Control of Lysogenization by Phage P22 I. The P22 cro Gene

FRED WINSTON† AND DAVID BOTSTEINT

Department of Biology, Massachusetts Institute of Technology Cambridge, Mass. 02139, U.S.A.

(Received 10 November 1980, and in revised form 24 April 1981)

P22 cro⁻ mutants were isolated as one class of phage P22 mutants (cly mutants) that have a very high frequency of lysogeny relative to wild-type P22. These mutants: (1) do not form plaques and over-lysogenize relative to wild-type P22 after infection of a wild-type Salmonella host; (2) are defective in anti-immunity; and (3) fail to turn off high-level synthesis of P22 c2-repressor after infection.

P22 cro^- mutations are recessive and map between the P22 c2 and c1 genes. P22 cro^- mutations are suppressed by clear-plaque mutations in the c1 gene, one of which is simultaneously cy^- . They are also suppressed, but incompletely, by mutations in the c2 (repressor) gene, especially those that do not completely abolish c2 gene function.

Salmonella host mutants have been isolated that are permissive for the lytic growth of the $P22\ cro^-$ mutants.

1. Introduction

The genomes of the temperate Salmonella phage P22 and the temperate coliphage λ share the same overall functional organization. They also share some common DNA sequences as evidenced by DNA-DNA hybridization (Skalka & Hanson, 1972) and by the ability of the two phages to recombine in vivo (Gemski et al., 1972; Botstein & Herskowitz, 1974).

The immunity systems of the two phages differ in that P22 has two distinct regions that participate in immunity and repression (the immC and immI regions; Bezdek & Amati, 1968; Botstein et~al., 1975; Levine et~al., 1975), whereas λ has only one immunity region (Hopkins & Ptashne, 1971). If, however, the P22 immI region is deleted, the phage is still able to establish and maintain lysogeny normally. Furthermore, λ -P22 hybrid phage, which contain the immC region of P22 and the rest of λ , are able to establish and maintain lysogeny normally (Gemski et~al., 1972; Botstein & Herskowitz, 1974; Hilliker & Botstein, 1976).

The P22 immC region and the λ immunity region are structurally and functionally similar (Fig. 1). Each codes for a repressor necessary to maintain lysogeny (Levine,

[†] Present address: Section of Biochemistry, Molecular and Cell Biology, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y. 14853, U.S.A.

[‡] To whom reprint requests should be addressed.

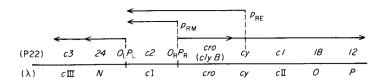


FIG. 1. Genetic map of the P22 immC and the λ immunity regions. P22 genes are above the line. λ genes are below the line. Lines above the map denote the transcription patterns. p_{RE} is the presumed promoter for the establishment mode transcription of the repressor gene (c2 of P22, c1 of λ ; Jones et al., 1979; Schmeissner et al., 1980). p_{RM} is the promoter for the maintenance mode of transcription of the repressor genes (Yen & Gussin, 1973; A. R. Poteete, unpublished data). p_L and p_R are the promoters for the genes to the left and right, respectively (Kourilsky et al., 1968; Roberts, 1969; Heinemann & Spiegelman, 1970; Hilliker & Botstein, 1975,1976).

1957; Kaiser, 1957) and the structure of the operator sites for repressor binding are similar for the two phages (Poteete *et al.*, 1980). In addition, both phages code for immunity-specific proteins necessary for high-level repressor synthesis during establishment of lysogeny: cII and cIII for λ (Kaiser, 1957; Reichardt & Kaiser, 1971), and cI and cJ for P22 (Levine, 1957; Gough & Tokuno, 1975).

The λ cro gene codes for an immunity-specific protein that is essential for lytic growth of λ after infection of a wild-type *Escherichia coli* host. The λ cro function has been studied in great detail. It has been shown to repress directly phage gene expression from the λ promoters $p_{\rm RM}$, $p_{\rm R}$ and $p_{\rm L}$ (Reichardt & Kaiser, 1971: Reichardt, 1975b; Johnson *et al.*, 1978; Meyer *et al.*, 1980). It has also been shown to repress indirectly expression of the cI-repressor gene from the $p_{\rm RE}$ promoter by repressing expression of the cII and cIII genes from $p_{\rm R}$ and $p_{\rm L}$, respectively (Echols *et al.*, 1973; Reichardt, 1975a).

 λ cro $^-$ mutants have several characteristic phenotypes: (1) they do not grow lytically after infection of a wild-type $E.\ coli$ host; (2) they do not allow a defective prophage to become "anti-immune" (Calef & Neubauer, 1968; Eisen et al., 1970; Calef et al., 1971); and (3) they fail to turn off high-level repressor synthesis after infection (Reichardt & Kaiser, 1971). Due to the inability of λ cro $^-$ mutants to grow lytically after infection, virtually all λ cro $^-$ strains also carry the cI857 mutation, which specifies a thermolabile repressor. The cI857 allele suppresses the cro $^-$ defect at 37°C, but not at 30°C or 42°C (Eisen et al., 1975).

Given the ability of the P22 immC region to substitute for the λ immunity region and given the fact that the λ cro protein is essential for lytic growth, it seemed logical to anticipate that P22 would code for a cro function. Suggestive evidence for a P22 cro function has been reported (Hilliker et al., 1978) but a direct demonstration of such a function has been lacking.

In the course of isolation and analysis of P22 mutants that lysogenize at greatly increased frequency relative to wild-type P22 (P22 cly mutants; Hong et al., 1971; Roberts et al., 1976), we found three different classes of mutants, which we have named clyA, clyB and clyC (Winston, 1980; Winston & Botstein, 1981, accompanying paper). The P22 cly mutants studied by Hong et al. (1971) appear to fall into what we call the clyA class. P22 clyB mutants, unlike the other cly mutants, have the phenotypes expected of P22 cro—mutants. In addition, these mutants, like the previously identified P22 clyA mutants, lysogenize at very high

frequency and do not form plaques on a wild-type Salmonella host. They can form plaques on the cly-permissive hosts identified by Hong et al. (1971) and on new hosts reported here. In this paper, we shall refer to the P22 clyB mutants as P22 cro⁻ mutants. The Salmonella hosts permissive for lytic growth by these and other classes of P22 cly mutants will be referred to as cly-permissive hosts.

In this paper we present evidence for a P22 cro function, the isolation and analysis of P22 cro⁻ mutants, and the isolation and preliminary characterization of new hosts permissive for lytic growth of P22 cro- mutants. By this analysis we have found: first, that P22 cro mutants do not grow lytically (and lysogenize at very high frequency) after infection of wild-type Salmonella hosts but can grow lytically after infection of certain mutant Salmonella hosts. By use of these clypermissive Salmonella hosts, we have been able to study P22 cro mutants without the presence of a conditional clear-plaque mutation, which otherwise would be required to suppress conditionally the Cro phenotype. Second, we found that different cly-permissive mutations affect different host functions based on their phenotypes. Third, we found that a defective P22 cro⁺ lysogen can become antiimmune and that a cro- mutation blocks the ability of a defective P22 lysogen to become anti-immune. Fourth, we found that a P22 cro mutant fails to turn off high-level synthesis of c2-repressor and at least one other early phage-coded protein after infection of a wild-type host. These last two phenotypes are similar to the phenotypes of λcro^- mutants that are cited above.

2. Materials and Methods

(a) Bacteria

Bacterial strains are listed in Table 1. All Salmonella typhimurium strains are derivatives of LT2. DB7000 was actually used as the standard su^- host. Most often, the cly-permissive hosts used contained the rif39 allele. The strains containing the pclA, pclB and pclC alleles were isolated as Tn10 insertion mutants permissive for P22 cly mutants (see below).

DB147 contains a short $(c2^- mnt^+)$ deletion of the prophage, which begins outside the left end of the P22 prophage and extends into the cI gene; DB5201 contains a long prophage deletion $(c2^+ mnt^-)$, which deletes everything between a Tn $I\theta$ insertion in the P22 al region and the cI gene (Chan & Botstein, 1972).

All lysogens (except DB6077) were made by selecting for ampicillin resistance since all the phage strains used to construct lysogens carried the Ap31 pfr1 deletion-substitution (see below).

(b) Phage

All bacteriophage strains used in this work are derivatives of wild-type P22. The alleles used are listed in Table 2. Phages constructed in this work contain various combinations of these alleles. The croH100 allele was initially called cly17, clyN3 and clyN11 are the same as cly3 and cly11 (Hong $et\,al.$, 1971). The cy27 mutation is the same as the c27 mutation previously described (Tokuno & Gough, 1976). We call it cy27 because of its similarity to cy mutations of phage λ .

(i) Construction of P22 ero clear double mutants

A large number of phage constructions in this work involved 2 classes of markers affecting the plaque morphology: clear $(cI^-, c2^-$ and $cy^-)$ and cro^- . For construction of P22 $cro^ cI^-$

Table 1

Bacterial strains

Strain	Genotype	Source/Reference
Non-lysogen:	3	
DB21	LT2, prototroph	Botstein (1968)
DB47	recA	Wing et al. (1968)
DB4381	$hisG46 \Delta(bio \ uvrB)$	B. Ames via G. Walker
DB5397	cya-408	B. Ames
DB7000	leuA-am414	D. Botstein
DB7001	leuA-am414 rpsL	Hilliker & Botstein (1975
DB7154	leuA- $am414$ $hisC$ - $am527$ $supD10$	Winston et al. (1979)
DB7155	leuA- $am414$ $hisC$ - $am527$ $supE20$	Winston et al. (1979)
DB7156	leuA- $am414$ $hisC$ - $am527$ $supF30$	Winston et al. (1979)
DB7157	leuA- $am414$ $hisC$ - $am527$ $supJ60$	Winston et al. (1979)
DB7158	leu A -am414 rif39	Hong et al. (1971)
DB7521	$pclA::\operatorname{Tn} 1 heta$	This work
DB7524	$pclB:: TnI\theta$	This work
DB7525	$pclC$:: Tn $I\theta$	This work
DB7533	$\hat{l}euA$ -am414 $supE20$ rif 39	This work
DB7572	leuA-am414 cya408	This work
DB7590	leuA- $am414$ $rif39$ $recA$	This work
DB7658	leuA- $am414$ $rif39$ $cya408$	This work
Lysogens		
ĎB6077	$leuA$ -am414 (P22 int3 $c2^{-}ts29$ $sieA1$ m3)	D. Botstein
DB7621	leu - $am414 \; rpsL \; (P22 \; 12^- amH342 \; 24^- amS36)$	
	$ct^-ts30\ int^-am137 \mathrm{Ap}31\ pfr1)$	This work
DB7639	leuA-am414 rpsL (P22 12 amH342 24 amS36	
	$c2^-ts30$ $croH100$ int^-am137 Ap $31pfr1$)	This work
Prophage del	etions	
DB147		Chan & Botstein (1972)
DB5201		Chan & Botstein (1972)

double mutants, the effect of these markers on plaque morphology was useful in detecting the desired recombinant phage. All of the $P22\ cro^-\ cl^-$ double mutants were initially identified as plaques that were of intermediate turbidity relative to the cl^- and cro^- parents. The same principle was applied to separate the mutations in $P22\ cro^-$ clear double mutants.

The construction of P22 $cro^ c2^-$ double mutants was accomplished in 2 different ways. The P22 croH100 $c2^-$ am08 double mutant was constructed simply by crossing the 2 single mutants by each other, plating the progeny on a wild-type su^- host, and then scoring the small clear plaques for plaque morphology on 2 amber suppressor hosts, DB7155 (supE) and DB7156 (supF). On DB7155, the P22 croH100 $c2^-$ am08 double mutant makes a plaque that is more turbid than that of the $c2^-$ am08 parent and furthermore does not plate on DB7156, which is a better suppressor of the $c2^-$ am08 mutation.

Four-factor crosses were used to construct P22 cro^-c2^-ts double mutants. In every case one parent was $12^-am\mathrm{H}342\,c2^-$ and the other was $erf1\,cro^-$. Crosses were done in a rif39 host (permissive for cro^- mutants) and the outside markers 12^+ and erf^+ were selected on a recA, rif39 host (DB7590). All constructions were tested by recovering the individual component mutations after a backeross to wild-type P22. The P22 $cro^ c2^-$ double mutants were found by scoring the inside markers and looking for the recombinant class that was different from either parent or from wild-type. In one case (P22 $cro\mathrm{H}100\,c2^-ts30$) this double mutant was found as a class that grew more poorly on DB7000 at $40.5^\circ\mathrm{C}$ and for the other case (P22

Table 2
Phage alleles

Allele	Source/Reference
int ⁻ am137	D. Botstein
24^-amS36	Hilliker & Botstein (1975)
12 ⁻ amH342	D. Botstein
5 ⁻ amH312	D. Botstein
$8^-amH202$	D. Botstein
Vx	Bronson & Levine (1971)
K5	Bronson & Levine (1971)
$c2^-amO8$	H. Prell
$c2^{-}5$	Levine (1957)
$c1^-7$	Levine (1957)
$c1^{-}ts101$	M. Levine
$c1^-ts97$	This work
$c1^-ts2$	This work
$c1^-am8$	This work
$c1^-am26$	This work
$c1^-am59$	This work
$c1^{-}am214$	This work
cy27	Levine (1957)
cy12	This work
Ap31 pfr1	This work
clyA alleles	
clyN3	Hong et al. (1971)
clyN11	Hong et al. (1971)
clyH102	This work
clyH109	This work
clyB (cro) alleles	
croH100	This work
croH101	This work
croH104	This work
croH105	This work
croH106	This work
croH107	This work
croH108	This work
croH110	This work
croH111	This work
croH116	This work
croH124	This work
croS100	This work
clyC alleles	
clyH112	This work
elyH125	This work

proH100 c2-ts29) this double mutant was found as a class that made a more turbid spot on **DB7**000.

Phage strains used for the anti-immunity experiments were constructed using the same eneral principles described above. In order to preserve the desired inside markers during postruction, parent phages were constructed that contained all *cro* and clear alleles desired

⁽ii) Construction of phage strains used for the anti-immunity experiments

in the final recombinant and carrying either the $12^-am\mathrm{H}342$ or the $24^-am\mathrm{S}36$ markers. Then these 12^- and 24^- derivatives were crossed with each other to produce the final recombinant.

(iii) Construction of P22 Ap31pfr1

In order to have a strong selection for lysogens, a P22 strain was constructed that contained the β -lactamase gene from TnI, thereby allowing selection for lysogens by selecting for Amp^R colonies. This strain also contains a deletion of non-essential P22 material so that the phage DNA in particles will be terminally repetitious, a feature necessary for P22 to grow after single infection (Botstein & Matz, 1970).

The parent strain was P22 Ap31, a strain containing a Tn1 insertion in the non-polar orientation in the carboxyl-terminal end of the P22 ant gene (Weinstock et al., 1979). The non-polar orientation allows expression of the tail gene (gene 9), which is downstream (with respect to transcription) of ant. The presence of the Tn1 element results in a genome too large to fit inside the phage head. Therefore, the packaged DNA is not terminally repetitious and the Tn1-carrying phage cannot grow by single infection. Selection for plaque-forming revertants (pfrs) is therefore a selection for deletions.

pfrs were selected, purified and then scored for whether they still carried the β -lactamase gene by testing for formation of Amp^R lysogens. One pfr strain that carries the intact β -lactamase gene has been designated P22 Ap31pfr1.

Genetic tests showed that this phage had become mnt^- (since the parent phage contained the sieA444 mutation (Susskind et~al., 1974), loss of the sieA gene function could not be scored). By electron microscopy of heteroduplex molecules, this phage has a deletion of approximately 5000 base-pairs beginning within the Tn1 element and extending leftward (D. Koshland, unpublished data).

(c) Growth of phage stocks

Concentrated phage stocks were prepared either by infection or by ultraviolet induction of lysogens (Botstein & Matz, 1970). Since lysates made by u.v. induction are tail-deficient (Israel, 1967) they were treated with approx. 10^{12} phage equivalents/ml of P22 tails (provided by P. Berget) at 37° C for 1 h prior to concentration.

For growing high-titer stocks of some of the $P22\ cro^-$ mutants by infection, a slightly different procedure was used. The permissive host was grown to $2\times10^8/ml$ at $37^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$, infected at a multiplicity of approximately 1 and grown for 90 min at $37^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$. Several drops of chloroform were added to the cultures, which were then put back to shake slowly at $37^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ for approx. 10 min. The lysis of phage stocks with chloroform seemed to be greatly aided by incubation of the lysates at $37^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ rather than at room temperature. The lysates were then concentrated by the usual procedures.

(d) Phage crosses

(i) Standard phage crosses

The procedure used for standard P22 crosses was adapted from that of Gough & Levine (1968) and of Botstein & Matz (1970). Each parent was infected at a multiplicity of infection (m.o.i.) of 7.

For some crosses the m.o.i. was shifted (to 7 for one parent and 1 for the other parent) to help bias in favor of a particular marker. For example, to construct a 12^-am $c1^-am$ double mutant, the c1 parent, whose plaque morphology is easily identifiable, would be infected at a multiplicity of 1 to increase the probability of recombination with a genome carrying the 12^-am allele.

(ii) Four-factor crosses

Four-factor crosses were done by the standard cross procedure. The crosses were done in strain DB7533 (rif39 supE) for mapping cly mutations and in strain DB7155 (supE) for

mapping clear mutations. For each set of crosses performed, the parents alone were infected in the identical procedure at a multiplicity equal to the total multiplicity in the coinfection.

All of the 4-factor crosses were done with outside markers in genes $12 \ (12^+$ and $12^-amH342)$ and $erf \ (erf^+$ and erf2). The progeny from the crosses were assayed on a permissive host (DB7533 and DB7155) and the non-permissive host DB47 $(recA \ su^-)$, which only allows growth of the $12^+ \ erf^+$ recombinants. Once the titer of the $12^+ \ erf^+$ recombinants was determined, the crosses were replated on DB47 to examine a larger number of $12^+ \ erf^+$ recombinants for the frequency of clear and turbid (c^+) plaques.

The relative positions of the 2 inside markers in question were always determined by the relative frequencies of turbid progeny in reciprocal crosses where the 12 and erf markers were in combination with each inside marker.

(e) Media

Liquid media used were LB broth (Levine, 1957), M9 minimal medium and M9 supplemented with charcoal-clarified Casamino acids (M9CAA; Smith & Levine, 1964). Solid media used were LB plates and λ plates (Signer & Weil, 1968) and green indicator plates (Levine & Curtiss, 1961; Susskind et al., 1971). Dilutions were made in dilution fluid (Botstein & Matz, 1970) or buffered saline (Botstein, 1968). Nutrient top agar (Levine, 1957) was used in all cases. Drugs were used at the following concentrations: tetracycline, 25 μ g/ml and ampicillin, 25 to 100 μ g/ml. When needed, amino acids were supplemented at 20 μ g/ml.

(f) Chemicals and radioisotopes

The sources of chemicals were as follows: tetracycline, Calbiochem-Behring Corp. (La Jolla, CA) and Sigma Chemical Co. (St Louis, MO); ampicillin, Bristol Laboratories (Syracuse, N.Y.) and Sigma; hydroxylamine, J. T. Baker Chemicals (Phillisburg, N.J.); acrylamide, Eastman Kodak Co. (Rochester, N.Y.); bisacrylamide, Eastman and Bio-Rad Laboratories (Richmond, CA); Temed, Bio-Rad; ammonium persulfate, Bio-Rad and Mallinckrodt Inc. (St Louis, MO); and sodium dodecyl sulfate, BDH Chemicals. [35S]methionine was purchased from Amersham (Arlington Heights, IL).

(g) Hydroxylamine mutagenesis

Hydroxylamine mutagenesis was adapted from the procedure of Hall & Tessman (1966). Phage were mutagenized in vitro for 20 to 24 h to a survival of approx. 1%. The frequency of clear-plaque mutants was generally near 1%.

(h) Isolation of cly mutants by plaque morphology

This procedure, adapted from that of Hong et al. (1971), was to plate a hydroxylamine-mutagenized P22 lysate for 100 to 200 plaques per plate on a cly-permissive host, either DB7160 (rif39) or DB7521 (pclA). Plates were incubated at either 30 or 37°C until the majority of the plaques on the plate began to have a faint turbid or bull's-eye center. At that time the plates were removed from the incubator and screened visually for fully turbid plaques. The turbid plaques were purified and tested for the cly phenotype of no plaque formation on a cly-non-permissive (wild-type) host by either streaking or plating out a single-plaque suspension. Those that grew on the cly-permissive host and did not grow on the cly-non-permissive host were grown into lysates for further study.

(i) Isolation of cly mutants by lysogen selection

This procedure selects for mutants that are able to lysogenize efficiently under conditions where lysogens are extremely rarely formed. Strain DB7158 (rif39) was grown in LB to a

conen of 5×10^8 /ml. The cells were centrifuged and resuspended in buffered saline to the same concentration. The cells were then infected at a multiplicity of 0·1 with P22 Ap31pfr1. After adsorption for 20 min at room temperature, 0·1 ml of P22 anti-serum was added and the infected cells were incubated an additional 10 min at room temperature. The infected cells were then plated on green plates containing ampicillin; the plates were incubated at 37°C.

F WINSTON AND D. BOTSTEIN

Colonies that grew on the plates after a day or two were purified on ampicillin plates and then on LB plates. After purification, these strains were tested initially for their immunity by cross-streaking (Susskind et al., 1971). Those that were sensitive to P22 ant⁺ and immune to P22 ant⁻ were repurified and tested for spontaneous phage release by stabbing single colonies of the lysogens into lawns of cly-non-permissive and cly-permissive hosts. For those lysogens that warranted further testing, u.v.-induced lysates were grown.

(i) Isolation of cly-permissive hosts by Tn10 insertion mutagenesis

After Tn1θ mutagenesis of strain DB21 (adapted from Kleckner et al., 1975), the Tet^R colonies were replica-plated onto green tetracycline plates and green tetracycline plates seeded with 10⁶ P22 clyN3 phage (Hong et al., 1971), which were then incubated at 37°C. The replica plates were then examined for those colonies that were nibbled by the clyN3 phage (Susskind et al., 1971). These candidates were purified and retested for cly-sensitivity by cross-streaking and then by streaking-out cly mutants on lawns of the candidates. For those insertions isolated that did render DB21 cly-sensitive, the Tn1θ insertion mutation was moved by P22 generalized transduction (selecting Tet^R) into the original parental strain, DB21 (Kleckner et al., 1975). One hundred per cent of the Tet^R transductants were cly-sensitive, demonstrating that the Tn1θ insertion mutation caused the cly-sensitivity.

(k) Selection for revertants of P22 ero mutants

Individual plaques on a rif39 cly-permissive host were picked and replated on a non-permissive host, either DB7000 (su^-) or DB7304 (su^+) . This generally yielded between 5 and 100 revertant plaques/plate with an occasional jackpot (Luria & Delbruck, 1943).

(1) Spot tests for identification of clear mutants

In order to distinguish among clear mutants we used spot complementation tests similar to those developed by Levine (1957). These distinguish c1 mutations from c2, cy and K5 mutations.

A procedure to test for K5 mutants was developed by Bronson & Levine (1971) and relies on the fact that neither a Vx (left-side virulent) nor a K5 (right-side virulent) mutant alone can overcome immunity in a P22 sieA lysogen; however, a lysogen that is co-infected by the 2 phages will allow phage growth.

A spot test to distinguish between c2 and cy mutants (both of which complement as $c2^-$) was adapted from the colony-sparing test developed by Susskind $et\ al.\ (1974)$. In this test, one infects a strain that is lysogenic for P22 $c2^-ts29$ sieA44 at 40.5°C, a temperature nonpermissive for growth of this lysogen. If the super-infecting phage carries a wild-type c2 template, then wild-type c2-repressor can be made at the high temperature and the lysogen will survive. (The exact mechanism by which the lysogen is able to survive is not clear; presumably c2-repressor is being made from the good template in the maintenance mode.) If the super-infecting phage carries a defective c2 allele, no functional repressor can be made and the temperature-sensitive lysogen will die.

For this test phage candidates that complement as $c2^-$ are spotted on a lawn of DB6077 (a P22 $c2^-ts29$ sieA44 lysogen) and the plates are incubated at 40.5° C. If a patch of survivors grows where the phage were spotted then the candidate is a cy mutant; if not, then the superinfecting phage carries a defective c2 gene.

(m) Non-permissive marker rescue from prophage deletions

Non-permissive rescue was done as described by Chan & Botstein (1972). For rescue from DB147 an additional overlay of DB7000 was added to the plates to improve the plaque morphology.

(n) Frequency of lysogeny measurements

The frequency of lysogeny by wild-type P22 and by P22 cro^- mutants was measured in the cly-non permissive (wild-type) host DB7000. Cells were grown in M9/CAA to 2×10^8 /ml at 37°C, infected with the phage at the desired multiplicity and incubated for 15 min at 37°C. The infected cells were then diluted and spread on plates seeded with 5×10^8 P22 c2-5 and incubated at 37°C. Under these conditions only lysogens form colonies. The frequency of lysogeny is calculated from the number of infected cells and the number of lysogens formed.

(o) Dominance tests

The basic procedure for dominance tests was the same as for the standard cross with respect to growing the cells and the infection, growth and titering of the phage. Two different rdominance tests were done. First, dominance tests for phage growth were done under conditions where each parent infected, at low multiplicity (<0.1), the cly-non-permissive (and su^-) host DB7000; each parent carried a complementing amber mutation in a P22 late gene. Thus one parent carried a 5^-am mutation and the other parent carried an 8^-am mutation. In this way, only cells which were co-infected by each parent would produce a burst of phage and these co-infected cells would virtually always be infected by no more than one of each parent.

Second, dominance tests for frequency of lysogeny were done at a high multiplicity of infection (5) in strain DB7158 (rif39). The cells were infected, incubated at 37°C and 20 min later plated for lysogens as described above.

(p) Anti-immunity tests

If one constructs a lysogen that is defective in early functions and carries a thermosensitive mutation in the c2-repressor, one can test for the ability of this lysogen to become anti-immune by incubating the lysogen at a temperature non-permissive for the $c2^-$ mutation and then returning the temperature to the permissive temperature. If the Cro function of the lysogen can be expressed, it will inhibit the restoration of immunity upon return to the permissive temperature, allowing indefinitely the continued expression of the Cro function instead of immunity (c2-repressor function). Anti-immunity can be observed conveniently by superinfecting with a phage that ordinarily would fail to grow because of the presence of repressor. Anti-immunity is a phenomenon unrelated to the ability of superinfecting phages that can synthesize anti-repressor to grow; anti-repressor directly inactivates repressor while Cro function interferes with its synthesis. In the case of P22, anti-immunity tests could be carried out in such a way as to allow plating of anti-repressor-producing phages to serve as a control, since all lysogens were deleted for the immI region. In such lysogens, all ant^+ P22 phages can grow but ant^- phages cannot grow unless the lysogen has lost its immunity (Botstein et al., 1975).

Lysogens were tested for whether or not they could become anti-immune by growing them at 40.5° C (a temperature non-permissive for the $c2^{-}ts$ mutation in the prophage) to a concentration of 2 to 5×10^{8} . Tester phage were plated using these cultures and the plates incubated at 35° C. The tester phages used were wild-type P22 and P22 Ap31pfr1; wild-type P22 serves as a control since it is ant^{+} and, therefore, grows on all the lysogens tested regardless of their anti-immunity state. P22 Ap31pfr1 grows only on anti-immune hosts since its ant gene is partially deleted. Lysogens used in these tests carry the rpsL allele to make the host more non-permissive for the P22 $24^{-}am836$ allele.

218

(q) Preparation of samples for gel electrophoresis

Samples for gel electrophoresis were prepared as follows: strain DB4381 ($\Delta uvrB$ -bio hisG46) was grown in M9/glucose medium supplemented with histidine and biotin to approx. 2.5×10^8 /ml, counted in the Petroff–Hauser chamber to determine the exact cell titer, pelleted in the Sorvall centrifuge and resuspended in the same medium to a concentration of 5×10^8 /ml. The cells were then u.v.-irradiated with a dose of 4000 ergs/mm² and infected by adding them to a flask containing the proper amount of the same medium (prewarmed) and the correct number of phage to give a final cell concentration of 2×10^8 and the desired m.o.i. of 7 phage per cell.

For 35 S-labeled extracts, each sample was prepared by adding $100~\mu l$ of infected cells to an Eppendorf tube containing approximately $50~\mu l$ in of $[^{35}S]$ methionine (in a $20~\mu l$ vol.), incubating the mixture for 1 min and then ending the pulse by adding $60~\mu l$ of $3\times$ sample buffer and heating the sample at $95^{\circ}l$ for 1 min. Sample buffer contains 10% glycerol, $5^{\circ}l$ β mercaptoethanol, 3% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 0.0625~M-Tris (pH 6-8) and 0.002% bromophenol blue.

Polyacrylamide gels were run as slab gels (Studier, 1973) using the buffer system of Laemmli (1970). Gels were fixed in 50% trichloroacetic acid for 1 h and then rinsed, dried and exposed to Kodak XR-5 film at room temperature. For autoradiograms that were to be traced, pre-flashed film was used (Laskey & Mills, 1975). Autoradiograms were traced and the areas under the peaks were calculated using a Zeineh soft laser scanning densitometer (Biomed Instruments, Chicago, IL).

3. Results

(a) Isolation of P22 cro mutants by plaque morphology

We initially set out to isolate P22 mutants that over-lysogenize after infection of wild-type Salmonella. Such mutants had already been isolated by Hong et al. (1971). Those mutants, which they named cly mutants (for control of lysogeny), have the properties that: (1) they do not make plaques and virtually always lysogenize after infection of wild-type Salmonella; and (2) they can grow lytically after infection of Salmonella cya⁻, crp⁻ or rif39 hosts and make turbid plaques on these hosts (on which wild-type P22 makes clear plaques). Hong et al. mapped these mutations between the P22 genes c1 and 18.

The initial method we used to isolate more mutants of this type was the same as that used by Hong *et al.* (1971): to screen for P22 mutants that make turbid plaques on a host permissive for *cly* mutants.

In this procedure, P22 stocks were mutagenized with hydroxylamine and plated on a cly-permissive host (rif39) to look for mutants that form turbid plaques. Among the candidates for cly mutants, the final criterion used was whether or not the phage was able to grow on the cly non-permissive (wild-type) host, Salmonella strain DB7000. The procedure yielded seven mutants in the 15,000 mutagenized plaques screened. The seven cly mutants isolated represent approximately 10% of the turbid plaque-formers tested. Most of the phage that formed more turbid plaques than P22⁺ on the cly-permissive host also appeared to plate normally on DB7000 and were not analyzed further.

(b) Isolation of cly mutants by lysogenization frequency

This procedure selects for mutants that can lysogenize more often than P22⁺ in a host in which P22⁺ lysogenizes at an extremely low frequency. The host carries the

rif39 allele; the phage for this selection is the strain P22 Ap31pfr1, which carries a gene coding for β -lactamase (amp^R) and whose construction is described in Materials and Methods. P22 Ap31pfr1 lysogenizes at very low frequency after low multiplicity infection of a rif39 host (approx. 10^{-5} lysogens per infected cell), as expected since P22⁺ makes clear plaques on this host.

cly mutants were selected using both unmutagenized and hydroxylamine-mutagenized phage stocks. Among 99 $\mathrm{Amp^R}$ colonies tested, 16 had a cly mutant as a prophage. The strength of the selection is indicated by the isolation of a spontaneous cly mutant. All 16 cly mutants isolated by this procedure were in the clyB or clyC class (see below).

(c) Preliminary mapping of cly mutations and designation of cro mutants

Preliminary mapping of the *cly* mutations by non-permissive rescue from two prophage deletion strains allows the *cly* mutations to be grouped into two sets.

The two prophage strains used, DB147 and DB5201, are deleted in from the left end and the right end of the prophage map, respectively, ending in the c1 region. Chan & Botstein (1972) showed that the prophage deletion in DB147 includes the c2 gene but not the 18^-am100 allele and that the deletion in DB5201 does include 18^-am100 but not the c2 gene. We have shown further that the deletion in DB147 includes almost all markers in the c1 gene (Winston & Botstein, unpublished results).

The results (Fig. 2) show that the cly mutants fall into two categories: those that can form cly^+ recombinants with the deletion prophage strain DB147 and those that cannot. All of the mutants can form cly^+ recombinants with the deletion prophage in strain DB5201.

These preliminary mapping results, in conjunction with the plating phenotypes of the cly mutants that show clyH125 and clyH112 to be in a different class from the other cly mutants based upon their host range (Winston & Botstein, 1981, accompanying paper), define three classes of P22 cly mutants: clyA, clyB and clyC. The one class of mutants that map under deletion DB147 and have the same host

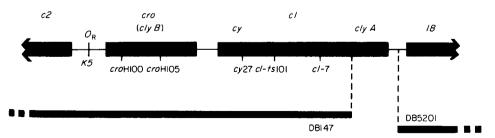


Fig. 2. Fine structure map of the P22 cro-cy-cl region. Map positions were determined by 4 factor crosses (Table 3) and non-permissive rescue from the prophage deletion strains DB147 and DB5201. The clyA mutants map between the endpoints of the 2 deletions and the clyB mutants map under the DB147 deletion. The clyC mutants also map under DB147 (not shown). The cly alleles mapped by non-permissive rescue are listed in Table 2.

P22 cro - MUTANTS

range as the H100 mutant (clyB mutants) will be discussed further here. The set of clyB mutants will hereafter be referred to as P22 cro^- mutants.

(d) Mapping P22 cro mutations by four-factor crosses

In order to determine more precisely the map positions of the P22 cro^- mutations, four-factor crosses were used to order cro mutations relative to known P22 markers. The results of mapping the cro mutations by four-factor crosses (Table 3) order the markers croH100 and croH105 relative to the P22 markers $K\bar{z}$, cy27, cI^-7 and cI^-ts101 and to each other (Fig. 2). The four-factor crosses place

Table 3

Four-factor crosses for mapping ero mutations

						Crossove	er classes	
Cross	\oplus	a	+	12^-am	a+	ab	+ b	++
		/		\				
	erf1	+	b	\oplus	Single	Single	Single	Triple
Reciprocal	<u></u>	+	ь	12 ⁻ am	Q: 1	m · ·	a	
cross					Single	Triple	Single	Single

Depending upon the relative position of the inside unselected markers, either the cross or the reciprocal cross will require a triple crossover to generate wild-type progeny. For each pair of crosses listed below, the cross is listed first, the reciprocal cross second. The % c^+ refers to the frequency of wild-type plaques among progeny recombinant for the outside markers. For cross 5, frequencies were determined by directly plating for cro^+ recombinants, p.f.u., plaque-forming units.

 \oplus

erf1

	Unselect	ed markers			
	a	b	c^+ p.f.u.	%c+	Deduced map order
1.	croH100 c1 ⁻ ts101	c1 ⁻ ts101 croH100	34/295 392/870	11·5 45·1	$erfcroH100c1^12$
2.	croH100 c1 ⁻ 7	$c1^-7 \\ cro{ m H}100$	$\frac{172/948}{722/1620}$	18·1 44·6	erf $croH100$ $c1$ 12
3.	cro H 100 K 5	$K5 \ cro{ m H}100$	$\frac{332}{1186}$ $\frac{20}{680}$	28·0 2·9	erf K5 cro H100 12
4.	$rac{cro\mathrm{H}105}{cy27}$	cy27 $cro H105$	$\frac{23}{672} \\ \frac{96}{534}$	3·4 18·0	erf cro H105 cy 12
5.	croH100 croH105	croH105 croH100		0·02 0·16	erf $croH100$ $croH105$ $I2$
6.	$\frac{cI^{-}7}{cI^{-}ts101}$	$\frac{cI^-ts101}{cI^-7}$	$\frac{26/1212}{0/1924}$	2·1 <0·05	$erfcI^{-}ts101cI^{-}712$

 $cro\rm H100$ and $cro\rm H105$ to the right of K5, which defines P22 O_R (Bronson & Levine, 1971; Poteete et~al.,~1980), and to the left of the cy region. These crosses also definitively order $cro\rm H100$ to the left of $cro\rm H105$ thus demonstrating that not all the cro mutations are identical.

(e) Frequency of lysogeny by P22 ero mutants

Measurements of the frequency of lysogeny by different P22 cro⁻ mutants after infection of a cro-non-permissive host (Table 4) show that they greatly over-

Table 4
Frequency of lysogeny of P22⁺ and P22 ero⁻ mutants in DB7000

\mathbf{Phage}	Multiplicity	Multiplicity of infection			
	0.1	10			
P22+	1.7	67			
P22 croH100	87	97			
$P22\ croH105$	100	87			
P22 croH116	85	87			
P22 croH124	68	93			

The cro-non-permissive (wild-type) host DB7000 was infected with phage at the indicated multiplicities. The frequency of lysogeny was determined as described in Materials and Methods. The numbers above indicate the percentage of infected cells that became lysogens.

lysogenize relative to wild-type P22 after low multiplicity infection. They also overlysogenize after high multiplicity infection although the difference is not as great since wild-type P22 also lysogenizes more often at high multiplicity.

(f) Dominance tests

Dominance tests show that the P22 cro⁻ mutants are recessive to wild-type P22 for both growth and high frequency of lysogeny.

(i) Low multiplicity dominance tests for phage growth

In order to determine the dominance or recessiveness of P22 cro⁻ mutants under conditions where the number of infecting phage is guaranteed to be one of each parent per cell, low multiplicity dominance tests for phage growth were done as described in Materials and Methods.

These results (Table 5) show that the P22 mutants croH100 and croH105 are recessive to wild-type P22 for growth under these conditions. The burst size in the $cro^- + P22^+$ infections, while reduced a few fold from the P22⁺ single infection, is over fiftyfold larger than the burst of cro^- infections alone. Also, in the mixed infection, approximately equal numbers of P22⁺ and P22 cro^- phage are produced. We conclude that the cro^- mutants are missing a diffusible product; lack of this product results in over-lysogenization after infection.

Table 5

Low multiplicity dominance and complementation tests

5^-am H312	8-amH202	Burst size
cro ⁺	croH100	209
croH100	cro+	244
cro ⁺ croH105	$cro ext{H105} \ cro^+$	83·3 117
croH100	croН105	1·6
croH105	croН100	2·8
cro ⁺	cro ⁺	755
croH100	croH100	2·4
croH105	croH105	4·8

cro alleles are listed by whether they were on the same genome with the $5^-amH312$ or the $8^-amH202$ allele, Infections were done in the cly-non-permissive host DB7000 at 37° C.

Co-infection by P22 croH100 and P22 croH105 yields a burst size typical of either mutant parent alone, demonstrating lack of complementation between these two cro^- mutations.

(ii) High multiplicity dominance tests for frequency of lysogeny

Since the P22 cro⁻ mutants lysogenize at a much greater frequency than wild-type P22, a second type of dominance test is possible, i.e. one that measures dominance of the ability to lysogenize at high frequency in a cro-permissive host. These experiments were done in a rif39 host where the frequencies of lysogeny of wild-type P22 and P22 cro⁻ mutants are significantly different from each other after a high multiplicity of infection.

These dominance test results (Table 6) confirm the results of the low multiplicity dominance tests: recessiveness of P22 croH100 to wild-type P22.

Table 6

High multiplicity dominance tests in DB7158 (rif39)

Phage	% Lysogeny
P22+ + P22 croH100	3.6
P22+	2.7
P22 croH100	19.6

The procedure is described in Materials and Methods. Single parent infections were done at a multiplicity equal to the total multiplicity in the co-infections.

(g) Demonstration of an anti-immunity function of P22

Demonstration of an anti-immunity function for P22 was done in a manner similar to that used for phage λ by Calef & Neubauer (1968) and Eisen *et al.* (1970). We constructed the P22 lysogens DB7621 and DB7639 (see Materials and

Methods), which are isogenic except for the cro alleles: the prophage in DB7621 is cro^+ and the prophage in DB7639 carries the croH100 allele. Both prophages contain a $c2^-ts$ mutation and amber mutations in genes 24 and 12 so that the lysogen will not die after thermal induction. The prophages are also int^- to prevent excision of the prophage and carry the Ap31pfr1 marker, which makes the prophages $sieA^-$ (which allows superinfecting P22 to inject their DNA; Susskind et al., 1974) and provides a convenient marker (amp^R) to score for their presence. Calef & Neubauer (1968) and Eisen et al. (1970) have shown for the analogous λcro^+ lysogen that after growth at high temperature and a shift to low temperature the lysogen did not regain immunity and furthermore directed all superinfecting phage into the lytic pathway of growth. The λcro^- lysogen was able to regain immunity.

The results of plating P22 on DB7621 and DB7639 grown under the same conditions (Table 7) demonstrate that P22 does have an anti-immunity function

Table 7
Plating of P22 on defective P22 lysogens

Phage	Host	Relevant prophage marker	Temp. at which host grown (°C)	Plating efficiency (relative to DB7621, 40.5°C)
P22 Ap31pfr1	DB7621 DB7621	cro+ cro+	30 40·5	<1.5 × 10 ⁻⁸
	DB7639 DB7639	croH100 croH100	30 40·5	$<1.5 \times 10^{-8}$ $<1.5 \times 10^{-8}$
P22 croH100 Ap31pfr1	DB7621 DB7621	$cro^+ \\ cro^+$	30 40·5	<8·3×10 ⁻⁹ 1·0
	DB7639 DB7639	$\begin{array}{c} cro H100 \\ cro H100 \end{array}$	30 40·5	<8·3×10 ⁻⁹ <8·3×10 ⁻⁹

Plating efficiencies are calculated by titering the tester phage (first column) on the desired host (second column) at either 35 or 40.5°C and dividing this titer by the titer measured on DB7621 at 40.5°C (permissive conditions). The prophages in the host all contain the $12^-amH342$, 24^-amS36 , $c2^-ts37$, int^-am137 and Ap31pfr1 markers. They differ only by their cro alleles.

and that this function is defective in the P22 croH100 mutant. After being grown at 405° C (a temperature non-permissive for the $c2^{-}ts30$ allele), and plated at 35° C (permissive for the $c2^{-}ts$ allele) the cro^{+} lysogen (DB7621) fails to regain immunity as shown by the plating of the P22 Ap31pfr1 (ant^{-}) strain. The lysogen remains immune when grown at 30° C and plated at 35° C. The plaques that form on this strain after it has been grown at the high temperature are clear, indicating that no lysogens are formed and that the strain has become anti-immune. Furthermore, the anti-immune host is also permissive for P22 cro^{-} mutants probably because it expresses cro function constitutively.

The cro^- lysogen (DB7639) is deficient in expressing the anti-immunity function; ther being grown at 40.5° C and plated at 35° C, this strain is immune, as evidenced the failure of P22 Ap31pfr1 to form plaques. These results further confirm that e P22 cro^- mutations define a gene similar to the cro gene of phage λ .

(h) The pattern of P22 protein synthesis in P22 wild-type and P22 cro-infected cells

The rates of synthesis of P22 proteins in wild-type P22 and P22 croH100 infections were analyzed by pulse-labeling infected cells at various times after infection and then examining the labeled products on sodium dodecyl sulfate/polyacrylamide gels. Results of those experiments (Figs 3 and 4) demonstrate: first, that wild-type P22 synthesizes c2-repressor at a high rate for a short time after infection and then reduces the rate of synthesis to a low level; second, that P22 croH100 has the same initial kinetics of c2 synthesis as wild-type P22 but continues to synthesize repressor at a high rate until a much later time after infection; third, that at least one other P22 early protein, the product of the erf gene, is also synthesized at a higher rate later in infection in the P22 croH100 infection than in the P22 wild-type infection; and fourth, that the P22 croH100 infection results in a lower rate of synthesis of the major capsid protein (gene 5) product than the wild-type P22 infection, indicating that expression of the P22 late genes is defective in the P22 cro— infection.

These results are all consistent with the idea that the P22 cro function normally serves to turn down expression of P22 early gene expression. This deficiency in turn-off of early gene expression in the P22 cro $^-$ infection is similar to the Tofphenotype observed in a λ cro $^-$ infection (Radding, 1964; Eisen et al., 1966; Pero, 1971). Harvey et al. (1979) also showed that this same P22 mutant overproduces c2-repressor.

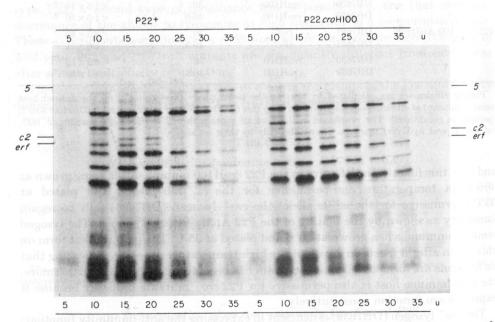


Fig. 3. Rates of protein synthesis after infection by wild-type P22 and P22 croH100. Samples of infected cells were pulse-labeled with [35S]methionine and run on sodium dodecyl sulfate/polyacrylamide gels as described in Materials and Methods. Lanes are labeled with the time the 1-min pulses were begun. Lanes labeled u are uninfected samples.

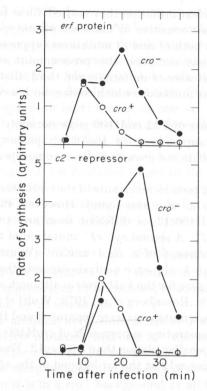


Fig. 4. Rates of synthesis of erf protein and c2-repressor after infection by wild-type P22 and P22 croH100. Infections and pulse-labelings were performed as described in Materials and Methods. The curves indicate the relative rates of synthesis of c2-repressor and erf protein. Autoradiograms were traced and the areas were normalized to the amount of trichloroacetic acid-precipitable radioactivity in each gel slot.

(i) Partial suppression of a 24-am mutation by the croH100 mutation

Franklin (1971) and Court & Campbell (1972) noted that λ cro mutations can often suppress λ N^- mutations (Fed phenotype). We tested for this phenotype with P22 cro $^-$ mutants and found that the croH100 mutation weakly suppresses a P22 24 $^-$ am mutation. The relative efficiency of plating (data not shown) of a P22 croH100 24 $^-$ amS36 double mutant is approximately 0·2 on an su $^-$ host with respect to plating on an su $^+$ host. For the P22 24 $^-$ amS36 single mutant, the relative efficiency of plating is less than 10^{-6} . Since both phage strains used here carry the c2 $^-$ ts30 mutation, which suppresses the growth defect of the croH100 mutation, these strains grow on cly-non-permissive hosts.

(j) Isolation and characterization of pseudo-revertants

Among revertants of P22 cro⁻ phages, there is a high frequency of clear-plaque pseudo-revertants. Clear pseudo-revertants of the croH100 mutant were selected, purified and tested by spot complementation tests (as described in Materials and

Methods) for the type of clear mutation they carried. Clear pseudo-revertants were also tested for temperature-sensitive or nonsense phenotypes. The results of this analysis show: first, that both cI and c2 mutations suppress the Cro $^-$ phenotype; second, that cI mutations comprise the predominant class of clear pseudo-revertants (54 of 67 tested were cI mutants); and third, that one pseudo-revertant defines a new class of clear mutation, which confers both a cy^- and cI^- phenotype on the phage.

The c1 pseudo-revertants of P22 croH100 grow normally on cly-non-permissive hosts, indicating total suppression of the Cro $^-$ phenotype. The c2 pseudo-revertants of P22 croH100 do not grow as well on cro-non-permissive hosts, making smaller plaques.

In addition to c1 and c2 pseudo-revertants of the croH100 mutant, one cy pseudo-revertant, P22 croH100r12, was also found. However, the cy12 mutation, the cy mutation in P22 croH100r12, is different from any previously identified in P22 or in λ as it is also $c1^-$. A second $cy^ c1^-$ mutation of this type has also been isolated as a pseudo-revertant of a clyA mutant (Winston & Botstein, 1981, accompanying paper). For λ , sequence analysis suggests that some λ cy mutations are within the structural gene for the λ cII protein although all λ cy mutants are still cII^+ (Schwarz et al., 1978; Rosenberg et al., 1978; Wulff et al., 1980).

For croH100r12, the two mutations were separated and then the double mutant was reconstructed, demonstrating suppression of croH100. The P22 croH100cy12 double mutant makes a smaller plaque than cro⁺ cy12. Fine structure mapping of the P22 cy c1 region places cy12 at the far left end of the c1 gene (Winston, 1980).

(k) Construction and analysis of ero-clear double mutants

Construction and analysis of cro-clear double mutants confirmed and extended what was inferred from the isolation and analysis of the cro^- pseudo-revertants. First, c1 mutations suppress P22 cro^- mutations; second, a c1 amber mutation suppresses croH100 unless the c1 amber mutation is well suppressed, in which case the Cro^- phenotype returns; third, c2 missense (including temperature-sensitive) mutations suppress cro^- mutations; and fourth, a c2 amber mutation suppresses croH100, but the suppression is temperature-sensitive.

(i) Construction and analysis of ero el double mutants

To construct a P22 $cro^ c1^-ts$ double mutant, croH100 was crossed with $c1^-ts2$ and recombinants that would make a more turbid plaque than the $c1^-ts2$ parent at 37°C were found at low frequency. These recombinants made turbid plaques at 37°C and clear plaques at 40·5°C. The $c1^-ts2$ parent makes clear plaques at both temperatures. When the presumed P22 croH100 $c1^-ts2$ double mutant was crossed by wild-type P22, both single mutations could be recovered, thereby confirming the genotype. These results confirm that a c1 mutation will suppress a P22 cro^- mutation.

The suppression of croH100 by cI mutations is not allele specific for the particular cI mutation. P22 $cro^ cI^-ts$ double mutants were constructed using two different P22 cro^- mutations (croH100 and croH105) and two other cI^-ts

mutations, cI^-ts101 and cI^-ts97 . In every case, the double-mutant genotype was confirmed by crossing the strains back to $P22^+$ and re-isolating the single parental mutations. The fact that every one of these double mutants is able to grow on a *cly*-non-permissive host even at low temperature demonstrates that a wild-type level of cI activity is crucial for the Cro^- phenotype of non-growth on a wild-type host.

For two P22 croH100 cI-amber double mutants, the Cro $^-$ phenotype is restored on a particular amber suppressor host; that is, on one su^+ host (supF), the cI^- am mutation is suppressed well enough that the cI-dependent Cro $^-$ phenotype is manifested. For two other P22 croH100 cI^- am double mutants, this is not the case; rather, the double mutants grow on all of the su^+ hosts, plating clear on some and turbid on others. The four cI^- am mutations used in these experiments were all isolated as pseudo-revertants of either croH100 or a clyA mutant, clyH109 (Winston & Botstein, 1981, accompanying paper). As for cI^- ts mutations, then, a cI^- am mutation is able to suppress a P22 cro^- mutation.

(ii) Construction and analysis of P22 cro⁻ c2⁻ double mutants

Construction and analysis of P22 $cro^ c2^-$ double mutants demonstrates that cro^- mutations can be suppressed by c2 mutations; however, the suppression is not so efficient as suppression by c1 mutations.

P22 $cro^ c2^-ts$ double mutants were constructed as described in Materials and Methods using the croH100 mutation and the $c2^-ts30$ and $c2^-ts29$ alleles. The croH100 mutation affects the $c2^-ts$ plaque morphologies in a manner resembling its effect on the $c1^-ts$ plaque morphologies; the presence of a cro^- mutation makes the plaque more turbid than it is in a cro^+ background at all temperatures tested.

The P22 croH100 $c2^-amO8$ double mutant has a temperature-sensitive phenotype, which is dependent upon the suppressor strain on which it is grown. As can be seen from the results in Table 8, on su^- and supF, this phage is quite temperature-sensitive. On these two hosts the $c2^-amO8$ mutation, judging by the plaque morphology, is unsuppressed and well-suppressed, respectively. On the supE host, where the $c2^-amO8$ mutation is suppressed to an intermediate level, this phage shows only slight temperature sensitivity. These results suggest that the quantity or quality of the $c2^-$ made is important in the temperature-sensitive

Table 8
Growth of P22 croH100 c2⁻amO8 on different hosts

		Efficiency of	of plating at:
Host	Relevant genotype	30°C	40·5°C
DB7158	rif39	0.4	6.2×10^{-7}
DB7000	su^{\pm}	1.0	3.2×10^{-4}
DB7155	supE	1.6	0.4
DB7156	supF	0.1	1.6×10^{-6}

Phage dilutions were plated on the above hosts at 30 and 40-5°C. All strains were grown at 37°C. Under the same conditions the P22 $croH100\ c2^-ts$ mutants grew at both temperatures.

phenotype. The non-growth at high temperature has not been investigated further but is reminiscent of the λ Tro phenotype (Eisen et al., 1975; Georgiou et al., 1979).

(1) Isolation and characterization of new cly-permissive hosts

After insertion mutagenesis of the wild-type Salmonella strain DB21 with the translocatable tetracycline resistance element, Tn10, approximately 30,000 colonies were tested for sensitivity to clyN3 by replica-plating onto plates seeded with this cly mutant and looking for "nibbled" colonies (Susskind $et\ al.,\ 1971$). Three clyN3-sensitive mutants were found and are the strains pclA, pclB and pclC (pcl for permissive for cly). These three hosts are permissive for lytic growth of all of the $P22\ cro^-$ mutants tested.

These three strains have been tested for several characteristics and the following is known about them: they are cya^+ and crp^+ , they are prototrophic and they are not u.v.-sensitive. Preliminary Hfr crosses (not shown) indicate that the pclA, pclB and pclC mutations map in different locations. The efficiency of plating of four P22 cro^- mutants on the set of $Salmonella\ cly$ -permissive hosts is shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Plating efficiency of P22 cro⁻ mutants on permissive and non-permissive hosts

P22 cro ⁻ mutant				Host		
	rif39	cya408	pclA	pclB	pclC	Non-permissive
P22 croH100	1.0	1.4	1.2	0.2	1:3	3.1×10^{-4}
P22 croH105	1.0	1.0	0.7	0.4	3.4	1.4×10^{-4}
P22 croH116	1.0	0.9	1.2	0.4	1.8	5.6×10^{-4}
P22 croH124	1.0	1.5	1.7	0.1	3.9	8.6×10^{-5}

The efficiencies of plating were normalized to the titer on the rif39 host DB7158. Platings were all done at 37° C.

These hosts are all significantly more permissive for the P22 cro^- mutants than the parent strain, DB21. Additionally, wild-type P22 makes a clearer plaque on all of the cly-permissive hosts so far identified, although the degree of clarity differs among the different hosts. Grodzicker et~al.~(1972) showed that an $E.~coli~cya^-$ host is more permissive for a $\lambda~cro^-$ mutant than a cya^+ host.

We also tested the plating of P22 croH100 on the set of permissive hosts at a range of temperatures and found this mutant to be quite temperature-sensitive for growth on one host (rif39 at 40·5°C), to have an intermediate temperature-sensitive phenotype on two hosts (pclA and pclB) and to not be temperature-sensitive on two other hosts (pclC and cya-408). These results suggest that different host loci are affected among the different cro-permissive hosts and that they may affect phage growth in different ways. However, they seem to affect all phage with the Cly phenotype in the same general way, i.e. by allowing lytic growth.

4. Discussion

The experiments presented here define the P22 cro gene and also demonstrate that certain mutant Salmonella hosts are able to suppress the Cro^- phenotype in that they allow P22 cro^- mutants to grow lytically.

(a) Identification of the P22 cro gene

The P22 cro gene has been identified by an ensemble of several results: (1) demonstration of an anti-immunity state in P22 $c2^-ts$ cro^+ lysogens; (2) demonstration that the P22 cro^- mutants are defective in the anti-immunity function as well as in turning off at least some P22 early gene expression; (3) demonstrating that these mutations map in a region between the P22 O_R and cy regions; (4) demonstration that the P22 cro^- mutations are recessive; and (5) demonstration that a P22 cro^- mutation can weakly suppress a P22 24^-am mutation, a phenotype that is analogous to the Fed phenotype of λcro^- mutants (Franklin, 1971; Court & Campbell, 1972).

The simplest interpretation of these results is that the P22 cro gene codes for a protein that acts as the $\lambda \, cro$ protein does, i.e. to repress early gene expression at the transcriptional level by binding to the operators, $O_{\rm R}$ and $O_{\rm L}$. In a P22 cro^- infection, then, early gene expression is not turned off and cI protein continues to be made, resulting in greater c2-repressor synthesis and a greater frequency of lysogenization. This interpretation is based on the postulate that the P22 Cro^- phenotype is mediated by overproduction of the P22 cI protein. More direct evidence that the P22 cro protein binds to $O_{\rm R}$ and $O_{\rm L}$ to repress transcription must await purification of the P22 cro protein and demonstration of its function $in \, vitro$.

The virtual total suppression of P22 cro^- mutations by cI mutations both supports the interpretation that the overproduction of cI protein causes the Crophenotypes and strengthens the analogy to $\lambda \, cro^-$ mutations that are suppressed by mutations in the analogous $\lambda \, cII$ gene (Reichardt, 1975a).

The suppression of P22 cro^- mutations by c2 mutations is not straightforward. Both $c2^-ts$ alleles used suppress the croH100 mutation. However, suppression of croH100 by the $c2^-amO8$ mutation is temperature-sensitive. For phage λ , a λ cro27 cI^-ts857 double mutant does not grow at 42° C (Tro phenotype; Eisen et al., 1975), presumably because of overproduction of some λ gene products in the absence of any repression by either cI or cro. For the P22 $c2^-amO8$ croH100 double mutant a similar argument can be made if the mutant cro protein made in a P22 $c2^-amO8$ croH100 infection does not lose all activity until 40.5° C. This predicts that this infection should also have the other Tro phenotypes (Eisen et al., 1975; Georgiou et al., 1979).

Unlike λ cro^- mutations, which are suppressed by λ cIII mutations, indirect evidence suggests that P22 c3 mutations do not suppress P22 cro^- mutations. Although a P22 $cro^ c3^-$ double mutant has not been constructed, no c3 mutations were obtained as pseudo-revertants of cro^- mutations. In conjunction with the result that on the growth media generally used for P22 a P22 c3 mutant makes a turbid plaque (Levine, 1957) and lysogenizes only two to threefold less well than wild-type P22 (Winston & Botstein, unpublished), this result probably reflects the

less than critical role of the P22 c3 protein in establishment of lysogeny under these conditions.

(b) The role of host functions in establishment of lysogeny

The role of bacterial host functions in regulating establishment of lysogeny after P22 or λ infection is still largely obscure. Results of others (Hong et al., 1971) and those presented here have indicated that at least six different Salmonella loci (cya, crp, rif, pclA, pclB and pclC) can be altered to lower the frequency of lysogenization by wild-type P22 and by P22 cly mutants (which include P22 cro $^-$ mutants). The steps at which these host mutations act to affect establishment are unknown. The fact that some of the host mutations could have multiple effects also makes any interpretation of their effect more difficult. For example, the cly-permissive Salmonella rif39 mutation could be affecting a step as direct as initiation of transcription at the P22 $p_{\rm RE}$ promoter or a factor as indirect as altering the host physiology in a general way resulting in lower establishment of lysogeny.

E. coli hft mutants, which allow efficient establishment of lysogeny by a λ cIII mutant (Belfort & Wulff, 1971,1974), are the best-characterized host mutants that affect establishment of lysogeny. Epp (1978) has shown that the λ cII protein is more stable after infection of an E. coli hft host. Furthermore, Belfort & Wulff (1974) have shown that a λ cIII mutant can establish lysogeny at normal frequencies in an E. coli cya hft double mutant. From these results and in conjunction with the results that the λ can1 mutation (which stabilizes the λ cII protein) suppresses a λ cIII mutation (Jones & Herskowitz, 1978; Epp, 1978), and that the λ cIII protein appears to stabilize the λ cII protein, Jones & Herskowitz (1978) and Epp (1978) have put forth the model that the E. coli hft product is at least partially responsible for the instability of the cII protein and that cyclic AMP and the crp protein positively regulate a protein, "Z", which is a negative regulator of hft. By this model, a mutation that lowers or abolishes Z function or expression would be expected to over-produce hft protein, lower λ cII stability, and therefore lower the frequency of establishment of lysogeny.

Assuming that there is an hfl-like function in Salmonella and knowing that Salmonella cya and crp mutations affect P22 lysogeny as E. coli cya and crp mutations affect λ lysogeny, it is logical to hypothesize that the Salmonella pcl mutations, isolated as permissive hosts for P22 cly mutants, may affect a Salmonella Z function. One could postulate that there are several Z functions to account for the different loci that affect establishment of lysogeny by λ and P22.

While it is attractive to think that all host mutations affecting establishment of lysogeny mediate their effect by affecting activity of the P22 c1 protein or the λ cII protein, there is little evidence to support this belief. Host mutations that affect expression of the cro gene or stability of the cro-protein for either λ or P22 would also affect establishment of lysogeny. Possible examples of such host mutants are $E.\ coli\ ER437$ (Oppenheim $et\ al.$, 1974) and $Salmonella\ typhimurium\ pox1$ (Tokuno & Gough, 1975).

We thank Carl Falco and Doug Koshland for many helpful discussions, Paula Grisafi for help in isolating some of the P22 mutants, and Russ Maurer for critical reading of the

manuscript. We also thank Pamela Oppenheimer for help in preparing this manuscript. This work was supported by grants to D.B. from the National Institutes of Health (GM18973 and GM21253). F.W. was supported by a training grant to the Department of Biology from the National Institutes of Health (GM07287).

REFERENCES

Belfort, M. & Wulff, D. L. (1971). In *The Bacteriophage Lambda* (Hershey, A. D., ed.), pp. 739-742, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.

Belfort, M. & Wulff, D. (1974). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 71, 779-782.

Bezdek, M. & Amati, P. (1968). Virology, 36, 701-703.

Botstein, D. (1968). J. Mol. Biol. 34, 621-641.

Botstein, D. & Herskowitz, I. (1974). Nature (London), 251, 584-589.

Botstein, D., Lew, K. K., Jarvik, V. & Swanson, C. A. Jr (1975). J. Mol. Biol. 91, 439-462.

Botstein, D. & Matz, M. J. (1970). J. Mol. Biol. 54, 417-440.

Bronson, M. J. & Levine, M. (1971). J. Virol. 7, 559-568.

Calef, E. & Neubauer, Z. (1968). Cold Spring Harbor Symp. Quant. Biol. 33, 765-767.

Calef, E., Avitabile, A., del Giudice, L., Marchelli, C., Menna, T., Neubauer, Z. & Soller, A. (1971). In *The Bacteriophage Lambda* (Hershey, A. D., ed.), pp. 609-620, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, New York.

Chan, R. K. & Botstein, D. (1972). Virology, 49, 257-267.

Court, D. & Campbell, A. (1972). J. Virol. 9, 938-945.

Echols, H., Green, L., Oppenheim, A. B., Oppenheim, A. & Honigman, A. (1973). J. Mol. Biol. 80, 203-216.

Eisen, H., Fuerst, C. A., Siminovitch, L., Thomas, R., Lambert, L., Pereira da Silva, L. & Jacob, F. (1966). Virology, 30, 224-241.

Eisen, H., Brachet, P., Pereira da Silva, L. & Jacob, F. (1970). *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci.*, U.S.A. **66**, 855–862.

Eisen, H., Georgiou, M., Georgopoulos, C. P., Selzer, S., Gussin, G. & Herskowitz, I. (1975).
Virology, 68, 266–269.

Epp. C. (1978). Ph.D. dissertation, University of Toronto.

Franklin, N. C. (1971). In *The Bacteriophage Lambda* (Hershey, A. D., ed.), pp. 621-638, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, New York.

Gemski, P. Jr, Baron, L. S. & Yamamoto, N. (1972). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 69, 3110-3114.

Georgiou, M., Georgopoulos, C. P. & Eisen, H. (1979). Virology, 94, 38-54.

Gough, M. & Levine, M. (1968). Genetics, 58, 161-169.

Gough, M. & Tokuno, S.-I. (1975). Mol. Gen. Genet. 138, 71-79.

Grodzicker, T., Arditti, R. R. & Eisen, H. (1972). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 69, 366-370.

Hall, D. H. & Tessman, I. (1966). Virology, 29, 339-345.

Harvey, A. M., Heil, J. & Prell, H. H. (1979). Mol. Gen. Genet. 167, 337-339.

Heinemann, S. & Spiegelman, W. (1970). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 67, 1122-1129.

Hilliker, S. & Botstein, D. (1975). Virology, 68, 510-524.

Hilliker, S. & Botstein, D. (1976). J. Mol. Biol. 106, 537-566.

Hilliker, S., Adhya, S. & Gottesman, M. (1978). Virology, 86, 37-47.

Hong, J.-S., Smith, G. R. & Ames, B. N. (1971). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 68, 2258-2262.

Hopkins, N. & Ptashne, M. (1971). In The Bacteriophage λ (Hershey, A. D., ed.), pp. 571-574, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, New York.

Israel, V. (1967). Virology, 33, 317-322.

Johnson, A., Meyer, B. J. & Ptashne, M. (1978). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 75, 1783-1787.

Jones, M. O. & Herskowitz, I. (1978). Virology, 88, 199-212.

Jones, M. O., Fischer, R., Herskowitz, I. & Echols, H. (1979). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 76, 150-154.

Kaiser, A. D. (1957). Virology, 3, 42-61.

Kleckner, N., Chan, R. K., Tye, B. K. & Botstein, D. (1975). J. Mol. Biol. 97, 561-575.

Kourilsky, P., Marcaud, L., Sheldrick, P., Luzzati, D. & Gros, F. (1968). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 61, 1013-1020.

Laemmli, U. K. (1970). Nature (London), 227, 680-685.

Laskey, R. A. & Mills, A. D. (1975). Eur. J. Biochem. 56, 335-341.

Levine, M. (1957). Virology, 3, 22-41.

Levine, M. & Curtiss, R. (1961). Genetics, 46, 1573-1580.

Levine, M., Truesdell, S., Ramakrishnan, T. & Bronson, M. J. (1975). J. Mol. Biol. 91, 421–438.

Luria, S. E. & Delbruck, M. (1943). Genetics, 28, 491-511.

Meyer, B. J., Maurer, R. & Ptashne, M. (1980). J. Mol. Biol. 139, 163-194.

Oppenheim, A., Honigman, A. & Oppenheim, A. B. (1974). Virology, 61, 1-10.

Pero, J. (1971). In *The Bacteriophage Lambda* (Hershey, A. D., ed.), pp. 599-608, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, New York.

Poteete, A. R., Ptashne, M., Ballivet, M. & Eisen, H. (1980). J. Mol. Biol. 137, 81-91.

Radding, C. M. (1964). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 52, 965-972.

Reichardt, L. (1975a), J. Mol. Biol. 93, 267-288.

Reichardt, L. (1975b). J. Mol. Biol. 93, 289-309.

Reichardt, L. & Kaiser, A. D. (1971). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 68, 2185-2189.

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

Roberts, J. W., Roberts, C. W., Hilliker, S. & Botstein, D. (1976). In RNA Polymerase (Losick, R. & Chamberlin, M., eds), pp. 707-718, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, New York.

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

Schmeissner, U., Court, D., Shimatake, H. & Rosenberg, M. (1980). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 77, 3191-3195.

Schwarz, E., Scherer, G., Hobom, G. & Kossel, H. (1978). Nature (London), 272, 410-414. Signer, E. & Weil, J. (1968). J. Mol. Biol. 34, 261-271.

Skalka, A. & Hanson, P. (1972). J. Virol. 9, 583-593.

Smith, H. O. & Levine, M. (1964). Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci., U.S.A. 52, 356-363.

Studier, F. W. (1973). J. Mol. Biol. 91, 165-174.

Susskind, M. M., Botstein, D. & Wright, A. (1974). Virology, 62, 350-366.

Susskind, M. M., Wright, A. & Botstein, D. (1971). Virology, 45, 638-652.

Tokuno, S. & Gough, M. (1975). J. Virol. 16, 1184-1190.

Tokuno, S. & Gough, M. (1976). Mol. Gen. Genet. 144, 199-204.

Weinstock, G., Susskind, M. M. & Botstein, D. (1979). Genetics, 92, 685-710.

Wing, J. P., Levine, M. & Smith, H. D. (1968), J. Bacteriol. 95, 1828–1834.

Winston, F. (1980). Ph.D. dissertation, Mass. Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA.

Winston, F. & Botstein, D. (1981). J. Mol. Biol. 152, 233-245.

Winston, F., Botstein, D. & Miller, J. H. (1979). J. Bacteriol. 137, 433-439.

Wulff, D. L., Beher, M., Izumi, S., Beck, J., Mahoney, M., Shimatake, H., Brady, C., Court, D. & Rosenberg, M. (1980). J. Mol. Biol. 138, 209-230.

Yen, K-M. & Gussin, G. N. (1973). Virology, 56, 300-312.

Edited by M. Gottesman