The nusA Recognition Site

Alteration in Its Sequence or Position Relative to Upstream Translation Interferes with the Action of the N Antitermination Function of Phage Lambda

ERIC R. OLSON^{1†}, CHE-SHEN C. TOMICH² AND DAVID I. FRIEDMAN¹

¹Department of Microbiology and Immunology The University of Michigan Medical School Ann Arbor, Mich. 48109, U.S.A.

> ²Molecular Biology Research Upjohn Company Kalamazoo, Mich. 49001, U.S.A.

(Received 19 March 1984, and in revised form 19 June 1984)

The phage λ transcription antitermination protein, pN, acts with host factors. Nus, at sites on the phage genome, nut, to render RNA polymerase resistant to subsequent downstream termination signals. The NusA protein appears to recognize a seven to eight base-pair consensus sequence (5'Py-G-C-T-C-T-T(T)3') called boxA that is found in the promoter-proximal part of the nut region.

Two types of change within or near the boxA sequence in the nutR region are shown to interfere with pN-mediated antitermination of transcription that has initiated at the upstream p_R promoter. (1) A change of one base-pair (from G to T at the second position) in the boxA sequence significantly reduces pN action. (2) We prove that a frameshift mutation, $cro\Delta62$, at the end of the gene promoter-proximal to the λ nutR region, interferes with the pN antitermination reaction by allowing translation to proceed beyond cro into the nutR region. Using a series of plasmid constructions, we now show that the inhibition of antitermination caused by the $cro\Delta62$ mutation can be suppressed when translation is terminated upstream from this mutation.

1. Introduction

Full transcription of bacteriophage lambda occurs only after RNA polymerase has acquired the ability to read through transcription termination signals, a process mediated, in part, by the product of the phage N gene (Friedman & Gottesman, 1983). Early λ transcription initiated at the promoters $p_{\rm L}$ and $p_{\rm R}$ (see Fig. 1), proceeds through the N gene in the $p_{\rm L}$ operon and cro in the $p_{\rm R}$ operon before stopping at the termination signals $t_{\rm L1}$ and $t_{\rm R1}$ (Roberts, 1969; Lozeron et al., 1976; Salstrom & Szybalski, 1978b; Rosenberg et al., 1978; Gottesman et al., 1980).

[†] Present address: Biology Department, McGill University, Montreal, P.Q., Canada H3A LB1.

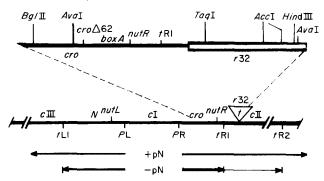


Fig. 1. Arrangement of genes and regulatory elements in the early control region of lambda. The second line shows the genetic arrangement of the region. The top line is an expansion of the region cloned to study the effect of nutR on pN-mediated transcription antitermination, including strategic restriction enzyme sites. The bottom lines show the pattern of early transcription in the presence and absence of pN.

The product of the N gene, pN, plus $Escherichia\ coli$ functions, products of the nus genes, apparently modify RNA polymerase allowing subsequent transcription to proceed through these and other terminators located further downstream (i.e. t_{L2} , t_{L3} , t_{R2}) (Friedman $et\ al.$, 1973b; Adhya $et\ al.$, 1974; Franklin, 1974; Friedman & Gottesman, 1983).

Cis-acting mutations in the left operon that prevent transcription initiated at $p_{\rm L}$ from being modified by pN define a site necessary for N recognition (Salstrom & Szybalski, 1978a). These mutations are in a 17-bp† region of hyphenated dyad symmetry called the N-utilization site or nutL. A sequence homologous to nutL in 16 of the 17 bp was found in the right-hand operon, between cro and cII (Rosenberg et al., 1978). This observation, combined with results from genetic studies, suggested that this 17-bp sequence is the site of N recognition on the right (nutR) (Rosenberg et al., 1978; Reyes et al., 1979). Cloning experiments have demonstrated that a 397-bp fragment extending from a site in cro to a site in cII, containing the nutR sequence, is sufficient for pN-mediated antitermination (de Crombrugghe et al., 1979).

Cis-acting mutations in the right operon that prevent efficient N-modification have also been isolated (Olson et al., 1982). Three independently selected mutations originally called nutR, because of their phenotypes and map locations, were subsequently shown to be deletions of an A·T bp in a run of seven A·T bp in the cro gene near the 3' end. On the basis of this sequencing data, these mutations have been renamed $cro\Delta$ (e.g. $cro\Delta62$).

Three hypotheses were presented to explain how such cro mutations result in the NutR⁻ phenotype (Olson et al., 1982). First, although complementation studies suggested otherwise, the altered Cro protein might interfere with pN action. Second, the deletion could alter a site utilized either by pN or one of the host factors. Third, since the deletion results in translation extending four bases into the nutR region, the ribosome terminating cro translation could interfere with one of the interactions necessary for pN action.

[†] Abbreviation used: bp, base-pair(s).

Consideration of this last possibility led to the identification of a sequence, 5' Py-G-C-T-C-T-(T) 3', called boxA, promoter-proximal to the nut dyad symmetry, which was postulated to be a recognition sequence for the E. coli NusA protein (Olson et al., 1982). Moreover, isolation of a mutation in this sequence indicated that at least the 3' terminus of boxA was required for NusA recognition as well as N-induced modification (Friedman & Olson, 1983).

In this paper we show the following. (1) When ribosomes translating the cro message stop upstream from the normal stop codon antitermination is not affected. (2) The $cro\Delta 62$ class of mutations cause a Nut⁻ phenotype because the ribosomes translating cro move an additional four bases into the nutR region. (3) A mutation in the promoter-proximal 5' region of boxA blocks pN action.

2. Materials and Methods

(a) Media

Media not described elsewhere in this paper have been described by Friedman $et\ al.$ (1973a).

(b) Strains

(i) Bacteria

The following E. coli strains were used: N5468 (bio⁻, ilv⁻, his⁻, galK am, pro::Tn10, λcI857ΔBamΔH1) was obtained from S. Adhya. DH1 (recA1, endA1, gyrA96, thi-1, hsdRM, supE44) was obtained from R. Schmickel. JM101, (F', lacZ⁻) was obtained from W. Dunnick. K2218 (N5468 nusA1) was constructed in this laboratory.

(ii) Phages

 $\lambda c I857r32$ was obtained from W. Szybalski. $\lambda c I857cro\Delta 62r32$ (previously called $\lambda c I857nutR62r32$) originated in this laboratory (Olson et al., 1982). M13mp8 and M13mp9 were obtained from W. Dunnick.

(iii) Plasmid

pKG1800 was obtained from K. McKenney (Rosenberg et al., 1983).

(c) Plasmid construction

(i) Construction of pNPK-1, pNMK-62, pNPA-1 and pNMA-62

Phage DNA, prepared as described by Yamamoto et al. (1970), was cleaved by the appropriate restriction enzymes. Where appropriate, DNA fragments were made bluntended and ligated into pKG1800 (Maniatis et al., 1982). E. coli was made competent for transformation as described by Cohen et al. (1972). Colony hybridizations were performed according to Maniatis et al. (1982). The nutR probe was an M13mp9 derivative carrying the nutR region from \$\lambda \text{El857r32}\$ (unpublished results, this laboratory). Restriction fragments from pNPK-1, pNMK-62, pNPA-1 and pNMA-62 containing the cro-nutR region were cloned into M13 derivatives and sequenced by the method of Sanger et al. (1977). The sequence from the HindIII site in cro to the start of the r32 was determined and shown in Fig. 4.

(ii) Construction of pBAGT

Construction of pBAGT is shown diagrammatically in Fig. 2. A 13-base single-stranded oligonucleotide (whose synthesis is described below) was hybridized to a single-stranded

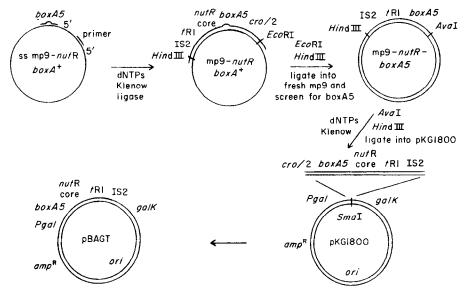


Fig. 2. Construction of pBAGT.

M13mp9 derivative carrying an insert with a wild-type boxA (3' G-C-G-A-G-A-A-T). The insert extends from the BglII site in cro to the HindIII site in the IS2. The hybridization was done in a final volume of 100 ul and consisted of the following: 15 ug of single-stranded M13mp9-nutR-boxA⁺ DNA, 35 ng of double-stranded 26 bp M13 universal primer (BRL, Gaithersburg, MD), $5 \mu g$ of the 13-base single-stranded oligonucleotide carrying the altered boxA, 7 mm-Tris·HCl (pH 7·4), 7 mm-MgCl₂, 50 mm-NaCl. The hybridization mixture was boiled for 3 min and allowed to cool to room temperature. The mixture was then added to 10 μl of solution B (20 mm-Tris·HCl (pH 7·4), 10 mm-MgCl₂, 10 mm-dithiothreitol, 1 mm of all 4 deoxynucleotide triphosphates, 1 mm-ATP) (Zoller & Smith, 1982) and 4 units of DNA polymerase I (Klenow fragment), and incubated overnight at 16°C. The mixture was then heated at 65°C for 10 min. After cooling the mixture on ice, EcoRI and HindIII were added and the mixture was incubated for 6 h at 37°C. The digested DNA was electrophoresed through a 1% (w/v) agarose gel containing 5 μ g ethidium bromide/ml. The DNA fragment containing the hybrid boxA was electroeluted (Maniatis et al., 1982) and purified over an eluptip-d column (Schleicher and Schuell). The purified fragment was then ligated into HindIII-EcoRI-digested M13mp9. JM101 was transfected with the ligated DNA and M13mp9 derivatives containing inserts were identified by plaque hybridization (not shown). Single-stranded DNA was purified from eight M13mp9 derivatives carrying inserts and sequenced by the method of Sanger et al. (1977). Of the 8 recombinants screened, one had a boxA with a T instead of a G residue at position 2 (data not shown). The replicative form of the M13mp9 derivative containing the altered boxA was digested with AvaI and HindIII, and the fragments containing the nutR region were ligated into pKG1800 as described for the construction of pNPK-1. This plasmid is called pBAGT. Sequence data revealed that except for the change in boxA, the sequence of the nutR region and the galE-cro junction from pBAGT are identical to that of pNPK-1 (data not shown).

(d) Oligonucleotide synthesis

The oligonucleotide 5' A-A-C-C-C-C-T-C-T-C-T-T-A 3' was synthesized by the phosphite coupling method on a silica-gel solid support according to Beaurage & Caruthers (1981),

with slight modifications. After synthesis, the oligonucleotides were deprotected and then purified by preparative acrylamide gel electrophoresis.

The purified oligomer was identified by its size and sequence. Size analysis was done by acrylamide gel electrophoresis (20% (w/v) acrylamide, 7 m-urea) with commercial oligonucleotides (from New England BioLabs) of known sizes as standards. To detect the oligonucleotides by autoradiography, both the 13-base sequence and standards were endlabeled with 32 P by the action of the phage T4 polynucleotide kinase in the presence of [γ - 32 P]ATP. Kinase reaction conditions were according to those given by the supplier, New England BioLabs.

Sequencing analysis was done by base-specific chemical cleavages of the end-labeled 13-base sequence, according to the procedures of Maxam & Gilbert (1980) with slight modifications. From the sizing and sequencing results (data not shown) the structure of the 13-base sequence was confirmed.

(e) Galactokinase assay

Bacteria were grown overnight in M56 minimal medium (Miller, 1972) containing (per ml) $0.01~\mu g$ biotin, $20~\mu g$ of histidine, valine, leucine and isoleucine. In addition, $25~\mu g$ of ampicillin per ml were included if the bacterium carried a plasmid. Cultures were diluted 1:50 in fresh medium and grown to a density of 10^8 per ml. A sample was removed for assaying galactokinase and the rest of the culture was shifted to $42^{\circ}C$ for 20 min. Another sample was then removed for assay; 1 ml from each sample was treated with toluene and assayed as described by Adhya & Miller (1979). Galactokinase units are expressed as nanomoles of galactose phosphorylated per minute per o.p. unit of absorbance at $650~\rm nm$.

3. Results

(a) Strategy of the experiments

The nutR regions from λ derivatives, either nut^+ or $cro\Delta 62$, were cloned into the galK expression vector pKG1800 (Rosenberg et al., 1983) so that the distance between nutR and in-frame translation stop codons upstream from nutR differed. This plasmid system was used also to test the effect of a single base change in boxA, boxA5, on N-mediated antitermination as well as a previously described base deletion in cro.

The vector pKG1800 is a pBR322 derivative with the following important features (Fig. 3). First, it contains a promoter from the $E.\ coli$ galactose operon. P_G , plus the first 400 bases of the galE gene. Transcripts initiating from P_G will be translated by ribosomes starting at the galE AUG translation initiation codon. Since there are no in-frame translation stop codons between the end of the galE fragment and the cloning sites (e.g. AvaI), translation will continue into any inserted fragment, in this case into the end of the cro gene. Second, the AvaI restriction site between galE and galK is also recognized by SmaI. Since AvaI creates a staggered end while SmaI creates a blunt end, and since the cleavage sites for the two enzymes vary by two base-pairs, translation of fragments ligated into these two sites will be in different reading frames. The λ derivatives used in these studies carry an IS2 insertion, r32, downstream from the nutR region (Brachet $et\ al.$, 1970) (see Figs 1 and 3). The presence of the strong termination signal in the IS2 element in both the $\lambda r32$ and $\lambda r32cro\Delta62$ in the right operon ensures that galK expression is dependent on termination-resistant transcription

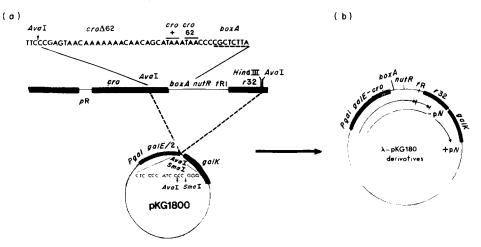


Fig. 3. Construction and structure of pNPK-1, pNMK-62, pNPA-1 and pNMA-62. (a) The sites and genes involved on the construction of the various plasmids are shown. The sequence (with hyphens omitted for clarity) from the AvaI site in cro to boxA is shown at the top. The cro stop codons that are in-frame in λcro^+ and $\lambda cro\Delta 62$ are indicated by cro^+ and cro62. The $cro\Delta 62$ mutation is an $A\cdot T$ deletion in the run of 7 $A\cdot T$ bp at the end of cro. The essential features of pKG1800 are shown at the bottom. (b) The general structure of the completed plasmids and the patterns of galK transcription with and without pN are shown.

(Brachet et al., 1970; Tomich & Friedman, 1977; de Crombrugghe et al., 1973). The various pKG1800- $\lambda nutR$ -derived plasmids were introduced into E.~coli~N5468 (galK $^-$, λc I857 Δ Bam Δ H1). The defective prophage, λc I857 Δ Bam Δ H1, has a temperature-sensitive repressor, so that at 32°C there is repression while at 40°C the cI857 repressor is inactivated and the only known phage function expressed is pN. When the nutR region and a terminator(s) are inserted between the gal promoter (Pgal) and the galK gene, and pN is supplied in trans, the level of galK expression reflects the efficiency of antitermination.

(b) Plasmid construction and galactokinase values

We will first discuss plasmids pNPK-1 and pNMK-62. The $\lambda r32$ and $\lambda r32cro\Delta62$ AvaI-HindIII fragments containing the cro-r32 region were purified and made blunt-ended by adding dNTPs and Klenow fragment (Fig. 3). The fragments were then ligated into the SmaI site of pKG1800. The resulting plasmids, pNPK-1 and pNMK-62, contain the nutR regions from $\lambda r32$ and $\lambda r32cro\Delta62$, respectively, in the orientations shown in Figures 3 and 4. The galE-cro junctions in these plasmids result in translation reading frames at the end of the cro 3'-terminal fragments identical to those of the parental phages. Thus, translation stops at the normal cro UAA in pNPK-1 and $\lambda r32$ while translation of pNML-62 and $\lambda r32cro\Delta62$ stops at the UAA four bases further downstream (Fig. 4). At 42°C we would expect pNPK-1 to have a Nut⁺ phenotype (manifested by a high level of galK expression in the presence of pN) and pNMK-62 should have a Nut⁻ phenotype (manifested by a low level of galK expression in the presence of pN).

Effect of ribosome placement on pN-modification

					Units of galK		
	Pgal go	a/E-cro	λ <i>oro</i> +	nutR tR1 IS2 ga/K	- pN	42°C + PN	
p NPK-1	-		AAA ACA ACA GCA <u>UAA</u> AUAA2		9	156	
pNMK-62	~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~		70∆62 - AAA CAA CAG CAU AAA <u>UXX</u> I		11	19	
pNPA-1		Acro+ CCCCGAGUAA GCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC			7	190	
p NM A-62		λ <i>οτο</i> Δ62			7	185	

Fig. 4. Galactokinase expression from various nutR-containing plasmids. The genetic organization from the gal promoter (Pgal) to galK in each of these plasmids is indicated at the top. The UAA translation stop codons that are in-frame as a result of fusing the galE and cro genes are boxed. Except for the $cro\Delta62$ mutation (T·A deletion, see Fig. 3) in pNMK-62 and pNMA-62, the wavy line indicates that the DNA sequence is identical to pNPK-1. Each plasmid sequence was determined from the HindHI site in galE (see Fig. 3) to the t_{R1} -IS2 junction. It should be noted that although pNPA-1, derived from $\lambda r32$, has the reading frame expected for the AvaI-AvaI junction, it also has a 12-bp insertion at that junction (see Fig. 4). This insertion is probably a cloning artifact since the AvaI ends from the pKG1800 and the cro fragment differ by 1 base: 5' C-C-C-G-G-G and 5' C-C-C-G-A-G. There is no effect of the insertion on N modification since expression of galactokinase is still N-dependent and the levels are almost identical to those for pNPK-1.

Figure 4 shows the pattern of galK expression when these two plasmids were introduced into N5468. At 32°C, in the absence of pN, both plasmids directed the synthesis of only low levels of galactokinase. When, however, pN was supplied by thermoinduction of the prophage, galK expression by pNPK-1 was elevated 17-fold while expression by pNMK-62 was unaffected. Thus, the pattern of pN stimulation of gene expression in these plasmids corresponds to that for nutR-controlled gene expression observed in their respective parent phages.

The experiments discussed in the preceding paragraph suggest that galK expression in this system is N-dependent. We show that this is the case in experiments using K2218, a derivative of N5468 with the nusA1 allele. Phage λ grows poorly at higher temperatures (above 40°C) in $E.\ coli$ with the nusA1 allele, because of insufficient pN activity (Friedman & Baron, 1974; Friedman, 1971). When pNPK-1 was inserted into K2218, only 17 units of galactokinase were made at 42°C. This ninefold reduction in galactokinase in the presence of the nusA1 allele in cells containing pNPK-1 offers strong corroborating evidence that galK expression from this plasmid is N-dependent.

The second set of plasmids, pNPA-1 and pNMA-62, was constructed by ligating the AvaI fragments from $\lambda r32$ and $\lambda r32cro\Delta 62$, respectively, into the AvaI site of pKG1800. Plasmids were isolated that contained the AvaI fragment with the cro-r32 region from each phage (Figs 3 and 4). The junction between galE and cro in these plasmids, which is different from that in pNPK-1 and pNMK-62, results in a shift of the translation reading frame at that junction (Fig. 4). The stop

codon that is in-frame in both of these plasmids is upstream from the $cro\Delta 62$ mutation.

If the phenotype of the $cro\Delta 62$ mutation is caused by translation extending beyond the normal cro stop codon, the creation of an in-frame stop codon 15 bases upstream from the end of cro should prevent ribosomes from reaching the nut region and thus obviate the effect of the $cro\Delta 62$ frameshift mutation. Accordingly, in the presence of pN, cells containing pNMA-62 (translation is terminated upstream from $cro\Delta 62$) should make higher levels of galactokinase than cells containing pNMK-62 (translation terminates downstream from the normal cro UAA). On the other hand, if the $cro\Delta 62$ mutation exerts its effect on antitermination independently of the effect on translation, pNMA-62 should produce similar levels of galactokinase as pNMK-62. As shown in Figure 4, when pN was supplied, cells carrying pNMA-62 made high levels of galactokinase while cells carrying pNMK-62 made only low levels, even though both plasmids have the $cro\Delta 62$ mutation. These observations support the conclusion that ribosomes terminating translation four bases beyond the normal cro stop codon interfere with antitermination. Mechanistically, the terminating ribosomes probably act by interfering with the N-modification reaction. Furthermore, since pNPK-1 (cro+ and translation terminates at the normal cro UAA), pNPA-1 (cro⁺ and translation terminates upstream from normal cro UAA) and pNMA-62 ($cro\Delta 62$ and translation terminates upstream from the $cro\Delta62$ mutation) make comparable levels of galactokinase at 42°C, normal translation to the end of cro must not be essential for N action.

In order to control for possible differences in plasmid copy number influencing the level of galK expression, we constructed phage vectors with the various $P_{\mathbf{G}^-}$ nut-terminator-galK arrangements. Results from qualitative tests assaying for galK expression were completely consistent with the plasmid data presented above (data not shown).

(c) Effect of changing a single base-pair in boxA on N-mediated antitermination

Plasmid pBAGT, a derivative of pNPK-1, was used to assess the effect of changing what appears to be a highly conserved base-pair in the 5' end of boxA. Details of the construction of pBAGT are outlined in Figure 2. The two plasmids differ only in their boxA sequences; pBAGT contains a T-A sequence at position 2; resulting in a 5' C-T-C-T-C-T-T-A 3' instead of the 5' C-G-C-T-C-T-T-A 3' wild-type boxA. This change is called boxA5.

The activity of the mutant boxA was tested using the Gal expression assay outlined above. Plasmid pBAGT was inserted into the E. coli host N5468. At low temperature (no pN synthesized), both plasmids expressed little galactokinase: pNPK-1, 9 units; and pBAGT, 15 units. Assays made 20 minutes after a shift to 42°C, however, revealed distinct differences between the two plasmids. Under these conditions, cells carrying pNPK-1 contained 156 units of galactokinase while those carrying pBAGT had only preshift levels, 11 units.

DNA sequence analysis of the cloned fragments revealed only the engineered

G·C to T·A change between pBAGT and pNPK-1. When all of the λ inserted material except for the last 122 bp of the IS2 was removed from pBAGT, the resulting plasmid expressed galK (data not shown), demonstrating that the $P_{\rm G}$ promoter and galK gene of pBAGT were functional. We conclude that the boxA5 mutation is responsible for the low level of galactokinase expressed by pBAGT, because the N-modification process is severely inhibited. Therefore, the experiments prove that the bases at the 5' end of boxA are essential for this modification process.

4. Discussion

In this paper we have presented evidence substantiating two essentially unproved inferences made in previous reports concerning the mechanism of N-mediated antitermination. (1) Translation into the *nutR* region interferes with the N-modification process; and (2) the 5' end of the *boxA* sequence is necessary for N modification.

Translation into the nut region was initially studied using the $cro\Delta62$ mutation. This type of mutation was isolated on the basis of interference with N modification at nutR such that transcription initiating from the p_R promoter upstream from the mutation failed to become termination-resistant. Surprisingly, the $cro\Delta62$ mutation was shown to be a single base-pair deletion in the cro gene near the 3' end. We have previously argued by deduction that the Nut⁻ phenotype caused by $cro\Delta62$ is due to the extension of translation beyond the normal cro UAA. The results presented here prove this contention. Two plasmids carrying the $cro\Delta62$ mutation were constructed, pNMK-62 and pNMA-62. However, only one of them, pNMK-62, is defective in N-mediated antitermination. The difference in the galE-cro junction in these two plasmids results in different distances between in-frame translation stop codons and the nutR region. Translation of pNMK-62 (Nut⁻ phenotype) stops four bases beyond the normal cro stop codon while translation of pNMA-62 (Nut⁺ phenotype) stops 15 bases further upstream (see Fig. 4).

The change in the position of the ribosome terminating translation with respect to the nutR region in pNMA-62 and pNMK-62 is 19 bases. Although both contain the $cro\Delta62$ mutation, only pNMK-62 is defective in antitermination. The most likely explanation for this result is that ribosomes extending into the nutR region interfere with an RNA-RNA, RNA-DNA or RNA-protein interaction. One likely RNA-RNA interaction that could be interfered with is the potential stem-loop structure at nutR. We think this is unlikely for the following reason. Mutational analysis of the leader region of the histidine operon of Salmonella suggests that ribosomes can interfere with the formation of RNA secondary structure 14 bases downstream from a ribosome stop signal but not 20 bases downstream (Johnston & Roth, 1981). The translation stop codon that is in-frame in pNMK-62 (Nut-phenotype) is 21 bases from the nutR stem-loop. Therefore, we feel it is unlikely that as a result of the $cro\Delta62$ mutation the ribosomes terminating translation of the cro gene sterically interfere with secondary structure at the nutR region of hyphenated dyad symmetry.

We favor a second possible mechanism to explain how a four-base shift in ribosome position interferes with pN action. According to this model, the ribosome blocks an interaction between the RNA and a protein; e.g. pN or one of the Nus factors. The boxA sequence is located only eight bases from the end of cro (Figs 3 and 4) (Friedman & Olson, 1983) and in the case of $\lambda r 32 cro \Delta 62$ and pNMK-62, boxA is only four bases from the terminating ribosome. Thus, the ribosome terminating cro translation in $\lambda cro\Delta 62$ and pNMK-62 would be positioned to interfere with a NusA-boxA interaction. Since NusA is required for N activity, such an interference would be sufficient to explain the Nutphenotype of pNMK-62 and $\lambda cro\Delta 62$. The fact that translation interferes with the modification process suggests that at least part of the reaction (NusA:boxA) takes place at the level of the messenger RNA. However, it is also conceivable that the initial recognition is between NusA and the DNA, in this case a ribosome tightly coupled to RNA polymerase might interfere with the transfer of NusA to the transcription complex. Moreover, we show that normal translation to the end of cro is not necessary for efficient N action. This conclusion was also reached by C. Debuck and M. Rosenberg as well as F. Warren and A. Das (personal communications) using similar plasmid systems.

We have also extended other studies on boxA by showing that the $G \cdot C$ base pair at position 2 in boxA is essential for N-determined antitermination. Plasmids pBAGT and pNPK-1 differ from each other only in their boxA sequences. When pN was supplied in trans, cells containing pNPK-1 produced more than ten times more galactokinase than those containing pBAGT. Since the only difference between these two plasmids is a substitution of an $A \cdot T$ bp for a $G \cdot C$ bp at position 2 of the boxA sequence, this $G \cdot C$ must be essential for N-mediated transcription antitermination. This conclusion is consistent with the observation that while there is heterogeneity at some of the positions in the boxA-like sequences identified so far, the $G \cdot C$ bp at position 2 is highly conserved (Olson et al., 1982).

The results presented in this paper confirm and extend our previous studies (Olson et al., 1982; Friedman & Olson, 1983) that identified boxA in the nutR region as an important sequence in the N-mediated transcription antitermination reaction. We have shown that a nucleotide at the 5' end of boxA is essential for the N reaction. Moreover, the fact that this mutational interference can be duplicated by extending translation into nutR suggests that ribosomes can interfere with the modification reaction.

The authors thank Alan Schauer, Martin Smith and Sankar Adhya for helpful suggestions. Sankar Adhya is also thanked for supplying phage and bacterial strains. We thank Sankar Adhya, Drew Granston, Don Court. Wes Dunnick, Martin Smith and Fred Neidhardt for careful reading of the manuscript. Emma Williams and Patty Laird are thanked for help in preparing the manuscript and Lisa Olson for making the figures. These studies were supported in part by grants from the National Institutes of Health (to D.I.F.).

REFERENCES

Adhya, S. & Miller, W. (1979). Nature (London), 279, 492–494.
Adhya, S., Gottesman, M. & de Combrugghe, B. (1974). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 71, 2534–2538.

Beaurage, S. L. & Caruthers, M. H. (1981). Tetrahedron Letters, 22, 1859.

Brachet, P., Eisen, H. & Rambach, A. (1970). Mol. Gen. Genet. 108, 266-276.

Cohen, S. N., Chang, A. C. Y. & Hsu, C. L. (1972). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 69, 2110–2114

de Crombrugghe, B., Adhya, S., Gottesman, M. & Pastan, I. (1973). Nature New Biol. 241. 260-264.

de Crombrugghe, B., Mudryj, M., DiLaura, R. & Gottesman, M.(1979), Cell, 18, 1145-1151, Franklin, N. C. (1974), J. Mol. Biol. 89, 33-48.

Friedman, D. I. (1971). In *The Bacteriophage Lambda* (Hershey, A. D., ed.), pp. 733-738. ('old Spring Harbor Laboratories, New York.

Friedman, D. I. & Baron, L. S. (1974). Virology, 58, 141-148.

Friedman, D. I. & Gottesman, M. (1983). In Lambda II (Hendrix et al., eds), pp. 21-51, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratories, New York.

Friedman, D. I. & Olson, E. R. (1983). Cell, 34, 143-149.

Friedman, D. I., Jolly, C. T. & Mural, R. J. (1973a). Virology, 51, 216-226.

Friedman, D. I., Wilgus, G. S. & Mural, R. J. (1973b), J. Mol. Biol. 81, 505-516.

Gottesman, M. E., Adhya, S. & Das, A. (1980). J. Mol. Biol. 140, 57-75.

Johnston, H. M. & Roth, J. R. (1981). J. Mol. Biol. 145, 735-756.

Lozeron, H. A., Dahlberg, J. E. & Szybalski, W. (1976). Virology, 71, 262-277.

Maniatis, T., Fritsch, E. F. & Sambrook, J. (1982). Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual, p. 371, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York.

Maxam, A. M. & Gilbert, W. (1980). Methods in Enzymology (Grossman, L. & Moldave, K., eds), vol. 65, pp. 499–560, Academic Press, New York.

Miller, J. (1972). In Experiments in Molecular Biology, p. 230, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York.

Olson, E. R., Flamm, E. L. & Friedman, D. I. (1982). Cell, 31, 61-70.

Reyes. O., Gottesman. M. & Adhya, S. (1979). Virology, 94, 400-408.

Roberts, J. W. (1969). Nature (London), 224, 1168-1174.

Rosenberg, M., Court. D., Shimatake, H., Brady, C. & Wulff, D. L. (1978). *Nature* (London), 272, 414-423.

Rosenberg, M., Chepelinsky, A. B. & McKenney, K. (1983). Science, 222, 734-739.

Salstrom. J. S. & Szybalski, W. (1978a). J. Mol. Biol. 124, 195–221.

Salstrom, J. S. & Szybalski, W. (1978b). Virology, 88, 252–262.

Sanger, F., Nicklen, S. & Coulson, A. R. (1977). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 74, 5463-5467.

Tomich, P. K. & Friedman, D. I. (1977). In DNA Insertion Elements, Plasmids and Episomes (Adhya, A., Bukhari, A. & Shapiro, J., eds), pp. 99-107, Cold Spring Harbor Press, New York.

Yamamoto, K. R., Alberts, B. M., Benzinger, R., Lawhorne, L. & Treiber, G. (1970).
Virology, 40, 734-744.

Zoller, M. J. & Smith, M. (1982). Nucl. Acids Res. 10, 6487-6500.

Edited by M. Gottesman