Insertion and Excision of Caenorhabditis elegans Transposable Element Tcl

DAVID EIDEt AND PHILIP ANDERSON*

Department of Genetics, University of Wisconsin, 445 Henry Mall, Madison, Wisconsin 53706

Received 8 September 1987/Accepted 10 November 1987

The transposable element Tc1 is responsible for most spontaneous mutations that occur in *Caenorhabditis* elegans variety Bergerac. We investigated the genetic and molecular properties of Tc1 transposition and excision. We show that Tc1 insertion into the $unc-54$ myosin heavy-chain gene was strongly site specific. The DNA sequences of independent Tcl insertion sites were similar to each other, and we present ^a consensus sequence for Tcl insertion that describes these similarities. We show that Tcl excision was usually imprecise. Tc1 excision was imprecise in both germ line and somatic cells. Imprecise excision generated novel unc-54 alleles that had amino acid substitutions, amino acid insertions, and, in certain cases, probably altered mRNA splicing. The DNA sequences remaining after Tcl somatic excision were the same as those remaining after germ line excision, but the frequency of somatic excision was at least 1,000-fold higher than that of germ line excision. The genetic properties of Tc1 excision, combined with the DNA sequences of the resulting unc-54 alleles, demonstrated that excision was dependent on Tcl transposition functions in both germ line and somatic cells. Somatic excision was not regulated in the same strain-specffic manner as germ-line excision was. In a genetic background where Tcl transposition and excision in the germ line was not detectable, Tcl excision in the soma still occurred at high frequency.

Transposable elements are responsible for a variety of genetic phenomena in many organisms (for a review, see reference 62). They are a major source of spontaneous mutations because of their ability to cause insertions, deletions, and other DNA rearrangements. In addition to eliminating gene function, insertion of a transposable element within or near a gene can alter the level, tissue specificity, or developmental timing of gene expression (24, 41, 52). Excision of transposable elements can also dramatically affect gene activity. Excision is imprecise for most transposons, and this results in sequence alterations remaining at the sites of excision (2, 5, 9, 12, 53, 58, 61, 67, 69). Imprecise excision of transposable elements can lead to proteins that have altered molecular weights (63), enzymatic activities (14, 69), and developmental patterns of gene expression (10, 40). The insertion and excision of transposable elements, therefore, might be a significant source of genetic variability in nature (for a review, see reference 68).

The genetic activity of transposable elements is often tightly controlled. The frequencies of transposition and excision can be regulated in a strain- and tissue-specific manner. For example, transposition and excision of certain maize transposons depend on the presence of other elements within the genome (for a review, see reference 25). Drosophila P factors transpose and excise only in the germ line (20) and only after certain interstrain crosses (4; for a review, see reference 21). Eucaryotic transposons usually encode proteins required for their own transposition and excision. Such activities are generally referred to as transposases, although their roles in the transposition process are unknown. The regulation of transposase activity is central to the regulation of transposable element activity. For example, the strain and tissue specificities of P factor transposition and excision are due to regulation of transposase activity (22, 36).

Excision of Tcl is also regulated in a strain- and tissuespecific manner. Tcl-induced mutations often revert toward a wild-type phenotype after excision of the element (15, 43). Reversion of such mutations in the germ line occurs only in strains that are active for Tcl transposition (43, 45). Thus, germ line excision of Tcl appears to be transposase dependent. The frequency of Tcl excision in the soma is much higher than that in the germ line and can be detected by both genetic (15) and biochemical (18) techniques.

We reported previously the isolation and genetic properties of Tc1 insertions affecting the C . elegans unc-54 gene (15), which encodes one of two myosin heavy-chain isozymes expressed in body wall muscle cells (23, 39). In this paper, we consider in more detail the genetic and molecular properties of Tcl transposition and excision. We determined the DNA sequences at the insertion sites of ¹¹ independent unc-54::Tcl mutations. We sequenced 20 unc-54 alleles generated either by germ line or by somatic excision of Tcl. We investigated the genetic properties of $unc-54::Tc1$ mutations in both germ line and somatic cells and interpret these genetic properties in light of the DNA sequences of Tcl insertions and excisions. Finally, we investigated the regulation of Tcl transposition and excision in different tissues and for different genetic backgrounds.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Genetic procedures. The conditions for growth of C. elegans and methods for its genetic manipulation have been described previously (6). unc-54::Tcl mutants are descen-

Transposition of the element Tcl, contained in the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans, is regulated in a strain- and tissue-specific manner. Multiple copies of Tcl are present in the genomes of all wild isolates of C . *elegans* (19, 37), yet Tcl transposes at a detectable frequency in only certain strains $(15, 16, 43, 45)$. In the C. elegans wild-type variety Bergerac, transposition of Tcl is responsible for most spontaneous mutations. In other wild-type varieties (e.g., Bristol and DH424), transposition of Tcl is rare or not detectable.

^{*} Corresponding author.

t Present address: Department of Biology, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA 02139.

TABLE 1. Frequencies of germ line and somatic reversion of $unc-54$:: $Tc1$ mutants

		Frequency of $unc-54$ ⁺ revertants								
Strain ^a	Genotype	Germ line ^b	Somatic							
TR452	$unc-54(323::Tc1)$	3×10^{-5}	7×10^{-3}							
TR454	$unc-54(r328::Tc1)$	1×10^{-5}	6×10^{-3}							
TR670	$unc-54(r362::Tc1)$	4×10^{-5}	3×10^{-2}							
TR672	$unc-54(r366::Tc1)$	1×10^{-5}	3×10^{-3}							
TR669	$unc-54(r387::Tc1)$	9×10^{-6}	1×10^{-2}							
TR668	$unc-54(r388::Tc1)$	6×10^{-6}	2×10^{-3}							
TR667	$unc-54(r390::Tc1)$	2×10^{-5}	7×10^{-3}							
TR451	$unc-54(r322::Tc1)$	$< 6 \times 10^{-7}$	9×10^{-4}							
TR666	$unc-54(r361::Tc1)$	$< 6 \times 10^{-7}$	6×10^{-4}							
TR671	$unc-54(r327::Tc1)$	$< 6 \times 10^{-7}$	$< 2 \times 10^{-4}$							
TR656	$unc-54(r360::Tc1)$	$< 6 \times 10^{-7}$	$<$ 2 \times 10 ⁻⁴							

 a Strains having insertions at an identical position in $unc-54$ are grouped together.

Germ line reversion frequencies were estimated by Poisson analysis of the distribution of revertants among independent cultures (see Materials and Methods).

dants of strain EM1002 (18), our canonical C. elegans variety Bergerac stock. unc-54::Tcl mutants are selected as partial revertants of the strain $unc-105(n490)$ II (15, 50). We removed the unc-105 mutation from the primary isolate of each insertion by crossing each strain with wild-type Bergerac males; the unc-54 insertions were then segregated from unc-105. For three insertions (r387, r388, and r390), unc-105 was removed by first crossing the primary isolates with wild-type Bristol males. The resulting unc-54 single mutants were then crossed six times with Bergerac males. In this way, we isolated each unc-54 mutation in Bergerac genetic backgrounds that are essentially isogenic.

Germ line reversion frequencies were estimated by Poisson analysis of the distribution of wild-type revertants among 20 to 40 independent cultures. The proportion of cultures that did not contain revertants (P_0) was used to calculate each frequency. $(P_0 = e^{-an}$; $a =$ reversion frequency; $n =$ number of animals per culture.) This method corrects for revertants that occur early during growth of a culture and for multiple revertants that occur within a single culture. When no revertants were obtained in any culture, we concluded that the frequencies were less than the reciprocal of the total number of worms screened (Tables ¹ and 2). Because of sampling error, however, such estimates are only approximate (the confidence intervals are about 63%). The upper limits for the 95% confidence intervals are approximately threefold higher than the frequencies shown in Tables 1 and 2. Data for frequency calculations are as follows: $n = 40,000$ for all cultures; $P_0(\text{TR451}) = 40/40$; $P_0(\text{TR452}) = 6/20; P_0(\text{TR454}) = 13/20; P_0(\text{TR623}) = 3/13;$ $P_0(\text{TR656}) = 40/40; P_0(\text{TR657}) = 37/40; P_0(\text{TR666}) = 40/40;$ $P_0(TR667) = 8/20$; $P_0(TR668) = 16/20$; $P_0(TR669) = 14/20$; $P_0(TR670) = 4/20$; $P_0(TR671) = 40/40$; $P_0(TR672) = 12/20$; P_0 (TR759) = 50/50; and P_0 (TR1299)= 46/47.

Somatic revertants have a characteristic phenotype (15), and their frequency was estimated by counting the number of egg-laying, partial revertants among total gravid hermaphrodites. The somatic reversion frequencies shown in Tables ¹ and 2 are based on 6 to 19 independent events. Somatic revertants were not observed for strains TR671 and TR656. We concluded that their frequencies were less than the reciprocal of the total number of worms screened (Table 1). As discussed above, these estimates are approximate.

To substitute the $unc-54(r323::Tc1)$ mutation in the DH424 genetic background, we crossed the Bergerac strain TR452 [genotype $unc-54(r323::Tc1)$] with wild-type DH424 males. Cross-progeny hermaphrodites were picked, and homozygous unc-54 mutants were isolated in the next generation, yielding strain TR623. This procedure was repeated a second and third time, yielding strains TR657 and TR759, respectively. We continued the backcrossing series for ^a total of ¹⁰ crosses with DH424. The Bristol mutation $lev-11(x12)$ was introduced after backcross 5, and a lev-ll unc-54 recombinant was identified. (lev-1l is approximately ¹ map unit left of unc-54 on LGI.) A crossover that separated lev-li from unc-54 was identified after backcross 6, and the resulting unc-54 single mutant was crossed four additional times with DH424, yielding strain TR1299. This procedure isolated the Bergerac unc-54(r323::Tcl) region from the remainder of chromosome ^I by two recombination events. unc-54 and terminal regions of LGI in TR1299 are derived from Bergerac, but the remainder of the genome is DH424.

Biochemical methods. Our methods for growing nematodes, extracting DNA, and cloning unc-54::Tcl alleles into lambda vectors have been described previously (16, 65). Germ line revertant alleles were cloned in a similar manner, except that SalI complete digestion products were ligated to Sall-digested EMBL3 lambda DNA (27). For cloning somatic excision alleles, we prepared nematode DNA from cultures that were enriched for somatic DNA and empty sites. Somatic excision alleles were cloned by ligating XbaI-Sall double-digestion products to XbaI-digested lambda ²¹⁴⁹ DNA (32). We obtained somatic excision clones TR#25 through TR#28 from a culture of strain TR451 [genotype $unc-54(r322::Tc1)$] that had been grown to starvation and incubated for 14 days without food. Starvation prevents reproduction, and somatic excisions accumulate in the population (17). We obtained somatic excision clones $TR#29$ through TR#33 from a culture of strain TR814 [genotype $lin-27(b151)$ unc-54(r323::Tc1)]. The mutation $lin-27(b151)$ causes sterility and greatly reduced numbers of germ cells (J. Kimble, personal communication). A culture of strain TR814 was grown to starvation at 20°C, refed, and shifted to 25°C for ⁴ days. We then harvested the animals and extracted their DNA. Southern blots indicated that as much as 40% of the unc-54 gene copies in TR814 can be empty sites. We visually screened TR451 and TR814 cultures before harvesting to ensure the absence of phenotypic revertants. Somatic excision clones were isolated randomly from the somatic

TABLE 2. Effects of genetic background on germ line and somatic reversion of $unc-54(r323::Tc1)$

Strain ^a	Genotype	No. of backcrosses	Frequency of unc-54 ⁺ revertants						
		with DH424	Germ line	Somatic					
TR452	$unc-54(r323::Tc1)$	0	3×10^{-5}	7×10^{-3}					
TR623	$unc-54(r323::Tc1)$		4×10^{-5}	6×10^{-3}					
TR657	$unc-54(r323::Tc1)$	2	2×10^{-6}	7×10^{-3}					
TR759	$unc-54(r323::Tc1)$	3	$< 5 \times 10^{-7}$	3×10^{-3}					
TR1299	$unc-54(r323::Tc1)$	10	5×10^{-7}	2×10^{-3}					

^a Strains were derived by repeatedly crossing the Bergerac mutation unc-54(r323::TcJ) with wild-type variety DH424 (see Materials and Methods). After each backcross, an increasing fraction of the genome is DH424 material. The frequencies of germ line reversion were estimated by Poisson analysis of the distribution of revertants among independent cultures (see Materials and Methods).

B.

FIG. 1. Tcl insertion sites in unc-54. (A) Tcl insertion sites in unc-54 shown relative to the protein-coding regions of the gene. The limits $u_n = 54$ shown here are the AUG translational initiation codon and the AAUAAA p of unc-54 shown here are the AUG translational initiation codon and the AAUAAA polyadenylation signal (33). \blacksquare , Exons; -E, untranslated ³' region. (B) DNA sequences of Tcl insertional junctions shown below the corresponding wild-type DNA sequences. Sequences corresponding to the Tc1 element are indicated (< . . . Tc1 . . . >). The TA dinucleotides that flank each insertion are underlined. The nucleotide positions in *unc-54* are described by Karn et al. (33).

DNA of $>10^6$ animals. Therefore, they almost certainly represented independent excision events.

M13 cloning procedure. We subcloned Tcl insertional junction fragments into the sequencing vector M13mpl9 (42) and sequenced them by the method of Sanger et al. (60). For most insertions, appropriate restriction fragments containing each Tcl insert and flanking unc-54 DNA were gel purified (70) from lambda clones, digested with BalI, ligated to appropriately digested M13mpl9 DNA, and transfected into Escherichia coli JM101. Two clones were retained for each insertion allele. Each clone extends from a Tcl BalI site, located 9 base pairs from each terminus of Tcl, to a restriction site in adjacent unc-54 DNA; one clone covers the insertional junction nearest the ⁵' end of unc-54, and the other clone covers the insertional junction nearest the ³' end of unc-54. For insertions r322 and r361, an analogous method was used, except that subclones extended from a Tcl EcoRV site, located 17 base pairs from each terminus of Tcl, to a restriction site in adjacent unc-54 DNA. Germ line and somatic excision alleles were subcloned in a similar manner.

Derivation of an insertion site consensus sequence. The DNA sequences surrounding the points of insertion are known for 24 Tcl elements (54, 56, 57; I. Mori, G. M. Benian, D. G. Moerman, and R. H. Waterston, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, in press) (Fig. 1). These insertions are located at ¹⁶ different sites on various chromosomes. We considered each site only once and compared the two DNA strands of each site to all other sites. We considered ¹⁶ nucleotides for each strand and aligned them at the TA dinucleotide into which Tcl inserts. We wrote ^a computer program that compares all possible DNA consensus sequences with all possible combinations of ¹⁶ DNA strands. For each consensus sequence and each combination of strands, we totaled the number of nucleotides that match the consensus. We accepted as significant any base or combination of bases in the consensus sequence whose probability of occurrence was less than 5%. We used the binomial expansion and the base composition of all ³² DNA strands to evaluate the probability of occurrence. For example, the G residue at position -5 is significant ($P = 0.006$) because 8 of the ¹⁶ strands shown in Fig. ² contain ^a G at this position and G residues constitute only 19.7% of total bases. The combination of DNA strands and the consensus sequence that yielded the largest number of significant matching bases (114

Α. Insertion Site											5'-Sequence-3'		Reference							
	$unc-54(r323::Tc1)$										GCT CATCTACGTA AGT				this paper					
	$unc-54(r322:rCl)$										GAA GAGATACCAA GAG									
	$unc-54(r327::Tc1)$										CGC AAGTTATGGA GGA				Ħ					
	$unc-54(r360::Tc1)$										GAG ATAATACCGA GTG				Ħ					
	$unc-22(st136::Tc1)$										AAG GATGTACATT GAA				Mori et al., in press					
	$unc-22(st137::Tc1)$										CTT GATGTACCAG GAA									
	$unc-22(st139::Tc1)$										ACC AATGTACCAT CTT				w					
	$unc-22(st140::Tc1)$										CCA GTGGTAGCTT CTC				Ħ					
	$unc-22(st141:7c1)$										AAC GACATATCCC AAA									
	$unc-22(st185::Tc1)$										CGG CATCTATGTC GCC				n					
	$lin-12$ (e 1979 ::Tcl)										GCA TGTATATGTA AAC									
	$unc-15(r408::Tc1)$										GAT GAGATATGTG TGT				w					
pCe(Be)T1								GCA CATATATTTG AAA				(57)								
	pCe2001										ACA TATTTATGTA CTT				(58)					
	stP1										AGA GATATAGGTT T--				(46)					
	Tcl(Hin)										TCA GTCATAACTA ACG				(55)					
В.											Position Relative To Insertion Site									
															-8 -7 -6 -5 -4 -3 -2 -1 $+1$ $+2$ $+3$ $+4$ $+5$ $+6$ $+7$ $+8$					
Number of Occurrences Among 16		G	6.		3 ₃	8	1	$\overline{4}$	\overline{a}	0	0 ₂	7	$\mathbf{2}$	3	6	3	$_{3}$			
		A			5 5 7						3 12 1 8 0 16 1		$1 \quad 3$	$\overline{}$	5	6	-5			
		т		$1\quad1$	$\mathbf{3}$						$2 \t3 \t9 \t2 \t16 \t0 \t7$		110	4	$\mathbf{2}$	4	4			
DNA Strands																				
		C		47	3	3 ¹		0 ₂		$2 \quad 0$				$0 \t6 \t7 \t1 \t2$	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$		2 ₃			
G Consensus:						ĉ	т			т										

FIG. 2. Consensus sequence for insertion of Tcl. (A) DNA sequences of ¹⁶ Tcl insertion sites. For each site, the strand shown is the one that maximizes the score of the derived consensus sequence (see Materials and Methods). (B) Site matrix that describes the DNA strands shown in panel A. The consensus sequence was derived by accepting as significant any base or combination of bases whose probability of occurrence is less than 5% (see Materials and Methods). Underlined values indicate significant bases.

out of 144 total possible matches) are shown in Fig. 2. This process has the effect of choosing for each insertion site the DNA strand that maximizes the score of the derived consensus.

RESULTS

Strong site-specificity of Tcl insertion. We determined the insertion sites of ¹¹ Tcl-induced unc-54 mutations. We cloned Tcl-induced unc-54 alleles and determined the DNA sequences at both termini of each insert. By comparing the sequences of the wild-type *unc-54* gene (33) with those of the insertional junctions, we identified the site of each insertion. Our genetic methods ensure that each insertion represents an independent mutational event (15).

Fig. 1A shows the sites of Tcl insertion within unc-54, and Fig. 1B shows the DNA sequences of each insertional junction fragment. Tcl displays a striking target site preference. Of 11 Tcl insertions, 7 are located at a single site within the gene; this site represents a "hotspot" for insertion of Tc1 in unc-54. Two insertions, unc-54(r322::Tc1) and $unc-54(r361::Tc1)$, are both located at a second site (site 2) within the gene. The remaining alleles, unc-54(r327::Tcl) and unc-54(r360::Tcl), represent insertions at sites 3 and 4. Each insertion is located within an unc-54 exon.

Each of the ¹¹ Tcl insertions is flanked by TA dinucleotides; only one copy of the TA dinucleotide is found at the corresponding site in the wild-type sequence. These TA dinucleotides might represent a 2-base-pair target site duplication that is formed during insertion. Duplications of the target site are characteristic of transposable genetic elements (7, 28). However, since TA is itself an inverted repeat, these nucleotide§ might be part of Tcl. In this case, no target site duplication is formed upon insertion (see discussion of this point in reference 55). All Tcl insertions sequenced to date (a total of 24) are flanked by TA dinucleotides (54, 56, 57; Mori et al., in press) (Fig. 1).

We observed one DNA sequence polymorphism within the inverted repeats of Tcl. Tcl elements have 54-base-pair inverted repeat termini, and we sequenced the outermost 9 or 19 nucleotides of each repeat (see Materials and Methods). With one exception, the regions of Tcl that we sequenced were identical to each other and to those of the canonical Tcl element pCe(Be)T1 (56). In the exceptional case, one inverted repeat of the $unc-54(r361::Tc1)$ insertion contained 2-base-pair differences compared with all other sequenced termini, including the other terminal inverted repeat of r361.

Consensus sequence for Tcl insertion. We compared the nucleotides surrounding the unc-54::Tcl insertion sites to those in other loci. The DNA sequences of ¹² additional Tcl insertion sites are available for comparison (54, 56, 57; Mori et al., in press). Mori et al. have described (in press) a consensus sequence for Tcl insertion that is based on 11 of these sites. We compared the ¹⁶ sites and derived ^a consensus sequence that best describes the similarities among sites. Our methods for deriving the consensus are described more fully in Materials and Methods, and our results are shown in Fig. 2. The consensus sequence $5'$ -GA $_{\rm TG}^{\rm GA}$ TA $_{\rm CC}^{\rm TG}$ T-3' best describes the similarities among all 16 insertion sites. This consensus sequence is similar to that derived by Mori et al. (in press). The DNA sequence similarities of independent insertion sites suggest that the specificity of Tcl insertion is VOL. 8, 1988

due, at least in part, to ^a preference for certain primary DNA sequences (see Discussion).

Frequencies of germ line and somatic reversion. Many Tcl-induced mutations are unstable; they revert to a wildtype phenotype in both germ line and somatic cells. We determined the frequencies of germ line and somatic reversion for each of our 11 *unc-54*:*:Tcl* alleles; our results are shown in Table 1. Since genetic background can significantly affect reversion (43, 45; see below), we measured reversion frequencies in Bergerac genetic backgrounds that are essentially isogenic (see Materials and Methods).

Germ line revertants of unc-54::Tcl mutants are detected as wild-type (non-Unc) animals that occur spontaneously in cultures of the paralyzed mutants. These revertants breed true, and their $unc-54$ ⁺ gene is a stably inherited genetic trait. We observed germ line revertants for ⁸ of our ¹¹ unc-54::Tcl mutants. Each of the seven hotspot insertions exhibited similar frequencies of reversion (Table 1); the average for the seven insertions was 1.8×10^{-5} per gamete. We obtained revertants for one other insertion, unc- $54(r322::Tc1)$. The frequency of $r322$ reversion, however, was quite low (less than 6×10^{-7} per gamete; Table 1), and we were unable to accurately measure its reversion frequency. We have not observed revertants for the remaining three insertions; their reversion frequencies are each less than 6×10^{-7} per gamete.

Somatic revertants of unc-54::Tcl mutants are detected as egg-laying-proficient, partially motile animals. unc-54 mutants are egg-laying defective (Egl), because the sex muscles (a set of 16 cells required for egg laying) express unc-54 myosin heavy chains. Reversion of unc-54::Tcl mutations in ancestors or certain descendants of the postembryonic mesoblast restores egg-laying ability because the sex muscles are revertant. Such animals are partially motile because all or part of the postembryonic muscle cells are revertant as well. The reversion event in these animals is confined to the soma; their germ lines are exclusively mutant (15). Thus, we can determine the frequencies of somatic reversion in the mesoblast cell lineage by measuring the frequencies of non-Egl, non-Unc, non-wild-type revertants.

We observed somatic revertants for 9 of our 11 unc-54::Tcl mutants. Each of the seven hotspot insertions exhibited similar frequencies of somatic reversion (Table 1); the average for the seven insertions was nearly 1% per animal. Both r322 and r361, which are insertions at site 2 (Fig. 1), reverted at a frequency of approximately 0.08% per animal. We have not observed somatic revertants for the remaining insertions; their frequencies were less than 0.02% per animal.

The very high frequency of somatic reversion for insertions at the hotspot reflects the very high frequency of Tcl somatic excision (18). It is not possible to compare directly the frequency of germ line reversion with the frequency of somatic reversion. The frequencies of germ line reversion represent revertants per gamete among a population of gametes. The frequencies of somatic reversion represent revertants per animal among a population of animals. Individual animals, however, contain many somatic cells, and reversion in any one of a number of cells would be detected as ^a somatic revertant. We estimated that at most there are 20 cells during development in which we would detect somatic reversion. This estimate is based on the known lineages of the muscle cells in which we detect somatic reversion (66). Somatic excision occurs in most, if not all, somatic cells (17). Assuming that Tcl excision in the approximately 20 cells in which we can detect reversion is representative of its behavior in all somatic cells, we calculated that the frequency of somatic reversion in Bergerac, when expressed as revertants per cell, is approximately 1,000-fold higher than the frequency of germ line reversion. This estimate is consistent with the accumulated level of empty sites observed in Bergerac genomic DNA (18). Empty sites are products of somatic excision; they are the chromosomal sequences that remain after Tcl excision in somatic cells.

The sites of Tcl insertion correlated strongly with the frequencies of germ line and somatic reversion. Insertions at the hotspot reverted at high frequencies in both tissues. Alleles r322 and r361, which are insertions at site 2, reverted in the soma at lower, but detectable frequencies and in the germ line at or below our level of detection. Alleles r327 and $r369$, which are located at sites 3 and 4, failed to revert at detectable frequencies in either tissue.

These data indicate that both the germ line and somatic reversion properties of unc-54::Tcl mutants are determined by the site of insertion and not by the nature of the inserted element. This could be due to direct effects of the insertion sites on the frequency or nature of excision or to constraints imposed by our genetic methods. Since revertants were selected phenotypically, only excisions that restored gene function were detected. The differences between sites, then, reflect the ability of the unc-54 myosin heavy-chain protein to tolerate the products of imprecise excision. Results presented below demonstrate that the latter explanation is correct.

DNA sequences of germ line revertants. Germ line revertants of unc-54::Tcl mutants result from excision of the element (15). To determine what types of germ line excision are responsible for reversion, we sequenced the excision sites of 11 independent $unc-54$ ⁺ revertants. We sequenced five wild-type revertants derived from the hotspot insertions $r323$ and $r328$, two partial revertants derived from the hotspot insertion r323, and four wild-type revertants derived from the non-hotspot insertion r322. The wild-type revertants are phenotypically indistinguishable from EM1002, our canonical C. elegans variety Bergerac wild-type strain. The partial revertants are more motile than the parental Tcl insertion mutant but are slower than the wild type. The DNA sequences of these 11 revertants are presented in Fig. 3.

Each of these 11 revertants resulted from imprecise excision of Tcl. The absence of precise excisions in this set indicates that such events are rare. Each revertant resulted from simple deletion of Tcl sequences and, occasionally, adjacent target site DNA. All breakpoints occurred no farther than 3 base pairs from the termini of Tcl.

The wild-type revertants $unc-54(647)$ through $unc-$ 54(r850) contain 3- or 6-base-pair insertions relative to the wild-type gene (Fig. 3A). Since a multiple of ³ base pairs was inserted, the translational reading frame of unc-54 mRNA was maintained. These alleles encode proteins that contain insertions of one (Asn) or two (Met-Tyr) amino acids at the excision site.

The wild-type revertants $unc-54(651)$ through unc-54(r855) contain identical 4-base-pair insertions (TATGTA versus TA for the wild-type gene [Fig. 3B]). The translational reading frame of unc-54 mRNA is not maintained in these revertants. Why are they phenotypically wild type? The site of insertion-excision in these alleles is very close to ^a ⁵' splice site in unc-54 mRNA. We propose that these alleles are phenotypically wild type because mRNA splicing is altered, such that the 4-nucleotide insertion is removed from the mRNA (see Discussion). The partial revertant allele r837 also contains a 4-base-pair insertion relative to the

FIG. 3. DNA sequences resulting from Tcl excision. The DNA sequences of germ line revertants and somatic excision clones are shown relative to the sequence of the wild-type gene and the Tcl insertion mutation from which they were derived. Nucleotides of the Tc1 element are set apart in brackets $(< \dots$ Tc1... >). The TA dinucleotides that flank each insertion are underlined. (A) Germ line revertants and somatic excision clones derived from unc- $54(r322::Tc1)$; (B) germ line revertants and somatic excision clones derived from unc-54(r323::Tc1) or unc-54(r328::Tc1). Both r323 and r328 are Tcl insertions at the hotspot but are inserted in opposite orientations.

wild-type gene (TCTGTA versus TA). Again, we believe that altered mRNA splicing corrects the translational reading frame of this revertant. The partial revertant r661 contains a single base substitution relative to the wild-type gene, but this revertant may have altered mRNA splicing as well (see Discussion).

When considering the nature of Tcl excision, it is important to consider the relative frequencies with which these different revertants occur. Insertions at the hotspot reverted to wild type in the germ line at frequencies that were at least 30-fold higher than those of insertions at any other site (Table 1). We estimate that partial revertants of hotspot insertions occur at frequencies that are 100-fold lower than those of wild-type revertants. (Two partial revertants were isolated in an experiment in which 403 wild-type revertants were obtained.) We sequenced five wild-type revertants of hotspot insertions; all of them contained identical imprecise excisions. Therefore, this sequence was by far the most frequent germ line excision that we have detected. Germ line excisions were selected as revertants, however, and excisions that did not restore function were not isolated.

DNA sequences of Tcl somatic excisions. Tcl excision in somatic cells is sufficiently frequent that empty sites can be detected in total genomic DNA with Southern hybridizations (18). In strains that contain very few germ cells, empty-site fragments accumulated to as much as 40% of total unc-54 DNA (data not shown; see Materials and Methods). To determine the nature of somatic excision and to compare it to germ line excision, we sequenced nine independent clones of empty-site unc-54 fragments. We sequenced five clones derived from hotspot insertion r323 and four clones derived from non-hotspot insertion r322. Since empty sites were cloned at random and since their isolation was not based on functional reversion, their sequences likely represent the most frequent somatic excisions. The DNA sequences remaining after somatic excision are shown in Fig. 3.

Eight of the nine empty sites resulted from imprecise excision; only one clone resulted from precise excision, in which the wild-type sequence was restored. A 4-base-pair insertion (TATGTA versus the wild-type sequence TA) was the most frequent somatic excision for both the hotspot and r322 insertion sites. This sequence, when generated at the hotspot, restored wild-type unc-54 gene function (see above). This sequence, when generated at the $r322$ site, would not restore wild-type unc-54 gene function, because of a frameshift in the translational reading frame. These observations explain why hotspot insertions revert in germ line and somatic cells at such high frequencies relative to those at all other sites. The hotspot is fortuitously tolerant of the preferred type of Tcl imprecise excision.

The second most frequent somatic excision (TACATA versus the wild-type TA) was a closely related event. In this case, the TA dinucleotides plus ² base pairs at the opposite end of Tcl remained after excision. This event is symmetrical to the excisions described above, and a single mechanism may be responsible for both products. For example, imprecise excision might involve single-strand breaks staggered by 2 base pairs at the ends of Tcl. Ligation and mismatch repair of the resulting DNA termini could generate both of these empty sites.

Tcl-induced mutations revert to wild type in the germ line only in strains that are active for Tcl transposition (43, 45; see below). Germ line excision, therefore, is transposase dependent. The most frequent excision that we observed in the soma had the same DNA sequence as the most frequent excision that we observed in the germ line (Fig. 3). We conclude, therefore, that somatic excision is also transposase dependent.

Effects of genetic background on germ line and somatic reversion. Our ability to detect both germ line and somatic reversion of unc-54 hotspot insertions allowed us to determine the effects of genetic background on each of these events. C. elegans wild-type variety DH424 contains a copy number of Tcl similar to that of Bergerac, but these elements are quiescent for germ line transposition (15). We crossed the hotspot insertion unc-54(r323::TcJ) repeatedly with wild-type DH424 males. r323 homozygotes were isolated after 1, 2, 3, and 10 backcrosses (see Materials and Methods), and we measured the frequencies of germ line and somatic reversion at each stage. Our results are shown in Table 2. Reversion of unc-54(r323::Tc1) in the germ line of DH424 was barely detectable, about 100-fold lower than the frequency of reversion in Bergerac. Reversion of unc- $54(r323::Tc1)$ in the soma of DH424, however, was only slightly less than that of Bergerac. We conclude that activity of Tcl in the soma can be regulated independently of the germ line.

DISCUSSION

Tcl is responsible for most spontaneous mutations that occur in C. elegans variety Bergerac. We have examined the insertion and excision of Tcl in the unc-54 myosin heavychain gene. We have shown that (i) Tcl insertion is strongly site specific, (ii) Tc1 excision is usually imprecise, (iii) the DNA sequences remaining after Tcl excision are essentially the same in germ line and somatic cells, (iv) the frequency of somatic excision in C. elegans variety Bergerac is approximately 1,000-fold higher than the frequency of germ line excision, and (v) somatic excision is not regulated in the same strain-specific manner as germ line excision is.

The site specificity of Tcl insertion is not surprising. Most transposable elements, including both procaryotic and eucaryotic elements, exhibit a preference for particular target sequences (3, 13, 26, 29-31, 47, 71; Mori et al., in press). Perhaps the most extreme example of this is the bacterial transposon Tn7, which inserts at a single site on the E. coli chromosome (38). Can the consensus sequence that describes similarities between different Tcl insertion sites (Fig. 2) explain adequately the site specificity of Tcl insertion? We think not. If the consensus sequence alone were responsible for site specificity, then the unc-54 insertional hotspot should match the consensus most closely. This was not the case. The hotspot matches at seven of nine consensus positions, but *unc-54* contains seven other sites that match at eight of nine positions. Thus, the consensus sequence alone does not identify the hotspot as being particularly favorable.

Insertion of Tcl is also strongly gene specific. We estimate that Tcl insertion into the Bergerac unc-22 gene is about 100-fold more frequent than insertion into the Bergerac unc-54 gene (11, 15). Does the unc-22 gene contain 100-fold more insertion site consensus sequences? Although this is possible, it is unlikely. By extrapolating from ^a partial DNA sequence of the *unc-22* gene, Mori et al. (in press) estimate that unc-22 contains sevenfold more occurrences of a Tcl insertion site consensus sequence than does the *unc-54* gene. (The consensus sequence described by Mori et al. [in press] is closely related to that shown in Fig. 2.) Tcl clearly prefers certain DNA sequences, but factors in addition to primary DNA sequence must influence Tcl target site specificity.

Tcl excises imprecisely in both germ line and somatic cells. Of 20 independent excisions that we sequenced, only ¹ was precise. Imprecise excision is a common feature of eucaryotic transposable elements. Such events have been described for yeast cells (53), D. melanogaster (2, 9, 61, 69), maize $(63, 67)$, mice (12) , and Antirrhinum majus $(5, 10)$. Germ line and somatic excisions are closely related events. The most frequent germ line excision has a characteristic sequence (TATGTA versus TA for the wild-type site). The most frequent somatic excision has this same DNA sequence. Since germ line excision is transposase dependent (43, 45; Table 2), we conclude that somatic excision is also transposase dependent.

The excision of most eucaryotic transposable elements and perhaps some procaryotic elements is transposase dependent. The mechanism of excision in such cases is probably related to the mechanism of transposition. For example,

excision of $Tn10$ in E. coli (1, 46), Ac in maize (for a review, see reference 25), and T-DNA in Agrobacterium tumefaciens (34, 64) appears to be either an intermediate in or a consequence of the transposition process. The relationship of Tcl excision to transposition is unknown; perhaps excision is a required intermediate in transposition. Extrachromosomal linear and circular copies of Tcl have been previously described (55, 59). These molecules are presumably generated by excision, but they could be transposition intermediates as well. The extrachromosomal circular molecules are especially interesting. Retroviral proviruses may integrate via a circular intermediate (49), and examples of site-specific recombination involving circular molecules are numerous (for example, see reference 8). It is intriguing that the inferred DNA sequence at the point of Tcl circularization (CTGIACAGT [circularization point underlined] [59]) has the potential to base pair with the Tcl insertion site consensus sequence at five of nine positions; the five positions are contiguous and span the point of insertion. Perhaps such base pairing is partially responsible for insertion site specificity.

The location of a Tcl insert relative to the protein-coding region of unc-54 strongly influences the apparent frequency of reversion. Excision of Tcl is imprecise, and individual sites are able to tolerate different types of imprecise excision. For example, the r322 insertion is located within an exon, and only excisions that maintained the translational reading frame and did not disrupt myosin function were detected. r322, therefore, reverted to wild type at a much lower frequency than did insertions at the hotspot, which was tolerant of ^a wider variety of imprecise excisions. We detected neither germ line nor somatic revertants for insertions r327 and r360. We have detected somatic excision on Southern blots, however, for both of these alleles (15). Since we detected excision biochemically but not genetically, we conclude that these two insertion sites do not tolerate the sequence alterations remaining after excision.

Several revertants of hotspot insertions contain 4-basepair inserts relative to the normal gene. Why are these alleles functional? We believe that altered mRNA splicing compensates for the 4-base-pair insert. The Tcl insertional hotspot is located ¹ base pair away from the ⁵' splice site of unc-54 intron ³ (33). We propose that insert-containing revertants have a new 5' splice site that is displaced 4 bases upstream of the normal splice site. We compared the DNA sequences of hotspot revertants with those of the eucaryotic ⁵' splice site consensus (Fig. 4). C. elegans ⁵' splice sites are closely related to those of all eucaryotes (48; unpublished nematode information compiled by T. Blumenthal). Wild-type revertants r851 through r855 contain a region, displaced from the normal splice site by 4 bases, that aligns favorably with the consensus ⁵' splice signal (Fig. 4B). Splicing at the upstream site would remove the 4-base insertion from the mRNA; the resulting protein would have a wild-type amino acid sequence. A similar situation applies to the partial revertant r837 (Fig. 4C). In this case, however, the resulting protein would contain a single amino acid substitution (Tyr-114 \rightarrow Ser-114); we believe that the r837 phenotypic defect is due to this amino acid substitution. $r837$ and $r851$ through $r855$ contain normal or near-normal amounts of unc-54 protein (A. Bejsovec and P. Anderson, unpublished results), indicating that if splicing occurs at the displaced ⁵' site, it is efficient. Splicing at the upstream site might be favored, either because of its location directly ⁵' to the normal splice site (35) or because the splicing machinery has sequence or structural bias that we do not recognize (51).

FIG. 4. Model for altered mRNA splicing in revertants of hotspot insertions. (A) mRNA and amino acid sequences of wild-type unc-54 in the vicinity of the insertional hotspot. The site of Tc1 insertion is underlined. (B) mRNA sequences of wild-type revertants $unc-54(r851)$ through unc-54(r855) compared with the eucaryotic 5' splice site consensus sequence (48). Positions of identity are indicated by vertical lines. r851 through r855 contain a 4-nucleotide insert compared to the wild-type gene. These revertants have two potential 5' splice sites. Use of
the upstream splice site results in mRNA that encoded a fully wild-type protein. U a translational frameshift. (C) mRNA sequence of the partial revertant $unc-54(r837)$ compared with the eucaryotic 5' splice site consensus sequence. r837 contains a 4-nucleotide insert relative to the wild-type gene and has two potential ⁵' splice sites. Use of the upstream splice site results in mRNA that encodes a protein having a tyrosine \rightarrow serine amino acid substitution. Use of the normal splice site results in mRNA that contains a translational frameshift. (D) mRNA sequence of $unc-54(661)$ compared with the eucaryotic 5' splice site consensus sequence. r661 contains two potential ⁵' splice sites. Use of the upstream splice site results in mRNA that contains ^a translation frameshift. Use the normal splice site results in mRNA that encodes a protein having an isoleucine \rightarrow methionine acid substitution.

The partial revertant allele $r661$ contains a single C-to-G transversion relative to the wild type, resulting in replacement of isoleucine 113 with methionine. The phenotypic defect of r661 likely results, at least in part, from this amino acid substitution. unc-54(r661) accumulates approximately 20% of the normal amount of unc-54 protein (A. Bejsovec and P. Anderson, unpublished results). Thus, the mutant protein may be subject to degradation. An alternative explanation for the low level of $unc-54$ protein in r661 is possible. The single base substitution in $r661$ created a potential new ⁵' splice site which, like the alleles discussed above, is displaced 4 base pairs upstream of the normal site (Fig. 4D). Use of the displaced splice site would delete four bases from the mRNA, and the resulting translational frameshift would lead to a nonfunctional product. By this model, the low level of unc-54 protein is due to a low level of functional mRNA, which is obtained by inefficient utilization of the normal ⁵' splice site.

The amino acid substitutions of r661 and r837 are located within the myosin globular head. Ile-113 and Tyr-114 are located near the ATP-binding site. The amino acid substitutions of r661 and r837 may affect ATP binding or ATPase activity. Moerman et al. (44) have described a class of unc-54 mutations that cause amino acid substitutions in this region. Such alleles are dominant suppressors of the twitching phenotype of unc-22 loss-of-function mutations. The alleles r661 and r837 have behavioral phenotypes similar to those described by Moerman et al. (44), and we have tested them for suppression of unc-22 twitching. r661, when heterozygous to $unc-54^+$, suppressed the twitching phenotype of $unc-22(s/2)$. This result supports our conclusion that the r661 protein has an altered amino acid sequence, and it suggests that the r661 phenotypic defect is due at least in part to that alteration. $r837$, when heterozygous to unc-54⁺, did not suppress the twitching of unc-22(s12).

Transposition and excision of Tcl in the germ line occur

only in certain genetic backgrounds. For example, Tcl is active in the germ line of C. elegans variety Bergerac (15, 43, 45) but does not transpose or excise in the germ line of C. elegans variety DH424 (15; Table 2). The soma of strain DH424, however, behaves unlike the germ line. Hotspot insertion mutants reverted to wild type in the soma at high frequency in the DH424 genetic background (Table 2). Since somatic excision is transposase dependent (see above), we conclude that activity of Tcl in the soma of variety DH424 is regulated independently of the germ line. This confirms previous work concerning somatic activity of Tcl in C. elegans variety Bergerac (17, 18). Germ line activity of Tcl, furthermore, can be mutated without affecting the soma. Collins et al. (11) describe the isolation of mutants in which the frequency of Tcl transposition and excision in the germ line, but not the soma, is dramatically increased.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank B. Engels for advice concerning the quantitative aspects of our data and our colleagues Beth Spangler, Suzanne Sprunger, Judith Kimble, and John Collins for critically reading the manuscript. We are grateful to I. Mori, G. Benian, D. Moerman, and R. Waterston for sharing the DNA sequences of their Tcl insertions before publication.

This work was supported by Public Health Service individual research grant GM30132 from the National Institutes of Health and by the University of Wisconsin Training Grant in Cell and Molecular Biology.

LITERATURE CITED

- 1. Bender, J., and N. Kleckner. 1986. Genetic evidence that TnJO transposes by a nonreplicative mechanism. Cell 45:801-815.
- 2. Bender, W., M. Akam, F. Karch, P. A. Beachy, M. Peifer, P. Spierer, E. B. Lewis, and D. S. Hogness. 1983. Molecular genetics of the bithorax complex in Drosophila melanogaster. Science 221:23-29.
- 3. Berg, D. E., M. A. Schmandt, and J. B. Lowe. 1983. Specificity of transposon TnS insertion. Genetics 105:813-828.
- 4. Bingham, P. M., M. G. Kidwell, and G. M. Rubin. 1982. The molecular basis of P-M hybrid dysgenesis: the role of the P element, a P strain-specific transposon family. Cell 29:995-1004.
- 5. Bonas, U., H. Sommer, and H. Saedler. 1984. The 17 kb Taml element of Antirrhinum majus induces a ³ bp duplication upon integration into the chalcone synthase gene. EMBO J. 3:1015- 1019.
- 6. Brenner, S. 1974. The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. Genetics 77:71-94.
- 7. Calos, M. P., L. Johnsrud, and J. H. Miller. 1978. DNA sequence at the integration sites of the insertion element IS1. Cell 13:411-418.
- 8. Campbell, A. 1983. Bacteriophage lambda, p. 65-103. In J. A. Shapiro (ed.), Mobile genetic elements. Academic Press, Inc., New York.
- 9. Carbonare, B. D., and W. J. Gehring. 1985. Excision of copia element in a revertant of the white-apricot mutation of Drosophila melanogaster leaves behind one long-terminal repeat. Mol. Gen. Genet. 199:1-6.
- 10. Coen, E. S., R. Carpenter, and C. Martin. 1986. Transposable elements generate novel spatial patterns of gene expression in Antirrhinum majus. Cell 47:285-296.
- 11. Collins, J., B. Saari, and P. Anderson. 1987. Activation of a transposable element in the germ line but not the soma of Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature (London) 328:726-728.
- 12. Copeland, N. G., K. W. Hutchinson, and N. A. Jenkins. 1983. Excision of the DBA ecotropic provirus in dilute coat-color revertants of mice occurs by homologous recombination involving viral LTRs. Cell 33:379-387.
- 13. Daniels, G. R., and P. L. Deininger. 1985. Integration site preferences of the Alu family and similar repetitive DNA sequences. Nucleic Acids Res. 13:8939-8954.
- 14. Dooner, H. K., and 0. E. Nelson. 1977. Controlling elementinduced alterations in UDP glucose: flavonoid glucosyltransferase, the enzyme specified by the bronze locus in maize. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74:5623-5627.
- 15. Eide, D., and P. Anderson. 1985. Transposition of Tcl in the nematode C. elegans. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82:1756- 1760.
- 16. Eide, D., and P. Anderson. 1985. The gene structures of spontaneous mutations affecting a Caenorhabditis elegans myosin heavy chain gene. Genetics 109:67-79.
- 17. Emmons, S. W., S. Roberts, and K. S. Ruan. 1986. Evidence in a nematode for regulation of transposon excision by tissuespecific factors. Mol. Gen. Genet. 202:410-415.
- 18. Emmons, S. W., and L. Yesner. 1984. High-frequency excision of transposable element Tcl in the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans is limited to somatic cells. Cell 36:599-605.
- 19. Emmons, S. W., L. Yesner, K. Ruan, and D. Katzenberg. 1983. Evidence for a transposon in Caenorhabditis elegans. Cell 32:55-65.
- 20. Engels, W. R. 1979. Extrachromosomal control of mutability in Drosophila melanogaster. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 79:4570- 4574.
- 21. Engels, W. R. 1983. The P family of transposable elements in Drosophila. Annu. Rev. Genet. 17:315-344.
- 22. Engels, W. R. 1984. A trans-acting product needed for P factor transposition in Drosophila. Science 226:1194-1196.
- 23. Epstein, H. F., R. H. Waterston, and S. Brenner. 1974. A mutant affecting the heavy chain of myosin in Caenorhabditis elegans. J. Mol. Biol. 90:291-300.
- 24. Errede, B. T., T. Cardillo, F. Sherman, E. Dubois, J. Deschamps, and J. Waime. 1980. Mating signals control expression of mutations resulting from insertion of a transposable repetitive element adjacent to diverse yeast genes. Cell 25:427-436.
- 25. Federoff, N. V. 1983. Controlling elements in maize, p. 1-63. In J. A. Shapiro (ed.), Mobile genetic elements. Academic Press, Inc., New York.
- 26. Freund, R., and M. Meselson. 1984. Long terminal repeat nucleotide sequence and specific insertion of the gypsy transposon. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 81:4462-4464.
- 27. Frischauf, A.-M., H. Lehrach, A. Poustka, and N. Murray. 1983. Lambda replacement vectors carrying polylinker sequences. J. Mol. Biol. 170:827-842.
- 28. Grindley, N. D. 1978. Insertion generates duplication of a nine base pair sequence at its target site. Cell 13:419-426.
- 29. Hailing, L. M., and N. Kleckner. 1982. A symmetrical sixbasepair target site sequence determines TnJO insertion specificity. Cell 28:155-163.
- 30. Ikenaga, H., and K. Saigo. 1982. Insertion of a movable genetic element, 297, into the T-A-T-A box for the H3 histone gene of Drosophila melanogaster. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 79:4143- 4147.
- 31. Inouye, S., S. Yuki, and K. Saigo. 1984. Sequence-specific insertion of the Drosophila transposable genetic element 17.6. Nature (London) 310:332-333.
- 32. Karn, J., S. Brenner, and L. Barnett. 1983. New bacteriophage lambda vectors with positive selection for cloned inserts. Methods Enzymol. 101:3-20.
- 33. Karn, J., S. Brenner, and L. Barnett. 1983. Protein structural domains in the Caenorhabditis elegans unc-54 myosin heavy chain gene are not separated by introns. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80:4253-4257.
- 34. Koukolikova-Nicola, Z. Schillito, R. D. Hohn, B. Wang, K. Van Montagu, and M. Zambryski. 1985. Involvement of circular intermediates in the transfer of T-DNA from Agrobacterium tumefaciens to plant cells. Nature (London) 313:191-196.
- 35. Lang, K. M., and R. A. Spritz. 1983. RNA splice site selection: evidence for a ⁵'-3' scanning model. Science 220:1351-1355.
- 36. Laski, F. A., D. C. Rio, and G. M. Rubin. 1986. Tissue specificity of Drosophila P element transposition is regulated at the level of mRNA splicing. Cell 44:7-19.
- 37. Liao, L. W., B. Rosenzweig, and D. Hirsh. 1983. Analysis of a transposable element in Caenorhabditis elegans. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80:3585-3589.
- 38. Lichtenstein, C., and S. Brenner. 1982. Unique insertion site of Tn7 in the E. coli chromosome. Nature (London) 297:601-603.
- 39. Mackenzie, J. M., Jr., F. Schachat, and H. F. Epstein. 1978. Immunocytochemical localization of two myosins within the same muscle cells in Caenorhabditis elegans. Cell 15:413-419.
- 40. McClintock, B. 1965. The control of gene action in maize. Brookhaven Symp. Biol. 18:162-184.
- 41. McGinnis, W., A. W. Shermoen, and S. K. Beckendorf. 1983. A transposable element inserted just ⁵' to a Drosophila glue protein gene alters gene expression and chromatin structure. Cell 34:75-84.
- 42. Messing, J. 1983. New M13 vectors for cloning. Methods Enzymol. 101:20-78.
- 43. Moerman, D. G., G. M. Benian, and R. H. Waterston. 1986. Molecular cloning of the muscle gene unc-22 in Caenorhabditis elegans by Tcl transposon tagging. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 83:2579-2583.
- 44. Moerman, D. G., S. Plurad, R. H. Waterston, and D. L. Baillie. 1982. Mutations in the unc-54 myosin heavy chain gene of C. elegans that alter contractility but not muscle structure. Cell 29:773-781.
- 45. Moerman, D. G., and R. H. Waterston. 1984. Spontaneous unc-22 IV mutations in C. elegans var. Bergerac. Genetics 108:859-877.
- 46. Morisato, D., and N. Kleckner. 1984. Transposase promotes double strand breaks and single strand joints at Tn10 termini in vivo. Cell 39:181-190.
- 47. O'Hare, K., and G. M. Rubin. 1983. Structures of P transposable elements and their sites of insertion and excision in the Drosophila melanogaster genome. Cell 34:25-35.
- 48. Padgett, R. A., P. J. Grabowski, M. M. Konarska, S. Seiler, and P. A. Sharp. 1986. Splicing of messenger RNA precursors. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 55:1119-1150.
- 49. Panganiban, A. T., and H. M. Temin. 1984. Circles with two tandem LTRs are precursors to integrated retrovirus DNA. Cell 36:673-679.
- 50. Park, E.-C., and H. R. Horvitz. 1986. C. elegans unc-105 mutations affect muscle and are suppressed by other mutations that affect muscle. Genetics 113:853-867.
- 51. Reed, R., and T. Maniatis. 1986. A role for exon sequences and splice-site proximity in splice-site selection. Cell 46:681-690.
- 52. Reynolds, A., J. Felton, and A. Wright. 1981. Insertion of DNA activates the cryptic bgl operon in E . coli K12. Nature (London) 293:625-629.
- 53. Roeder, G. S., and G. R. Fink. 1980. DNA rearrangements associated with a transposable element in yeast. Cell 21:239- 249.
- 54. Rose, A. M., L. J. Harris, N. R. Mawji, and W. J. Morris. 1985. $Tcl(Hin)$: a form of the transposable element Tcl in $C.$ elegans. Can. J. Biochem. Cell Biol. 63:752-756.
- 55. Rose, A. M., and T. P. Snutch. 1984. Isolation of the closed circular form of the transposable element Tcl in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature (London) 311:485-486.
- 56. Rosenzweig, B., L. W. Liao, and D. Hirsh. 1983. Sequence of the C. elegans transposable element Tcl. Nucleic Acids Res. 11:4201-4209.
- 57. Rosenzweig, B., L. W. Liao, and D. Hirsh. 1983. Target sequences for the C. elegans transposable element Tcl. Nucleic Acids Res. 11:7137-7140.
- 58. Ross, D. G., J. Swan, and N. Kleckner. 1979. Nearly precise excision: ^a new type of DNA alteration associated with the translocatable element Tn10. Cell 167:733-738.
- 59. Ruan, K., and S. W. Emmons. 1984. Extrachromosomal copies of transposon Tcl in the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 81:4018-4022.
- 60. Sanger, F., S. Nicklen, and A. R. Coulson. 1977. DNA sequencing with chain-terminating inhibitors. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74:5463-5467.
- 61. Searles, L. L., A. L. Greenleaf, W. E. Kemp, and R. A. Voelker. 1986. Sites of P element insertion and structures of P element deletions in the ⁵' region of Drosophila melanogaster RpII215. Mol. Cell. Biol. 6:3312-3319.
- 62. Shapiro, J. A. (ed.). 1983. Mobile genetic elements. Academic Press, Inc., New York.
- 63. Shure, M., S. Wessler, and N. Federoff. 1983. Molecular identification and isolation of the Waxy locus in maize. Cell 35:225- 233.
- 64. Stachel, S. E., B. Timmerman, and P. Zambryski. 1986. Generation of single-stranded T-DNA molecules during the initial stages of T-DNA transfer from Agrobacterium tumefaciens to plant cells. Nature (London) 322:706-712.
- 65. Sulston, J. E., and S. Brenner. 1974. The DNA of C. elegans. Genetics 77:95-104.
- 66. Sulston, J. E., and H. R. Horvitz. 1977. Postembryonic cell lineages of the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans. Dev. Biol. 56:110-156.
- 67. Sutton, W. D., W. L. Gerlach, D. Schwartz, and W. J. Peacock. 1984. Molecular analysis of Ds controlling element mutations at the Adhl locus of maize. Science 223:1265-1268.
- 68. Syvanen, M. 1984. The evolutionary implications of mobile genetic elements. Annu. Rev. Genet. 18:271-293.
- 69. Tsubota, S., and P. Schedl. 1986. Hybrid dysgenesis-induced revertants of insertions at the ⁵' end of the rudimentary gene in Drosophila melanogaster: transposon-induced control mutations. Genetics 114:165-182.
- 70. Weislander, L. 1979. A simple method to recover intact high molecular weight RNA and DNA after electrophoresis in low gelling temperature agarose gels. Anal. Biochem. 98:305-309.
- 71. Zerbib, D., P. Gamas, M. Chandler, P. Prentki, S. Bass, and D. Galas. 1985. Specificity of insertion of IS1. J. Mol. Biol. 185:517-524.