RI and size fractionated on a 0.6% agarose gel. Fragments between approximately 15 and 20 kb were isolated by electroelution and purified over a "NACS" column (MANIATIS, FRITSCH and SAMBROOK 1981). λ EMBL4 *Eco*RI arms were prepared by digestion with *Eco*RI and *Bam*HI, followed by isopropanol precipitation. Ligations between 500-ng vector arms and genomic fragments were optimized. The ligations were packaged *in vitro* and plated on *Escherichia coli* strain LE 392. Libraries, blotted onto nitrocellulose filters, were screened with the appropriate fragments. For more detailed analysis fragments were subcloned into pUC18 and M13 vectors for DNA sequence determination.

Phage DNA preparation: Phage DNA was prepared from liquid lysates by PEG 6000 precipitation and purification on CsCl gradients, followed by phenol:chloroform (1:1) extraction and ethanol precipitation, modified from the method of WILL, BAYEV and FINNEGAN (1981).

Plasmid DNA preparation: Plasmid was prepared as described by MANIATIS, FRITSCH and SAMBROOK (1982). Restriction fragments were isolated from agarose gels by a "freeze-squeeze" method.

DNA sequence determination: Fragments to be sequenced were subcloned into the appropriate M13 vectors. Template preparation, sequencing reactions (using [³⁵S]-dATP) and buffer gradient electrophoresis were modified from the methods of SANGER, NICKLEN and COULSEN (1977) and BIGGIN, GIBSON and HONG (1983).

RESULTS

Genetical analysis of the niv-:529 allele: The allele niv-:529 arose from a cross between J.I. 98 and J.I. 45. It has been shown to be a deletion of sequence downstream from the insertion site of Tam3 at nivea, removing the coding region of the gene, while the element remained apparently intact and active (MAR-TIN, MACKAY and CARPENTER 1988). Attempts to establish this allele in a homozygous form were completely unsuccessful, indicating that the allele was lethal when homozygous. This suggested that the deletion was large, involving loss of essential genes adjacent to nivea. The niv-:529 allele was subsequently maintained as a heterozygote with another niv allele (niv:532). niv:532 was also derived from I.I. 98 and is an imprecise excision of Tam3 from nivea, removing 56 bases in total from the sequences flanking the insertion site of the element. Homozygous niv: 532 flowers are a uniform red, considerably paler than wild-type dark red flowers. In a heterozygote







niv-:45 / niv-:529



niv:532 | niv:532

niv:532 | niv-:529

FIGURE 1.—The mutant allele $niv^-:529$ arose from the unstable line J.I. 98. This allele is homozygous lethal and was maintained as a heterozygote with a pigmented allele niv:532.

with niv^{-:529} the flowers are paler still, allowing phenotypic identification of those plants carrying the niv^{-:529} (Figure 1).

Experiments were carried out to determine whether the lethality was due to loss of viability in the pollen or female gametophyte. Reciprocal crosses were carried out between the niv-:529/niv:532 heterozygote and a white homozygote (niv-:560) and the number of white and pale red progeny scored. White progeny would arise as the result of inheritance of the niv-: 529 allele as the nivea gene is deleted in this allele. A deficiency in the pollen would be indicated by a reduction in the number of white progeny when the niv-:529/niv:532 was the male parent, while a reduction in the number of white progeny with the heterozygote as the female parent would indicate loss of viability in the female gametophyte. The results of these crosses are presented in Table 1 and suggest that there is no loss of viability in either the pollen or the female gametophyte. This might suggest that the lack of viability of the homozygote, due to this deletion, may involve loss of a factor(s) involved in fertilization, seed development or germination.

Restriction mapping of *niv*⁻:529: In the *niv*^{rec}:98 allele Tam3 is inserted into the *nivea* locus between

TABLE 1

Results of	reciprocal	crosses	between	niv ⁻ :52	9/niv:532	and
		niv-:560	/niv-:560			

Cross /	A	Cross B
niv ⁻ :560		niv-:529
niv ⁻ :560	• ^	niv:532 + ^
niv ⁻ :529	*	niv ⁻ :560
niv:532	0	$\overline{niv^{-}:560}^{\circ}$
niv ⁻ :560		niv ⁻ :560
niv ⁻ :529		niv:532
White		Pale red
1		1
Cross A	27	15
Cross B	19	8
	$\frac{niv^{-1560}}{niv^{-1560}}$ $\frac{niv^{-1560}}{niv^{-1529}}$ $\frac{niv^{-1560}}{niv^{-1529}}$ $\frac{niv^{-1529}}{niv^{-1529}}$ White 1 Cross A Cross B	$\frac{Cross A}{niv^{-}:560} \ \ \times \\ \frac{niv^{-}:560}{niv^{-}:529} \ \ \delta \\ \frac{niv^{-}:529}{niv^{-}:529} \ \ \delta \\ \frac{niv^{-}:529}{niv^{-}:529} \\ White \\ 1 \\ Cross A \\ 27 \\ Cross B \\ 19 \\ \end{bmatrix}$

The data indicate that the deletion in niv^{-529} does not affect either the pollen or female gametophyte viability.



L 1kb

FIGURE 2.—Partial restriction map of JAM1, indicating the *nivea* promoter (A) and coding region (B) probes. E = EcoRI, K = KpnI.

two EcoRI sites, giving rise to a 9.2-kb restriction fragment consisting of 5.7 kb of nivea sequence and 3.5 kb of Tam3. This has been cloned (SOMMER et al. 1985) into the plasmid pJAM1. Tam3 is flanked by two KpnI sites so digestion of pJAM1 with EcoRI plus KpnI yields suitable probes for the nivea sequences upstream (probe A) and downstream (probe B) of Tam3 (Figure 2). Genomic DNA from the heterozygote (niv-:529/niv:532) was digested with EcoRI and hybridized to probe A. A new EcoRI fragment of 13.5 kb was detected. No hybridization was observed with Probe B to allele niv-:529, suggesting that all sequences downstream from the insertion site of the element had been lost (MARTIN, MACKAY and CAR-PENTER 1988). Both probes A and B hybridized to niv:532, as only 56 bases have been deleted from this allele.

To determine whether Tam3 was intact in niv^{-} : 529, Southern blots of double digestions of niv^{-} :529/ niv:532 genomic DNA (*Eco*RI plus restriction enzymes cutting within the element) were hybridized to probe A. The fragments from the niv^{-} :529 allele that hybridized to the probe were identical to those from niv^{rec} :98, indicating that Tam3 was intact.

To map restriction sites in the new sequence flanking Tam3 in *niv*⁻:529, Probe A was used to hybridize to Southern blots of *niv*⁻:529/*niv*:532 genomic DNA



FIGURE 3.—Restriction maps of niv^{re} :98 and niv^{-} :529. Sites in Tam3 are not shown. B = BamHI, Bg = BglI, E = EcoRI, H = HindIII, K = KpnI, P = PvuII, S = SmaI.

digested with *Eco*RI plus restriction enzymes that do not cut within the transposon. In this way a restriction map of the flanking sequence was established (Figure 3).

Cloning and sequence analysis of niv-:529: The 13.5-kb EcoRI fragment of niv-:529 was isolated from a genomic library of EcoRI partially digested niv-: 529/niv:532 DNA in λ EMBL4 (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). Approximately 120,000 plaques were screened with probe A and two hybridizing clones were isolated. Hybridization of these two clones indicated that one was niv-:529 (known as JAM529-31: Figure 4) and the other was niv:532. The 13.5-kb EcoRI insert in JAM529-31 was subcloned into pUC18 as two EcoRI-BamHI fragments, yielding pJAM529-4 and pJAM529-1. The two plasmids were digested with several restriction enzymes and probed with radioactively labeled DNA from the niv-:529/niv:532 heterozygote to determine whether the new sequences flanking Tam3 were repeated elsewhere in the Antirrhinum genome. The Southern blots indicated that this sequence is not highly repetitive: the only strong hybridization was to Tam3-containing fragments.

To determine the new sequence flanking Tam3 and the ends of the element, small restriction fragments from pJAM529-4, containing each end of Tam3 and adjacent sequences, were subcloned into M13mp19 and sequenced (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). The sequence data confirmed that both ends of the element were intact and that the deletion had completely removed the 8 bases duplicated at the site of the Tam3insertion at *nivea* (Figure 5). The *nivea* sequence 5' to the insertion site of Tam3 was unaltered indicating that breakage and religation had not occurred at this end of the element.

Linkage analysis of *nivea* and the new flanking sequence: Linkage analysis was carried out to determine whether *nivea* and the new flanking sequence (called x) were genetically linked in the progenitor line, J.I. 98. A *Bam*HI restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) at x was identified between J.I. 98 and another, unrelated, line J.I. 5A (pal^{rec}:5A) when the 3.5-kb BamHI-EcoRI fragment from [AM529-31 (probe B-E) was used as a probe. [.I. 98 and J.I. 5A were crossed (R. CARPENTER, personal communication) and 35 homozygous niv^{rec} F₂ progeny were examined. If nivea and x were closely linked then there would be very little or no recombination between the two loci. No recombinants between *nivea* and x were found, while the RFLP was shown to segregate as predicted in homozygous palree and heterozygous niv^{rec}/pal^{rec} plants (Figure 6). These results suggest that nivea and x are very closely linked. Although an RFLP between niv^{rec}:98 and pal^{rec}:5A was identified, no RFLP was observed between niv^{rec}:98 and four lines of a related species A. glutinosum. For all restriction enzymes tested the sequences were conserved between J.I. 98 and A. glutinosum and were also present in single copy. Our experience with Antirrhinum genes suggests that most are closely flanked by repeated sequence DNA (within 2-5 kb). The conservation of restriction sites and the occurrence of this sequence as single copy in two species might suggest that this region encodes a gene product.

Cloning and sequence analysis of x from the progenitor line J.I. 98: Using the *BglI-BglI* fragment from JAM529-31 (probe B-B) to hybridize to single restriction enzyme digests of genomic DNA from the progenitor line, J.I. 98, the original genomic position of x was identified on an 8.2-kb *Eco*RI fragment and on a 5.4-kb *Hind*III fragment.

To determine whether a copy of Tam3 was present in the progenitor sequence probe B-B was used to probe double digestions of J.I. 98 genomic DNA (*Eco*RI plus restriction enzymes cutting within the element). This experiment suggested that no copy of Tam3 was present.

A genomic library of *Eco*RI partially digested J.I. 98 DNA was prepared in λ EMBL4 (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). Approximately 70,000 plaques were screened with probe B-B. Three hybridizing clones were isolated and the 5.4-kb *Hind*III fragment from



FIGURE 4.—Restriction map of JAM529-31. B = BamHI, Bg = BglI, E = EcoRI, H = HindIII, K = KpnI, P = PvuII, S = SmaI.



FIGURE 5.—DNA sequence data of the sequences flanking Tam3 in *niv^{ree}*:98 and *niv⁻*:529. Arrows indicate the bases duplicated on insertion of the element.



FIGURE 6.—Restriction enzyme digests of genomic DNAs from single plants, probed with fragments which indicate the RFLPs identified between lines J.I. 98 and J.I. 5A, a) *Eco*RI digests, hybridized to probe A; b) *Bam*HI digests, hybridized to probe B-E. 1, J.I. 5A; 2, J.I. 98; 3, homozygous *pal^{ree}* plant; 4, heterozygous *niv^{ree}* plant; 5–11, homozygous *niv^{ree}* plants.

one of these was subcloned into pUC18 to give pJAM98-529p.

To sequence across the junction between the new DNA adjacent to Tam3 in niv-:529 and the sequence adjacent to it in the progenitor line, a HindII fragment from pJAM98-529p was subcloned into the SmaI site of M13mp19 and sequenced. The sequence data (Figure 7a) confirmed that no copy of Tam3 was present in the progenitor sequence. However, the breakpoint of the rearrangement has strong homology to the terminal inverted duplications of Tam3 and also to those of the maize element Ac (POHLMAN, FEDOROFF and MESSING 1984; MÜLLER-NEUMANN, YODER and STARLINGER 1984) suggesting that transposase may recognize this sequence as the terminus of an element and is cutting at this site in error (Figure 7b). Alternatively the deletion may have resulted from an abortive transposition by Tam3 in which one end of the element caused breakage and invaded the chromosome at this position. In either instance the deletion would then be generated by ligation between a hairpin loop at x and one end of Tam3. The intervening



FIGURE 7.—a, DNA sequence data of the breakpoint of the deletion in $niv^{-}:529$, compared with the progenitor sequence x. Arrow indicates inverted termini of Tam3. b, Comparison of the inverted termini of Tam3 and Ac with the sequence of the breakpoint of the deletion. Underlined bases indicate homology.

sequence would be lost because of the lack of a centromere.

Isolation, cloning and sequence analysis of an excision of Tam3 from niv-:529: The activity of Tam3 in niv-:529 can no longer be detected phenotypically because of the deletion of nivea coding sequence. However, hybridization of probe A to a faint band 3.5 kb smaller than the niv-:529 fragment suggested that somatic excision could still occur at high frequency (Figure 8). The result of a germinal excision event of Tam3 from niv-:529 was isolated by random screening of 15 niv-:529/niv:532 heterozygotes. One plant appeared to carry an excision of Tam3. This allele (niv^{-570}) was cloned into λ EMBL4 (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). A KpnI-PvuII restriction fragment spanning the region from which Tam3 had excised was subcloned directly into M13mp19 digested with KpnI and HindII and sequenced. The sequence data (Figure 9a) showed that excision of the element had produced a small rearrangement at its former insertion site. There was no net loss or addition of bases but an inversion of two bases had occurred. This structure can be accounted for by the model of COEN, CARPENTER and MARTIN (1986), COEN and CARPENTER (1988) and ROBBINS, CARPEN-TER and COEN (1989), as shown in Figure 9b.

The excision of Tam3 from $niv^-:529$ demonstrates that the 8 bp duplication of target sequence (in $niv^{rec}:98$) is not exsential for excision of the element, this has also been shown by ROBBINS, CARPENTER and COEN (1989).

Mapping of secondary rearrangements of niv-:529: As described above, Tam3 is able to excise from niv-:529 but it may also induce further re-

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FIGURE 8.—*Eco*RI digests of genomics DNAs hybridized to probe A showing somatic and germinal excision of Tam3 from $niv^{rec}:98$ and $niv^{-:}529$. 1, $niv^{rec}:98$; 2, $niv:532/niv^{-:}529$; 3, $niv:532/niv^{-:}570$. The 5.65-kb band in 2 and 3 comes from niv:532 which is an imprecise excision of Tam3 from $niv^{rec}:98$ removing 56 bases of flanking sequence.

arrangements of the surrounding sequences. Two such rearrangements have been analyzed: an excision of Tam3 which deletes sequences adjacent to the element and a duplication of part of the remaining *nivea* promoter region. These rearrangements were identified by random screening of plants carrying the *niv⁻:529* allele, because phenotypic selection is not possible in this line.

In the line containing the excision, Tam3 removed approximately 2.0–2.5 kb of the sequences flanking its former insertion site. The extent of the deletion on the 3' side of the former insertion site of the element was mapped to between the *Pvu*II and *Bgl*I restriction sites. On the 5' side the insertion was mapped to between the *Ava*II and *Dde*I restriction sites (Figure 10a).

A second rearrangement involves the duplication of probe A-hybridizing sequences (i.e., the promoter region of nivea) and is seen as an additional 4.8-kb EcoRI fragment. The duplicated DNA is linked to niv⁻:529 locus. The duplication was mapped from the 5' EcoRI site and extends downstream to at least the KpnI site 167 bp upstream from the insertion site of Tam3 (Figure 10b). The duplicated region does not hybridize to probe B. Digestion of genomic DNA from this line with DdeI and probing with a DdeI fragment from the nivea promoter indicated that the DdeI site immediately adjacent to Tam3 (actually part of the 8bp duplication) was lost or rearranged. This suggests that the duplication resulted from Tam3 activity because the sequences flanking Tam3 were disturbed, although transposition of the element has not occurred. No somatic excision of Tam3 from the niv-: 529 locus in the line carrying the duplication was observed (Figure 10b, track B) compared with niv-: 529 (track A). This suggests that Tam3 was also dis-



FIGURE 9.—a, DNA sequence data of the sequences flanking Tam3 at niv⁻:529 and the rearrangement of sequence resulting from excision of the element in niv⁻:570. b, Model for Tam3 excision from niv⁻:529.

turbed by the duplication and this has affected its ability to excise. No data are available on how far the duplication extends beyond the *Eco*RI site.

DISCUSSION

Plant transposable elements are well known for their ability to cause small-scale rearrangements of a gene on excision. These rearrangements are the result of imprecise excision of the element and are thought to have a role in gene evolution (SCHWARZ-SOMMER et al. 1985; SAEDLER and NEVERS 1985; SAEDLER, SCHWARZ-SOMMER and GIERL 1985). Imprecise excisions usually leave some of the bases that were duplicated on insertion of the element, although more complex rearrangements can also occur. These additional bases may affect the gene product by adding amino acids or by altering the gene product if inserted into an intron; or they may alter the expression of a gene if the element has inserted into the regulatory region of the gene. A recent example of this in maize shows how Ds-induced mutations of the bronze locus can affect both the quantity and quality of the gene product (SCHIEFELBEIN et al. 1988). Large-scale rearrangements may also have a profound effect, even affecting the viability of plants, as in the case of the deletion described here. The cause of the lethality of niv-:529 has not been fully determined but may involve failure at fertilization, seed development or germination.



FIGURE 10.—a, Restriction maps of i) $niv^{-:529}$; ii) sequences remaining after the imprecise excision of Tam3 from $niv^{-:529}$; and iii) the 4.8-kb *Eco*RI fragment carrying the duplicated *nivea* promoter. Sites in the element are not shown, likewise all other *Dde*I sites. A = *Ava*II, B = *Bam*HI, Bg = *Bgl*I, D = *Dde*I, E = *Eco*RI, K = *Kpn*I. b, Southern blot of *Eco*RI digested genomic DNAs, hybridized to probe A. A) $niv^{-:529}$; B) duplication of *nivea* promoter; and C) imprecise excision of Tam3 from $niv^{-:529}$.

Tam3 induces a variety of rearrangements at a high frequency (MARTIN, MACKAY and CARPENTER 1988) and, provided that the element is unaffected by a rearrangement, it may excise or induce further rearrangements at a relatively high frequency, suggesting an inherent instability in lines where a rearrangement has already occurred. In the niv-:529 deletion Tam3 remains intact and active, while the 8bp target sequence that was duplicated on insertion of the element was removed. Our analyses of germinal and somatic excision indicates that the duplicated bases are not required for excision of the element. This has also been observed in other Tam3-induced rearrangements (ROBBINS, CARPENTER and COEN 1989). A very similar situation was reported in maize where a deletion adjacent to Ac removed the eight duplicated bases but left the element intact and able to transpose (DOONER, ENGLISH and RALSTON 1988).

Tam3 commonly inserts into active genes, as at *pallida* (MARTIN *et al.* 1985) and *nivea* (SOMMER *et al.* 1985). It is, however, impossible to determine genetically whether Tam3 has a strong preference for such

insertions, although phenotypically identifiable transposon-induced mutations are observed at a high frequency (HARRISON and CARPENTER 1979). There is also evidence that Tam3 may have a preference for insertion into single copy DNA from the rearrangement described here, that of ROBBINS, CAR-PENTER and COEN (1989) and another rearrangement under investigation (C. LISTER, unpublished results) where the new pieces of DNA flanking Tam³ at the rearrangement are present in single copy. A possible explanation is that Tam³ requires the chromatin to be of a certain "open" structure to allow invasion of the element. Insertion of the element into an active gene may prevent suppression of its activity by methylation; it has been shown that copies of Tam3 which have inserted in repetitive DNA are unable to transpose and this inability is correlated with heavy methvlation of the element (MARTIN et al. 1989). Sequence x appears to be hypomethylated compared to repetitive DNA.

There are several mechanisms by which this deletion may have formed, the simplest being recombi-

nation. Intramolecular recombination between two elements, in the same orientation, would result in a deletion of the intervening sequence; however, although the endpoints of the deletion are linked, there is no evidence of a second copy of Tam3 being involved, unless one proposes a brief encounter with a second element. However, because the niv-:529 allele was derived from niv^{rec}:98 in a single generation, any transient association of Tam3 with x would probably have been observed. An alternative mechanism would involve breakage at the ends of two elements and the subsequent loss of the intervening sequence. Such a mechanism was proposed for large-scale rearrangements induced by the P element of D. melanogaster by ENGELS and PRESTON (1984) who observed that P element-induced inversions usually arise by a single multibreak event with subsequent random rearrangement of the chromosome segments; this mechanism could also explain the formation of large deletions. These rearrangements may result from transposition of the element but, because P elements often remain at the site of the rearrangements, this might suggest aberrant transposition events. We have shown that there is no second copy of Tam3. However, because the sequence beyond the breakpoint of the rearrangement strongly resembles the inverted termini of Tam3 the transposase may be recognizing this sequence as the end of an element and causing breakage, with breakage also occurring at the 3' end of the element at nivea. This might suggest that the Tam3 transposase could recognize a sequence that is not completely homologous to its termini and cause breakage; indeed a copy of Tam3, known as Tam3:105, has a 2-bp mismatch in its inverted termini yet it is still able to transpose (MARTIN et al. 1989).

The model for Tam³ transposition proposed by ROBBINS, CARPENTER and COEN (1989) was deduced from the analysis of a large Tam³-induced inversion at the *pallida* locus. They suggest that, in a normal transposition, the donor and recipient sites are brought into close association. Sequential breakage and transfer of the ends of the element to the recipient site occurs with the formation of hairpin loops at the broken ends. This is followed by nicking of the hairpins with ligation and DNA repair of the free ends. Inversions and deletions may be formed by this mechanism if transfer and ligation of only one end of the element to the recipient site occurs, with the intervening sequence being lost or inverted.

From the data obtained from the analysis of niv^- : 529 it is difficult to differentiate between a single multibreak event and the model proposed by ROB-BINS, CARPENTER and COEN (1989) as to the mechanism of formation of this deletion. In both models it would be expected that the transposase or the element would generate a duplication of sequence at x; however, because the intervening sequence between *nivea* and x has been lost, this duplication would not be seen.

It has been suggested by ROBBINS, CARPENTER and COEN (1989) that Tam3 has a preference for transposition to closely-linked sites, and the very close linkage of *nivea* and *x* could support this model. This would not however rule out a mechanism of breakage and religation; the breakpoint of which could be more distantly linked or unlinked as in a translocation.

There is no evidence that Tam3 has a preference for insertion sites that are homologous to its termini. This would therefore suggest that the strong homology (9/12 bases) of x to the Tam3 inverted termini was significant and the transposase recognized the sequence at x and caused breakage there. The homology of x to Tam3 does not extend beyond the termini and it would therefore be necessary to separate the "breakage activity" of the transposase from the "transposition activity." It has been shown that sequences inside the inverted termini of the maize element Ac are also required for transposition (COUPLAND et al. 1988). This is relevant as Tam3 and Ac are likely to be related transposable elements and have homology at the amino acid level in the transposase (SOMMER et al. 1988).

We are therefore able to present two possible models for the formation of the deletion in niv:529. These are not mutually exclusive when considering the formation of deletions by transposons in general. The simplest involves the recognition by the Tam3 transposase of the sequence at x as the inverted termini of a copy of Tam3 and causing breakage. Breakage also occurs at the 3' end of Tam3 of nivea. This could be followed by ligation between Tam3 and x with the intervening fragment being lost. Alternatively the deletion could have been formed by an aberrant transposition of Tam3 from nivea. Breakage could occur at the 3' end of the element and the free end could invade at x. If there was no breakage and transfer from the 5' end of the element ligation could occur between Tam3 and x, with loss of the intervening fragment.

Tam β is able to generate new mutant phenotypes at a high frequency. That is, by actual insertion into a gene, resulting from a successful transposition but also through aberrant transpositions where large regions of the chromosome may be rearranged or lost. Transposable elements are being developed as genetic tools. Transposon tagging is now well established as a mechanism for cloning genes, but transposable elements may also be used to generate an ordered sequence of relatively large deletions, *in vivo*, which can be used for chromosome mapping and the identification of genes flanking a known gene. Tam β has induced a number of large deletions at the *nivea* locus, including $niv^{-}:529$, which is known to delete an essential gene. Analysis and cloning of the sequences delimiting these deletions and examination of phenotypic effect of such deletions should provide considerable information about the chromosomal region around the *nivea* locus.

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