Induction of dnaN and dnaQ gene expression in Escherichia coli by alkylation damage to DNA

Ariel Quiñones¹, Joachim Kaasch¹, Michael Kaasch¹ and Walter Messer²

¹Wissenschaftsbereich Genetik, Martin-Luther-Universität, Domplatz 1, DDR-4020 Halle (Saale), GDR and 2Max-Planck-Institut fiir Molekulare Genetik, Ihnestrasse 73, D-1000 Berlin 33, FRG

Communicated by T.Lindahl

The dnaN and dnaO genes encode the β -subunit and the ϵ -subunit of the DNA polymerase III holoenzyme. By transcriptional fusions to the $g dK$ gene, translational fusions to *lacZ* and comparative S1 mapping analysis, we investigated the in-vivo regulation of dnaN and dnaQ. We found that DNA damage caused by the alkylating agent methyl methanesulphonate (MMS) leads to a significant induction in $dnaN$ and $dnaQ$ gene expression suggesting ^a requirement of increased amounts of at least some DNA polymerase HI holoenzyme subunits for recovery from DNA damage caused by MMS. These results are first evidences that subunits of the DNA polymerase III holoenzyme are DNA damage inducible. This MMS induction of $dnaN$ and $dnaQ$ gene expression is unrelated to the adaptive response. It was not observed in lexA and recA mutants which abolish the induction of the SOS response.

Key words: dnaA/DNA polymerase III/gene fusions/ MMS/S1 mapping/SOS regulon

Introduction

The DNA polymerase III holoenzyme is the major polymerase responsible for the replication of the chromosome in Escherichia coli (Kornberg, 1980; McHenry, 1985). It is a complex multisubunit enzyme containing at least 10 distinct polypeptides (Maki et al., 1988) encoded by genes which map at widely scattered loci in the E. coli chromosome. The α subunit is encoded by *dnaE* at 4 min on the E. coli genetic map (Welch and McHenry, 1982), dnaN at 83 min codes for the β subunit (Burgers et al., 1981), $dnaQ(mutD)$ at 5 min codes for the ϵ subunit (Scheuermann et al., 1983) and the dnaZX locus at 11 min encodes the subunits τ and γ (Lee et al., 1987; Maki and Kornberg, 1988a). For the subunits θ , σ , σ' , χ and ψ the genetic loci are unknown. It has been estimated that the DNA polymerase III holoenzyme is present in $10-20$ copies per cell (Komberg, 1980). How these genes are regulated resulting in a coordinate expression of the several subunits is unknown.

Little is also known about the role of the DNA polymerase HI holoenzyme in DNA repair mechanisms. Participation of DNA polymerase HI in excision and post-replication repair of UV damage has been suggested (Bridges and Mottershead, 1976; Sedgwick and Bridges, 1974; Youngs and Smith, 1973; Brotcorne-Lannoye et al., 1985). A major involvement of DNA polymerase III in DNA repair mechanisms was suggested by the observation that $pcbA$ mutants, an extragenic $dn \alpha E$ suppressor mutation, are sensitive to methyl methanesulphonate and UV nonmutable at dnaE restrictive temperature (Hagensee et al., 1987a,b). In an attempt to study the regulation of at least some subunits of the DNA polymerase Ill holoenzyme in relation to DNA repair mechanisms, we have constructed transcriptional and translational gene fusions of *dnaQ* coding for the ϵ subunit (Scheuermann et al., 1983) and dnaN coding for the β subunit (Burgers et al., 1981) with the galK and lacZ genes, respectively.

In this paper, we report that in $E.$ coli, treatment with the alkylating agent MMS leads to an increase in dnaN and dnaQ gene expression. The relation of this induction to the adaptive response (for review, see Sekiguchi and Nakabeppu, 1987) and the SOS regulon (for review, see Walker 1984) was analysed.

Results

Transcription from the dnaN and dnaQ promoters is MMS inducible

Promoter activities were determined using plasmids in which different promoter fragments were cloned in front of the $galK$ gene (see Materials and methods). In order to examine whether $dnaQ$ and $dnaN$ gene expression is inducible by MMS treatment, the level of galactokinase activity was measured in cells of the wild-type strain AB¹¹⁵⁷ harbouring each of the galK fusion plasmids pAQ2 ($dnaQ-ga lK$) or $pAQ31$ (dnaN-galK). Bacteria carrying the appropriate plasmids were grown in *galK* assay medium to an OD_{450} of 0.25, divided into two cultures and growth was continued for several hours in the absence or presence of 7.38 mM MMS. Samples from treated and untreated cultures were assayed for galactokinase activity at several times. Figure ¹ and Table ^I show that MMS treatment leads to ^a significant induction in $dnaN$ and $dnaQ$ transcription. This induction seems to be specific for dnaN and dnaQ transcription and is not a general induction phenomenon, because several other fusions used as controls showed no induction. This was true for the $g a l K$ fusions of the following promoters (see Table I): $lacUV5$, tac, mioC (Lother et al., 1985), rnh (Quiñones et al., 1987) and $gyrB$ (this paper).

dnaN expression seems to be regulated not only by the own promoters which reside entirely within the reading frame of the preceding dnaA gene (Quiñones and Messer, 1988) but also by both dnaA promoters, because of the operon organization of dnaA and dnaN (Sakakibara et al., 1981; Ohmori et al., 1984). Therefore, we included in our analysis a $dnaA - galK$ promoter fusion. As seen in Table ^I transcription from these promoters is also MMS inducible. These transcripts reach in vivo into the dnaN gene (Quiñones and Messer, 1988), and are thus apparently involved in the observed MMS induction of dnaN. The poor

Fig. 1. In-vivo induction of dnaN and dnaQ transcription by MMS. Cultures of either AB1157 (pAQ2) or AB1157 (pAQ31) were grown in the presence or absence of MMS as described in Materials and methods and assayed for galactokinase activity at the times indicated. dnaN-galK fusion (\bigcirc , \bullet); dnaQ-galK fusion (\Box , \blacksquare); open symbols, untreated; filled symbols, MMS treated cultures.

^aAll strains were constructed in AB1157 background.

^bCells for the galactokinase assay were grown to an OD₄₅₀ of 0.2 and divided into MMS treated (7.38 mM) and untreated cultures. After ⁶ ^h samples (1 ml) were frozen in liquid nitrogen and assayed for galactokinase activity.

translation level of the dnaN transcripts in comparison to dnaQ (see Figure 2) might require additional longer transcripts starting at the dnaA promoters in order to achieve an in vivo ratio between β and ϵ subunits of 2:1 (Maki et al., 1988).

MMS inducibility of translational fusions of dnaQ and dnaN to lacZ

To examine the behaviour of the translational fusions upon MMS treatment the intracellular level of β -galactosidase activity was measured in cells of the wild type strain CSH-26 (Miller, 1972) carrying each of the lacZ fusion plamids $pAQ180$ (dna Q -lacZ), $pAQ184$ (rnh-lacZ) or $pAQ47$ (dnaN-lacZ). MMS treatment was done as described for the *galK* fusions. These results which are summarized in Figure ² show that MMS induction also results in an

A

Fig. 2. (A) In-vivo induction of dnaN gene expression by MMS. Cultures of CSH-26 carrying pAQ47 $(dnaN' - 'lacZ$ translational fusion) were grown to an $OD₆₀₀$ of 0.2-0.3 (A, time 0) and the test culture was treated with 7.38 mM MMS. The control culture continued to grow in the absence of MMS. Samples from treated and untreated cultures were assayed for β -galactosidase activity at times indicated. (B) $In-vivo$ induction of $dnaQ$ gene expression by MMS. Cultures of CSH-26 carrying pAQ180 (dnaQ'-'lacZ translational fusion) were grown in the presence or absence of MMS as described above and samples from treated and untreated cultures were assayed for β -galactosidase activity at times indicated.

increased translation of dnaQ and dnaN as expected from the higher transcription observed with the galK fusions. While for the $dnaN-ga lK$ fusion in untreated bacteria a constant expression level was measured during several generations, for the $dnaQ - lacZ$ fusion a slow decrease of the basal level was observed. Furthermore, a comparison of the β -galactosidase activities of the translational lacZ fusions and the galactokinase level of the transcriptional \mathfrak{g} all K fusions for $dnaN$ and $dnaQ$ (Table I and Figure 2) shows an unexpectedly low β -galactosidase activity for the dnaN-lacZ fusion which does not correlate with the promoter strength, probably due to the absence of a good ribosome binding site immediately upstream of the translation start.

S1 nuclease mapping of the MMS inducible promoters

Because the genes dnaA, dnaN and dnaQ which are MMS inducible possess several promoters, comparative S1

Fig. 3. (A) Structure of the $dnaQ-mh$ chromosomal region of E.coli. The genes are indicated by boxes. The fragment carrying the overlapping convergent promoter region was amplified for clarity. Black arrowheads show the promoters. The ⁵' end-labelled sites in the fragments used as hybridization probe are indicated by stars. Abbreviations: B, BamHI; Bg, BgII; Fn, Fnu4HI. (B) Structure of the dnaA-gyrB of the E.coli chromosome. The genes are indicated by dotted boxes. The fragments carrying regulatory regions which were fused to the *galK* and or *lacZ* gene
are indicated by open boxes. Promoters are symbolized by black arrowheads. Th resulting S1 protected fragments are shown. The ⁵' end-labelled sites are indicated by stars. Relevant restriction sites are given. In addition, H, A and P signify Hinfl, Avall and Pvul, respectively.

Fig. 4. Comparative S1 nuclease mapping of the dnaQ, rnh, dnaN and dnaA transcripts after MMS induction. (A) S1 nuclease analysis of the dnaQ transcripts from the two *dnaQ* promoters was performed with a 395-bp Fnu4HI-BamHI DNA fragment 5' end-labelled at the BamHI site as specific hybridization probe (Figure 3A). Lane 1, $dnaQ$ probe; lane 2, RNA from the wild-type strain AB1167 without MMS; lane 3, RNA from the recA56 mutant treated with MMS; lane 4, RNA from the ada10::Tn10 mutant treated with MMS; lane 5, RNA from strain AB1157 treated with MMS; lane 6, RNA from the mutant lexA::Tn5 recA730 treated with MMS; lane 7, ϕ X174HaeIII standard. (B) S1 mapping of the *rnh* transcripts as control was done with a 434-bp BamHI-BglI DNA fragment (Figure 3A). Lane 1, $\phi X174/HaeIII$ standard; lane 2, mh probe; lane 3, tRNA control; lane 4, RNA from strain AB1157 without MMS; lane 5, RNA from strain AB1157 treated with MMS. (C) S1 mapping of the dnaN transcripts starting from the three *dnaN* promoters was performed with a 1272-bp-Hinfl-PvuII DNA fragment 5' end-labelled at the Hinfl site as hybridization probe (Figure 3B). Lane 1, $\phi X174/Ha eIII$ standard; lane 2, dnaN probe; lane 3, tRNA control; lane 4, RNA from strain AB1157 without MMS; lane 5, RNA from strain AB1157 treated with MMS. (D) S1 analysis of the transcripts starting from the two promoters of the dnaA-dnaN operon was performed using a 624-bp EcoRI-EcoRV DNA fragment labelled at the 5¹-end of the EcoRI site (Figure 3B). Lane 1 OX174/HaeIll standard; lane 2, dnaA probe; lane 3, RNA from the uninduced strain ABI157; lane 4, RNA from the MMS induced strain ABI157.

A.Quiñones et al.

nuclease mapping of the different chromosomal transcripts was done to localize the inducible promoters. The experiments were carried out using specific ⁵' terminally labelled DNA fragments as hybridization probes for the $dnaQ$, $dnaN$, $dnaA$ transcripts, and for the *rnh* transcript as control, as described previously (Quiñones et al., 1988; Quiñones and Messer, 1988; Kücherer et al., 1986 and Quiñones et al., 1987). The hybridization probes used are described in Materials and methods and visualized in Figure 3. Figure 4 summarizes the results of such experiments. Following MMS treatment ^a clear induction of all specific transcripts of *dnaN*, *dnaQ* and *dnaA* can be seen. Moreover, from Figure 4C it can be seen that induction of dnaN gene expression is based on the activation of the three dnaN promoters and on transcripts originating from the dnaA promoters, seen as a full length protected probe fragment in Figure 4C. The starts of these transcripts are shown in Figure 4D which also demonstrates ^a clear increase of dnaA transcription in MMS treated cells. Both dnaA promoters are significantly induced. Figure 4A shows that the MMS induction of $dnaQ$ is based essentially on the activation of the principal promoter $dnaQP2$. Corroborating the galK and $lacZ$ experiments, the MMS induction of $dnaQ$ transcription can be seen in the $ada10::Tn10$ and $lexA::Tn5$ recA730 mutant, but it is abolished in recA56 bacteria.

Influence of DNA repair mutants on MMS induction of dnaN and dnaQ gene expression

MMS is an alkylating agent which causes the formation of several methylated bases in DNA (Singer and Kusmierek, 1982). This DNA damage leads to the induction of (i) the adaptive response (Samson and Cairns, 1977; Jeggo et al., 1977; Volkert and Nguyen, 1984) which is positively regulated by the ada gene product (Jeggo, 1979; Lemotte and Walker, 1985; Nakabeppu et al., 1985; Teo et al., 1986; Nakabeppu and Sekiguchi, 1986), and (ii) the SOS responses (Bagg et al., 1981; Boiteux et al., 1984; Otsuka et al., 1985; Costa de Oliveira et al., 1986) which are controlled by the lexA and recA gene products (for reviews, see Little and Mount, 1982; Walker, 1984). Therefore, effects of E. coli DNA repair mutations affecting the adaptive and the SOS response on the expression of the dnaN and $dnaQ$ genes were studied. As shown in Table II, the $ada10::Tn10$ mutation, which completely blocks the induction of the adaptive response (Lemotte and Walker, 1985; Volkert et al., 1986), has no effect on the MMS induction of *dnaN* and $dnaQ$ gene expression. These results suggest that this MMS induction is not related to the principal DNA repair system directed against alkylation damage, the adaptive response. On the contrary, the $lexA1$ and $recA56$ mutations which block the induction of the SOS regulon abolish completely the MMS induction of $dnaN$ and $dnaQ$ gene expression, suggesting that this MMS induction might be a delayed SOS function. These results were corroborated with the lacZ fusions (data not shown). Therefore, in order to examine this hypothesis we measured dnaN and dnaQ gene expression in the SOS constitutive double mutant lexA:: Tn5 recA730 which is deficient in LexA repressor and synthesizes increased amounts of the activated form of RecA protein constitutively. Table II shows that in this mutant no constitutively enhanced (formerly derepressed) dnaN and dnaQ gene expression is observed.

^aAll strains were constructed in AB1157 background.

^bCells of mutant strains carrying relevant promoter fusions were grown to an $OD₄₅₀$ of 0.2 and divided into MMS treated and untreated cultures. After 6 h growth at 37°C samples were assayed for galactokinase activity.

Discussion

بالمستحدث

In this paper we studied the in -vivo gene expression of $dnaN$ and *dnaQ* which code for the β and the ϵ subunit of DNA polymerase IH holoenzyme using transcriptional and translational gene fusions and by visualizing their transcripts. Our results show that following MMS treatment ^a clearly enhanced gene expression for *dnaN* and *dnaQ* can be observed. This implies that the expression of these genes is inducible by DNA damage caused by alkylating agents and suggests that not only the β and the ϵ subunit might be synthesized in larger amounts after MMS induction but also the other subunits of DNA polymerase III holoenzyme, because all the subunits but β exist in equimolar ratios (Maki et al., 1988).

Recently, Hagensee et al. (1987b), using the pcbA mutant, have given genetic evidence that ^a functional DNA polymerase III is required for optimal repair of DNA damage caused by MMS. The $pcbA$ allele is a dnaE extragenic suppressor mutation which permits experiments with dnaE mutants under conditions of inactive DNA polymerase III holoenzyme. Our results are in agreement with their finding and additionally show that enhanced amounts of at least some subunits of the DNA polymerase Ill holoenzyme may be necessary for DNA damage caused by MMS.

The β subunit of DNA polymerase III seems to be responsible for the high processivity and for stable initiation complex formation and for the dissociation and reassociation of the holoenzyme from one template to another (LaDuca et al., 1986; Kwon-Shin et al., 1987; McHenry et al., 1987; Maki et al., 1987; Lasken and Kornberg, 1987; Maki and Kornberg, 1988b). The ϵ subunit possesses the $3' \rightarrow 5'$ proofreading exonuclease function (Scheuermann and Echols, 1984) which by cooperative interaction with the α subunit (the *dnaE* gene product) results in the high fidelity of DNA polymerase III holoenzyme (Maki and Kornberg, 1987). Our finding that MMS induces dnaN and dnaQ gene

expression suggests a requirement for increased amounts of polymerase ¹¹ holoenzyme for repair and recovery of MMS induced DNA damage, in agreement with the small number of polymerase molecules per cell.

This increased synthesis of at least some subunits of DNA polymerase III holoenzyme after MMS treatment is not related to the adaptive response, the principal repair mechanism directed against alkylation damage, because no change in the MMS induction of $dnaN$ and $dnaQ$ gene expression was observed in the $ada10::Tn10$ mutant, which completely blocks the induction of the adaptive response.

Surprisingly, the increase of $dnaN$ and $dnaQ$ gene expression seems to be connected to the SOS response, because it is not observed in both the recA56 and the lexAl mutants. Nevertheless, we consider that this MMS induction does not represent a true SOS function because of the following reasons. (i) It is a delayed induction phenomenon in comparison to the fast induction of the SOS response by MMS as measured by the kinetics of increase in gene expression of a sfiA::lacZ and a $umuD/C-galK$ gene fusion (data not shown; Bagg et al., 1981; Otsuka et al., 1985). (ii) $dnaN$ and $dnaQ$ are not components of the SOS regulon, because there is no SOS box (i.e. LexA repressor binding site; Wertman and Mount, 1985) in their promoter regions. (iii) In the double mutant $lexA::Tn 5 recA730$ expressing the SOS regulon constitutively there is no significantly enhanced (i.e. derepressed) dnaN and dnaQ gene expression. (iv) In this mutant the MMS induction of $dnaN$ and $dnaQ$ was still observed. This might suggest that the inducibility of the SOS regulon may be ^a condition and not the reason for the MMS induction of dnaN and dnaQ. The partial lexA recA dependence may, therefore, indicate an indirect interaction between the SOS regulon and the mechanism(s) of genetic control of DNA polymerase Ill holoenzyme.

Evidences for the existence of such relationships between several global control networks come from the observation that some SOS inducing agents can also induce some genes of the heat-shock regulon (Krueger and Walker, 1984). The block of cell division triggered by the induction of the SOS regulon results from the induction of the sfiA gene, repressed by the LexA protein (Huisman and ^d'Ari, 1981; Cole, 1983). The sfiA gene product is proteolytically regulated by the gene product of lon (Mizusawa and Gottesman 1983) which is a member of the heat-shock regulon (Neidhardt et al., 1984). The heat-shock response can be also partially induced by treatments which trigger the stringent control (Grossman et al., 1985), another global regulatory system in E. coli (Lamond and Travers, 1985). Furthermore, overproduction of the ada gene product causes a partial inhibition of the SOS response (Vericat et al., 1988) despite the fact that some alkylating agents (e.g. MMS or MNNG) also induce the SOS regulon (Volkert, 1988) and that in tagA alkA mutants the failure of 3-methyladenine glycosylase I and II sensitizes the strain for SOS inducibility, showing that the persistence of 3-methyladenine in DNA most likely leads to SOS induction (Boiteux et al., 1984; Costa de Oliveira et al., 1986). Furthermore, a similar lexA recA dependence in the induction of phr gene expression has been reported (Ihara et al., 1987), although the phr gene is not ^a component of the SOS regulon. The implications of all these observations are to date not completely understood.

Our results support the finding that the DNA polymerase III holoenzyme is required for repair of DNA damage caused

by MMS and suggest that increased amounts of at least some subunits of DNA polymerase Ill holoenzyme are required for recovery from DNA damage caused by MMS. This paper and our previous work concerning inducibility of the *dnaQ* gene by 2-aminopurine (Quiñones et al., 1988) are the first evidence that subunits of the DNA polymerase Ill holoenzyme are DNA damage inducible.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains, media and genetic procedures

The E.coli strains used are listed in Table III. P1 transduction for strain construction, growth media, X-gal and MacConkey plates are described by Miller (1972). Transformations were done as described (Maniatis et al., 1982).

Molecular cloning and DNA manipulations

Restriction enzyme digests, isolation of DNA fragments, ligations and agarose gel electrophoresis were done as described by Maniatis et al. (1982). For routine and rapid examination of plasmid DNA, the boiling method of Holmes and Quigley (1981) was used. Highly purified plasmid DNA was prepared by caesium chloride gradient centrifugation (Maniatis et al., 1982). Dephosphorylation of DNA fragments was performed with alkaline phosphatase from Boehringer as recommended by the supplier. The ⁵' ends of DNA fragments were labelled with $[\gamma^{-32}P]$ ATP (Amersham) and T4 polynucleotide kinase as described (Maniatis et al., 1982).

RNA isolation

Total cellular RNA was isolated from MMS treated and untreated bacteria according to Brosius et al. (1982) as described by Quiñones et al. (1987) with the minor modification that the MMS induced bacteria were grown to a density of 2×10^9 cells per ml in L-broth with ampicillin at 37°C in the presence of 7.38 mM MMS.

S1 nuclease mapping

S1 nuclease mapping of the specific $dnaQ$, rhn, $dnaN$ and transcripts were performed according to Berk and Sharp (1977) as described (Quifiones et al., 1988; Quifiones and Messer, 1988; Kucherer et al. 1986). The following ⁵' end-labelled fragments were used as specific hybridization probe: for S1 nuclease mapping of the *dnaN* transcripts starting from the three promoters residing entirely in the reading frame of the preceding dnaA gene a 1.272 bp Pv uII-HinfI, labelled at the 5'-end of the HinfI site; for the mapping of the dnaA transcripts which start from the two autogeneously regulated promoters a 624 bp EcoRV - EcoRI fragment which was 5' endlabelled at the EcoRI site; for the mapping of the dnaQ transcripts a BamHI-Fnu4HI fragment carrying both dnaQ promoters, labelled at the 5'-end of the BamHI site. RNA starting from the *rnh* promoter the hybridization probe was a 434-bp $BamHI-BgII$ fragment labelled at the 5'-end of the BamHI site. For orientation concerning the several specific hybridization probes used see Figure 3.

Galactokinase assay

The intracellular galactokinase activity of bacteria carrying promoter $-ga l K$ fusion plasmids was determined as described by Quiñones et al. (1987). Cells for galactokinase assays were grown in M9 medium containing 0.25% casaminoacids, 0.2% fructose, 10μ g thiamine and 50 μ g ampicillin per ml. Units are expressed as nmol galactose phosphorylated/min/ml cells/OD450. The copy number of the promoter fusion plasmids was not significantly different as judged by agarose electrophoresis and determination of the β -lactamase activity according to Sargent (1968).

β -galactosidase assay

The intracellular β -galactosidase activity of Δ (lac - pro) bacteria carrying translational fusions to the lacZ gene (Minton, 1984) was determined as described by Miller (1972).

Construction of the transcriptional promoter fusions to the galK gene

Gene fusions to the galK gene (McKenney et al., 1981) were constructed using the promoter probe vectors pFD51 (Rak and von Reutern, 1984) and pUTE13 a derivative of pFD51 in which the polylinker region (EcoRI to SmaI) was replaced by the polylinker of M13 mpl9. In this system fusions to galK are transcriptional fusions and have the advantage that a translational coupling of the cloned fragment with the $g \, dK$ gene can be excluded, because of the presence of translation stop codons in each reading frame preceding the galK gene. The fusion of the regulatory sequences of the $dnaQ$, rnh , dnaA and dnaN genes to the galK gene which have been previously described (Quiñones et al., 1987; Quiñones and Messer, 1988) are shown in Figure 3. The gyrB-galK fusion was constructed as follows: A 967-bp $Ncol$ -EcoRI fragment carrying the gyrB promoter was isolated from the 3.55 -kb EcoRI fragment containing the $dnaA-gyrB$ region of the E. coli chromosome (Figure 3; for DNA sources see Quiñones and Messer, 1988). This fragment was made blunt ended with Klenow polymerase and cloned into the SmaI site of pUTE13. Galactokinase positive clones were isolated following transformation in strain HB101 and the correct orientation of the insert was confirmed by mapping the $Pval$ site. The resulting plasmid with the $gyrB$ promoter towards the galK gene was designated pAQ62 and used as additional control in some MMS induction experiments.

Construction of translational fusions to the lacZ gene

In order to construct translational gene fusions to lacZ the vectors developed by Minton (1984) were used. The ⁵' regulatory sequences including the N-terminal part of the reading frame of the genes $dnaQ$, mh and $dnaN$ were fused in frame to lacZ are described in Quiñones et al. (1987) and Quiñones and Messer (1988) resulting in the plasmids pAQ180, pAQ184 and pAQ47 respectively.

References

- Bagg, A., Kenyon, C. and Walker, G. (1981) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 78, 5749-5753.
- Berk, A. and Sharp, P. (1977) Cell, 12, 721-732.
- Boiteux, S., Huisman, O. and Laval, J. (1984) *EMBO J.*, 3, 2569 2573.
- Bridges, B. and Mottershead, R. (1976) Mol. Gen. Genet., 144, 53-58.
- Brosius,J., Cate,R. and Perlmutter,P. (1982) J. Biol. Chem., 257, $9205 - 9210$.
- Brotcorne-Lannoye, A., Maenhaut-Michel, G. and Radman, M. (1985) Mol. Gen. Genet., 199, 64-69.
- Burgers, P., Kornberg, A. and Sakakibara, Y. (1981) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 78, 5391-5395.
- Cole, S. (1983) Mol. Gen. Genet., 189, 400-404.
- Costa de Oliveira,R., Laval,J. and Boiteux,S. (1986) Mutat. Res., 183, $11 - 20$.
- Grossman,A., Taylor,W., Burton,Z., Burgers,R. and Gross,C. (1985) J. Mol. Biol., 186, 357-365.
- Hagensee, M., Timme, T., Bryan, S. and Moses, R. (1987a) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 84, 4159-4199.
- Hagensee, M., Bryan, S. and Moses, R. (1987b) J. Bacteriol., 169, $4608 - 4613$.
- Holmes, D. and Quigley, M. (1981) Anal. Biochem., 114, 193-197.

Huisman, O. and d'Ari, R. (1981) Nature, 290, 797-799.

- Ihara,M., Yamamoto,K. and Ohnishi,T. (1987) Photochem. Photobiol., 46, 359-361.
- Jeggo,P. (1979) J. Bacteriol., 139, 783-791.
- Jeggo,P., Defais,M., Samson,L. and Schendel,P. (1977) Mol. Gen. Genet., $157, 1-9.$
- Kornberg,A. (1980) DNA Replication. W.H.Freeman and Company, San Francisco, CA, USA.
- Krueger, J. and Walker, G. (1984) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 81, 1499-1503.
- Kucherer,C., Lother,H., Kolling,R., Schauzu,M.A. and Messer,W. (1986) Mol. Gen. Genet., 205, 115-121.
- Kwon-Shin,O., Bodner,J., McHenry,C. and Bambara,R. (1987) J. Biol. Chem., 262, 2121-2130.
- LaDuca,R., Crute,J., McHenry,C. and Bambara,R. (1986) J. Biol. Chem., 261, 7550-7557.
- Lamond, A. and Travers, A. (1985) Cell, 41, 6-8.
- Lasken,R. and Kornberg,A. (1987) J. Biol. Chem., 262, 1720-1724.
- Lee,S.-H., Kanda,P., Kennedy,R.C. and Walker,J.R. (1987) Nucleic Acids Res., 15, 7663-7675.
- Lemotte,P. and Walker,G. (1985) J. Bacteriol., 161, 888-895.
- Little, J. and Mount, D. (1982) Cell, 29, 11-22.
- Lother, H., Kölling, R., Kücherer, C. and Schauzu, M. (1985) EMBO J., 4, $555 - 560$.
- Maki,H. and Kornberg,A. (1987) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 84, 4389-4392.
- Maki,S. and Kornberg,A. (1988a) J. Biol. Chem., 263, 6547-6554.
- Maki,S. and Kornberg,A. (1988b) J. Biol. Chem., 263, 6561-6569.
- Maki,H., Maki,S., Lasken,R. and Kornberg,A. (1987) UCLA Symp. Mol. Cell. Biol. New Ser., 47, 429-439.
- Maki,H., Maki,S. and Kornberg,A. (1988) J. Biol. Chem., 263, 6570-6578.
- Maniatis,T., Fritsch,E. and Sambrook,J. (1982) Molecular Cloning. A Laboratory Manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY.
- McHenry,C. (1985) Mol. Cell. Biochem., 252, 6478-6484.
- McHenry,C., Oberfelder,R., Johanson,K., Tomasiewicz,H. and Franden,M. (1987) UCLA Symp. Mol. Cell. Biol. New Ser., 47, 47-61.
- McKenney,K., Shimatake,H., Court,D., Schmeissner,U., Brade,C. and Rosenberg,M. (1981) In Chirikjian,I. and Papas,T. (eds), Gene Amplification and Analysis. Elsevier, North-Holland, New York, Vol. 2, pp. 383-415.
- Miller,J. (1972) Experiments in Molecular Genetics. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY.
- Minton, N. (1984) Gene, 31, 269-273.
- Mizusawa, S. and Gottesman, S. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 80, 358-362.
- Nakabeppu,Y., Kondo,H., Kawabata,S., Iwanaga,S. and Sekiguchi,M. (1985) J. Biol. Chem., 260, 7281-7288.
- Nakabeppu, Y. and Sekiguchi, M. (1986) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 83, 6297-6301.
- Neidhardt, F., van Bogelen, R. and Vaughn, V. (1984) Annu. Rev. Genet., 18, 295-329.
- Ohmori,H., Kimura,M., Nagata,T. and Sakakibara,Y. (1984) Gene, 28, $159 - 170$.
- Otsuka,M., Nakabeppu,Y. and Sekiguchi,M. (1985) Mutat. Res., 146, 149-154.
- Quiñones, A. and Messer, W. (1988) Mol. Gen. Genet., 213, 118 124.
- Quiñones, A., Kücherer, C., Piechocki, R. and Messer, W. (1987) Mol. Gen. Genet., 206, 95- 100.
- Quifiones,A., Piechocki,R. and Messer,W. (1988) Mol. Gen. Genet., 211, 106-112.
- Rak, B. and von Reutern, M. (1984) *EMBO J.*, 3, 807-811.
- Sakakibara, Y., Tsukano, H. and Sako, T. (1981) Gene, 13, 47-55.
- Samson, L. and Cairns, J. (1977) Nature, 267, 281-283.
- Sargent, M. (1968) J. Bacteriol., 95, 1493-1494.
- Scheuerman, R., Tam, S., Burgers, P., Lu, C. and Echols, H. (1983) *Proc.* Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 80, 7085-7089.
- Scheuermann, R. and Echols, H. (1984) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 81, 7747-7751.
- Sedgwick, S. and Bridges, B. (1974) Nature, 249, 348-349.
- Sekiguchi,M. and Nakabeppu,Y. (1987) TIG, 3, 51-54.
- Singer, B. and Kusmierek (1982) Annu. Rev. Biochem., 52, 655-693.
- Teo,I., Sedgwick,B., Kilpatric,M., McCarthy,T. and Lindahl,T. (1986) Cell, 45, 315-324.

Vericat,J., Guerrero,R. and Barbe,J. (1988) J. Bacteriol., 170, 1354-1359. Volkert,M. (1988) Environ. Mol. Mutagen., 11, 241-255.

 $\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right) - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right) - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \right) - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \$

 ϵ , and is an in ϵ

 ω and

- Volkert,M. and Nguyen,D. (1984) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA., 81, $4110-4114.$
- Volkert, M., Nguyen, D. and Bear, K. (1986) Genetics, 112 , $11-26$.
- Walker,G. (1984) Microbiol. Rev., 40, 60-93.
- Welch,M. and McHenry,C. (1982) J. Bacteriol., 152, 351-356. Wertman,K. and Mount,D. (1985) J. Bacteriol., 163, 376-384.
- Youngs,D. and Smith,K. (1973) Nature New Biol., 244, 240-241.

Recieved on October 4, 1988; revised on November 25, 1988