Nucleotide Sequence of the Heat Shock Regulatory Gene of E. coli Suggests Its Protein Product May Be a Transcription Factor

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Summary

We have sequenced a cloned segment of E. coli chromosomal DNA that includes the heat shock requlatory gene htpR. This segment contains an 852 nucleotide open reading frame bounded by transcriptional and translational signals. Both in vivo and in vitro the cloned segment produces a single protein that migrates in gels with the cellular protein (F33.4) implicated as the htpR product. Properties of a cloned fragment of the coding sequence truncated at the promoter-distal end are consistent with this assignment. The htpR gene product appears homologous to the sigma factor of RNA polymerase, and the two proteins are predicted to have similar secondary structure. In addition, two regions of the predicted htpR product resemble protein-DNA contact points conserved in known DNA-binding proteins.

Introduction

The response of Escherichia coli to a shift-up in growth temperature resembles in many respects the response of other microbes and of animal and plant cells (reviewed by Schlesinger et al., 1982). Almost immediately after an elevation in temperature there is an accelerated synthesis of more than a dozen polypeptides. The higher the temperature, the more pronounced is the preferential synthesis of these heat shock proteins, and after 1 hr of incubation at 50°C they become virtually the only translational products. How this response is brought about is not fully understood in any organism, but in E. coli it clearly depends on the protein product of a gene, htpR (Neidhardt and VanBogelen, 1981) or hin (Yamamori and Yura, 1982), which exerts, overall, a positive control on the unlinked operons of the heat shock regulon.

This bacterial regulatory gene has been identified and cloned (Neidhardt et al., 1983). In minicells and maxicells the cloned gene on plasmid pFN97 produces a protein, which by its migration on two-dimensional polyacrylamide gels appears to be identical in size (33 kd) and isoelectric point with a protein, F33.4, normally present in E. coli but deficient in an htpR mutant (Neidhardt et al., 1983). We

present evidence for the sequence of the coding region of the *htpR* gene, its entire termination region, and a 193 nucleotide segment upstream of the translational initiation codon. In addition, we show that this DNA directs the synthesis of F33.4 in an in vitro transcription–translation system. The predicted sequence of this polypeptide resembles the predicted sequence for a portion of the E. coli sigma subunit of RNA polymerase, and two segments show similarity to protein–DNA contact points conserved in known DNA-binding proteins. These findings are consistent with the idea that the HtpR protein activates heat shock genes, possibly by interacting both with DNA and with RNA polymerase or sigma factor.

Results

Choice of DNA and Sequencing Strategy

A partial restriction map of the E. coli chromosomal region inserted in two plasmids used for sequencing studies is shown in Figure 1. Plasmid pFN82 does not complement the htpR mutation in strain K165, but does yield wild-type recombinants in a recA+ background; it produces no detectable insert-specific proteins in minicells or maxicells. The second plasmid, pFN97, readily complements the htpR mutation in a recA background, and it directs the synthesis of a protein indistinguishable from the normal cellular protein F33.4, the postulated product of the htpR gene. From these and other results, and from the size of F33.4 (approximately 33 kd), it had been concluded (Neidhardt et al., 1983) that the htpR gene is located wholely within the pFN97 insert at the end in common with the insert of pFN82, and that the htpR gene is transcribed in the direction from the Hind III site to the Pvu II sites (from left to right as shown in Figure 1). These plasmids were therefore used to prepare DNA restriction fragments for sequencing, using the strategy shown in Figure 1. A third plasmid, pFN92, contains all but the 15 amino acid codons of htpR located after the Pvu II site (Figures 1 and 4) and was used to verify the htpR reading frame.

Nucleotide Sequence of htpR

We determined the DNA sequence of an 1125 base pair region containing the *htpR* gene (Figure 2). This region contained a single open reading frame of sufficient length to encode the *htpR* gene product. The 852 base pairs of this reading frame encode a protein of 284 amino acid residues, beginning 126 base pairs after the Hind III site. The molecular weight (32,381) and charge (nearly equal numbers of acidic and basic residues) are consistent with the observed mobility of F33.4 in gels (Neidhardt et al., 1983). The amino acid composition predicted by the DNA sequence is summarized in Table 1.

DNA Sequences Flanking the htpR Gene

Twelve base pairs upstream of the presumed ATG start codon of this open reading frame is the sequence GGAGG. This sequence should provide a good ribosome binding site for the *htpR* gene by the criteria of Shine and

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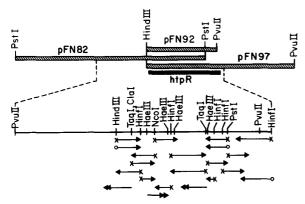


Figure 1. Sequencing Strategy for the E. coli K12 htpR Gene

The upper part of the figure shows the DNA cloned into plasmids used for sequencing, and indicates the location of the *htpR* gene. Plasmid pFN97 was derived from pOX15 as described in Neidhardt et al. (1983), and both plasmids were the source of DNA for sequencing this region.

The lower part of the figure shows the restriction sites used in sequencing. The length and direction of sequencing of each fragment are shown by the arrows. X indicates that the 5' end was labeled; O indicates the 3' end was labeled in the Maxam–Gilbert procedure. Double-headed arrows indicate that the sequencing was done by dideoxyribonucleotide triphosphate chain termination.

Dalgarno (1974). In addition, at least seven recognizable promoter-like sequences exist in the 200 base pairs preceding the *htpR* gene. The -35 regions for these possible promoters begin 187, 150, 136, 127, 122, 116, and 45 base pairs preceding the start codon and have spacings between the -35 and -10 regions of 19, 17, 21, 18, 18, 17, and 16 base pairs, respectively (Figure 2). One of these might be the sole transcription initiation signal in vivo; alternatively, one or more from a set of functional promoters might be utilized under different growth conditions. Determination of the in vivo transcription initiation site(s) under different growth conditions should clarify this issue.

The flanking sequence from -58 to -24 upstream of the htpR gene contains a region of dyad symmetry that, if transcribed, would produce a potential RNA hairpin with a predicted stability of -15.6 kcal/mole (Figure 2). In addition, nucleotides -69 to -62 constitute an octanucleotide "boxA" sequence (consensus: C/TGCTCTT(T)A). This sequence has been implicated in the activity of N as an antiterminator in lambda (Friedman and Gottesman, 1983) and may be the site of action of the nusA gene product. This sequence is found just upstream of the phage lambda nutL, nutR, gut, phage 21nutR, and phage P22nutL regions, the E. coli trp t terminator and rrnB leader region, both of which are NusA-dependent termination sites, as well as in the conserved region of the rrnA, rrnD, rrnE, and rrnX operons (Friedman and Gottesman, 1983). The "boxA" sequence usually precedes a potential RNA hairpin in an arrangement similar to that observed for htpR (Figure 2). Transcription initiation at six of the seven potential promoters would produce an htpR RNA leader region that would include both the "boxA" sequence and the RNA hairpin. Whether or not these structures are important for transcriptional regulation of htpR is not known.

A second "boxA" sequence appears four nucleotides after the TAA translational stop codon at the end of the gene. It is followed closely by a sequence resembling a traditional transcription termination signal—a potential GCrich hairpin of predicted stability—16.7 kcal/mole, followed by a run of 6 AT base pairs. Termination of transcription by RNA polymerase at this site was observed during in vitro transcription of DNA restriction fragments containing this region (data not shown). Approximately 80 nucleotides from this termination site is the—35 region of the promoter for *livJ*, the gene for the leucine, isoleucine, valine binding protein (a periplasmic component of the E. coli high-affinity branched chain amino acid transport system; R. Landick and D. Oxender, unpublished data).

Evidence for the Assignment of the htpR Reading Frame

To verify the reading frame assignment shown in Figure 2 we examined the proteins produced in a standard Zubay transcription-translation system (Zubay et al., 1970) programmed with pFN92 or pFN97. Nucleotides 805-810 of the htpR gene constitute a Pvu II site that is the end of the inserted fragment of pFN92 (Figure 1 and 2). This Pvu II cut deletes the livJ fragment, the htpR termination region, and the 15 C-terminal amino acid codons of the htpR gene. In pFN92, this Pvu II cut is the site of splicing into the pBR322 Pvu II site. The nucleotide sequence of pFN92 in the region surrounding this fusion is shown in Figure 3. If the reading frame assignment shown in Figure 2 is correct, translation of the pFN92 sequence is terminated at a stop signal six codons into the pBR322 sequence, resulting in a fusion protein 9 amino acids shorter than the wild-type HtpR coded by pFN97. If either of the other two reading frames was correct, pFN92 would code for a fusion protein longer than the wild-type HtpR. As shown in Figure 4, in vitro transcription-translation of pFN92 produced a smaller protein product than did pFN97. Analysis by two-dimensional gel electrophoresis (not shown) demonstrated that the product of pFN97 coincided with the previously established location of the cellular protein F33.4 (Neidhardt et al., 1983). These results are consistent with the previous finding that pFN92 and pFN97 direct the synthesis in minicells and maxicells of two proteins that, as judged by two-dimensional gel electrophoresis, differ in size by approximately 1 kd (Neidhardt et al., 1983). The smaller protein coded by pFN92 is biologically inactive. These results provide strong evidence that the htpR reading frame shown in Figure 2 is correct.

Codon preference analysis (Gribskov et al., 1984) revealed that the assigned reading frame utilizes preferred codons, the others do not (analysis not shown).

On these bases we believe the protein sequence shown in Figure 2 is correct.

Comparison of Nucleotide Sequence of htpR and rpoD

Although the htpR gene product is only 45% the size of the sigma subunit of RNA polymerase (Burton et al., 1981),

-119

CCCCGTTGTCTCGTTCCCGGTATTTCATCTCTATGTCACATTTTGTGCGTAATTTATTCACAAGCTTGCATTGA

		-40			
ACTTGTGGATAAAATCACGGTCTGATAAAACAGTGAATG	ATAACCTCGT <u>TGCTCTTA</u> AC	CTCTGGCACAGTTGTTGCTA			
	box A	hairpin			
	1	30			
CCACTGAAGCGCCAGAAGATATCGATTGGGAGGATTTGG					
S.D.	met Ala Asp Lys Met	t Gln Ser Leu Ala Leu 90			
GCC CCA GTT GGA GGC CTA GAT TCC TAC ATC	. CCC CC3 CCT 33C CCC				
Ala Pro Val Gly Gly Leu Asp Ser Tyr Ile					
		150			
GCT GAC GAG GAG CGG GCG CTG GCT GAA AAG	CTG CAT TAC CAT GGO	GAT CTG GAA GCA GCT			
Ala Asp Glu Glu Arg Ala Leu Ala Glu Lys	Leu His Tyr His Gly	Asp Leu Glu Ala Ala			
		210			
AAA ACG CTG ATC CTG TCT CAC CTG CGG TTT					
Lys Thr Leu Ile Leu Ser His Leu Arg Phe	val Val His Ile Ala				
MIM 000 0M0 003 030 000 03M MM0 3MM 030		270			
TAT GGC CTG CCA CAG GCG GAT TTG ATT CAG					
Tyr Gly Leu Pro Gln Ala Asp Leu Ile Gln	Segment A	y Leu Met Lys Ala Val			
CGC CGT TTC AAC CCG GAA GTG GGT GTG CGC					
Arg Arg Phe Asn Pro Glu Val Gly Val Arg					
,,	, ,	390			
GCA GAG ATC CAC GAA TAC GTT CTG CGT AAC	TGG CGT ATC GTC AAA				
Ala Glu Ile His Glu Tyr Val Leu Arg Asn	Trp Arg Ile Val Lys	Val Ala The Thr Lys			
		450			
GCG CAG CGC AAA CTG TTC TTC AAC CTG CGT					
Ala Gln Arg Lys Leu Phe Phe Asn Leu Arg	Lys Thr Lys Gln Arc				
		510			
CAG GAT GAA GTC GAA ATG GTG GCC CGT GAA		_			
Gln Asp Glu Val Glu Met Val Ala Arg Glu	gment B	570			
ATG GAA TCA CGT ATG GCG GCA CAG GAC ATG	₹				
Met Glu Ser Arg Met Ala Ala Gln Asp Met					
	•	630			
GAC AGC CAG CCG ATG GCT CCG GTG CTC TAT	CTG CAG GAT AAA TCA	A TCT AAC TTT GCC GAC			
Asp Ser Gln Pro Met Ala Pro Val Leu Tyr	Leu Gln Asp Lys Ser	Ser Asn Phe Ala Asp			
		690			
GGC ATT GAA GAT GAT AAC TGG GAA GAG CAG					
Gly Ile Glu Asp Asp Asn Trp Glu Glu Gln	Ala Ala Asn Arg Leu	-			
		750			
GGT CTG GAC GAA CGC AGC CAG GAC ATC ATC					
Gly Leu Asp Glu Arg Ser Gln Asp Ile Ile	e arg ala arg Trp Let	Asp GIU Asp Ash Lys			
TCC ACG TTG CAG GAA CTG GCT GAC CGT TAC	' ርርር ርጥጥ ጥርር ርርጥ GAG				
Ser Thr Leu Gln Glu Leu Ala Asp Arg Tyr					
Segment		874			
GAA AAG AAC GCG ATG AAA AAA TTG CGT GCT GCC ATT GAA GCG TAA TTTCCGCTATTAAGCAGAG					
Glu Lys Asn Ala Met Lys Lys Leu Arg Ala	Ala Ile Glu Ala ENI	box A			
-		953			
AACCCTAGATGAGAGTCCGGGGTTTTTGTTTTTTGGGCC	TCTGTAATAATCAATTTCCC				
termination		1032			
CCACGCAGATTGTTAATAAACTGTCAAAATAGCTATTCCAATATCATAAAAATCGGGATATGTTTTAGCAGAGTATGCT "-35" "-10" livJ					
"-35"	•	"-10" livJ			

Figure 2. Nucleotide Sequence of the E. coli K12 htpR Region

Nucleotides are numbered from the start of the translation initiation codon. Underlined segments are as follows: boxA, putative Nus recognition sites; hairpin, region of dyad symmetry that would produce a potential RNA hairpin if transcribed; S.D., Shine-Dalgarno sequence complementary to the 3' end of 16S rRNA; Segment A, 14 amino acid segment identical with amino acids 403–416 in sigma factor (see Figure 6); Segments B and C, regions strongly resembling the DNA-protein contact points in known DNA-binding proteins, with highly conserved amino acids boxed; termination, a region of dyad symmetry followed by a T-rich region; "-35" and "-10," the RNA polymerase sites located upstream of the initiation of translation of livJ.

some evidence suggests that sigma factor antagonizes the function of the *htpR* protein (Yamamori et al., 1982). It therefore seemed of interest to examine the two genes for regions of homology. Seven regions were discovered that consist of 15 or more bases with >85% identity (Figure 5). All seven are in the coding region of *rpoD*, but one is in the leader region of *htpR*. The regions do not appear sequentially in the two genes. Nevertheless, this degree of

similarity strongly suggests an evolutionary relationship between *htpR* and *rpoD*.

Comparison of Amino Acid Sequence and Composition of Sigma Factor and HtpR

Analysis of amino acid sequences revealed that the predicted sequence for the *htpR* gene product is similar to one portion of the predicted sequence of sigma factor (Figure 6). This similarity includes a 14 amino acid segment of identity, and overall there is 24% complete matching and 43% total matching (identities plus conservative replacements) between HtpR and the amino acid residues 326–613 of sigma factor.

Similarities in composition are numerous. Both contain higher than average percentages of charged amino acid residues, especially acidic amino acid residues, and both contain nearly 2.5 times more methionine than the average protein (Burton et al., 1981). Both sequences contain less cysteine (HtpR has none), glycine, and aromatic amino acid residues than the average protein, and both sequences contain clusters of positive or negative charge. Particularly interesting are the clusters of acidic residues found in the HtpR sequence at positions 32–34, 183–191, 213–215, and 246–248 (Figure 2) and throughout the Nterminal portion of sigma. Like sigma factor, HtpR contains

Table 1	Amino Acid Come	position of HtnR Predicted	from DNA Sequence

Amino Acid	Residues	Mole %
Alanine	34	12.0
Arginine	23	8.1
Asparagine	12	4.2
Aspartate	23	8.1
Cysteine	0	0
Glutamate	22	7.7
Glutamine	14	4.9
Glycine	13	4.6
Histidine	6	2.1
Isoleucine	12	4.2
Leucine	29	10.2
Lysine	16	5.6
Methionine	11	3.9
Phenylalanine	8	2.8
Proline	6	2.1
Serine	16	5.6
Threonine	8	2.8
Tryptophan	6	2.1
Tyrosine	7	2.5
Valine	_18	6.3
Total	284	100

major regions of high positive charge (residues 109–145, net +10) and high negative charge (residues 179–220, net -12).

The secondary structure was predicted from the amino acid sequence of the *htpR* gene product by the method of Chou and Fasman (1978). This analysis suggests a protein of reasonably high α -helical (55%–60%) and low β -sheet (8%–15%) conformation. For sigma factor the α -helical content is 50%–55% and the β -sheet 10%–15% (Burton et al., 1981). Both proteins contain long, continuous sections of α -helix. Of interest is the fact that the two proteins have similar predicted secondary structure for 20 amino acid residues on each side of the 14 amino acid segment of identity—a coil region of 10–12 amino acids bounded by β -sheets.

Similarity to DNA-Binding Proteins

We also examined the *htpR* gene product sequence for regions similar to the consensus sequence for the two α -helices containing the main DNA-protein contact points in known DNA-binding proteins (Sauer et al., 1982; Matthews et al., 1982). The *htpR* protein sequence contains two regions that strongly resemble this consensus sequence (segments B and C in Figure 2). Both contain the pattern Ala-N-N-N-Gly-N-N-N-N-Val(IIe) that is virtually invariant among DNA-binding proteins. The first region (amino acids 154–173) contains residues at 13 positions that are found at the same position in other DNA-binding proteins, and the second region (amino acids 253–272) contains matching residues at 14 positions.

Chou–Fasman analysis (see above) predicted that both sequences (B and C in Figure 2) form two α -helices connected by a turn at the conserved glycine—a structural motif observed in the DNA contact points of known repressor structures (Matthews et al., 1982).

Discussion

The protein product of the *htpR* gene may be essential at all temperatures (Carol Gross and Alan Grossman, personal communication), and is certainly required for E. coli cells to exhibit a normal heat shock response (Neidhardt and VanBogelen, 1981; Yamamori and Yura, 1982). This conclusion was originally based on the properties of a mutant with a nonsense mutation in *htpR* in a strain carrying a temperature-conditional suppressor, and has

A. Normal sequence (pFN97)

- CGC CAG*CTG GAA AAG AAC GCG ATG AAA AAA TTG CGT GCT GCC ATT GAA GCG TAA -
- arg gln leu glu lys asn ala met lys lys leu arg ala ala ile glu ala end

B. Sequence deduced for pFN92

- CGC CAG*ctg cct cgc gcg ttt cgg tga -
- arg gln leu pro arg ala phe arg end

Figure 3. Nucleotide Sequence of the C-Terminal End of the htpR Gene in Plasmid pFN92

(A) The sequence of the C-terminal end of the *htpR* gene and its normal product is shown with an asterisk to mark the cut at the Pvu II site (CAGCTG).

(B) The sequence resulting from splicing the main portion of the *htpR* gene to the pBR322 vector at the Pvu II site to form pFN92. The lowercase base letters indicate pBR322 sequence (Sutcliffe, 1978).

been supported by subsequent studies. For example, the dnaK gene product, itself one of E. coli's heat shock proteins, appears to antagonize the action of htpR (Tilly et al., 1983). Mutants defective in dnaK fail to exhibit the dampening of heat shock induction that normally occurs after 10 min of high level synthesis. From this observation it was possible to imagine that the role of the dnaK protein was to repress synthesis of heat shock proteins, and that HtpR might function merely to remove or inactivate this repressor. The same authors showed, however, that htpR

A B C D

Figure 4. In Vitro Synthesis of Protein Products from Plasmids pFN92 and pFN97

The upper arrow indicates the protein produced from the *htpR* gene on pFN97, as verified by two-dimensional gel electrophoresis. The lower arrow indicates the slightly smaller product produced from the truncated *htpR* gene of pFN92 (see Figure 4). Lane A, no added DNA; Lane B, reaction with pFN97 DNA; lane D, reaction with pFN92 DNA; lane C, mixture of reaction samples B and D.

function is still required for a heat shock response even in a *dnaK* defective mutant—a double mutant, *dnaK* and *htpR*, cannot produce a heat shock response.

Although the overall effect of the *htpR* protein is positive, it is still possible that it exerts its effect by countering some negative factor (other than the *dnaK* gene product) or factors. It could, for example, act similarly to the *recA* protein, which is thought to cleave the general repressor of SOS operons, LexA (Little and Mount, 1982). Support for this idea has come recently from the work of Gross and her collaborators (T. A. Baker, A. D. Grossman, and C. A. Gross, submitted), who have demonstrated that *htpR* mutant cells are defective in a proteolytic activity. There have been no reports, however, pointing to the existence of a general repressor of heat shock operons, and therefore one must consider the possibility that if HtpR does act by releasing repression it might have to inactivate as many as 15 different repressors.

On the other hand, there is a distinct possibility that HtpR directly activates heat shock genes upon a shift-up in temperature. It could do this in a number of ways consistent with current information. It might bind to the promoter regions of heat shock *genes, much as the cAMP-CAP protein binds to promoters of many catabolic operons (reviewed in Botsford, 1981). This possibility is consistent with our observation that HtpR has regions similar to key protein-DNA contact points of known DNA-binding proteins (Figure 2). In this respect HtpR resembles proteins such as CAP and lambda Cl, two proteins responsible for transcriptional activation (Steitz et al., 1982; Gussin et al., 1983).

Alternatively, HtpR might activate heat shock genes by modifying promoter recognition by RNA polymerase. Yamamori et al. (1982) have reported that synthesis of heat shock proteins is markedly enhanced when cellular amounts of sigma are reduced severalfold, and that this effect is brought about by increased transcription from heat shock genes (as is the normal heat shock response in E. coli). Conversely, a mutant that overproduces sigma produced significantly reduced amounts of heat shock

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-30
                             105
                                                 115
       ...CGCCAGAAGATATCGA.
                              .GGCGCTGGCTGAAAA
                                                   (GAAAA)GCTGCATTACC...
htpR
          *** *******
                                 ******
                                                   *****
         TGCCGGAAGATATCGT
                               GATGCTGGCTGAAAA
                                                   GAAAA ACTTCATTACC
rpoD
        616
                             719
                                                 1421
        229
       ...GATTTGATTCAGGAAGGTAACATCGGCCTGATGAAAGCAGT...
htpR
             *********** ****** *****
         GACCTGATTCAGGAAGGCAACATCGGTCTGATGAAAGCGGT
rpoD
      1731
        278
                            388
                                                   759
ht pR
       ...TCAACCCGGAAGTGG.....AAAGCGCAGCGCAAACTG.
                                                    ..GCAGGAACTGGCTGACCGT...
         ** ****** ***
                              ** **** ******
                              AAGGCGCTGCGCAAACTG
                                                     GGAAGAACTGGCTGAACGT
rpoD
         TCGACCCGGAACTGG
                           2301
                                                   1964
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Figure 5. Comparison of the DNA Sequence of htpR and rpoD

The seven segments of the *htpR* gene consisting of 15 or more bases having 85% identity with regions of the *rpoD* gene (Burton et al., 1981) are shown in sequential order as they appear in the *htpR* gene. Identical bases are indicated by the asterisks. Bases in *htpR* are numbered as in Figure 2; bases in *rpoD* are numbered as in Burton et al. (1981).

Figure 6. Similarity between the Amino Acid Sequence Predicted from the DNA Sequences of the htpR and rpo Genes

Comparison of the amino acid sequences of the *htpR* gene product (Figure 2) and the sigma subunit of *E. coli* RNA polymerase (Burton et al., 1981). Identical amino acid residues are marked (=); conservative replacements are marked (*). Conservative replacements are defined as being within the groups: (D,E), (K,R), (S,T), (F,Y,W), and (I,L,V,M). Gaps have been inserted to improve the alignment, and are marked by hyphens within the sequences. The one-letter amino acid codes are: A, Ala; C, Cys; D, Asp; E, Glu; F, Phe; G, Gly; H, His; I, Ile; K, Lys; L, Leu; M, Met; N, Asn; P, Pro; Q, Gln; R, Arg; S, Ser; T, Thr; V, Val; W Tro: Y, Tyr.

proteins. These findings raise the interesting possibility that the heat shock regulon might be controlled by the reprogramming of RNA polymerase. Alternative sigma-like transcription factors are known in other bacterial species such as Bacillus subtilis in which they have been shown to control transcription of specific sets of genes during sporulation and bacteriophage synthesis, and replacement of one species of sigma factor by another may be facilitated by a sigma-dissociating factor (reviewed in Losick and Pero, 1981). The minor and developmentally specific sigma factors are smaller than the major form (e.g., 28, 29, and 37 kd compared with 55 kd). A gene for one of them, encoded in the phage SP01, has recently been cloned and sequenced. The predicted structure of its product resembles the E. coli sigma factor in having a large content of α -helix (Costanzo and Pero, 1983).

Recently direct genetic evidence has been obtained of an interaction between sigma factor and HtpR. First, mutations that suppress the *rpoD800* allele (which produces a temperature-sensitive sigma factor) have been found to map in *htpR* (Alan Grossman, Yan-Ning Zhu, Carol Gross, Gail Christie, Joseph Helig, and Richard Calendar, unpublished data). In addition, the *rpoD800* allele suppresses the *htpR165* mutation; i.e., the double mutant has a near normal heat shock response (Alan Grossman, Yan-Ning Zhu, Tania Baker, and Carol Gross, unpublished data).

In this context the *htpR* sequence reported here is of considerable interest. Clearly, the polypeptide predicted from the *htpR* DNA sequence appears homologous to that predicted for sigma from the *rpoD* DNA sequence (Figure 6). Taken with the other similarities between the two proteins (see Results), this apparent homology suggests that HtpR and sigma factor may share some function in tran-

scription initiation. The region of greatest similarity (segment A in Figure 2) might represent a common domain with which HtpR and sigma factor contact the core RNA polymerase.

Could all of the properties ascribed to the *htpR* gene product be involved in its role in the heat shock response? It is possible that HtpR acts both as a DNA-binding protein and as a reprogrammer of RNA polymerase. One possibility, which also incorporates the reported defect in proteolysis in *htpR* mutants, is that HtpR binds to promoter regions of heat shock genes and, upon a shift-up in temperature, becomes active as a protease that modifies sigma in some way that brings about transcriptional activation.

The aspects of HtpR structure described here will be useful in direct tests of HtpR function through the use of additional mutants and cell free systems.

Experimental Procedures

Construction of Plasmids and M13 Clones

The construction of pFN82, pFN92, pFN97, and pOX15 has been described in Neidhardt et al. (1983). Fragments from pOX15 were used for sequencing by the method of Maxam and Gilbert (1980). The 5' upstream region was cloned by ligating the Pvu II—Cla I fragment from pFN82 into the Sma I—Acc I sites of the single-stranded phage vector M13mp8 of Messing et al. (1981). The Hae III fragments were cloned by electroeluting the Hind III—Pst I fragment from an agarose gel as described in Maniatis et al. (1982) and cutting this fragment with Hae III before ligating into the Sma I site of the M13mp8. T4 DNA ligase and Klenow polymerase were from New England Biolabs, Bethesda Laboratories, and International Biotechnologies, inc.

DNA Sequencing

For sequencing by chemical cleavage, DNA fragments were either 5'-end-labeled by T4 polynucleotide kinase (New England Nuclear) catalyzed reaction with γ^{-32} P-ATP (Amersham) or 3'-end-labeled by Micrococcus

luteus DNA polymerase (P-L Biochemicals) catalyzed reaction with the appropriate α^{32} P-deoxyribonucleoside triphosphate (Amersham). The labeled fragments were sequenced by the method of Maxam and Gilbert (1980), except that A>G-specific cleavage was generated by modification of the DNA fragment in 18 mM EDTA, pH 4.0, for 5 min at 80°C in a total volume of 22 μ l for subsequent piperidine cleavage as described by Maxam and Gilbert (1980).

Sequencing by dideoxynucleoside triphosphate chain termination was done as described by Sanger et al. (1980). The codon preference plot of Gribskov et al. (1984) was found useful in confirming the accuracy of the DNA sequence.

Sequence Analysis and Comparison

Analysis of the DNA sequence of the htpR region and its comparison with that of rpoD were carried out using programs described by Fristensky et al. (1982)

The amino acid sequences were aligned using the program GAP (Devereux et al., 1984) combined with a data matrix derived from Dayhoff (1978). GAP uses the algorithm of Needleman and Wunsch (1970) modified to allow the imposition of a gap length penalty. We used the method of Fitch and Smith (1983) to determine the best alignment. The sequence comparison shown in Figure 6 is changed from that derived by the computer by the deletion of a gap inserted between amino acids 518 and 519 of sigma and by increasing the length of the gap between residues 521 and 522 to 3.

In Vitro Transcription and Translation

In vitro synthesis of protein was done using the cell-free system described in Zubay et al. (1970). E. coli strain K165 (the *htpR* mutant described in Neidhardt and VanBogelen, 1981) was grown at 30°C and used for preparation of the S-30 fraction. The reaction was carried out at 37°C for 40–60 min, and samples were run on SDS-polyacrylamide gels (11.5%) as described by O'Farrell (1975). Synthesis of the protein products of *htpR* and *bla* was directed from pFN97.

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Note Added in Proof

The nucleotide sequence of bases 42 through 48 in Figure 2 should read CAACCTG. This correction changes a single amino acid and does not alter any of our conclusions.