Extensive sequence homology in the DNA coding for elongation factor Tu from Escherichia coli and the Chlamydomonas reinhardtii chloroplast

(tuf gene/heterologous hybridization probe)

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ABSTRACT Considerable DNA sequence homology can be detected between the Escherichia coli genes coding for translational components and Chlamydomonas reinhardtii chloroplast DNA. Labeled chloroplast DNA was found to hybridize to restriction fragments of the transducing phage λ fus3 that code for elongation factor Tu. The chloroplast probe also reacts with fragments coding for ribosomal proteins carried by this phage. The region homologous to the elongation factor genes was located on the physical map of the chloroplast genome by probing restriction fragments of chloroplast DNA with cloned fragments, labeled in vitro, carrying the E. coli elongation factor Tu genes.

Chloroplasts contain complete translational and transcriptional systems distinct from those used in expression of nuclear genes. Some elements of the translational machinery in this organelle have been shown to be encoded by the chloroplast genome. The genes for rRNAs, tRNAs, and perhaps some ribosomal proteins (r proteins) (1, 2) are located in chloroplast DNA (cpDNA). There is some evidence suggesting that at least some of the plastid elongation factors are also synthesized in the organelle and encoded in organelle DNA (3-5). The chloroplast translational system has been shown to have structural and functional similarities with the prokaryotic system. For example, there is extensive nucleotide sequence homology between the rRNA (6, 7) and tRNA (8) genes of chloroplasts and bacteria. Also, there is evidence showing that the elongation factors (EFs) of Escherichia coli and plastids are functionally exchangeable (4). Moreover, low levels of immunological homology exist, at least in some cases, between bacterial and chloroplast EFs (9) and some ^r proteins of the small ribosomal subunit (10).

An understanding of the control of gene expression in chloroplasts would be greatly facilitated by knowledge of the organization of the genes coding for proteins involved in this process. Identification of such genes usually involves preparing antibodies to a specific purified protein and then using the antibody in identifying the DNA fragment that codes for the protein. This is very laborious, so we sought to develop alternative methods. Because of the similarities between the bacterial and chloroplast translational systems mentioned above, we reasoned that there may be enough homology between the respective coding sequences to permit identification of the corresponding chloroplast genes in heterologous DNA-DNA hybridizations.

Our approach was to first identify which, if any, bacterial genes are homologous to cpDNA (using ^a labeled cpDNA probe) and then use these genes to map the corresponding sequences on the chloroplast genome. As convenient sources of a large number of well-characterized E . *coli* genes, we chose the specialized transducing phages λ fus3 (11) and λr if^d18 (12) and recombinant plasmids derived from them. The DNA segments carried by $\lambda f u s3$ and $\lambda r i f d18$ between them account for ≈ 70 kilobases of the bacterial chromosome and carry genes for RNA polymerase α , β , and β' subunits, EF Tu, EF G, rRNAs, tRNAs, and ³¹ ^r proteins (13). By using DNA dot hybridizations (14), we established reaction conditions under which the labeled cpDNA reacts with transducing phage DNA but not with wildtype phage or plasmid vector sequences. This is necessary to eliminate cross-hybridization between promoters, ribosome binding sites, or termination sequences present on the vectors. Very similar sequences are present on cpDNA (15, 16). These conditions were then used for Southern hybridizations (17) with labeled cpDNA probes and blotted restriction fragments of the phage DNAs. The experiments determined which of the genes on these phages share homology with cpDNA. Cloned phage fragments were then hybridized to Southern blots of cpDNA, thereby locating these sequences in the chloroplast genome. The results presented here locate the chloroplast EF Tu gene, which shows extensive homology with the E. coli EF Tu gene. We also show that some homology exists between cpDNA sequences and λ fus3 fragments containing the following E. coli genes: the α subunit of RNA polymerase and ribosomal proteins S4, Sll, S13, L2, LA, L22, and L23. These results indicate that our basic premise was correct and raise the possibility that this approach may be useful in quickly identifying chloroplast genes other than those studied here. A portion of this work has been reported in preliminary form (18).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials. Restriction enzymes BamHI and EcoRI were obtained from Miles; all other restriction enzymes, E. coli DNA polymerase I, T4 DNA ligase, T4 polynucleotide kinase, and bacteriophage λ cI857S7 DNA (referred to as λ) were from Bethesda Research Laboratories. All were used as recommended by the supplier. DNase I, RNase A, and RNase T1 were obtained from Sigma; calf intestine alkaline phosphatase was from Boehringer Mannheim. $[\alpha^{-32}P]$ dCTP (400 Ci/mmol; 1 Ci = 3.7 \times 10^{10} becquerels) was from Amersham. [γ^{32} P]ATP (6000 Ci/ mmol) was prepared as described (19).

Purification of DNAs. Chlamydomonas reinhardtii cpDNA was prepared from strain $CW15(+)$ as described (20). Specialized λ transducing phages were obtained from S. R. Jaskunas or were purified from the appropriate lysogen after thermal induction as described (21). Phage DNA was extracted essentially according to Miller (21). Plasmid DNA was isolated from cells by an alkaline-detergent method (22) after either growth to saturation or amplification with chloramphenicol. After treatment

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Abbreviations: cpDNA, chloroplast DNA; ^r protein, ribosomal protein; EF, elongation factor; rDNA, DNA complementary to rRNA.

with RNase A and RNase T1, repeated phenol and chloroform extractions, and dialysis, plasmid DNA was separated from chromosomal DNA by acidic phenol extraction (23) followed by repeated ethanol precipitation. All DNAs were stored at 4°C in ¹⁰ mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5/1 mM EDTA.

Construction of Recombinant Plasmids. The EcoRI fragments of Afus3 were mixed with EcoRI-cleaved pBR325 (24) (mass ratio, 4:1) and the mixture was incubated with T4 DNA ligase. The ligation reaction mixture was then used to transform (25) E. coli strain DG-75 (26). Colonies harboring recombinant plasmids were selected by plating first on ampicillin medium and then on chloramphenicol medium. One such plasmid, found to carry the 8.5% fragment by restriction analysis, was called pLF8.5 and is used here. The 18.6% EcoRI fragment of λr if^d18 was cloned in the vector pSF2124 (27) and was obtained from S. R. Jaskunas as pAB80. The Afus3 Sma I fragment encoding the ³' half of the tufA gene, cloned into pMB9, was obtained from A. Furano (28) as pT1.

DNADNA Hybridizations. DNA dot filters were prepared as described (15). Filters were incubated prior to hybridization at 42°C in hybridization buffer (0.48 M NaCl/0.060 M sodium citrate/0.08 M sodium phosphate, pH 6.8)/double strength Denhardt's solution (29) containing denatured calfthymus DNA at 40μ g/ml and the concentration of formamide used in the subsequent hybridization. The treated filters were incubated at 42° C for 30–36 hr with $[^{22}P]$ cpDNA probe in hybridization buffer and formamide as indicated in Fig. 2. The probe for dot hybridization was Hae III restriction fragments of cpDNA phosphorylated at 5' ends with $[\gamma^{32}P]ATP$ as described (30) except that calf intestine alkaline phosphatase was used. All probes were ethanol precipitated with E. coli tRNA as carrier, dissolved in hybridization buffer/formamide, and denatured by boiling (5 min). After hybridization, the filters were washed twice with hybridization buffer at 42°C containing formamide at the level used in the hybridization. The filters were then washed once at room temperature with hybridization buffer/ formamide and once with hybridization buffer. The filters were dried, mounted, and exposed to Kodak XAR-5 x-ray film using intensifying screens (Picker or DuPont Cronex) at -70° C. For Southern blot experiments, DNAs were digested with the appropriate restriction enzyme, and the digests were subjected to agarose gel electrophoresis (20, 31). The DNA fragments were then transferred to nitrocellulose sheets (17) and treated as described above. The blots were incubated with labeled probes prepared by nick-translation with $[\alpha^{-32}P]$ dCTP, E. coli DNA polymerase I, and DNase ^I (32, 33), washed, and autoradiographed as described above, except that 35% formamide was used throughout. cpDNA probes were used at 1×10^6 cpm/ ml and plasmid probes were used at 2×10^5 cpm/ml.

RESULTS

Our approach for identifying cpDNA sequences homologous to bacterial genes carried by specialized transducing phages and recombinant plasmids derived from them is discussed in the Introduction. The physical and genetic structures of the relevant portions of the phages, $\lambda f u s3$ and $\lambda r f d18$, and of the plasmids used (pLF8.5, pTl, pAB80) are shown in Fig. 1 (34-36). The appropriate reaction conditions were established by using heterologous DNA.DNA dot hybridizations. The stringency of hybridization was varied by changing the formamide concentration in the reaction, which is analogous to changing the hybridization temperature (37). The results indicate that hybridizations carried out with 30% formamide at 42°C or at $\approx 61^{\circ}$ C without formamide (37) fulfill the stringency criterion discussed above (Fig. 2). At this level of formamide, the [32P]cpDNA probe does not react with λ or pBR325 but does react with λ fus3

FIG. 1. Maps of portions of the $\lambda f \mu s3$ and $\lambda r \mu^d 18$ genomes and regions carried on recombinant plasmids. \blacksquare , Coding region for the gene indicated above the phage map; α , SPC, S10, and FUS represent the pertinent operons carried by $\lambda f \mu s3$; \rightarrow , direction of transcription of operons. EF Tu genes carried by $\lambda f \mu s$ 3 and λr if^d18 are tufA and tufB loci, respectively. Numbers represent sizes of restriction fragments in % λ units (1% λ equals \approx 490 base pairs). See refs. 34-36.

and λrif^d18 DNAs (Fig. 2). Moreover, the results described below show that the hybrid duplexes formed are even more stable than the dot hybridizations indicate, in that the following experiments were done at a formamide concentration of 35%. In fact, we have obtained results using 40% formamide that are qualitatively identical to those shown in Fig. 4 (data not shown).

The transducing phage DNA fragments responsible for the hybridization were identified by using Southern hybridizations (Fig. 3). Restriction fragments of $\lambda f u s \bar{3}$, pLF8.5, and pTl DNAs were transferred to nitrocellulose and hybridized with nicktranslated [32P]cpDNA. The labeled probe hybridizes most intensely to the EcoRI 9-8.5% doublet (Fig. 3C) and to the Sma ^I fragments that overlap the 8.5% fragment (Sma 1 4.2%, 2.1%, and 0.6%; Fig. 3F). Electrophoresis of similar digests on 1% agarose gels, in which the $9-8.5\%$ doublet is clearly resolved, shows that the cpDNA probe reacts with the 8.5% fragment but not with the 9% fragment (data not shown). This is confirmed by hybridization to an $EcoRI/SmaI$ digest of pLF8.5 (Fig. 3D). Sma ^I digestion of this fragment produces five subfragments, and only those overlapping the coding sequences for the EF Tu gene (tufA) apparently react with the probe (0.9%, 0.6%, and 2.1% fragments; Fig. 3D). The Sma ^I 0.6% fragment from pLF8.5 (Fig. 3D), λ fus3, (Fig. 3F), and λr if^d18 (not shown) is composed entirely of EF Tu gene sequences. Of the two 2.1% fragments produced by Sma ^I digestion of whole Afus3 DNA, the one encoding the 3' end of the $tufA$ gene is carried by pTl, and this fragment, which overlaps tufA, reacts with the cpDNA probe (Fig. 3E).

We have also noted hybridization of cpDNA to λ fus3 fragments other than those coding for EF Tu (e.g., EcoRI 5% and 4.6%; see Fig. 3C). These fragments are derived from the α and

FIG. 2. Hybridization of $[^{32}P]$ cpDNA to DNA dot filters using 20% (A), 30% (B), and 50% (C) formamide. Each DNA dot contained 1μ g of DNA.

FIG. 3. Hybridization of [³²P]cpDNA to restriction fragments of phage and plasmid DNAs. (Left) Ethidium bromide staining pattern after fractionation on 1.5% agarose gels. (Right) Corresponding autoradiograms after Southern blotting and hybridization. Lanes: A, EcoRI-cut λ ; B, Sma I-cut λ ; C, EcoRI-digested λ fus3; D, EcoRI/Sma I-digested pLF8.5; E, Sma I-digested pT1; F, Sma I-digested Afus3. Fragments showing hybridization that are not partial digestion products are indicated.

S10 r protein operons, respectively, and code for eight r proteins and the α subunit of RNA polymerase. These results, as well as hybridizations to the rpoBC operon carried by λrif^d18 , will be the subject of a separate communication.

The identity of the cpDNA fragments homologous to the E. coli tuf genes was determined by hybridization of tuf gene probes to cpDNA. cpDNA was digested with either EcoRI or BamHI and then fractionated on agarose gels and transferred to nitrocellulose. The Southern blots were hybridized with nicktranslated pLF8.5, pTl, or pAB80 (Fig. 4). Plasmid pT1, carrying the ³' end of the tufA gene, hybridizes to cpDNA band Eco 25 (Fig. 4A, lane 2). The pLF8.5 probe, carrying the entire tufA gene, hybridizes to Eco 25 as well as to band Eco ¹ (lane 3). Similar results are obtained with the pAB80 probe, containing the tufB gene (lane 4). However, in the latter case, additional hybridization to the Eco 3 band is also observed. This is due to the presence of E. coli 23S rRNA coding sequences on pAB80, which are homologous to 23S rDNA on cpDNA (see Fig. 5). The results of experiments in which BamHI fragments of cpDNA were used are shown in Fig. $4B$. Both truncated (pT1) and intact (pLF8.5) tufA genes hybridize to fragment Bam 5 (lanes 2 and 3). The tufB gene, carried by pAB80, also hybridizes to this fragment, and the DNA complementary to the rRNA

FIG.. 4. Hybridization of ³²P-labeled plasmid DNAs to EcoRI (A) or BamHI (B) digests of cpDNA. Lanes: ¹ and 8, ethidium bromide staining patterns of restriction fragments after electrophoresis on 0.8% agarose gels; 2-7, corresponding autoradiograms after Southern blotting and hybridization with pT1 (lane 2), pLF8.5 (lane 3), pAB80 (lane 4), pMB9 (lane 5), pBR325 (lane 6), or pSF2124 (lane 7) DNAs. Numbers on left are selected fragment numbers (20). The radioactive spot in lane 5 of B is a background spot and not a hybridization signal.

(rDNA) on the plasmid hybridizes to fragments Bam ¹¹ and Bam ¹³ (lane 4). Further, when total E. coli chromosomal DNA is used as nick-translated probe, hybridization is observed to the Eco ¹ and 25 and Bam 5 fragments, as well as to all rDNA-containing fragments (data not shown).

cpDNA band Eco 25 is composed of two distinct fragments originating from widely separated regions on the chloroplast chromosome (see Fig. 5). Therefore, it is impossible to determine precisely the location of tuf sequences by EcoRI digestion alone. This is resolved by BamHI analysis. The tuf gene probes hybridize to the Bam 5 fragment, thus, the fragment of band Eco 25 showing homology must be Eco ²⁵' (see Fig. 5; refs. 38-40). Fragment Bam 8 overlaps fragment Eco 25 and does show homology with some portion of the bacterial DNA insert carried by pAB80. This bacterial DNA segment probably resides between the 5S RNA gene and the four tRNA genes located $5'$ to the $tufB$ locus (see Fig. 1; unpublished data). Four EcoRI cpDNA fragments are contained entirely within Bam 5 but have not been ordered with respect to one another (38). The fact that the entire E . coli tuf gene probe hybridizes to fragments Eco ¹ and Eco ²⁵', while the 3'-terminal half of the gene reacts only with Eco ²⁵', suggests that the Eco ¹ and Eco ²⁵' fragments are adjacent to one another on the cpDNA restriction map (Fig. 5) and that the chloroplast tuf gene spans a single EcoRI site. We conclude that the gene is transcribed from fragment Eco ¹ toward fragment Eco ²⁵'.

DISCUSSION

The data presented here show that cpDNA contains ^a gene homologous to the E . coli tuf genes. This conclusion is based on heterologous DNA-DNA hybridizations between E. coli genes and cpDNA. Our reaction conditions were selected to be stringent enough not to allow hybridization between cpDNA and vector sequences. This was determined with DNA dot hybridizations and various formamide concentrations. The tuf gene

FIG. 5. Restriction map of C. reinhardtii cpDNA (38, 39) indicating positions of rDNA-containing inverted repeats (38). Inner circle, Bgl II map; middle circle, BamHI map; outer circle, EcoRI map. TU, EF Tu gene; \rightarrow , direction of transcription. Numbers refer to bands as described in ref. 20.

hybrid duplexes we observe can form at a formamide concentration of 30-40%, which corresponds to a temperature of 61-670C without formamide (37). Based on hybridization intensity, gene size, and reiteration frequency of the restriction fragments, we estimate the level of homology between bacterial and chloroplast tuf genes to be approximately the same as, if not higher than, the homology between the rRNA genes. Our hybridization conditions are comparable with those of others using heterologous probes (41, 42). A similar approach has been useful in identifying nitrogen fixation genes among prokaryotes (41, 42). Our work probably represents the first demonstrated case of interkingdom hybridization involving protein-coding genes.

That the tuf genes of E . coli and the C . reinhardtii chloroplast are homologous is clearly shown by Fig. 3. The pattern of [32P]cpDNA hybridization to phage and plasmid restriction fragments shows that the homology extends throughout the entire length of the tufA gene. Using three different E. coli tuf gene probes, we determined the location of the chloroplast EF Tu gene by hybridization to blots of cpDNA restriction digests that have known maps. Since the chloroplast tuf gene overlaps an EcoRI site, the direction of transcription of the gene was inferred from differential hybridization patterns (Fig. 4). Transcription proceeds from fragment Eco ¹ toward fragment Eco 25' and is therefore in the same direction as the closest rRNA operon. As the gene is not located within the rDNA-containing inverted repeats and spans an EcoRI site, we conclude that there is one EF Tu gene per chloroplast chromosome. This is in contrast to the situation in the E . coli genome, which contains duplicate $\mathcal{t}uf$ genes (13). The cellular functions necessitating this situation must not occur in the C. reinhardtii chloroplast. It is known that the tuf genes of a wide variety of prokaryotes are conserved (43), in particular, their COOH-terminal regions. Synthesis of both EF Tu and EF G by isolated spinach plastids has been observed (3), suggesting that both are chloroplast encoded. However, a different situation exists in Euglena chloroplasts, in which EF G and EF Ts may be nuclear encoded (4, 5). Interestingly, we found no detectable homology between cpDNA and the E. coli EF G gene (see Fig. 3C). It may be that the gene is nuclear encoded in Chlamydomonas or that the homology of the chloroplast gene is too low to be detected under our hybridization conditions. These two possibilities cannot as yet be distinguished. Finally, is the newly defined chloroplast tuf gene expressed? Although not directly approached in the present work, we previously found (20) that this region of cpDNA is extensively transcribed in vivo throughout the cell cycle. It seems likely that some of the transcripts observed previously are derived from the tuf gene.

We also find homology between cpDNA and some part(s) of both the α and S10 operons. Mapping of cpDNA regions hybridizing with the S10 and rpoBC operons (unpublished results) indicates that these genes, like the tuf gene, do not lie within the inverted repeats. The S10 region maps between the closest inverted repeat and the tuf gene. This, together with data concerning possible tRNA coding sequences (44) in this area of the chloroplast genome, suggests to us a possible clustering ofgenes coding for components of the protein synthetic machinery. Our demonstration of sequence homology between the EFTu genes of E. coli and cpDNA of C. reinhardtii is in accord with the widely held hypothesis that chloroplasts have a prokaryotic origin.

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