Translational repression of *brlA* expression prevents premature development in *Aspergillus*

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The Aspergillus nidulans brlA developmental regulatory locus consists of two overlapping transcription units, $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$, which encode functionally related polypeptides. We used translational fusions between each of the predicted brlA reading frames and the Escherichia coli lacZ gene to test the hypothesis that developmental regulation of $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$ expression occurs through different mechanisms. $brlA\alpha$ is transcriptionally controlled and a large portion of $brlA\alpha$ -directed β galactosidase activity is regulated in a brlA-dependent manner. In contrast, $brlA\beta$ mRNA is constitutively transcribed but translation of the brlA polypeptide is prevented by the presence of a short open reading frame (μ ORF) present in the 5' end of *brlA* β mRNA. Removing the μORF initiation codon leads to deregulated brlA expression, resulting in an inappropriate activation of development. We propose that one mechanism for developmental induction in A.nidulans involves translational control.

Key words: Aspergillus nidulans/brlA/developmental genetics/ fungi/translational control

Introduction

The asexual reproductive cycle of Aspergillus nidulans provides a well established model for examining developmental gene regulation and cellular differentiation in filamentous fungi (Timberlake, 1990). Multicellular spore-bearing structures, called conidiophores, are produced at a specific time in the fungal life cycle in response to environmental and developmental cues (Axelrod, 1972; Axelrod et al., 1973; Champe et al., 1981; Adams et al., 1992). The nature of these signals and their mechanisms of action are poorly understood but they result in activation of a genetic regulatory cascade involving the coordinated control of hundreds of essential (Clutterbuck, 1969; Martinelli and Clutterbuck, 1971; Timberlake, 1980; Stringer et al., 1991) and non-essential genes (Aramayo et al., 1989). The sequential activation of three of these sporulation-specific genes, brlA, abaA and wetA, establishes the central regulatory network responsible for much of the temporal and spatial control of gene expression observed during conidiophore development (Clutterbuck, 1977; Adams et al., 1988; Mirabito et al., 1989; Marshall and Timberlake, 1991).

The best characterized regulatory gene for A.nidulans

conidiophore development is brlA, which is predicted to encode a nucleic acid binding protein with TFIIIA-like zinc fingers (Miller et al., 1985; Adams et al., 1988, 1990). brlA mRNA is present at extremely low levels in hyphae and begins to accumulate shortly after induction of development (Boylan et al., 1987; Prade and Timberlake, 1993). Control of brlA mRNA accumulation is regulated by unknown factors early in development and is required for a switch from polarized extension of the conidiophore stalk to nonpolar growth resulting in conidiophore vesicle formation. Developmental structures produced by brlA mutant strains initially resemble conidiophore stalks but they grow indeterminately and fail to differentiate other specialized cell types (Clutterbuck, 1969). By contrast, forced expression of *brlA* in vegetative cells under conditions that normally suppress conidiation results in a cessation of polar growth and development of reduced conidiophores which bear viable spores (Adams et al., 1988). In addition, activation of brlA expression initiates a positive feedback regulatory loop (Mirabito et al., 1989) and thus represents a commitment step towards spore formation.

Prade and Timberlake (1993) showed that the brlA locus is complex in that it consists of two overlapping transcription units designated $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$. $brlA\beta$ transcription initiates ~1 kb upstream of $brlA\alpha$ transcription which begins within $brlA\beta$ intronic sequences (Figure 1). The $brlA\beta$ transcript encodes two open reading frames (ORFs) beginning with AUG, a short upstream μ ORF and a downstream ORF which is predicted to encode the same polypeptide as $brlA\alpha$ except that it includes 23 additional amino acids at its NH₂-terminus. Mutations that block expression of either transcript alone cause abnormal development but multiple copies of either $brlA\alpha$ or $brlA\beta$ can overcome the need for the other transcript in directing development. These results are consistent with the hypothesis that $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$ have evolved to create a requirement for different regulatory inputs in activating brlA expression to high enough levels to cause conidiophore development to proceed.

In this paper we describe experiments aimed at understanding the role that differential expression of $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$ plays in regulating development. We constructed translational gene fusions between each of the brlA ORFs and the *Escherichia coli lacZ* gene. Our results show that $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$ expression is developmentally regulated. However, β -galactosidase expression directed by the μ ORF is constitutive. Moreover, elimination of the μ ORF AUG allows deregulated expression of brlA leading to uncontrolled activation of development. We propose that the μ ORF negatively regulates translation of BrlA from the $brlA\beta$ mRNA and that removal of this block allows asexual development to initiate, stimulating transcription of $brlA\alpha$ and the downstream regulatory gene abaA.

Results

Developmental regulation of brlA α and brlA β expression

The brlA gene encodes two mRNAs designated $brlA\alpha$ and brlA β (Prade and Timberlake, 1993; Figure 1). The brlA β transcript is predicted to encode a polypeptide that is identical to BrlA α except that 23 additional amino acids are present at the NH₂-terminus. We constructed developmentally wild type A. nidulans strains containing fusions (see Materials and methods) between the $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$ regulatory sequences up to and including each translational initiation codon (designated $brlA\alpha$ ATG and $brlA\beta$ ATG respectively; Figure 2A) and lacZ. Because the BrlA reading frames overlap, the brlA α ATG::lacZ fusion is expected to report expression from both $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$. In contrast, the $brlA\beta$ ATG::lacZ fusion is expected to monitor expression from brlAB exclusively. Expression of each fusion gene was measured in extracts from synchronously conidiating cultures (Adams and Timberlake, 1990b).

Figure 2B shows β -galactosidase activity measured at various times after inducing development in strains TRG27.1.c (brlA+; brlA a ATG::lacZ fusion), TRG30.1.c $(brlA^+; brlA\beta ATG::lacZ$ fusion), and TTA11, a control strain containing an integrated plasmid lacking brlA and lacZ sequences. β -galactosidase activity was not detectable in uninduced cultures of TRG27.1.c or TRG30.1.c, but began to increase between 2 and 4 h post-induction (PI) in each strain. After this time, β -galactosidase activity increased steadily in TRG27.1.c until it reached a level of ~180 units by ~12 h PI. By contrast, β -galactosidase activity peaked at ~40 units by 6 h PI in the $brlA\beta$ ATG::lacZ fusion strain (TRG30.1.c). These results are in agreement with $brlA\alpha$ and brlA β transcript levels measured by RNA blot analyses (Boylan et al., 1987; Prade and Timberlake, 1993). No β galactosidase activity was ever observed in TTA11.

To examine the requirements for *brlA* on expression of the *brlA* α ATG and *brlA* β ATG::*lacZ* fusions we constructed $\Delta brlA$ strains (RSH1 and RSH2) containing the appropriate *lacZ* fusions. Figure 2B shows that β -galactosidase activity directed by the *brlA* α fusion is lower in the $\Delta brlA$ strain than in the wild type while β -galactosidase activity directed by the *brlA* β fusion was unaffected. These data show that the expression of *brlA* α , but not that of *brlA* β , is modulated by *brlA*.

$brlA\beta$ expression is regulated by a translational mechanism

The $brlA\beta$ transcript contains a 41 codon μ ORF near its 5' end. To determine if the μ ORF initiation codon is recognized by *Aspergillus* ribosomes we constructed strain TRG29.1.b $(brlA^+; brlA\beta \mu$ ORF ATG::lacZ) containing a gene fusion consisting of *brlA* upstream regulatory sequences up to and including the translational initiation site for the μ ORF (Figure 2A) fused to the *E. coli lacZ* gene. Figure 2C shows that ~30 U of β -galactosidase accumulated in strain TRG29.1.b before developmental induction. Nearly constant β -galactosidase levels were maintained as development continued. These results indicate that the μ ORF is translated constitutively and are consistent with the observations of Prade and Timberlake (1993) that *brlA* β mRNA is present in uninduced hyphae.

A number of cases have been described where translation of downstream coding sequences is regulated by the activity



Fig. 1. Organization of the *brlA* locus. The *brlA* α and *brlA* β transcripts are indicated by the arrows and the *brlA* α transcription start site is designated (+1). The three translational reading frames examined are shown in the upper part of the diagram with ATGs indicating the predicted translation start sites. Restriction sites are abbreviated: B, *Bam*HI; S, *SaII*.

of an upstream µORF (Werner et al., 1987; Abastado et al., 1991; Kozak, 1991). To determine if the brlA β µORF influences brlA translation, we constructed a brlA⁺ Aspergillus strain (TRG31.1.1) containing a $brlA\alpha$ ATG:: lacZ fusion in which the μ ORF AUG was converted to an AUC, effectively eliminating the µORF. Figure 2C shows that β -galactosidase activity was detectable in TRG31.1.1 before developmental induction, indicating that removal of the μ ORF AUG resulted in derepressed translation of the downstream reading frame. Following induction, levels of β -galactosidase paralleled those observed in TRG27.1.c (Figure 2B). Because the μ ORF mutation specifically affects brlAB mRNA, we interpret the observed derepression to be due to translation of $brlA\beta$ mRNA. Frameshift mutations in the μ ORF that leave the initiation codon intact did not result in derepressed β -galactosidase expression indicating that the sequence of the μORF polypeptide is probably not important to its function (data not shown).

Elimination of the brIA β μ ORF leads to premature development

Although $brlA\beta$ is transcribed in submerged culture (Prade and Timberlake, 1993), development is completely suppressed in wild type cells grown under these conditions. One explanation for this observation is that the ability of the μ ORF to block $brlA\beta$ translation prevents premature development. If this were the case, removal of the initiation codon for the $brlA\beta$ μ ORF would allow translation of $brlA\beta$ and might result in inappropriate conidiophore development during submerged growth.

To determine if the $brlA\beta \mu ORF$ blocks premature development, we constructed a plasmid containing the AUG \rightarrow AUC μORF mutation described above, upstream of a temperature sensitive allele of brlA ($brlA42^{ts}$), and introduced it by integration into the trpC locus of a $brlA^+$ *A.nidulans* strain, thus providing an altered copy of brlA in trans to the wild type gene (see Materials and methods). Several transformants were isolated that grew normally as colonies on the surface of agar medium at 37°C (restrictive temperature), but had severely inhibited growth when incubated at 28°C (permissive temperature). Analysis of genomic DNA from the transformants showed that 1-3



Fig. 2. Developmental regulation of *brlA* expression. (A) *brlA*::*lacZ* gene fusions. Translational fusions between the *E. coli lacZ* gene and each of the three *brlA* reading frames were constructed and *Aspergillus* strains containing the fusions integrated at the *trpC* locus were isolated as described in Materials and methods. Arrows indicate direction of transcription. ATGs indicate translational start sites for the μ ORF, the *brlA* β BrlA ORF, and the *brlA* α BrlA ORF respectively. Restriction sites are abbreviated: B, *Bam*HI; S, *Sall*. (B) Wild type (*brlA*⁺) and *brlA* deletion strains containing the *brlA* α ATG::*lacZ* translational fusions shown in (A) integrated at the *Aspergillus* trpC locus were grown in liquid culture for 20 h and then induced to develop by exposing to an air interface (see Materials and methods). Samples were taken at the times indicated, and cell extracts were assayed to determine β -galactosidase levels. β -galactosidase activity is expressed as nmol ONPG hydrolyzed per min per mg protein. The control strain (TTA11) contains plasmid sequences integrated at *trpC* but lacks additional *brlA* or *lacZ* sequences. (C) Wild type (*brlA*⁺) *Aspergillus* strains containing either a *brlA* β µORF ATG::*lacZ* fusion or a *brlA* α ATG::*lacZ* fusion lacking the *brlA* β µORF were grown vegetatively for 20 h and then induced to development. Samples were analyzed as above.



Fig. 3. The $brlA\beta \mu ORF$ is essential to block premature development. Strains (A) TTA11 ($brlA^+$), (B) TRG44-13 ($brlA^+$, $trpC::brlA42^{ts}/\mu ORF^-$) and (C) TA150 ($\Delta brlA$; $trpC::brlA42^{ts}/\mu ORF^-$) were grown in submerged culture for 16 h at 37°C and then transferred to 28°C and hourly microscopic observations were made. Micrographs shown were taken 9 h after the temperature shift. Characteristic conidiophore-like structures are indicated by arrows.

copies of the plasmid DNA had integrated as tandem repeats at the targeted genomic site (see Materials and methods; data not shown). The more copies of the plasmid that integrated. the more severely growth was inhibited. Conidia from a strain containing a single copy of the brlA42^{ts}/µORFconstruct (TRG44f) were used to inoculate liquid cultures, incubated at 37°C for 16 h and then transferred to 28°C. As shown in Figure 3, many of the hyphae from strains containing the brlA42^{ts} allele lacking the μ ORF differentiated conidiophores under these conditions whereas a congenic $brlA^+$ control strain did not. Because the transformed strains contain a wild type copy of brlA as well as the altered brlA42^{ts} allele, it was possible that the development observed resulted from having multiple copies of *brlA* rather than from inactivation of the μ ORF. We tested this possibility by crossing a transformed strain having a single copy of the altered brlA42ts allele (TRG44f) with a brlA deletion mutant (rM31.8) and isolated a recombinant (TA150) in which the only brlA gene present contained the μ ORF mutation. This strain behaved exactly as the strains containing both the wild type and mutant brlA alleles (Figure 3). In addition, strains containing a second wild type brlA allele integrated at the trpC locus grow only as hyphae in liquid medium (data not shown).

Analysis of RNA from strains carrying the derepressed $brlA42^{ts}$ allele showed that $brlA\beta$ transcripts could be detected during growth in liquid medium even at the restrictive temperature (Figure 4). $brlA\beta$ levels increased steadily for 9 h after switching to the permissive temperature. In addition, $brlA\alpha$ transcripts were detected after prolonged incubation at 28°C. As expected, no brlA mRNA was detected in the wild type control strain before the temperature shift. However, trace amounts of $brlA\beta$ transcript were observed 9 h after shifting to 28°C (Figure 4).

Overexpression of brIA β activates development

Activation of $brlA\alpha$ expression to high levels in vegetative cells has previously been shown to cause a cessation of normal growth and to lead to the development of reduced conidiophores that produce viable spores (Adams *et al.*, 1988). We constructed *Aspergillus* strains carrying fusions between the inducible *alcA* promoter and *brlA* sequences to allow vegetative overexpression of either wild type $brlA\beta$



Fig. 4. Elimination of the $brlA\beta \ \mu$ ORF results in accumulation of $brlA\beta$ message in vegetative cells. Strains TTA11 (lanes 1–4; $brlA^+$), TRG44-13 (lanes 5–8; $brlA^+$, $trpC::brlA42^{ts}-\mu$ ORF) and TA150 (lanes 9–12; $\Delta brlA$; $trpC::brlA42^{ts}-\mu$ ORF) were grown for 16 h at 37°C and then transferred to 28°C and grown for an additional 9 h. 5 μ g of total RNA isolated from these strains at the time of the temperature shift (lanes 1, 5 and 9) and 3 h (lanes 2, 6 and 10), 6 h (lanes 3, 7 and 11) and 9 h (lanes 4, 8 and 12) later was separated electrophoretically and then hybridized with brlA-specific DNA probe. $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$ transcripts are indicated by the arrows. The lower panel shows a photograph of the ethidium bromide stained RNA gel demonstrating approximately equal loading.

transcript (TSH54.b) or $brlA\beta$ transcript lacking the μ ORF (TSH55.c). These strains were grown for 12 h in minimal medium containing glucose and then transferred to *alcA*-induction medium; microscopic observations were then made at various times. As shown in Figure 5, overexpression of $brlA\beta$ with or without the μ ORF resulted in development like that observed when $brlA\alpha$ was activated in vegetative cells. However, the development observed after inducing $brlA\beta/\mu$ ORF⁺ expression was typically delayed by ~1 h when compared with the development induced by $brlA\beta/\mu$ ORF⁻ or $brlA\alpha$ (not shown).

Discussion

The A.nidulans brlA developmental regulatory locus is composed of two overlapping transcription units designated $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$, which encode polypeptides that differ by



Fig. 5. Overexpression of $brlA\beta$ in vegetative cells causes development. Strains TTA11 (A and E), TTA292 (B and F; $brlA^+$; $alcA[p]::brlA\alpha)$, TSH55 (C and G; $brlA^+$; $alcA[p]::brlA\beta/\mu ORF^-$) and TSH54 (D and H; $brlA^+$; $alcA[p]::brlA\beta/\mu ORF^+$) were grown for 12 h in liquid minimal glucose medium (A-D), and then transferred to minimal threonine medium and allowed to grow for an additional 4 h (E-H). Characteristic spores forming at the tips of hyphae are indicated by arrows. The scale bar in panel A applies to panels A-D; that in panel E applies to panels E-H.

23 amino acids at their NH₂-termini. The predicted BrlA α and BrlA β polypeptides appear to be functionally redundant because either of them is capable of directing normal conidiophore development when present in multiple copies (Prade and Timberlake, 1993). The results presented in this paper indicate that one role for the two transcription units is to provide different mechanisms for controlling *brlA* expression during development. Activation of *brlA* β expression can apparently occur by modulation of the choice of translational initiation codons to determine whether or not BrlA β protein is synthesized. On the other hand, positive feedback regulation of *brlA* α transcription (Mirabito *et al.*, 1989) provides a means to obtain higher levels of BrlA expression as development proceeds.

A model accounting for the coordination of $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$ expression during conidiophore development is presented in Figure 6. Based on results from three types of experiments, we propose that one mechanism for activating brlA expression following developmental induction involves a change in the translational machinery allowing ribosomes to begin translation at the internal $brlA\beta$ ATG. First, we showed that a μ ORF present near the 5' end of the brlA β mRNA is recognized by Aspergillus ribosomes to direct constitutive translation of a fused lacZ gene. Furthermore, mutations that eliminate the μ ORF ATG resulted in derepression of β -galactosidase expression from a *brlA*::*lacZ* fusion. Because these mutations alter brlA::lacZ expression in strains that contain a wild type $brlA^+$ gene, these results imply that $brlA\beta$ is transcribed in vegetative cells but that translation of BrlA is blocked by a cis-active regulatory function of the μ ORF. If the μ ORF polypeptide was able to repress brlA expression in trans, the effect of this mutation could only be observed in brlA- strains. Prade and Timberlake (1993) found that the 5' end of $brlA\beta$ mRNA could be detected by primer extension analysis using RNA

isolated from vegetative cells supporting our conclusion that $brlA\beta$ is transcribed in uninduced cultures.

Small ORFs present in the 5' ends of several eukaryotic mRNAs have been shown to play a role in regulating translation from downstream AUGs (see Kozak, 1991 for review). In some cases, this regulatory activity requires a specific amino acid sequence in the regulatory peptide whereas in others the presence of an AUG is sufficient to regulate downstream translation (Hinnebusch, 1984; Mueller and Hinnebusch, 1986; Werner et al., 1987; Abastado et al., 1991). Frameshift mutations in the $brlA\beta \mu ORF$ did not affect regulation of *brlA*::*lacZ*, but mutation of the AUG allowed derepressed BrlA expression. Therefore, we consider it likely that translation of the brlA β µORF alone is required to regulate translation of BrIA. Given that there are apparently no specific amino acid sequence requirements for the μ ORF in imposing translational inhibition, it may be that the proposed change in translational initiation is a general response that occurs during developmental induction and is not specific to brlA. In fact, at least one other Aspergillus developmental regulatory gene, stuA, has small ORFs present upstream of the predicted initiation codon, suggesting that translation may play a more general role in regulating Aspergillus development (Miller et al., 1992).

The best characterized example of translational regulation by the activity of upstream ORFs occurs in the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae GCN4* gene. *GCN4* encodes the transcriptional activator for general control of amino acid biosynthesis (Hinnebusch, 1984; Mueller and Hinnebusch, 1986). Small ORFs present in a long transcribed leader repress *GCN4* translation during growth in rich media. During amino acid starvation, this repression is overcome through a mechanism that involves phosphorylation of the α subunit of eIF2 (Dever *et al.*, 1992). Although nutritional status is not known to regulate *Aspergillus* conidiophore



Fig. 6. Model for differential control of $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$ during conidiophore development. The $brlA\beta$ message is transcribed by vegetative cells before developmental induction but translation of the μ ORF represses translation of BrlA. The peptide sequence of the μ ORF is apparently not important for this regulatory activity. Following induction unknown regulatory factors result in activation of BrlA translation from $brlA\beta$ by removing the block imposed by the μ ORF, increasing transcription of $brlA\beta$, or both. Activation of BrlA translation leads to transcription of abaA and other downstream regulatory proteins. This in turn activates a positive feedback regulatory loop and leads to high levels of $brlA\alpha$ expression to cause further developmental changes.

development directly, it remains possible that translation of $brlA\beta$ could be controlled by a related mechanism. In support of an involvement of nutritional status in developmental induction, we have identified a mutant strain that has lost the ability to conidiate as a programmed event during the life cycle when grown on rich medium but develops when exposed to growth limiting conditions (Adams *et al.*, 1992).

The second experiment presented that addresses the role of the μ ORF in regulating *brlA* expression involved eliminating the μ ORF initiation codon upstream of the *brlA* gene. Strains containing one or more copies of the temperature sensitive *brlA42*^{ts} allele from which the μ ORF ATG had been eliminated produced conidiophores in submerged culture when grown at the permissive temperature, but did not at the restrictive temperature, for *brlA42*^{ts} (Figure 3). Thus, the μ ORF plays a functional role in preventing premature development. Again, this activity functions *in cis*, given that premature development occurs even in the presence of a wild type *brlA* locus. We propose this block is imposed primarily at the translational level.

Eliminating the μ ORF upstream of the *brlA* gene also resulted in accumulation of $brlA\beta$ mRNA at both restrictive and permissive temperatures for brlA42ts. Wild type strains containing unaltered brlA+ alleles grew strictly as vegetative hyphae and no full length $brlA\beta$ message could be detected under these conditions (Figures 3 and 4). These results could most easily be explained if translation of the brlA β µORF prevented efficient translation of BrlA and this led to message instability. In support of this idea, frameshift mutations causing early translational termination frequently result in decreased mRNA levels and, in at least some cases, this has been demonstrated to result from changes in message stability (Losson and Lacroute, 1979; Pelsey and Lacroute, 1984; Corrick et al., 1987). An alternative explanation for this observation is that the μ ORF mutation resulted in increased $brlA\beta$ transcription rates. These two possibilities cannot be distinguished from the experiments presented here.

In either case, the mutation removing the initiation codon for the μ ORF resulted in measurable changes in *brlAβ* expression and misscheduled development.

The third experiment presented to ascertain the role of the brlA β µORF involved overexpression of brlA β mRNA in submerged cultures (Patemen et al., 1983; Gwynne et al., 1987; Adams et al., 1988). Overexpression of either $brlA\beta$ or $brlA\beta/\mu ORF^-$ in vegetative cells resulted in development of hyphal tips into reduced conidiophores. However, the development induced by overexpression of wild type $brlA\beta$ was delayed in comparison with that induced by overexpression of the *brlA* β transcript without the μ ORF. The fact that overexpression of $brlA\beta$ resulted in delayed misscheduled development implies that the μ ORF only damps BrlA expression and cannot act as an absolute block of translation before induction. Thus, it is possible that increased transcription of $brlA\beta$ could be sufficient to cause developmental induction even without a change in the translational machinery. Alternatively, low level $brlA\beta$ translation could lead to cellular alterations that cause modification of translation (Adams and Timberlake, 1990a).

Regulation of $brlA\alpha$ expression differs from $brlA\beta$ control in at least two important respects. First, there is no evidence for regulation of $brlA\alpha$ translation. The first AUG present in $brlA\alpha$ mRNA initiates the BrlA reading frame and expression of β -galactosidase activity from the brlA α ATG::lacZ fusion closely parallels mRNA accumulation. Second, maximal expression from the $brlA\alpha$ ATG::lacZfusion requires $brlA^+$ whereas $brlA\beta$ ATG::lacZ expression is unaltered in a $\Delta brlA$ strain. These data suggest that the positive feedback control from *abaA* works primarily through increased transcription of $brlA\alpha$ and not $brlA\beta$ (Mirabito et al., 1989). However, increases in brlA β transcript levels were observed both during early development and when strains carrying a *brlA42*^{ts} allele lacking the μ ORF were shifted from the restrictive to permissive temperature. These results could be interpreted to mean that $brlA\beta$ is also

Table I. A. nidulans strains used in this study

Strains	Genotype	Source
TRG27.1.c	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA α ATG::lacZ	this study
TRG29.1.a	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA β µORF ATG::lacZ	this study
TRG30.1.c	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlAβ ATG::lacZ	this study
TRG31.1.1	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA α ATG::lacZ/ μ ORF ⁻	this study ¹
TRP∆31	pabaA1, yA2; argB::trpC; trpC801, veA1, Δ brlA::argB	Prade and Timberlake, 1992
RM31.8	$biA1$, $yA2$; $\Delta brlA$:: $argB$; $veA1$	this study
RSH1	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA α ATG:lacZ, Δ brlA	this study
RSH2	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA β ATG::lacZ, Δ brlA	this study
TRG44.f	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA42(1)/ μ ORF ⁻	this study ¹
TRG44.g	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA42(2)/ μ ORF ⁻	this study ¹
TRG44.r	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA42(3)/ μ ORF ⁻	this study
TRG44.13	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA42(2)/ μ ORF ⁻	this study ¹
TSH46.d	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA α ATG::lacZ/ μ ORF ⁻	this study ²
TSH47.c	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::brlA α ATG::lacZ/ μ ORF ⁻	this study ³
TSH54.b	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::alcA(p)::brlA β	this study ¹
TSH55.c	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC::alcA(p)::brlA $\beta/\mu ORF^-$	this study ¹
TTA11	pabaA1, yA2; veA1, trpC801	this study
TA150	pabaA1, biA1; $\Delta brlA$::argB trpC::brlA42/ μ ORF ⁻	this study ¹
TTA292	biA1; argB::alcA(p)::brlA\alpha; methG1; veA1	Adams et al., 1988
FGSC26	biA1;veA1	FGSC ⁴
FGSC237	pabaA1, yA2; trpC801, veA1	FGSC ⁴

 $^{1}\mu ORF^{-}$ mutation converts first codon ATG->ATC

 $^{2}\mu$ ORF⁻ mutation results from a +1 frameshift by addition of A after second codon

 ${}^{3}\mu ORF^{-}$ mutation results from a -1 frameshift by converting TC->A in twenty-fourth codon

⁴Fungal Genetics Stock Center

transcriptionally activated by the positive feedback loop. Alternatively, changes in stability of the $brlA\beta$ message may account for the observed increase in $brlA\beta$ transcript levels (see above).

In our model (Figure 6), either $brlA\beta$ translation is initiated through a controlled change in choice of translational initiation sites from the μ ORF ATG to the BrlA ATG or increased $brlA\beta$ transcript levels provide sufficient template to overcome the inefficient translational block imposed by the μ ORF. This ultimately leads to an activation of other developmentally specific genes resulting in differentiation of conidiophore-specific cells. We propose that the major mechanism for activating expression of $brlA\alpha$ transcript occurs through the positive feedback loop that is initiated following activation of abaA (Mirabito et al., 1989). This conclusion is supported by the fact that three AbaA binding sites occur upstream of the $brlA\alpha$ transcription initiation site whereas no AbaA binding sites occur within ~ 1 kbp upstream of the $brlA\beta$ transcription start site (A.Andrianopoulos and W.Timberlake, unpublished results). In addition, we found that forced activation of $brlA\beta$ leads to accumulation of $brlA\alpha$ transcript whereas $brlA\alpha$ expression does not activate $brlA\beta$ (S.T.Han and T.H.Adams, unpublished). Feedback activation of $brlA\alpha$ leads to greatly increased BrIA levels, resulting in further development.

The observation by Prade and Timberlake (1993) that $brlA\alpha$ mRNA accumulates in a strain that lacks the $brlA\beta$ transcriptional start (TRP44L) indicates that $brlA\alpha$ activation is not strictly dependent on $brlA\beta$. Thus, both $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$ are somewhat responsive to signals that initiate development. Different controls for activation of $brlA\alpha$ and $brlA\beta$ may provide a means to separate responses both to the multiple signals that initiate development and to the endogenous events that result in commitment to the conidiation pathway.

Materials and methods

Aspergillus strains, growth and genetics

The A.nidulans strains used in this study are described in Table I. Standard A.nidulans genetic (Pontecorvo et al., 1953; Clutterbuck, 1974) and transformation techniques (Yelton et al., 1985) were used.

All *A.nidulans* transformant strains used in this study were generated by integration of plasmid sequences at the *trpC* locus. For *brlA::lacZ* gene fusion experiments, strains TRG27.1.c, TRG30.1.c, TRG29.1.a, TRG31.1.1, TSH46.d and TSH47.c were constructed by transforming *Aspergillus* strain FGSC237 with *brlA::lacZ* fusion plasmids pRG27, pRG30, pRG29, pRG31, pSH46 and pSH47, respectively. Strains TSH54.b and TSH55.c, containing the *alcA*(p) fused to *brlA* β , were constructed by transforming FGSC237 with pSH54 and pSH55. Strains containing copies of the *brlA42*^{ts} allele lacking the *brlA* β µORF integrated at *trpC* were constructed by southern blot analysis to verify that the predicted integration event had occurred at the *trpC* locus.

The *brlA* deletion strains TA150, RSH1 and RSH2 were constructed by using sexual crosses between RM31.8 and either TRG44f, TRG27.1.c or TRG30.1.c respectively. RM31.8 was constructed by crossing TRP31 (Prade and Timberlake, 1993) with PW1 (Adams *et al.*, 1988). *brlA*⁻ recombinants were isolated and analyzed by Southern blot analysis to make certain that the gene fusions were unaffected by recombination.

All strains were grown in appropriately supplemented minimal medium (Käfer, 1977). Developmental cultures were grown as described previously (Law and Timberlake, 1980) with some modifications. Conidia (10⁵/ml) were inoculated into appropriately supplemented liquid minimal medium and incubated for 20 h at 37°C and 300 r.p.m. Samples were harvested onto Whatman number 1 filter paper disks, placed on 1.2% agar plates containing the same medium and incubated at 37°C for the times indicated. Under these conditions, conidiophore vesicles first appeared 4 h after induction and spores began to be produced ~ 6 h later. Cultures of brlA deletion strains were inoculated using ascospores $(3 \times 10^{5}/\text{ml})$ from selffertilized cleistothecia. For the alcA(p)::brlA induction time course experiment (Figure 5), strains TTA11 (brlA+), TSH54, TSH55 (trpC::alcA[p]::brlAβ) and TTA292 (argB::alcA[p]::brlAα; Adams et al., 1988) were inoculated at a density of 2×106 spores/ml in minimal medium containing 50 mM glucose and shaken at 37°C for 12 h. Cells were harvested onto Miracloth (Calbiochem), washed once with minimal medium containing 100 mM L-threonine, transferred to this medium and incubated as above. Samples were taken hourly for microscopic observation. For the brlA42ts induction time course experiment (Figures 3 and 4), spores were inoculated at a density of 2×10⁶ spores/ml into appropriately supplemented minimal media and shaken at 37°C for 16 h. 100 ml samples were taken and the *brlA42*^{ts} allele was induced by shifting the culture to 28°C. Samples were taken 3, 6 and 9 h after the temperature shift and subjected to microscopic observation and to RNA isolation as previously described (Adams *et al.*, 1988).

Plasmid construction

The following plasmids were constructed using standard procedures: pRG18: A 3.0 kbp BamHI lacZ fragment from pULAC (Hamer and Timberlake, 1987) inserted into the BamHI and BglII sites of PIC-20H (Marsh et al., 1984) in an orientation that leaves the 5' BamHI site intact. pRG19: A 3.0 kbp XbaI-XhoI lacZ fragment from pRG18 inserted into the XbaI and XhoI sites of Bluescript SK(-) (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA). pRG20: A 3.0 kbp BamHI-KpnI lacZ fragment from pRG19 inserted into the BamHI and KpnI sites of pK19 (Pridmore, 1987). pEP3: A 1.8 kbp SstI-XhoI trpC fragment (Hamer and Timberlake, 1987) inserted into the SstI and XhoI sites of PIC-20H. pEP4: A 1.8 kbp BamHI-EcoRI trpC fragment from pEP3 inserted into the EcoRI and BamHI sites of Bluescript KS(-). pSH9: A 1.8 kbp KpnI trpC fragment from pEP4 inserted into the KpnI site of pK19. pTA133: A 5.2 kbp SstI-KpnI brlA fragment inserted into the SstI and KpnI sites of Bluescript KS(-). pRG21: pTA133 with a Bg/II site introduced downstream from the $brlA\alpha$ initiation codon by using a partially complementary oligonucleotide (5'-CGGACAGGCTAGATCTGATTTC-GC-3') for in vitro mutagenesis as described by Kunkel (1985). pRG24: The 3.0 kbp BamHI-KpnI lacZ fragment from pRG20 cloned into the Bg/II and KpnI sites of pRG21. pRG27: pRG24 containing the 1.8 kbp KpnI trpC fragment from pSH9 inserted into the single KpnI site to give rise to the brlAa:: lacZ fusion. pTA134: pTA133 with a BglII site introduced downstream from the $brlA\beta$ initiation codon by using a partially complementary synthetic oligonucleotide (5'-CTGAGGGCAGATCTTC-ATTACTTTTC-3'). pTA137: The 3.0 kbp BamHI-KpnI lacZ fragment from pRG20 inserted into the BglII and KpnI sites of pTA134. pRG30: pTA137 containing the 1.8 kbp KpnI trpC fragment from pSH9 inserted into the single KpnI site. pTA135: pTA133 with a BglII site introduced downstream from the $brlA\beta \mu ORF$ initiation codon by using a partially complementary synthetic oligonucleotide (5'-GCAGAGCAGATCTGAG-AAAGTC-3') for in vitro mutagenesis. pTA136: The 3.0 kbp BamHI-KpnI lacZ fragment from pRG20 inserted into the Bg/II and KpnI sites of pTA135. pRG29: pTA136 containing the 1.8 kbp KpnI trpC fragment from pSH9 inserted into the single KpnI site. pRG31: pRG27 with a mutation introduced to remove the AUG codon in the brlA β µORF using the synthetic oligonucleotide (5'-GAGAAAGTGGATCCCTCACG-3') for in vitro mutagenesis. pTA111: A 4.3 kbp SalI brlA fragment cloned into the SalI site of Bluescript KS(-). pSH42: pTA111 containing a Bg/II site inserted just downstream of the $brlA\beta$ transcriptional initiation site using the synthetic oligonucleotide (5'-ATTATTTCGAGATCTTAATCT-3') for site-directed mutagenesis. pSH51: A 0.5 kbp SstI-BamHI fragment from pTA18 (Adams et al., 1988) containing the transcription initiation site and 5' regulatory sequences of alcA (Gwynne et al., 1987) inserted into the SstI-BamHI sites in pK19. pSH52: A 0.5 kbp SstI-BamHI alcA(p) fragment from pSH51 inserted into the SstI and BglII sites in pSH42. pSH54: pSH52 containing the 1.8 kbp SstI trpC fragment from pSH9 inserted into the unique SstI to give rise to the alcA(p)::brlA gene fusion. pSH53: pSH52 with a mutation introduced to remove the AUG codon in the $brlA\beta \mu ORF$ using the synthetic oligonucleotide (5'-GAGAAAGTGGATCCCTCACG-3') for in vitro mutagenesis. pSH55: pSH53 containing the 1.8 kbp SstI trpC fragment from pSH9 inserted in the unique SstI site to give rise to the alcA(p)::brlA-µORF fusion. pTA33: A 2.5 kbp BamHI-SalI fragment containing the brlA42 temperature sensitive allele (Johnstone et al., 1985) inserted into the BamHI and Sall sites in Bluescript SK(-). pRG43: A 3.8 kbp SstI-HindIII fragment from pRG31 inserted into the HindIII and SstI sites of pTA33. pRG44: pRG43 containing the 1.8 kbp SstI trpC fragment from pSH9 inserted into the unique SstI site. pSH13: BamHI-KpnI brlAa::lacZ fusion fragment from pRG24 inserted into the BamHI and KpnI sites of pK19. pSH16: pSH13 containing a 1.8 kbp KpnI fragment from pEP4 with the 5' end of trpC inserted into a unique KpnI site. pSH43: pTA133 with a +1 frameshift mutation introduced after the second codon in the μ ORF by using a partially complementary synthetic oligonucleotide (5'-GAGCAGAGATCTTGGC-ATCCC-3') for in vitro mutagenesis. pSH44: pTA133 with a -1 frameshift mutation introduced after codon 24 in the μ ORF using a partially complementary oligonucleotide (5'-GGTCAAGATCTGCGACTGA-3') for in vitro mutagenesis. pSH46: pSH16 containing a 2.5 kbp BamHI fragment from pSH43 inserted in a unique BamHI site. pSH47: pSH16 containing a 2.5 kbp BamHI fragment from pSH44 inserted in a unique BamHI site. The relevant portion of all plasmids made by site-directed mutagenesis was sequenced to make certain no unwanted mutations had occurred.

β-Galactosidase assays

 β -galactosidase activity was measured using protein extracts prepared from lyophilized samples of vegetative and conidiating cultures of *A.nidulans* as described by van Gorcom *et al.* (1985) and Adams and Timberlake (1990b). The assay for the activity with *o*-nitrophenol- β -D-galactopyranosidase (ONPG) substrate was done as described by Miller (1972). Developmental time courses were done with each strain by taking samples at the times indicated after induction of development. Enzyme activity was measured using multiple samples from each time. Protein concentrations were determined by the Bradford procedure (Bradford, 1976). Less than 5% variation was observed between multiple assays for each strain in any given experiment.

Microscopy and photography

All light microscopy was done with an Olympus BH-2 microscope using differential interference contrast optics.

RNA preparation and analysis

Total RNA was isolated as previously described (Adams *et al.*, 1988), separated by electrophoresis on formaldehyde – agarose gels and transferred, without any pretreatment, to Hybond-N⁺ membrane (Amersham Corp., Arlington Heights, IL), and hybridized to randomly ³²P-labeled probes according to procedures recommended by the membrane manufacturer. Plasmid pSH54, containing the 2.5 kbp *Bam*HI-*Sal*I fragment from the *brlA* gene, was used as a *brlA*-specific probe.

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