rRNA processing: removal of only nineteen bases at the gap between $28S\alpha$ and $28S\beta$ rRNAs in Sciara coprophila

Vassie C.Ware, Rainer Renkawitz* and Susan A.Gerbi

Division of Biology and Medicine, Brown University, Providence, RI 02912, USA

Received 21 November 1984; Revised and Accepted 18 April 1985

ABSTRACT

We have determined the sequence of the rDNA region between the $28S\alpha$ and $28S\beta$ rRNA coding segments (termed a "gap") in the insect <u>Sciara</u> <u>coprophila</u>, and have used Sl nuclease mapping and cDNA primer extension to define the 5' and 3' boundaries of the gap. Only 19 bases found in rDNA at the gap region are absent from mature 28S rRNA. Eukaryotic rRNAs contain stretches of nucleotides ("expansion segments") which are absent in <u>E. coli</u> rRNA. The gap region in <u>Sciara</u> is located within expansion segment V. Therefore, the excision of 19 bases in the <u>Sciara</u> gap suggests that a large portion of expansion segment V plays no function in mature ribosomes. Specific sequences conserved in <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Drosophila</u> are considered as candidates for recognition signals for the excision of the gap transcript.

INTRODUCTION

The fungus fly, <u>Sciara coprophila</u>, is among a group of organisms that exhibits a specific break in the 26S-28S rRNA at a position approximately halfway down the molecule. Upon hybridizing 26S-28S rRNA to rDNA in R-loop analysis, the break can be visualized in the electron microscope as a "gap" (e.g., [1-3]), thereby dividing 26S-28S rRNA into α and β moieties. Under nondenaturing conditions the α and β halves remain hydrogen bonded together. The rDNA gap is not to be mistaken for an intervening sequence which is found in some systems approximately three quarters from the 5' end of 28S rRNA (within 28S β rRNA).

Historically it was unclear if the fragmentation of 26S-28S rRNA was due to nicking during RNA extraction; subsequent analyses, however, determined that the fragmentation pattern is highly reproducible (e.g., [4]). This specific 26S-28S dissociation pattern has since been documented in a wide range of organisms within the phyla <u>Protozoga</u>, <u>Mollusca</u>, <u>Annelida</u>, and <u>Arthropoda</u>. Essentially this phenomenon has been demonstrated in protostomes, protozoa, and some coelenterates, but not in deuterostomes, sponges, platyhelminths, or prokaryotes (5).

Whether or not the break in rRNA is accompanied by a loss of

nucleotides or simply represents a clip in the rRNA has been a subject of controversy. Pellegrini <u>et al</u>. (2) measured a gap of 170 bp in <u>Prosophila</u>, but since its occurrence was limited to only 10% of their hybrid molecules, they concluded that the majority of <u>Prosophila</u> mature 26S rRNA must have a single cleavage in the polynucleotide chain with no concomitant loss of nucleotides. Others have measured gap sizes in <u>Prosophila</u> of 120-340 bases by electron microscopy (e.g., [1, 6, 7]).

This additional cleavage or removal of nucleotides is generally believed to occur within the cytoplasm (8-10), although one group has reported nuclear processing (11). Lava-Sanchez and Puppo (8) could even mimic <u>in vitro</u> the exact 28S fragmentation phenomenon by using a mild pancreatic RNase treatment on newly synthesized ribosomes, suggesting that a nuclease which is active in the cytoplasm cleaves exposed 26S-28S rRNA on the ribosome surface.

Is gap processing of 26S-28S rRNA the result of random nuclease attack due to the apparent accessibility of the gap region on the ribosome surface or is <u>specific</u> endonuclease action involved? Earlier fingerprinting studies in a number of organisms hinted that a specific evolutionarily conserved dinucleotide around the gap region may be recognized by the gap processing machinery (12, 13). There is a dearth of sequence information for the gap region. Direct sequence analysis of the gap region would possibly allow us to identify enzyme recognition signals for gap processing and to determine any differences in sequence between organisms with or without gap processing. In this paper we report the 28S rDNA sequence of the gap (equivalent to the region between the 3' end of 28SG rRNA and the 5' end of $28S\beta$ rRNA).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

<u>DNA</u>

<u>Sciara coprophila</u> 28S rDNA was prepared as described by Brand and Gerbi (14) from a plasmid (pBC2) containing a complete rDNA repeat unit. The construction of this pBR322-derived clone has been described previously (15). NIH Guidelines were followed for recombinant DNA work. <u>RNA</u>

Total RNA was extracted from <u>Sciara</u> larvae using a modification of the guanidinium hydrochloride extraction method of Ernest and Feigelson (16). Three to six hundred larvae were homogenized in 8 mls of guanidinium HCl solution and layered over 4 mls of the cesium chloride solution in a SW41 polyallomer tube (all buffers and solutions as per [16]). Following centrifugation overnight for 16-17 hours at 25° C at 25K rpm in a Beckman SW41 rotor, the RNA pellet was dissolved in sterile H₂O, adjusted to 2% potassium acetate pH 5.2, and ethanol precipitated. After precipitation at -20° C for at least 4 hours, the RNA was pelleted, dried under vacuum, resuspended in sterile water and reprecipitated with ethanol as above. Following 2-3 washes with 80% ethanol and vacuum drying, the RNA pellet was either stored under 95% ethanol or dissolved in a minimum volume of 0.1 M NaCl/0.01 M Na acetate pH 5.1, buffer. One RNA preparation usually yielded 0.8 to 1.6 mg of RNA. Total RNA was fractionated on 5-20% sucrose gradients as described by Renkawitz <u>et al</u>, (15). Total RNA was extracted from <u>Drosophils melanogaster</u> flies (a generous gift from Marie Levesque) as above.

Enzymes and Nucleotides

Restriction endonucleases were purchased from New England Biolabs or Bethesda Research Labs. DNA polymerase (Klenow fragment), terminal transferase, and polynucleotide kinase were from New England Nuclear (NEN). Sl nuclease was from Boehringer Mannheim. AMV reverse transcriptase was a generous gift from Chris Petropoulos received from Dr. James W. Beard. Deoxynucleotide triphosphates and dideoxynucleotide triphosphates were purchased in the Amersham M13 sequencing kit. The following labeled nucleotides were used: 32 Py-ATP (ICN crude preparation) for 5' end kinase labeling, 3'-dCTP (α - 32 P) from NEN for Klenow labeling, and 3'-dATP (α - 32 P) from NEN for 3' end labeling with terminal transferase.

DNA Sequencing

Labeled ends were separated by secondary restriction digestion. DNA sequencing reactions were performed following the method of Maxam and Gilbert (17). All sequencing gels were run in 1X Peacock's Buffer (18). <u>\$1 Nuclease Protection</u>

Hybridization and S1 nuclease digestion were performed as described by Favaloro \underline{et} \underline{al} . (19) with the following modifications: 5' or 3' end labeled DNA was denatured for 15 minutes at 85° C; hybridization in 80% formamide was carried out at 62° C for 2 hours. S1 nuclease treatment of the RNA-DNA hybrids was performed at 37° C for 30 minutes in a 300 µ1 mixture with 300 U of S1 nuclease. Following phenol extraction, reaction mixtures were ethanol precipitated. The following control experiments were done: 1) DNA was denatured and then S1 nuclease digested with no added RNA to assure that the denaturation step was adequate and 2) native DNA was incubated with Sl nuclease to assure that double stranded nucleic acids were protected from Sl nuclease digestion. DNA resistant to Sl nuclease was displayed on a 10% acrylamide sequencing gel alongside a sequencing ladder of the original 5' or 3' end labeled DNA fragment.

cDNA Primer Extension

The 75 bp primer, 5' end labeled at the Taq I end, was derived from a 250 bp Taq I fragment which was subsequently cut with Acc I; this primer was hybridized to native total rRNA or 28S rRNA. In the presence of deoxynucleotides and reverse transcriptase, cDNAs were transcribed off the RNA templates (20). Sequence analysis on adjacent gel lanes was carried out using intact RNA templates, deoxynucleotides, dideoxynucleotides, and reverse transcriptase.

Heterologous primer extension experiments were performed using intact total rRNA from <u>Drosophila</u> and a 30 bp <u>Sciara</u> rDNA primer from a secondary BstNl digestion of the 250 bp Taq I fragment. All primer extension experiments were analyzed on 8% acrylamide sequencing gels.

RESULTS

Determination of Gap Boundaries

The S1 nuclease data and restriction map of $\underbrace{\text{Sciara}}_{iara}$ rDNA clone pBC2, previously reported by Renkawitz $\underbrace{\text{et}}_{iara}$ [15), were used to delimit the gap region to a 1.0 kb Hae II/Hinc II restriction fragment (Fig. 1). Within this rDNA segment additional restriction sites relative to the Hind III site were mapped by double digestion. Using the strategy shown in Fig. 1, 384 bases of sequence spanning the gap region were determined (Fig. 2).

It was estimated previously by S1 nuclease analysis using uniformly labeled DNA of the coding regions for 28SG and β rRNAs that the <u>Sciara</u> gap is 100 bases in length, and its approximate map position had been located (15). As a first experiment to locate the gap boundaries more precisely, <u>Sciara</u> 28S rRNA was hybridized to the 1.0 kb Hae II/Hinc II fragment which was 3' end labeled at the Hae II site. Sizing the protected hybrid, which was S1 nuclease resistant, on a 5% acrylamide sequencing gel suggested that the 3' end of 28SG rRNA (equivalent to the 5' end of the gap) was approximately 300 nucleotides from the labeled Hae II site.

To further estimate the location of the gap boundaries, the <u>Sciara</u> rDNA sequence was aligned with the rDNA sequences of <u>Xenopus</u> <u>laevis</u> 288 rDNA (21) and <u>E. coli</u> 238 rDNA (22); the latter two sequences lack a gap. By sequence homology one could predict where the gap boundaries might be located. However, just by comparison of the <u>Xenopus</u> and <u>Sciara</u> rDNA



<u>Figure 1</u>. Sequencing strategy used for the gap region in <u>Sciara</u> 28S rDNA. The upper line shows a complete rDNA unit carried as an Eco RI insert in clone pBC2 containing the 3' end of 18S rDNA, internal transcribed spacer (ITS 1), 5.8S rDNA ("5.8S"/2S rDNA - see discussion), ITS 2, 28S α and 28S β rDNA with gap DNA between these two coding regions, nontranscribed spacer (NTS), external transcribed spacer (ETS), and the 5' end of 18S rDNA attached to the vector pBR322 (15). The dotted line shows the transcribed regions of the rDNA unit. The 1.0 kb Hae II/Hinc II restriction fragment spans the gap region as shown. In the lower portion of the figure restriction sites used for 5' (\bullet) or 3' (\circ) end labeling are indicated; arrows mark the amount of sequence information from the labeled end.

sequences, it appeared that the gap size would be smaller than the original estimate of 100 bases (15). It was clear that the gap region in $\frac{c_{i}}{c_{i}}$ is within eukaryotic-specific expansion segment V in Domain IV of 28S rRNA (21, 23). We have previously defined "expansion segments" as regions which are found within the mature rRNAs of eukaryotes but not prokaryotes (21, 23); the sequence and length of expansion segments varies between eukaryotic species, but their positions within rRNA are conserved in all eukaryotes.

In order to refine the map position of the 3' end of $28S\alpha$ rRNA and the 5' end of $28S\beta$ rRNA at the sequence level, a smaller restriction fragment (250 bp) bounded by Taq I sites was used in Sl nuclease protection experiments (Fig. 3). For the 5' labeled fragment, the longest major protected band was 125 bp from the 5' end label after Sl nuclease digestion thereby defining the position of the 3' border of the gap. Similarly, when the same Taq I fragment was 3' end labeled, Sl nuclease digestion located the 5' boundary of the gap 110 bp from the 3' end label. **Nucleic Acids Research**



GG CTTGG AAG AG CATG ACAT TTAC

Figure 2. DNA sequence of the RNA-like strand of the gap region in <u>Sciara</u> <u>coprophila</u>. The boxed-in region represents the bases of the gap which are removed from the mature 28S rRNA. Arrows within box indicate direct and inverted repeats. The sequence presented is from the extreme left arrowhead to the extreme right arrowhead shown in Fig. 1.

It is well-known that Sl nuclease may degrade a hybrid artifactually giving rise to a population of shortened RNA molecules (24). For this reason we considered the largest major band after Sl nuclease digestion to be the true 3' end of $28S\alpha$ or the 5' end of $28S\beta$ rRNA in the experiments described above. We confirmed these conclusions by primer extension. In this case a cDNA copy is extended in a 5' to 3' direction by reverse transcriptase along the rRNA template until the site where the rRNA ends due to the gap. The restriction fragment used as a primer must be downstream on the rRNA relative to the direction of reverse transcription. Therefore it was possible to use this approach to confirm the 5' end of $28S\beta$ rRNA. Because of the polarity of reverse transcription this tactic cannot be used to ascertain the 3' end of any RNA. Figure 4 shows the results of a primer extension experiment to confirm the 5' end of 288β rRNA. A 5' end labeled 75 bp DNA primer (250 bp Taq I fragment subsequently cut with Acc I) located 3' to the beginning of $28S\beta$ rRNA was hybridized to total rRNA or 28S rRNA. cDNAs were transcribed up to a break



<u>Figure 3</u>. Determination of gap boundaries. A Taq I (250 bp) restriction fragment, 3' or 5' end labeled and subsequently digested to remove one labeled end, was hybridized to <u>Sciara</u> 28S rRNA as described in Materials and Methods. RNA-DNA hybrids were subjected to Sl nuclease treatment. Sl nuclease resistant hybrids were displayed on a 10Z acrylamide sequencing gel adjacent to a sequencing ladder of the original full length fragment. The position of the largest major Sl nuclease resistant fragment is indicated by the arrow. Sequences shown are for the template strand (not RNA-like strand). Letters for sequences are read from right to left. The schematic diagram (center of figure) indicates which labeled restriction fragment was used to define the 5' or 3' end of the gap. LEFT PANEL: 3' end labeling experiment to define the 3' end of $28S^{\circ}$ rRNA (equivalent to the 5' boundary of the gap). RIGHT PANEL: 5' end labeling experiment to define the 5' end of $28S\beta$ rRNA (equivalent to the 3' boundary of the gap).

in the RNA template caused by the naturally occurring 5' boundary of $28S\beta$ rRNA (= 3' boundary of gap region). These experiments corroborated the S1 nuclease mapping results for the 3' boundary of the gap.

A primer extension experiment was also carried out for <u>Sciara</u> using a 5' end labeled 175 bp rDNA primer (250 bp Taq I fragment cut with Hind III)





<u>Figure</u> 4. Primer extension analysis. A 5' end labeled (^{32}P) 75 bp rDNA fragment (derived from an Acc I digest of Taq I, 250 bp) was hybridized to <u>Sciara</u> 285 rRNA. The RNAs served as templates for cDNA synthesis (see schematic) (as per [20]). cDNA products were displayed on a 8% acrylamide sequencing gel. No bands larger than the full length transcript shown appeared from that point to the top of the gel.

which traversed the gap sequence. One would predict that cDNA extension would result only if the Hind III site is a part of the 28S α coding region; if the Hind III site were among the bases processed out of mature rRNA, then there could be no extension beyond the DNA primer. The results agreed with the former prediction and confirmed that the Hind III site must constitute a part of the 28S α rRNA coding segment and not be within the gap (data not shown).

Since there was such good agreement between the Sl nuclease mapping and primer extension results for <u>Sciara</u>, we felt that it would be useful to compare the recent preliminary results of Delanversin and Jacq (25) for the <u>Drosophila</u> gap determined by Sl nuclease mapping with primer extension results for <u>Drosophila</u> rRNA (current study). Therefore a heterologous primer extension experiment was done using a 30 bp <u>Sciara</u> rDNA primer (250 bp Taq I fragment cut with BstNl) and <u>Drosophila</u> total rRNA (Fig. 5). Using this approach we found the 5' end of <u>Drosophila</u> 26Sß rRNA to extend twelve bases further upstream (beginning with UAAUU) from the largest Sl nuclease resistant fragment reported by Delanversin and Jacq (25). This sequence is identical to the sequence at the beginning of the <u>Sciara</u> 28Sß rRNA. Note that the mature 28Sß transcript in <u>Sciara</u> is longer than that for <u>Drosophila</u> by eight bases in the region between the 3' boundary of the gap and the 3' end of the DNA primer (origin of cDNA synthesis) (shown in part in Fig. 6).

DISCUSSION

A. Structural features of the Gap Region

The amount of material excised by gap processing is extremely small; we have shown here that only nineteen bases are removed in <u>Sciara</u>. The discrepancy in the actual length of the gap from this study compared to the previous estimate of 100 bases (15) can be accounted for in the latter case due to the inability to resolve small changes in restriction fragment sizes with the gel conditions used. The gap size also differs from electron microscopic measurements of R-loops formed between <u>Sciara</u> rDNA clones and $28S\alpha$ and $28S\beta$ rRNAs (3); however, this probably reflects a limitation of the electron microscopy technique as similar overestimates have been noted for the <u>Drosophila</u> 26S gap region as well (25).

The <u>Sciara</u> gap sequence is located within the eukaryotic specific expansion segment V. Expansion segments are found in the same positions in different eukaryotic species, but their length and base composition varies between species (21). Indeed, the base compositional bias of expansion

Nucleic Acids Research



Figure 5. Heterologous primer extension analysis. A 5' end labeled (³²P) 30 bp <u>Sciara</u> DNA fragment (derived from a Bst N1 digest of Taq I, 250 bp) was hybridized to <u>Sciara</u> total rRNA (lane 1) or <u>Drosophila</u> total rRNA (lanes

2-6). The RNA served as a template for cDNA synthesis in the presence of deoxynucleotides or deoxynucleotides plus dideoxynucleotides and reverse transcriptase. The elongated cDNA products (lanes 1 and 2) were electrophoresed on a 8% acrylamide sequencing gel adjacent to a dideoxy-sequencing ladder of <u>Drosophila</u> cDNA (lanes 3-6). cDNA synthesis continues up to the 5' end of $265-285\beta$ rRNA. Note that the full length transcript for <u>Sciara</u> is longer than the <u>Drosophila</u> transcript (see text for explanation). The <u>Drosophila</u> sequence shown is for the cDNA (not RNA-like strand). Our sequence data are in agreement with the sequence data of Delanversin and Jacq (25). No bands larger than the full length transcript appeared from that point to the top of the gel.

segments contributes to the overall difference in rRNA base compositions between species. This base compositional bias is seen in the <u>Sciere</u> gap sequence which is very A+T rich (74%), as is the remainder of expansion segment V.

Using the recent sequence data for <u><u><u>Drosophila</u></u> 26S rDNA (25), we have aligned segments of the <u>Sciara</u> and <u><u>Drosophila</u></u> 26S-28S rDNA sequences in the gap region (Fig. 6). This alignment supports our data which show that the 5' end of 26S β extends further upstream than previously reported by Delanversin and Jacq (25). Areas which are adjacent to the gap region (outside the boundaries of expansion segment V) have been strongly conserved between all eukaryotes (see sequence alignment in [21]) and especially between <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Drosophila</u>. It was the strong sequence homology, particularly on the 3' side of the expansion segment, that made the heterologous primer extension experiment possible (see Fig. 5); <u><u>Drosophila</u> and <u>Sciara</u> rDNAs are 86% homologous in this region.</u></u>

Using the alignment between the <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Drosophila</u> gap regions, we can ask if these two insects share any features in common which may be recognized as signals for gap processing and are absent in other eukaryotes such as yeast and <u>Xenopus</u> which lack gap processing. Comparison of the primary rDNA sequence around the processing site for 26S-28Sg reveals features common to <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Drosophila</u>, most notably the hexanucleotide ATAATT (Fig. 6); this sequence is absent from expansion segment V in yeast (26, 27) and <u>Xenopus</u> (21). Conservation of sequences within the gap region, especially at the beginning of 26S-28Sg rRNA, implies that there is some specificity associated with the processing reaction and that there may be selective pressure to maintain certain sequences in the gap region.

We have previously noted that base duplications occur near the borders of rRNA expansion segments (23). For <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Drosophila</u>, however, the pattern of duplication differs from that of the other eukaryotes: an identical duplication CGAAAG exists on each side of the



Figure 6. Alignment of Sciara and Drosophila 26S-28S rDNA sequences in the gap region. "S" represents Sciara coprophila 28S (this paper); "D" represents Drosophila 26S (25). The sequence is from the RNA-like strand in both cases. The alignment starts at Sciara base 95 (from Figure 5) and extends to Sciara base 178. The solid boxes are regions of sequence homology; sequence homologies extend beyond the region shown, as this alignment includes only the area in the immediate vicinity of expansion segment V (dotted boxed-in region). The large open arrows indicate direct repeats.

expansion segment boundary within the conserved 28S rRNA core sequence and an additional duplication containing the consensus sequence AATT is situated generally within the expansion segment boundaries (Fig. 6). What role, if any, the base duplications play in gap processing remains to be determined.

Secondary structure as well as primary sequence may also play a role for specifying gap processing. However, a completely proven model for secondary structure of the gap cannot be obtained unless sufficient amounts of precursor (with gap bases still present) are available. It was only by using <u>in vitro</u> transcription and cell-free splicing that the secondary structure of the purified intron from <u>Tetrabymena</u> rRNA could be experimentally proven (28, 29). Using the method of Qu <u>et al</u>. (20) we have experimentally determined the secondary structure of the 5' end of mature $28S\beta$ rRNA from <u>Sciara</u> (data not shown). These results support the notion that expansion segment V forms a stem structure, and that the gap processing boundaries are partway up this stem. The stem of expansion segment V in organisms such as <u>Xenopus</u> (23) and yeast (26), which lack gap processing, is shorter than in <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Prosophila</u>. Moreover, in these insects a larger apical loop can be drawn, and this may be a recognition signal for gap processing to occur. However, this awaits experimental proof.

Once the gap bases are excised, a relatively short expansion segment stem of 5 bp would remain in our preliminary secondary structure model for Sciara (not shown). An additional nearby long range interaction of 10 bp has been proposed for Domain IV of Xenopus (23), and this may also serve to hold 285 α and 285 β rRNA moieties together after gap processing in Sciara. Evidence from studies on other gap processing systems suggests that the amount of hydrogen bonding between the $26S-28S\alpha$ and $28S\beta$ halves is probably limited to a relatively small number of adjacent base pairs: 1) Electron microscopy of psoralen crosslinked mature 26S rRNA from Drosophila revealed a central hairpin in which the two parts of 26S rRNA are crosslinked (probably near the 265 α and 265 β ends) in the hairpin at its base (30); 2) Thermal denaturation studies on the 26S rRNA from the silkmoth species, <u>Hyalophora cecropia</u>, showed that the dissociation temperature for this rRNA is quite low at 45-50°C (4). Similarly, <u>Sciara</u> 28S rRNA also melts at 45°C in 0.1 M NaCl/0.01 M Na acetate pH 5.1, buffer (our unpublished observations).

B. Comparison to other rRNA processing systems.

It could be hypothesized that no enzymatic machinery is involved in gap processing, but that the processing activity is intrinsic to the gap region precursor rRNA, in a similar fashion to the self-splicing capability of the <u>Tetrahymena</u> rRNA intron (31). We examined the <u>Sciara</u> gap sequence for similarities to the <u>Tetrahymena</u> intron boundaries and found no consensus sequences; yet, we cannot rule this out as a formal possibility. However, since intron self-excision is a rapid first event in <u>Tetrahymena</u> rRNA processing (32, 33), and gap excision is a later event in processing (10), we feel that self-excision of the gap is unlikely.

Other rRNA processing systems were examined for structural similarities to gap processing in <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Drosophila</u>. The <u>Sciara</u> gap is comparable to other internal transcribed spacers in rDNA in which the spacer is removed during processing leaving intact two separate moieties that generally are hydrogen bonded together (e.g., 5.85/28S in eukaryotes: [34]; "5.8S"/2S in insects: [35, 36]; 4.5S/23S in higher plant chloroplasts: [37]).

(1) <u>Comparison to 4.5S RNA processing</u>. It is noteworthy that the oligonucleotide ATAA has been mapped to the 5' end of 4.5S rDNA in higher plant chloroplasts (37); the same sequence encompasses the 5' end of insect 288β rRNA (Fig. 6 this paper). The 4.5S rRNA is located at the 3' end of

23S rRNA, and thus shares a similar position in the rRNA precursor with respect to the spacer DNA as does the $28S^{\beta}$ rRNA of <u>Sciara</u> relative to the gap. It is likely that the chloroplast 23S/4.5S spacer includes eukaryotic-specific expansion segment IX, again being similar to the situation of the insect gap which constitutes a part of expansion segment V. If a similar enzyme is involved in 23S/4.5S and gap processing, then one has to explain its localization in two different cellular compartments: in the chloroplasts of higher plants and the cytoplasm of organisms with gap processing.

(2) <u>Comparison to "5.8S"/2S RNA processing</u>. In the case of "5.8S"/2S processing described in <u>Drosophils</u> and <u>Sciara</u> (35, 36), 2S rRNA corresponds to the 3' part of 5.8S rRNA from other species. Like gap processing, "5.8S"/2S processing is a cytoplasmic event (11). The 5' end of 2S is hydrogen bonded to the 3' end of the insect "5.8S" rRNA. Although there are no direct sequence equivalents at the 5' end of 2S rRNA, there are certain features that have been conserved between "5.8S"/2S and gap processing:

a) Base duplications surround the rDNA sequence that is removed in "5.8S"/2S processing. The base duplications in the "5.8S"/2S spacer region in <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Drosophila</u> are not conserved in sequence with those present in the gap region in <u>Sciara</u> or <u>Drosophila</u>. However, the relative positions of the spacer region duplications are similar to those in the gap region with respect to the spacer boundaries: in "5.8S"/2S one set of duplications (C A Py A U) clearly falls outside the boundaries of the spacer; the other set (containing the consensus sequence CUG) falls outside the spacer boundary on the "5.8S" side and within the cleavage site on the 2S side. The presence of two sets of base duplications as described in "5.8S"/2S and gap processing may be a general feature recognized by the spacer and gap excision machinery.

b) A secondary structure model has been described in <u>Drosophila</u> (35) and <u>Sciara</u> (36) that allows for "5.8S"/2S association and spacer processing to occur simultaneously without invoking changes in rRNA conformation to achieve a base pairing relationship. Our preliminary <u>Sciara</u> secondary structure model accomplishes the same end: once the gap bases are removed, the 28S α and β moieties remain hydrogen bonded together in this region. These conditions cannot be fulfilled for <u>Drosophila</u> if one accepts the gap boundaries as described by Delanversin and Jacq (25); however, our 26S β data for <u>Drosophila</u> would support a hydrogen bonded stem in the gap region. c) The spacer between "5.8S" and 2S loops out as an A-U rich region in the secondary structure model possibly with some internal base pairing; adjacent inverted repeats (<u>Sciara</u>: GUUUCUUUUAUUA; <u>Drosophila</u>: CUUUAAUUAAUUU) reside within this A-U rich "5.8S"/2S loop. Similarly, a short inverted repeat UUAAUU is present within the <u>Sciara</u> expansion segment V hairpin loop, and a different inverted repeat GUAAAACAAAAUG occurs on the left side of the larger loop in <u>Drosophila</u>. Unlike the loop in <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Drosophila</u>, the smaller expansion segment loop in yeast and <u>Xenopus</u> lacks any tandem or inverted repetition.

Therefore, to summarize, our clues for gap processing signals in <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Drosophila</u> include 1) the sequence AUAAUU which is present at the start of 26S-28S β rRNA; AUAA is also at the 5' end of 4.5S rDNA in higher plant chloroplasts. 2) CGAAAG and an additional sequence containing the consensus AAUU which are duplicated within the gap region; base duplications are also observed in the spacer region in "5.8S"/2S processing in insects. 3) The gap region probably exists as a hairpin structure in shich the A-U rich hairpin loop is larger and contains inverted repeats unlike the counterpart hairpin structure in yeast or <u>Xenopus</u>. "5.8S"/2S, like gap processing, also has inverted repeats in a loop which is excised. C. <u>Functional and Evolutionary Considerations</u>

Most likely the recognition signals necessary for gap processing are encoded within expansion segment V since the surrounding core sequence is generally conserved among organisms with and without a central break in the 26S-28S rRNA. If expansion segments represent insertion events relative to \underline{E} . \underline{coli} (as they do have features reminiscent of mobile elements), then one must assume that gap processing was "introduced" after expansion segment V was inserted into this domain. Why, then, do some organisms such as $\underline{Xenopus}$, yeast, rat, and mouse lack processing at this site? Have these organisms merely lost the capability for gap processing as a consequence of changes in recognition elements or processing machinery? Hints to the evolutionary directionality of the gap processing phenomenon might possibly arise from the development of heterologous systems to assay the competency of organisms such as <u>Xenopus</u> or yeast to process rRNAs at the gap site.

We previously speculated that expansion segments represent nonfunctional regions within rRNA among eukaryotes (with the exception of the 3' end of expansion segment II where 25 bases are completely conserved between eukaryotes) and that these segments have been tolerated in rRNA because they do not distant function (21, 23). The fact that the bases within the gap are removed in some species suggests that they play no role in the mature ribosomes of those organisms, although whether these bases leave the ribosome after gap processing and are degraded remains to be shown.

Localized primary and secondary structure conservation within the <u>Sciara</u> and <u>Drosophila</u> gap regions suggests that there is positive selection to retain those features that specify gap processing. Although it is clear that organisms that lack processing at this site can conduct ribosome functions in the absence of this extra excision, there may be some functional advantage for the species that have gap processing.

ACKNOWLEDG EMENTS

We gratefully acknowledge Dr. Judith Furlong for helpful discussions during the course of this work. We thank Dr. J.-P. Bachellerie for preprints that led us to the discovery of the Delanversin and Jacq (25) paper at the conclusion of our experiments. Susan DiBartolomeis and Heidi Smith helped in the collection of <u>Sciara</u> larvae. Mrs. Carol King is to be commended for excellence in typing this manuscript. This work was supported by grant PHS-GM 20261 to S.A.G. The work presented in this paper was given the Young Investigator Award at the Society for Developmental Biology 43rd Annual Symposium, 1984.

* Present Address: Gene Technology Groups, Max-Planck-Institut, D-8033 Martinsried, West Germany

REFERENCES

- 1. Wellauer, P.K. and Dawid, I.B. (1977). Cell 10, 193-212.
- Pellegrini, M., Manning, J., and Davidson, N. (1977). Cell 10, 213-224.
- Renkawitz-Pohl, R., Matsumoto, L., and Gerbi, S.A. (1981). Nucl. Acids. Res. 9, 3747-3764.
- Applebaum, S.W., Ebstein, R.P., and Wyatt, G.R. (1966). J. Mol. Biol. 21, 29-41.
- 5. Rubin, N.A. and Eckhardt, R.A. (1977). J. Cell Biol. 75, 355a.
- 6. White, R.L. and Hogness, D.S. (1977). Cell 10, 177-192.
- Dawid, I.B., Wellauer, P.K., and Long, E.O. (1978). J. Mol. Biol. 126, 749-768.
- 8. Lava-Sanchez, P.A. and Puppo, S. (1975). J. Mol. Biol. 95, 9-20.
- 9. Serfling, E. (1976). Biol. Zbl. 95, 713-723.
- Eckert, W.A., Kaffenberger, W., Krohne, G., and Franke, W.W. (1978). Eur. J. Biochem. 87, 607-616.
- 11. Jordan, B.R., Jourdan, R., and Jacq, B. (1976). J. Mol. Biol. 101, 85-105.
- 12. Shine, J., Hunt, J.A., and Dalgarno, L. (1974). Biochem. J. 141, 617-625.
- 13. Ishikawa, H. (1976). Biochim. Biophys. Acta 425, 185-195.
- 14. Brand R.C. and Gerbi, S.A. (1979). Nucl. Acids Res. 7, 1497-1511.
- Renkawitz, R., Gerbi, S.A., and Glätzer, K.H. (1979). Molec. Gen. Genet. 173, 1-13.
- 16. Ernest, M.J. and Feigelson, P. (1978). J. Biol. Chem. 253, 319-322.

- 17. Maxam, A.M. and Gilbert, W. (1980). Meth. Enzymol. 65, 449-560.
- 18. Peacock, A.C. and Dingman, C.W. (1968). Biochem. 7, 668-674.
- Favaloro, J., Treisman, R., and Kamen, R. (1980). Meth. Enzymol. 65, 718-749.
- Qu, L.H., Michot, B., and Bachellerie, J.-P. (1983). Nucl. Acids Res. 11, 5903-5920.
- Ware, V.C., Tague, B.W., Clark, C.G., Gourse, R.L., Brand, R.C., and Gerbi, S.A. (1983). Nucl. Acids Res. 11, 7795-7817.
- Brosius, J., Dull, T.J., and Noller, H.F. (1980). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 77, 201-204.
- 23. Clark, C.G., Tague, B.W., Ware, V.C., and Gerbi, S.A. (1984). Nucl. Acids Res. 12, 6197-6220.
- 24. Miller, K.G. and Sollner-Webb, B. (1981). Cell 27, 165-174.
- 25. Delanversin, G. and Jacq, B. (1983). C.R. Acad. Sc. Paris, 296, Série III, 1041-1044.
- Veldman, G.M., Klootwijk, J., de Regt, V.C.H.F., Planta, R.J., Branlant, C., Krol, A., and Ebel, J.-P. (1981). Nucl. Acids Res. 9, 6935-6952.
- Georgiev, O.I., Nikolaev, N., Hadjiolov, A.A., Skryabin, K.G., Zakharyev, V.M., and Bayev, A.A. (1981). Nucl. Acids Res. 9, 6953-6958.
- Cech, T.R., Tanner, N.K., Tinoco, I., Weir, B.R., Zuker, M. and Perlman, P.S. (1983). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. 80, 3903-3907.
- 29. Inoue, T. and Cech, T.R. (1985). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. 82, 648-652.
- Wollenzien, P.L., Youvan, D.C., and Hearst, J.E. (1978). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 75, 1642-1646.
- Kruger, K., Grabowski, P.J., Zaug, A.J., Sands, J., Gottschling, D.E., and Cech, T.R. (1982). Cell 31, 147-157.
- Cech, T.R. and Rio, D.C. (1979). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 76, 5051-5055.
- Din, N., Engberg, J., Kaffenberger, W., and Eckert, W.A. (1979). Cell 18, 525-532.
- Pene, J.J., Knight, E., JR., and Darnell, J.E., JR. (1968). J. Mol. Biol. 33, 609-623.
- Pavlakis, G.N., Jordan, B.R., Wurst, R.M., and Vournakis, J.N. (1979). Nucl. Acids Res. 7, 2213-2238.
- Jordan, B.R., Latil-Damotte, M., and Jourdan, R. (1980). Nucl. Acids Res. 8, 3565-3573.
- 37. Edwards, K. and Kössel, H. (1981). Nucl. Acids Res. 9, 2853-2869.