# Transcription of genes involved in the earliest steps of actinorhodin biosynthesis in Streptomyces coelicolor

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# **ABSTRACT**

A 170bp long BamHl-Sau3A DNA fragment from the actill-actl intergenic region of the actinorhodin (Act) biosynthetic gene cluster of Streptomyces coelicolor A3(2) contains two promoters directing transcription in a divergent manner. One of them, the actill promoter, is responsable for the transcription of the actill gene and the other controls transcription of the adjacent actl region in the opposite direction. Weak activity of the actill promoter can be detected in Streptomyces lividans and Bacillus subtilis in the absence but not in the presence of glucose. Neither promoter seems to function in Escherichia coli.

# **INTRODUCTION**

The use of alternative sigma factors is known to be widespread among bacteria (1); the existence of holoenzymes containing alternative sigma factors transcribing different sets of promoters in a cascade mode of action is a central feature of the control of the developmental cycle that ends in spore fonnation in Bacillus subtilis (2). The heterogeneity of the Streptomyces coelicolor RNA polymerase is now well documented (3): promoters recognized by different holoenzymes are involved in transcription of the dagA gene (4) and the gal operon (5), and the product of the whiG gene is a new sigma factor controlling the onset of sporulation in aerial hyphae (6). Equivalence between some sigma factors from S. coelicolor and B. subtilis has been reported  $(6,7)$ and there is evidence for the evolution of some sigma factors to control unrelated sets of genes in different bacteria (as could be the case for the sigma factors related to the Escherichia coli sigma 54 (1)) involving the *B. subtilis* sigma  $D$  and the S. coelicolor WhiG factor (6).

To gain further insight into the possible use of holoenzymes from different bacteria to recognize in vivo potentially diverse promoters controlling the expression of secondary metabolism genes, the *actIII-actI* region controlling early steps in the biosynthetic pathway of the antibiotic actinorhodin, a model secondary metabolite from S. coelicolor (8), was chosen as a source of promoters. The DNA sequence of the *act*III gene is known, its promoter is identified  $(9)$  and the *actI* and the *actIII*  regions are known to be adjacent on the genome (8). A promoter cloning approach allowed us to map accurately the start point of transcription for the actI region as well as to determine whether the promoters for both regions that function in S. coelicolor would also work in vivo in the closely related bacterium S. lividans, in the distantly related low  $G+C$  Gram-positive B. subtilis, or in the far more distantly related Gram-negative bacterium E. coli.

# MATERIALS AND METHODS

# Bacterial strains and plasmids

S. lividans TK21 (10) was the host for the high copy number promoter-probe vector pIJ486 (11). B. subtilis MB11 (lys-3, met-10, hisH2) (12) was the host for the high copy number promoter-probe plasmid pPCT2. pPCT2 is a slightly modified version of pPL703 (13), containing, downstream of the cat86 gene, the transcription terminators T1 and T2 from the E.coli rrnB gene (14); it was originally obtained from J.C.Alonso. S. coelicolor M145 (10) containing the plasmid pIJ2303 (which carries the entire act cluster on a low copy number vector) (8) was used as the Act<sup>+</sup> strain being a higher *act* RNA producer than the parental M145 strain. pU2363 is a derivative of pBR329 (15) that contains the *act*I and *actIII* region of the *act* cluster (restriction sites  $13-17: 8$ ). pMV400 derives from pUC19 (16) and contains <sup>a</sup> Sphl fragment (Fig. 4) spanning the actI, VU and IV regions of the act cluster (8). pPLc28actIII is a derivative of pPLc28 (17) that carries the *act*III gene (sites 13 to 14: 8). pRMlcat (R.P.Mellado, unpublished) is a pBR322 (18) derivative that contains the cat gene and the transcription termination sequences from pCPP-3 (19) downstream of the pUC19 polylinker (16). E.coli strains K12 $\Delta$  H1 $\Delta$ trp (17) and NM514 (hflA, hsdR<sub>k</sub>) (20) were used for the propagation of pPLc28 actIII and pRM1cat, respectively.

# Standard media and manipulations

Procedures for the growth and manipulation of Streptomyces and general recombinant DNA manipulation were as described elsewhere (10, 21). Competent B. subtilis MB11 and competent E. coli were obtained and transformed as described (22 and 23, respectively).

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## In vivo transcription

RNA was isolated from vegetative (up to <sup>48</sup> h) and stationary (from 70 h. on) phases of Streptomyces cultures grown at 29°C in Yeme medium (10) with or without glucose (1% w/v) as indicated, the mycelium being harvested and the RNA prepared as described before (24). E. coli and B.subtilis cultures were midlog phase, grown at 37°C in LB, and the RNA was prepared as described previously (25).

The separated strands of the indicated DNA fragment uniquely labelled at the 5' end were gel-purified, mixed with 50  $\mu$ g of total RNA, denatured and hybridised at 55°C (26). SI nuclease digestion was then carried out as described (21, 25). The size values given for the SI nuclease protected fragments were corrected for the 1.5nt differential migration compared with the sequence ladder (27).

To determine the extent of transcription, sandwich hybridisation experiments (28, 29) were carried out using as a probe the same labelled DNA strand as in the SI nuclease mapping. Hybridisation conditions were as in the SI nuclease mapping experiments, except that 200  $\mu$ g of total RNA were used.

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## Promoter cloning

DNA from the 1035bp long *act*III region (9; sites  $13-14$  of ref. 8) cleaved from pIJ2363 was digested with Sau3A; the produced fragments were randomly inserted in the BamHI site of pPCT2 (Fig. 1) and B.subtilis MB1<sup>1</sup> was transformed with the resulting ligation mixture. The selected recombinant plasmid pVMb31, conferring Cm<sup>R</sup> (5  $\mu$ g/ml) to the bacteria, contains the *Bam*HI-Sau3A fragment (positions 2 to 172) of the actIII DNA sequence (9) that includes the *act*III promoter, but inserted in the opposite orientation, so that transcription of the cat gene took place from a putative 'actl' promoter in the opposite direction to that of the actIII gene. The EcoRI-BamHI fragment containing the promoter activity from pVMb31 was inserted in the Streptomyces plasmid pLJ486 (Fig. 1) and introduced into S. lividans to generate  $pVMs33$ , in which transcription of the  $Km<sup>R</sup>$  gene could take place from the *act*III promoter. The SmaI-BamHI fragment from



pVMb3l was inserted into p1J486, through its BamHI site and blunt-ended HindIII site, to generate pVMs31, where the transcription of the  $Km<sup>R</sup>$  gene could now take place from the cloned fragment in a direction opposite to that in pVMs33.

To place the pPCT2 cat gene under the control of the actIII promoter in *B. subtilis*, the *PstI-BamHI* fragment from pVMs31 was transferred to pPCT2 via its BamHI and PstI sites, generating pVMb33. For tests in E.coli, the 170bp long BamHI-Sau3A fragment was retrieved from pVMb31 and cloned in the two possible orientations in pRM1cat through its unique BamHI site (Fig. 1), so that the cat gene could be transcribed either from the *act*III promoter (pVMc33) or from the putative 'actI' promoter driving transcription in the opposite direction (pVMc31).

Very little resistance to the respective reporter antibiotic was conferred by the recombinant plasmids on the different hosts, ranging from virtually negligible in  $E.$  coli to very low levels  $(5-10 \text{ µg/ml})$  in S.lividans or B.subtilis-slightly over the background resistance conferred by their respective vectors-



Figure 2. High resolution S1 nuclease mapping of in vivo transcription from the actIlI promoter. A. Time course of transcription taking place in S.coelicolor (pIJ2303) cultures after 40h. (a), 48h (b), 70h (c) and  $85h$ . (d) of incubation. Blue pigmented antibiotic production took place from 72h of incubation. B. Time course of transcription taking place in S.lividans (pVMs33) at the same times as in A, in the presence  $(e-h)$  or in the absence  $(a-d)$  of glucose in the growth medium. C. Transcription taking place in B.subtilis (pVMb33) (a) and E.coli (pVMc33) (b). Si nuclease mapping was performed as indicated in Materials and Methods.  $A+G(A/G)$  and  $T+G(T/G)$  reactions (29) from the 5' ends labelled single stranded DNA probe were run in parallel as sequence ladders. The existence of more than one protected band might be due to the previously found SI nuclease nibbling effect (31, 32). Transcription was considered to stat at the position marked by the largest protected fragment. Electrophoresis was in 6% acrylamide /8M urea gels.



Figure 1. Promoter cloning. The vectors used as promoter-probes for the different bacteria are shown. Amp<sup>R</sup>, ampicillin resistance gene; Cm<sup>R</sup>, chloramphenicol resistance gene; Km<sup>R</sup>, kanamycin resistance gene; tsr, thiostrepton resistance gene. Only unique restriction sites are indicated in the three plasmids. B, BamHI; Bg, BgIII; E, EcoRI; H, HindIII; K, KpnI; P, PstI; S, SmaI; Sc, SacI; Sh, SphI; Sl, SalI; Xb, XbaI. A non-indicated PstI site between the XbaI and HindIII sites in pIJ486 (11) was also used in the cloning. See text for details.

Figure 3. High resolution S1 nuclease mapping of in vivo transcription from the actl promoter. Time course of transcription taking place in S.coelicolor (pIJ2303) (A) or S.lividans (pVMs31) (B). Cultures after 48h. (a), 72h. (b), 96h. (c) and 120h. of incubation. See the legend of figure 2 for details of the SI nuclease mapping procedures. Electrophoresis was in 6% acrylamide/8M urea gels.

when estimated on nutrient broth agar plates. The sequence of the cloned DNA fragments was in all cases confirmed by the chemical degradation method (30).

## Transcription initiation

The direction of transcription and the transcription initiation sites were determined by high resolution SI nuclease protection experiments, with total RNA from the different bacteria harbouring the recombinant plasmids. Transcription initiating within the 170bp BamHI-Sau3A fragment from the putative 'actI' promoter and proceeding towards the reporter antibiotic resistance gene (plasmids pVMb31, s31 and c31) was mapped using the same single stranded DNA fragment labelled at its BamHI <sup>5</sup>' end as <sup>a</sup> probe. Transcription starting within this DNA fragment, but under the control of the *act*III promoter (plasmids pVMb33, s33, and c33), was mapped using the complementary single strand labelled at its Sau3A <sup>5</sup>' end as a probe. The results are shown in figures 2 and 3.

Transcription from the *act*III promoter initiates at 98 nucleotides from the 5' labelled Sau3A end in S. coelicolor (Fig. 2A) as previously found using a different probe (9). Transcription from this promoter was time-dependent, coinciding essentially with the production of actinorhodin (blue pigment) by the culture  $(Fig. 2A, a-d)$ . Transcription from this promoter fell below the limits of detection when cloned in S. lividans (Fig. 2B,  $e-h$ ) as previously found in promoter-probe experiments (9), and it was weakly but reproducibly detected when the cells were grown in the absence of glucose (Fig. 2B,  $a-d$ ). Again the transcription was time-dependent, as in *S. coelicolor*, indicating the need of effector(s) modulating transcription from this promoter in both bacteria, a result in accord with the activation of the *actIII* promoter in S. lividans by the presence of the cloned actII region (9). Transcription from the actIII promoter in S. coelicolor does not seem to depend on the presence or absence of glucose in the growth medium (result not shown).

Transcription from the cloned actIII promoter was also very weakly detected in *B. subtilis* when the cells were propagated in the absence of glucose (Fig. 2C, a), and undetected when glucose was present (not shown). No activity of the *actIII* promoter was found in  $E. coli$ , either in the absence (Fig. 2C, b) or in the presence of glucose (not shown).

The putative 'actI' promoter seems to initiate RNA synthesis in S. coelicolor at 95 nucleotides from the <sup>5</sup>' labelled BamHI end of the 170bp long BamHI -Sau3A fragment, also in a timedependent fashion (Fig. 3A,  $a-d$ ), with no dependence on glucose (not shown). The putative 'actl' promoter does not seem to work in S. lividans at any chosen time , either in the presence (Fig. 3B,  $a-d$ ) or in the absence of glucose (not shown)

The DNA probe was not protected at all from SI nuclease digestion when RNA from B. subtilis or E. coli cells carrying the putative 'actl' promoter was used in the SI nuclease mapping experiments, either in the presence or in the absence of glucose (not shown). Thus the low activity shown by these promoters during the selection procedure correlates with the difficulty in detecting their respective transcription initiation site by SI nuclease mapping.

#### Sandwich hybridisation

To confirm that the transcription mediated by the putative 'actI' promoter does in fact proceed through the actl region in the S. coelicolor genome and to check whether or not transcription of this region is initiated upstream of this promoter, a sandwich hybridisation experiment was performed. Total RNA from the actinorhodin-producing S.coelicolor strain was hybridised to DNA fragments, previously transferred to nitrocellulose filters, that included the transcription start site and extended over the actl region and beyond, in one direction; and over the actIII region located upstream of the start site, in the other direction. After a first round of hybridisation, the filters were washed and set to hybridise with the same probe used in the SI nuclease mapping experiments. In theory only the DNA bands containing sequences complementary either to the probe itself or to RNA molecules that can hybridise with the probe, would be revealed; no DNA fragment located upstream of the sequences complementary to the probe should give a positive result unless transcription initiates upstream of the mapped sites. An explanatory scheme is depicted in figure 4. DNA fragments



Figure.4. Sandwich hybridisation. The hybridisation resulting from transcription initiating at (A) or upstream of (B) the mapped site is depicted. Numbered boxes are the different DNA fragments produced by endonuclease digestion. The direction and extent of transcription is indicated by <sup>a</sup> weavy line ended by an arrow. The probe is the dark box included in the DNA fragment number 5. DNA fragments revealed after the second round of hybridisation are indicated by numbered circles. The two strands of each DNA fragment are shown. See text for details.



Figure 5. Transcription directed by the *actI* promoter comprises the *actI* region. The physical maps of the plasmids used in the experiments are depicted in the upper part of the figure. All DNA fragments used in the experiments were individually purified. A. DNA from pMV400 was restricted with BamHI or double restricted with EcoRI and HindIII. Fragments containing sequences complementary to the probe were run separately, as the 5.7kb EcoRI-HindIII fragment containing the whole insert (a) or the 0.5kb BamHI fragment (b). The rest of the BamHI fragments from the inserted DNA (g) or the  $EcoRI-HindIII$  fragment containing only the vector DNA sequences (h) were also run separately. B. DNA from pPLc28actIII was double restricted with SphI and PstI (a) and the pPLc28 vector DNA was double restricted with EcoRI and PstI (b) and run as a negative control. The resulting fragments from the endonuclease digestions were fractionated on 1% agarose gel, transferred to nitrocellulose filters, hybridised in a first round to total RNA from S. coelicolor (extracted at the antibiotic producing time) and to the 5' end-labelled single stranded probe in a second round (28). Hybridisation conditions were the same as in the SI nuclease mapping experiments. A. Hybridisation results for fragments in lanes a, b, g and h are shown in lanes c, d, e and f, respectively. B. Hybridisation results for fragments in lanes a and b are shown in lanes <sup>c</sup> and d, respectively. Roman numerals in the rectangular boxes correspond to act region present in the cloned fragments; vertical lines within the boxes indicate the extent of a particular *act* region. Dashes boxes indicate vector plasmid DNA. Arrows indicate the direction and extent of transcription from the actI and actIII promoters within the cloned DNA. Figures above the boxes and at the side of the lanes are fragments sizes in kb. Symbols for the restriction endonucleases are given in the legend to figure 1.

containing sequences complementary to the probe, carried as a positive control did hybridise as expected (Fig.  $5A$ ,  $a-d$ ;  $5B$ , <sup>a</sup> and c). DNA fragments extending over the actI region and beyond gave also a positive result (Fig.  $5A$ ,  $e-h$ ), in accord with the genetic data predicting the existence of a polycistronic transcript comprising the actl, VII and IV region (8). No hybridisation was detected to <sup>a</sup> DNA fragment containing sequences located upstream of the probe (Fig. SB, a and c). Negative hybridisation resulted when DNA fragments containing the vector sequences were used (Fig. SA <sup>f</sup> and h; SB, b and d).

The result of <sup>a</sup> sandwich hybridisation experiment is always more qualitative than quantitative and some differences on the relative intensities of the revealed bands are to be expected. Even so, the hybridisation to the 1kb BamHI fragment (Fig. 5A, e) although distinguishable over the background (Fig. 5A, f) is weaker than expected, something that also occurs when other partially overlapping DNA fragments are used (not shown). Apart from the continuous transcription comprising the actI to IV regions, the existence of internal transcription proceeding in the same direction can not be rouled out. Thus transcription initiating and terminating within the 1kb BamHI fragment might compete with the polycistronic transcript for the same DNA sequences in the first round of hybridisation, resulting in a weaker hybridisation of the polycistronic mRNA to the probe in the second round. Regulation of transcription taking place in the actVII region as well as in the whole *act* cluster is currently under investigation. In any case it can be reasonably concluded from



Figure 6. The *actIII-actI* intergenic region. The DNA sequence of the 170bp long BamHI-Sau3A fragment is depicted. The putative  $-10$  and  $-35$  regions are indicated. Arrows indicate the initiation sites and the direction of transcription. The putative ribosome binding site (RBS) for the actIII gene (9) is indicated. The putative translation initiation triplet is underlined. The number in brackets defines restriction site <sup>14</sup> of Ref. 8. A region of dyad symmetry is indicated by lines between the DNA strands (see Fig. 7).



Figure 7. Possible secondary structure in the *actl-actIII* promoter region. The  $-10$  and  $-35$  sequences for the *actI* promoter are indicated. The arrow indicates the initiation point and direction of transcription (see also figure 6).

the above experiment that there is no detectable transcription initiating upstream of the mapped site for the *actI* region and that the transcription started there comprises at least the whole of the region.

## The actI-actIII promoter region

Figure <sup>6</sup> shows the sequence of the 170bp long DNA fragment containing the *act*I and *actIII* promoters and the sites where divergent transcription initiates. Comparison of the putative promoter sequences with those of other Streptomyces promoters allows a tentative alignment of the actlll promoter to the S. coelicolor galp2 (5) and dagAp2 (4) promoters (the sequence AAGCTGA being present at the  $-10$  region in both cases). The actI promoter could be also tentatively aligned to the S. coelicolor  $galp1$  (TGTGTT and TATGTT sequences at the  $-10$  region, respectively (5)) and it might be one of those Streptomyces promoters where the spacing between the  $-10$  and  $-35$ 

consensus sequences is thought be longer than  $17-18$  nucleotides (5, 33).

Activity of the *act*III promoter in *B. subtilis* might be due to the existence of an unidentified yet specific sigma subunit equivalent to that of S.coelicolor (4); to the existence of a positive regulator (34) with an equivalent mode of action to that of the act cluster; or to a somewhat inefficient promoter recognition by one of the B.subtilis vegetative holoenzymes (1). It is difficult to assess whether *actIII* promoter activity is itself specifically repressed by glucose in S. lividans, and perhaps in B.subtilis, or whether synthesis of a putative positive regulator is the real target for glucose repression. Experiments to investigate this question are now being carried out.

The absence of detectable activity of the *actI* promoter in S. lividans, B.subtilis and E. coli could be due either to lack of an equivalent RNA polymerase to that of S. coelicolor, which is thought to recognize promoters with a longer spacing between the  $-10$  and  $-35$  regions (5, 33); or to lack of an appropriated activator (34), perhaps specific to the S. coelicolor act cluster. On the other hand, a potential (cruciform) secondary structure (35) could be predicted to form within the 170bp long  $BamHI-$ Sau3A fragment (Fig. 7), including the putative  $-35$  region of the actI promoter. Cruciform DNA structures have been shown to exist intracellularly (35) and a synthetic promoter to be repressed by extrusion of a cruciform structure in E. coli (36). The formation of this cruciform structure involving complementarity within the same DNA strand, might make the promoter inaccessible to the RNA polymerase and also impede progression of actlI transcription. The action of a putative regulatory molecule interacting with the cruciform structure might be needed in order for both regions to be transcribed. A positive regulator of this kind has also been suggested for the S. lividans tipA promoter, which is also included in a cruciform structure (37). The positive regulator might or might not coincide with that in the  $actII$  region of the cluster  $(9)$ , since the presence of an activator cloned from another streptomycete restores actl and actIII promoter activities in S. lividans (N.M.Romero, V.Parro, M.Rajavel, F.Malpartida and R.P.Mellado, manuscript in preparation). This heterologous activator shares no homology with the one included in the actII region (M.A.Fernández-Moreno, J.L.Caballero, D.A.Hopwood and F.Malpartida, submitted). These facts, together with the finding that switching on of the actI and actIII promoters is always subject to temporal control both in S. lividans and in S. coelicolor, not only indicates the existence of a common, specific mechanism of regulation for both promoters (34), but also suggests the possible existence of more than one positive regulator activating sets of promoters in a cascade mode of action as an overall strategy of controlling gene expression in Streptomyces secondary metabolism, in a similar manner to the control of sporulation in *B. subtilis* by sigma factors (2). It is interesting and perhaps surprising that genes involved in different steps of assembly of the polyketide chain of actinorhodin-actI coding for the condensing enzyme and acyl carrier protein, and actIII for the ketoreductase-should be transcribed from promoters of apparently different types with the possibility of differential regulation.

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