Yeast gene RAD52 can substitute for phage T4 gene 46 or 47 in carrying out recombination and DNA repair

(recombinational repair/Saccharomyces cerevisiae)

DAVIS S. CHEN AND HARRIS BERNSTEIN

Department of Microbiology and Immunology, College of Medicine, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85724

Communicated by Bruce M. Alberts, May 23, 1988

ABSTRACT The RAD52 gene of Saccharomyces cerevisiae and genes 46 and 47 of bacteriophage T4 are essential for most recombination and recombinational repair in their respective organisms. The RAD52 gene was introduced into expression vectors that were used to transform Escherichia coli. The expression of RAD52 was then induced, and the ability of RAD52 to complement phage mutants defective in gene 46 or 47 was determined with respect to the three criteria of phage growth, recombination, and recombinational repair. RAD52 gene expression was found to allow growth of gene 46 and 47 mutants under otherwise restrictive conditions, as measured by plaque formation and burst size. Expression of the RAD52 gene also restored the ability of gene 46 and gene 47 mutants to undergo recombination of rII markers. Furthermore, the RAD52 gene restored the ability of gene 46 and 47 mutants to undergo recombinational repair after UV irradiation. The published DNA sequence of gene RAD52 was compared with the published sequences of genes 46 and 47 . Although overall sequence similarities were only marginally significant, RAD52 and gene 46 had substantial sequence similarity over a limited region.

The RAD52 gene of the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae and the 46/47 gene pair of bacteriophage T4 are essential for most recombinational events in their respective organisms. Table 1 summarizes the properties of these genes, indicates their functional similarity, and lists the appropriate references. The RAD52 gene controls an exonuclease, and a functional RAD52 gene is required for meiotic and mitotic recombination in yeast. It is also required for recombinational repair and production of viable meiotic spores. Genes 46 and 47 code for an exonuclease, possibly composed of two polypeptide chains. This exonuclease expands DNA nicks into gaps, which allows joint molecules to form (1, 6). It is required for most recombination, recombinational repair, and production of viable progeny phage.

We show here that when the yeast RAD52 gene is expressed in Escherichia coli it complements mutants of phage T4 defective in gene 46 or 47. Complementation is observed with respect to progeny phage production, the ability to carry out recombination of genetic markers, and recombinational repair. A comparison of the published DNA sequence of the RAD52 gene with each of those of genes 46 and 47 indicated marginally significant overall sequence similarities but substantial sequence similarity between RAD52 and gene 46 over a limited region. Thus gene RAD52 and genes 46 and 47 appear to have a common ancestry on the basis of genetic complementation and partial sequence homology.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The bacterial strains used were E. coli $S/6$, K594(λ), JM105 [thi, rpsL, endA, sbcB15, hspR4, $\Delta (lac-proAB)$, (F', traD36,

proAB, lacI^qZ Δ M15)], and N4830-1 [SI, Δ 8, ($\lambda \Delta$ BAM, $\Delta H1$]. The RAD52-containing plasmid YRp7-A4Sal-[RAD52] was kindly given to us by D. Schild (Lawerence Berkeley Laboratory, Berkeley, CA), and the RAD52 containing plasmid YpSL1-[RAD52] was kindly provided by H. Ogawa (Osaka University, Osaka, Japan). Their properties are described in Schild et al. (30) and in Adzuma et al. (31), respectively. The DNA fragment containing the RAD52 gene from the first plasmid was removed by Sal ^I restriction enzyme digestion and was subcloned into expression vector pUC18. The RAD52 gene from the second plasmid was subcloned, also after Sal I digestion, into expression vector pP_{LC} 2819. The expression of RAD52 in pUC18 is under control of the isopropyl β -D-thiogalactoside (IPTG)-inducible *lacZ* promoter (32). In pP_{LC} 2819 the *RAD52* gene is under the control of a thermoinducible λP_{L} promoter (33). Recombinant plasmids pUC-[RAD52] and pP_{LC} -[RAD52] were used to transform E. coli strains JM105 and N4830-1, respectively. E. coli JM105, a restrictionless host strain, was developed to allow replication of high-copy number pUC plasmid cloning vectors (34). Strain N4830-1, a λ lysogen, carries the cIts857 and N genes to give ^a complete thermoinducible protein expression system (35). The procedures used for cloning and turning on expression of the cloned RAD52 gene were as described in Maniatis et al. (36). For induction of the lacZ inducible promoter, cells were grown to a density of 2×10^7 per ml, IPTG was added, and growth was continued until the cells reached a density of 2×10^8 per ml.

To detect expression of the RAD52 gene product, ¹ ml of the induced and 1 ml of the uninduced cultures were pelleted in an Eppendorf centrifuge tube and were washed twice with an equal volume of M9 salt solution (15). The pellet was next resuspended in 200 μ l of NaDodSO₄/PAGE loading buffer (37). The suspension was boiled for 5 min and was cooled, and then 20 μ l of each separate sample was loaded in a lane of an electrophoresis apparatus. The $NaDodSO₄/PAGE$ analysis was carried out by using modifications of the methods of Laemmli (38) and of O'Farrell and Gold (39). The Bio-Rad NaDodSO4/PAGE protean apparatus with a discontinuous buffer system was used with a slab gel composed of a 4.5% stacking gel and a 12.5% separating gel.

The phage strains used in this study were rIIA cistron mutants rED144 and r71; gene 46 mutants tsL109, amNG280, and amNO24; gene 47 mutants tsL86, tsA52, and amNO11. The gene assignments of tsL109(46), tsL86(47), and tsA52(47) were verified by the inability of each mutant to complement an amber mutant defective in the same gene. The cross procedures employed for marker recombination were the standard ones described by Bernstein (2, 40). For UV irradiation, phage at about 2×10^{10} per ml were distributed
in 10-ml samples in Petri dishes (10). A 15-W General Electric G15T8 germicidal lamp was used at a distance of 23 cm to deliver about 7.5 erg (1 erg = 1.0×10^{-7} J) per mm² per sec.

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Abbreviations: IPTG, isopropyl β -D-thiogalactoside; MR, multiplicity reactivation.

The procedures used in the multiplicity reactivation (MR) experiments were as described by Chen and Bernstein (15). Briefly, the monocomplex surviving fractions plotted in Fig. ¹ were measured in the following way. A sample of 0.5 ml of phage (irradiated or unirradiated) at 2×10^5 per ml was mixed with 0.5 ml of bacteria at 2×10^8 per ml to give a multiplicity of infection of 0.001. At each UV dose, the monocomplex surviving fraction was calculated as the titer of infective centers formed by the irradiated phage divided by the titer of infective centers formed by the unirradiated phage. Multicomplex surviving fractions were measured in the same way except that the irradiated or unirradiated phage were added at 2×10^9 per ml to give an expected multiplicity of infection of 10.

RESULTS

Expression of RAD52 Gene Product from pUC-[RAD52]. To determine if the RAD52 gene product is expressed from the pUC-[RAD52] recombinant plasmid, crude protein samples were extracted from E. coli JM105 cells containing the plasmid. These were prepared as described (see Materials and Methods) and were subjected to 12.5% NaDodSO₄/ PAGE. A 51-kDa protein was present in cells induced with IPTG but not in cells lacking the plasmid or in uninduced cells. Adzuma et al. (31) have estimated the molecular mass of the RAD52 gene product to be about 52 kDa. Thus it appears that the RAD52 gene is expressed from pUC- [RAD52].

Complementation with Respect to Phage Growth. E. coli JM105 containing recombinant plasmid PUC-[RAD52] was tested for its ability to support plaque formation by gene 46 mutant tsL109 and by gene 47 mutants tsL86 and tsA52 (Table 2). At the permissive temperature of 28°C, these mutants formed plaques on JM105(RAD52) whether or not the RAD52 gene was induced. At the restrictive temperature of 42° C, these mutants did not form plaques on either E. coli S/6 or uninduced JM105(RAD52). Plaques were formed at 42° C, however, when the RAD52 gene was induced with IPTG. The efficiency of plating of the temperature-sensitive mutants at 42°C in the presence of expressed $RAD52$ varied from 41% to

98% of that at 28°C (Table 2). These results indicate that the yeast RADS2 gene complements mutants defective in either gene 46 or 47.

A complementation test was also performed by using the RAD52 gene from H. Ogawa. This gene was inserted into plasmid pP_{LC} 2819 so that expression of RAD52 came under the control of the thermoinducible λP_{L} promoter. In this system, RAD52 is inducible only at high temperatures. In this case amber rather than temperature-sensitive mutants were used in the complementation tests. Two gene 46 mutants, amNG280 and amNO24, and one gene 47 mutant, amNOII, were plated on E. coli N4830-1(RAD52) to measure their plaque-forming abilities. All three amber mutants formed plaques on this host at 42°C when RAD52 was thermoinduced but not at 28°C when it was not induced. Thus the RAD52 isolate of H. Ogawa, like the one from D. Schild, complemented phage gene 46 and 47 mutants with respect to plaque formation.

Complementation with Respect to rlI Marker Recombination and Burst Size. Recombination was measured in crosses between the rII markers $r71$ and $rED144$ in a gene 46 mutant $(tsL109)$, a gene 47 mutant $(tsL86)$, or a wild-type background (Table 3). The crosses were carried out at the semirestrictive temperature of 37°C for the gene 47 mutant and at 40°C for the gene 46 mutant. The host bacteria, JM105, contained either no RAD52 plasmid, a RAD52 plasmid that was uninduced, or a RAD52 plasmid that was induced. The percent recombination between the rII markers in a wild-type background when RADS2 was not present or uninduced varied from 0.96% to 1.22% (mean = 1.07%). When the phage carried the tsL109 mutation, the percent recombination was much lower; it varied from 0.01% to 0.06% (mean = 0.04%). When tsL86 was present, the percent recombination varied from 0.02% to 0.12% (mean = 0.06%). These low percentages of recombination in the presence of either the gene 46 or 47 mutation under semirestrictive conditions reflect the key role of the gene 46/47 exonuclease in recombination. When the plasmid containing the RAD52 gene was present and induced, the percent recombination in the tsLl09 mutant cross increased 35-fold $(1.15-1.47\%)$, mean = 1.31%). Similarly, when the RAD52 gene was expressed in the tsL86 mutant cross, the

Table 2. Plaque formation by gene 46 and 47 temperature-sensitive mutants after IPTG induction of RAD52

Phage T4 mutant	E. coli host	IPTG induced	Plaque formation		$%$ recovery,
			$28^{\circ}C$	42° C	42°C/28°C
tsL109 (46)	S/6	No			
	JM105 (RAD52)	No			
	JM105 (RAD52)	Yes			98
tsL86 (47)	S/6	No			
	JM105 (RAD52)	No			
	JM105 (RAD52)	Yes			41
tsA52 (47)	S/6	No			
	JM105 (RAD52)	No			
	JM105 (RAD52)	Yes			58

Genetics: Chen and Bernstein

The two values shown are from separate experiments.

percent recombination increased 10-fold (0.50-0.67%, mean $= 0.59\%$). These increases upon RAD52 gene induction show that the RADS2 gene can complement gene 46 and 47 mutants with respect to their defective recombination phenotype.

The mean burst sizes measured in these two crosses are shown in Table 4. In the crosses that are wild-type with respect to genes 46 and 47, the mean burst sizes varied from 68 to 114 (overall mean = 98) phage per cell. In the $tsL109$ (gene 46) mutant crosses, when RAD52 was absent or uninduced, the mean burst sizes were 12 and 14, respectively. However, the mean burst size increased 10-fold to 126 when RADS2 was induced. A 5-fold increase was seen in the tsL86 (gene 47) crosses when RAD52 was induced. These results show that RAD52 complements gene 46 and 47 mutants with respect to burst size. Thus complementation is evident with respect to two measures of phage growth-efficiency of plating (previous section) and burst size.

Complementation with Respect to DNA Repair. MR is ^a major form of DNA repair in phage T4 (see ref. 41, for review). This type of repair depends on the presence of at least two phage genomes in the same infected cell and the expression of genes required for recombination. These genes include genes 46 and 47.

The MR obtained with wild-type phage when the RAD52 gene is uninduced is shown in Fig. LA. The open circles represent fractional survival after UV irradiation of the infective center-forming ability of cells infected by wild-type phage at a multiplicity of 0.001 (so that most infected cells receive only a single phage genome). The filled circles represent survival of the infective center-forming ability of cells infected by the same irradiated phage but at a multiplicity of about 10. The slower rate of inactivation upon multiple infection compared to single infection reflects MR. When the same experiment is carried out with the tsL109 (gene 46) mutant, the rate of inactivation in the multiple infections (filled circles) is distinctly greater than when wild-type phage were used, which indicates reduced MR (Fig. iB). The tsL86 (gene 47) mutant also has reduced MR compared to wild-type (Fig. 1C). The MR levels obtained when the RAD52 gene is induced are shown in Fig. 1 D-F.

Table 4. Burst size of phage T4 rII mutants in the presence or absence of induced RAD52

	Burst size			
Phage cross	No plasmid	Uninduced RAD52 plasmid	Induced RAD52 plasmid	
rED 144 $\times r71$	68	112	114	
rED144. tsL109(46)				
\times r71, tsL109(46)	12	14	126	
rED144, tsL86(47)				
\times r71. tsL86(47)	9	19	67	

Each value represents the average of two independent measurements.

The levels of MR in infections by wild-type (Fig. ID), tsL109 (Fig. 1E), and tsL86 (Fig. iF) were raised substantially compared to that observed when the RADS2 gene was not expressed. This indicates that the RAD52 gene not only complements the gene ⁴⁶ and ⁴⁷ mutants with respect to MR but that it also increases the efficiency of MR in ^a wild-type infection. Since MR is a form of recombinational repair, these results imply that the RADS2 gene can substitute for genes 46 and 47 with respect to their role in recombinational repair, as well as enhance recombinational repair of wild-type.

Comparison of DNA Sequences. The published sequences of genes 46 and 47 (42) were compared to the published sequence of the RAD52 gene (31) by computer analysis [Rapid Biosequence Similarity Analysis with IBM-PC and PC/XT (43)]. Although in both of these comparisons significant homology was found, in neither case was the overall homology impressive. However, when amino acids 14-199 of gene product 46 were aligned with amino acids 37-334 of RAD52 gene product and gaps in the sequence were allowed in order to maintain optimum sequence similarity, there were 26% identical matches. Within this region, gene 46 and RAD52 showed substantial sequence similarity over a contiguous 40-amino-acid region in which there were no gaps in either sequence. This might indicate a uniquely conserved functional region. The ":" and the "." symbols shown in the comparison of these 40-amino-acid sequences indicate identical matches and conserved substitutions, respectively (44).

T4 gene product 46

DISCUSSION

We have shown here that the yeast RAD52 gene can substitute for phage T4 genes 46 and 47 with respect to their roles in phage growth, marker recombination, and recombinational repair. We have also shown that RADS2 has partial sequence identity with gene 46. These findings suggest that genes RADS2 and 46/47 may have a common ancestry. Recombination and recombinational repair in phage T4 require at least five genes in addition to genes 46 and 47 (genes 32, 59, uvs W, $uvsX$, and $uvsY$; see ref. 45 for review). The requirement for at least seven gene products suggests that recombination is carried out by ^a complex protein apparatus (46). A similar complex protein apparatus may exist in yeast, which is composed of the products of genes in the RAD52 epistatic group (47). Our finding that the RADS2 gene can efficiently replace phage genes 46 and 47 indicates that the RAD52 gene product is able to integrate its action with the rest of the phage recombination apparatus. This suggests that the similarity in the yeast and phage recombination mechanisms may extend beyond the exonuclease function.

Chow and Resnick (23) have proposed that the RAD52 gene product controls an endo-exonuclease, which they refer to as yNucR. They found that antiserum raised against a purified single-stranded DNA-binding DNase from Neurospora crassa identified yNucR as a 72-kDa protein present in wild-type yeast that was reduced in the mutant radS2-1. Adzuma et al. (31) cloned ^a yeast DNA sequence which complemented radS2 mutants. The molecular mass of the RADS2 gene product, indicated by their sequence data, was about 52 kDa (the exact molecular mass was uncertain because several start codons were possible). Their estimate does not match the 72-kDa molecular mass of the protein identified by Chow and Resnick. The discrepancy between

FIG. 1. Comparison of wild-type and mutant monocomplex and multicomplex surviving fractions as a function of UV dose. \circ , Monocomplex surviving fractions; \bullet , multicomplex surviving fractions. (A-C) Infections of E. coli JM105 containing pUC-[RAD52] that was not induced. (D-F) Infections of E. coli JM105 containing pUC-[RAD52], where the cells were induced prior to infection. The presence of wild-type alleles or mutant alleles of genes 46 or 47 of the infecting phage is indicated in each panel. Each data point represents the mean value obtained in two independent experiments.

the reported molecular masses may indicate that the DNA sequence isolated by Adzuma et al. (31) does not contain the complete RAD52 sequence or that the RAD52-encoded protein and the 72-kDa protein are not the same. Since the DNA fragment isolated by Adzuma et al. (31) complements gene 46 and 47 mutants of phage T4, it may possibly encode a gene product that functions as an exonuclease. Recently, Chow and Resnick (24) presented evidence that RAD52 is not the structural gene for yNucR and suggested that the RAD52 encoded protein regulates or activates the yNucR protein. Thus, the RAD52 gene product may function both to control yNucR and as an exonuclease.

In addition to RAD52, two other repair genes have been shown to functionally substitute across the prokaryoteeukaryote boundary. The $denV$ gene of phage T4 can complement RADJ and RAD3 mutants of yeast (48) and human Xeroderma D cells (49). The denV gene product, endonuclease V, combines ^a DNA glycosylase activity specific for pyrimidine dimers and an apyrimidinic endonuclease activity in the same molecule. Also, an E. coli gene, ada, which encodes O^6 -methylguanine methyltransferase, has been shown to restore cellular resistance to alkylating agents in repair-deficient human cells (50). Neither of these genes, however, are involved in recombination.

It can be noted in Fig. 1, by comparing A to D , that multiplicity reactivation of UV-irradiated wild-type phage is more efficient when the RAD52 gene is induced than when it is not. This suggests that the RAD52 gene product can promote recombinational repair of UV-induced lethal lesions beyond those handled by the normal phage T4 recombinational repair apparatus. This may be a quantitative effect resulting from overproduction of the RAD52 gene product. Alternatively, yeast may have evolved a more efficient mechanism than phage T4 for recognizing and repairing UV-induced lesions, which depends on the RAD52 gene product.

Besides the similarity between phage T4 genes 46 and 47 and yeast gene RAD52, there are a number of other interesting similarities between genes of phage T4 and genes of eukaryotes or their viruses. The type II topoisomerase subunit of phage T4 encoded by gene 52 shows significant homology with the carboxyl half of yeast DNA topoisomerase ¹¹ (51). The phage T4 DNA polymerase encoded by gene ⁴³ shares regions of sequence similarity with human DNA polymerase α , and the DNA polymerases of herpes family viruses, vaccinia virus, and adenovirus (52). The phage T4 thymidylate synthetase also shows considerable homology with yeast thymidylate synthetase (53). The DNA ligase of phage T4 and the ligases of both budding and fission yeast

Genetics: Chen and Bernstein

show sequence similarity over the specific stretch of amino acids that form the putative ATP-binding region (54, 55). Introns have been observed in genes td (56), nrdB (57), and ORF55 (58) of phage T4, which encode thymidylate synthetase, nucleotide reductase small subunit, and an unidentified gene product, respectively. The td intron shares homology with three self-splicing group ^I introns of mitochondrial genes of filamentous fungi (59). The above similarities' between genes and introns of phage T4 and those of eukaryotes indicate that these entities arose in a common progenitor. That they have retained common genetic information in their separate lineages implies selective pressure to retain an early beneficial adaptive structure. Therefore, any knowledge gained about gene products, such as gene products 46 and 47, in the relatively accessible phage T4 system may be pertinent to the homologous gene products in eukaryotes.

We thank Carol Bernstein and Carol Dieckmann for helpful discussions and critical advice. This work was supported by Grant GM27219 from the National Institutes of Health.

- 1. Hosoda, J. (1976) J. Mol. Biol. 106, 277-284.
- 2. Bernstein, H. (1968) Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. 33, 325-331.
- 3. Berger, H., Warren, A. J. & Fry, K. E. (1969) J. Virol. 3, 171- 175.
- 4. Broker, T. R. (1973) J. Mol. Biol. 81, 1-16.
- 5. Fry, S. E. (1979) J. Gen. Virol. 43, 719-722.
- 6. Prashad, N. & Hosoda, J. (1972) J. Mol. Biol. 70, 617–635.
7. Mickelson. C. & Wiberg. J. S. (1981) J. Virol. 40. 65–77.
- 7. Mickelson, C. & Wiberg, J. S. (1981) J. Virol. 40, 65-77.
8. Baldy. M. W. (1970) Virology 40, 272-287.
- 8. Baldy, M. W. (1970) Virology 40, 272-287.
9. Davis, K. J. & Symonds, N. (1974) Mol. Ge.
- Davis, K. J. & Symonds, N. (1974) Mol. Gen. Genet. 132, 173-180.
- 10. Nonn, E. & Bernstein, C. (1977) J. Mol. Biol. 116, 31-47.
- 11. Johns, V., Bernstein, C. & Bernstein, H. (1978) Mol. Gen. Genet. 167, 197-207.
- 12. Schneider, S., Bernstein, C. & Bernstein, H. (1978) Mol. Gen. Genet. 167, 185-195.
- 13. Holmes, G. E., Schneider, S., Bernstein, C. & Bernstein, H. (1980) Virology 103, 299-310.
- 14. Yarosh, D. B., Johns, V., Mufti, S., Bernstein, C. & Bernstein, H. (1980) Photochem. Photobiol. 31, 341-350.
- 15. Chen, D. & Bernstein, C. (1987) Mutat. Res. 184, 87-98.
- 16. Shalitin, C. & Kahana, S. (1970) J. Virol. 6, 353-362.
- 17. Game, J. C., Zamb, T. J., Braun, R. J., Resnick, M. & Roth, R. M. (1980) Genetics 94, 51-68.
- 18. Prakash, S., Prakash, L., Burke, W. & Montelone, B. A. (1980) Genetics 94, 31-50.
- 19. Saeki, T., Machida, I. & Nakai, S. (1980) Mutat. Res. 73, 251- 265.
- 20. Jackson, J. A. & Fink, G. R. (1981) Nature (London) 292, 306- 311.
- 21. Chow, T. Y.-K. & Resnick, M. A. (1983) in Cellular Responses to DNA Damage, eds. Friedberg, E. C. & Bridges, B. A. (Liss, New York), pp. 447-455.
- 22. Resnick, M. A., Chow, T., Nitiss, J. & Game, J. (1984) Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. 49, 639-650.
- 23. Chow, T. Y.-K. & Resnick, M. A. (1987) J. Biol. Chem. 262, 17659-17667.
- 24. Chow, T. Y.-K. & Resnick, M. A. (1988) Mol. Gen. Genet. 211, 41-48.
- 25. Resnick, M. A. (1969) Genetics 62, 519-531.
26. Game, J. C. & Mortimer, R. K. (1974) Mutat.
- 26. Game, J. C. & Mortimer, R. K. (1974) Mutat. Res. 24, 281-292.
27. Ho. K. S. Y. (1975) Mutat. Res. 30. 327-334.
- 27. Ho, K. S. Y. (1975) Mutat. Res. 30, 327-334.
28. Resnick, M. A. & Martin, P. (1976) Mol. Gen.
- Resnick, M. A. & Martin, P. (1976) Mol. Gen. Genet. 143, 119-129.
- 29. Orr-Weaver, T. L., Szostak, J. W. & Rothstein, R. J. (1981) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 78, 6354-6358.
- 30. Schild, D., Konforti, B., Perez, C., Gish, W. & Mortimer, R. (1983) Curr. Genet. 7, 85-92.
- 31. Adzuma, K., Ogawa, T. & Ogawa, H. (1984) Mol. Cell. Biol. 4, 2735-2744.
- 32. Helfman, D. M., Feramisco, J. R., Fiddes, J. C., Thomas, G. P. & Highes, S. H. (1983) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80, 31-35.
- 33. Remaut, E., Tsao, H. & Fiers, W. (1983) Gene 22, 103-113.
34. Yanisch-Perron, C., Vieira, J. & Messing, J. (1985) Gene 33.
- Yanisch-Perron, C., Vieira, J. & Messing, J. (1985) Gene 33, 103-119.
- 35. Gottesman, M. E., Adhya, S. & Das, A. (1980) J. Mol. Biol. 140, 57-75.
- 36. Maniatis, T., Fritsch, E. F. & Sambrook, J. (1982) Molecular Cloning:A Laboratory Manual (Cold Spring Harbor Lab., Cold Spring Harbor, NY).
- 37. Rodriguez, R. & Tait, R. C. (1983) Recombinant DNA Techniques: An Introduction (Benjamin/Cummings, Menlo Park, CA).
-
- 38. Laemmli, U. K. (1970) Nature (London) 227, 680-685.
39. O'Farrell, P. Z. & Gold, L. M. (1973) J. Biol. Chem. 248 39. ^O'Farrell, P. Z. & Gold, L. M. (1973) J. Biol. Chem. 248, 5499- 5501.
- 40. Bernstein, H. (1967) Genetics 56, 755-769.
41. Bernstein, C. & Wallace, S. S. (1983) in Bac.
- Bernstein, C. & Wallace, S. S. (1983) in Bacteriophage T4, eds. Mathews, C. K., Kutter, E. M., Mosig, G. & Berget, P. B. (Am. Soc. Microbiol., Washington, DC), pp. 138-151.
- 42. Gram, H. & Ruger, W. (1985) EMBO J. 4, 257-264.
- 43. Lipman, D. J., Wilbur, W. J., Smith, T. F. & Waterman, M. S. (1984) Nucleic Acids Res. 12, 215-226.
- 44. Lipman, D. J. & Pearson, W. R. (1985) Science 22, 1435-1440.
45. Bernstein, C. (1981) Microbiol, Rev. 45, 72-98.
- 45. Bernstein, C. (1981) Microbiol. Rev. 45, 72-98.
- 46. Alberts, B. M. (1984) Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. 49, 1-12.
- 47. Game, J. C. (1983) in Yeast Genetics, Fundamental and AppliedAspects, eds. Spencer, J. F. T., Spencer, D. M. & Smith, A. R. M. (Springer-Verlag, New York), pp. 109-137.
- 48. Valerie, K., Fronko, G., Henderson, E. E. & DeRiel, J. K. (1986) Mol. Cell. Biol. 6, 3559-3562.
- 49. Arrand, J. E., Squires, S., Bone, N. M. & Johnson, R. T. (1987) EMBO J. 6, 3125-3131.
- 50. Ishizaki, K., Tsujimura, T., Fujio, C., Yangpei, Z., Yawata, H., Nakabeppu, Y., Sekiguchi, M. & Ikenaga, M. (1987) Mutat. Res. 184, 121-128.
- 51. Huang, W. M. (1986) Nucleic Acids Res. 14, 7379-7390.
- 52. Wong, S. W., Wahl, A. F., Yuan, P.-M., Arai, N., Pearson, B. E., Arai, K.-I., Korn, D., Hunkapiller, M. W. & Wang, T. S. (1988) EMBO J. 7, 37-47.
- 53. Taylor, G. R., Lagosky, P. A., Storms, R. K. & Haynes, R. H. (1987) J. Biol. Chem. 262, 5298-5307.
- 54. Barker, D. G., White, J. H. M. & Johnston, L. H. (1985) Nucleic Acids Res. 13, 8323-8337.
- 55. Barker, D. G., White, J. H. M. & Johnston, L. H. (1987) Eur. J. Biochem. 162, 659-667.
- 56. Chu, F. K., Maley, G. F., West, D. K., Belfort, M. & Maley, F. (1986) Cell 45, 157-166.
- 57. Pederson-Lane, J. & Belfort, M. (1987) Science 237, 182-184. 58. Chu, F. K., Maley, G. F. & Maley, F. (1988) FASEB J. 2, 216- 223.
- 59. Michel, F. & Dujon, B. (1986) Cell 46, 323-324.