

most completely reepithelialized. Epithelial hyperthickening was less pronounced in heterozygous transgenic animals (Fig. 3B), and reepithelialization was much less complete. This finding suggested that migration and proliferation of the keratinocytes in these mice were impaired. The reduced reepithelialization of the wound was most obvious in homozygous transgenic mice, where almost no hyperthickening of the epidermis at the wound edge was observed (Fig. 3C). The phenotypic abnormalities seen in the wound epithelium were consistent with high expression of the transgene in the keratinocytes of the migrating epithelium (Fig. 3D) and the hypertrophic epithelium at the wound edge (Fig. 3E).

To quantify the difference in the proliferation rate of the keratinocytes, we labeled the proliferating cells with 5-bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU) in vivo and subsequently stained them with an antibody to BrdU (13). At day 5 after injury, a large number of cells in the epidermis at the wound edge of control mice had incorporated BrdU (Fig. 4, A and B), whereas the number of proliferating keratinocytes at the wound edge of transgenic mice was 95 to 99% lower compared to that of control mice (Fig. 4, C and D). This reduced proliferation rate was seen in all transgenic mice tested. As an indication of specificity, the number of proliferating cells in the underlying granulation tissue was similar in transgenic and control mice at this stage of wound healing, demonstrating that transgene expression had only blocked proliferation of keratinocytes. The reduced proliferation rate of the keratinocytes that express the dominant-negative KGF receptor demonstrates that KGF receptor signaling is essential for wound reepithelialization.

The data presented here reveal a direct role of KGF receptor signaling in the morphogenesis of the epidermis and the hair follicles and an indirect role of KGF receptor function in the control of connective tissue formation in the dermis, indicating a complex epidermal-dermal interaction during morphogenesis of the skin. Our results demonstrate that KGF is essential for wound reepithelialization and that a blockade of KGF function is associated with wound-healing abnormalities.

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12. Homozygous and heterozygous transgenic mice as well as control littermates (3 months old) were used for wound-healing experiments. Mice were anesthetized with a single dose of Avertin. A single full-thickness wound of 5-mm diameter was made in the middle of the back by excising skin and panniculus carnosus. Animals were killed with ether at day 5 after injury and the complete wound was isolated. All animal experiments were carried out with permission from the local government of Bavaria (permission number 211-2531-16/93).
13. For BrdU-labeling studies, wound-healing experiments were carried out as described in (12). At day 5 after injury, mice were injected intraperitoneally with BrdU (Sigma; 250 mg per kilogram of body weight) and killed 2 hours after injection. Wound tissue was fixed in 70% ethanol and paraffin embedded.
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## Determination of Intrinsic Transcription Termination Efficiency by RNA Polymerase Elongation Rate

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Transcription terminators recognized by several RNA polymerases include a DNA segment encoding uridine-rich RNA and, for bacterial RNA polymerase, a hairpin loop located immediately upstream. Here, mutationally altered *Escherichia coli* RNA polymerase enzymes that have different termination efficiencies were used to show that the extent of transcription through the uridine-rich encoding segment is controlled by the substrate concentration of nucleoside triphosphate. This result implies that the rate of elongation determines the probability of transcript release. Moreover, the position of release sites suggests an important spatial relation between the RNA hairpin and the boundary of the terminator.

Termination of RNA synthesis by *E. coli* RNA polymerase (RNAP) at intrinsic (or  $\rho$ -independent) terminators is a property of the core enzyme and probably of the highly conserved large subunits  $\beta$  and  $\beta'$  (1, 2). Essential elements of intrinsic terminators include DNA specifying an RNA hairpin, followed by a DNA segment encoding RNA rich in uridines at the end of the terminated RNA (1, 2). How these elements act is unknown, although a terminal U-encoding segment is also essential in eukaryotic RNAP III terminators (3), and

U-encoding sequences cause stalling by eukaryotic RNAP II (4). Terminator function may reflect the available energy of RNA and DNA strand associations: It has been suggested that RNA hairpin formation destroys part of an RNA-DNA hybrid that is essential for the stability of the elongating complex, after which the instability of the remaining U-rich RNA-DNA hybrid allows the complex to dissociate (1, 5). Alternatively, or in addition, the hairpin may interact with RNAP and promote termination either by disrupting RNA-enzyme associations required for complex stability or by inducing conformational changes that lead to termination (6, 7).

The efficiency of intrinsic termination may reflect competition between the rate of elongation and the rate of RNA (and eventually enzyme) release. As is true at  $\rho$ -dependent terminators (8), RNAP at or near the release site of an intrinsic terminator may be in a "pause," meaning a condition in which elongation is slowed or

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ogeneous and included up to five adjacent ends. Both NTP concentration and type of enzyme affected the pattern of termination. The effect of synthesis with one NTP at high concentration showed exactly where release occurs at the distal end of the U-rich segment; thus, high ATP concentration increased ends at A47, the only A in the region, and decreased the fraction of ends at the preceding U46; high concentrations of cytidine triphosphate (CTP) or of GTP had no effect. The terminal sequence of RNA released at  $t_{21}$  has been confirmed by direct sequencing with terminating NTPs (17).

The pattern of termination correlated

with the termination phenotype of each enzyme. Thus, during synthesis at a particular NTP concentration, the population of RNA ends was shifted toward the promoter relative to wild-type enzyme for RpoB8, which terminates very efficiently, and the ends were shifted away from the promoter for RpoB2, which terminates less efficiently.

The pattern of released RNAs also varied with NTP concentration for all three enzymes in a rational manner: A higher concentration favored longer RNAs, whereas a lower concentration favored shorter RNAs. In fact, the change from 25  $\mu$ M to 1 mM NTP effectively simulated the change be-

tween mutants: The pattern at 1 mM NTP for RpoB8 was similar to that for wild-type enzyme at 25  $\mu$ M NTP, and the pattern for wild-type enzyme at 1 mM NTP was similar to that at 25  $\mu$ M NTP for RpoB2. For each enzyme, the pattern shifted continuously as concentration was raised and reached a final distribution at 250 to 500  $\mu$ M NTP (17).

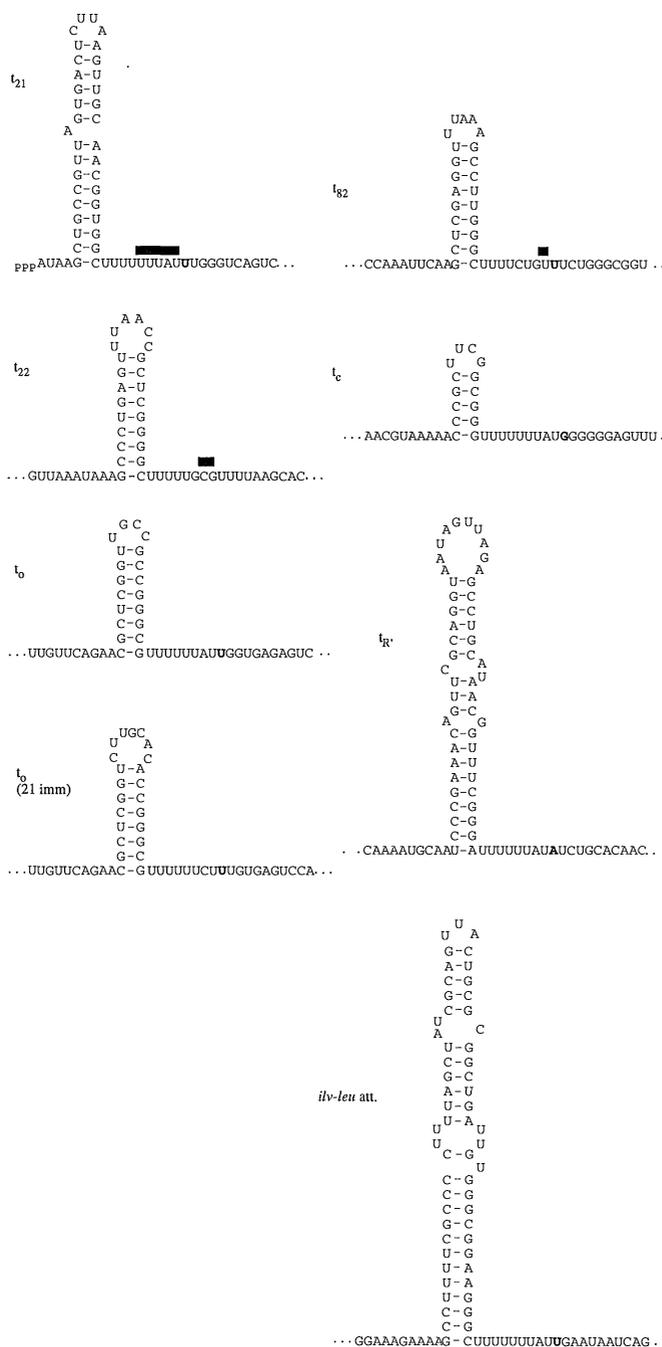
For a different terminator,  $t_{22}$ , we detected no significant readthrough under any conditions (Table 1), but there was a similar skewing of ends, depending on the enzyme and NTP concentration (Fig. 2). Thus, the effect of high concentrations of GTP and CTP assigns the major ends to C61 and G62; G62 is favored over C61 at higher GTP concentration and in the progression RpoB8  $\rightarrow$  RpoB<sup>+</sup>  $\rightarrow$  RpoB2.

The pattern of RNA release at  $t_{21}$  and its control by NTP concentration suggest the existence of a critical nucleotide that defines a boundary of the terminator. High UTP concentration gave high readthrough of  $t_{21}$  by RpoB2 (14% and 33%; Table 1) and also left terminated RNA predominantly at the extreme position of the set of RNAs, U48. We suggest that a critical position is the next nucleotide, U49. By hypothesis, if UTP concentration is high, transcription proceeds with significant probability to 49, which is beyond the limit of the terminator. This boundary is sharp at the promoter distal end of the terminator; thus, even under conditions that gave 95% termination and left a large fraction of ends at U48, we detected no RNA at U49 (see Table 1 and the distribution of ends in Fig. 2).

These results have implications for both the mechanism of transcription termination and the nature of its control by antiterminators. First, we conclude that an extended portion of the U-rich encoding segment of  $t_{21}$  is characterized by an elongation-limiting Michaelis constant ( $K_s$ ) for NTPs and that the rate of elongation through this region determines release efficiency. We cannot directly show that this is a pause, in the sense of slower-than-average elongation; however, pausing is suggested by the dependence of the extent of elongation on NTP concentration and the equivalence of this effect to mutational changes that affect transcription pausing. Prolonged pausing would increase the probability of release and reduced pausing would diminish it (20).

Second, these results suggest that a modest effect of a transcription antiterminator on the elongation rate at a critical pause can explain its activity (21). RpoB2 reads through terminators as much as 50% at high NTP concentration in vitro. Although we used 1 mM NTP (Fig. 1), 250 to 500  $\mu$ M NTP gave as much shift in the pattern. Therefore, RpoB2 gives efficient termination and produces a pattern of RNA release

**Fig. 3.** Sequences of the terminator regions, shown as theoretical hairpin loop structures of the RNA. We do not include in the hairpin additional A-U base pairing that could exist at the bottom of the stem (for many of the terminators). The position corresponding to the putative critical nucleotide is shown in bold. The identities of the terminators are:  $t_{82}$ , phage 82 late terminator;  $t_{R'}$ , phage  $\lambda$  late terminator;  $t_G$ , *rpoC* terminator;  $t_C$ , phage  $\lambda$  *oop* terminator;  $t_{21}$  (21 imm), *oop* terminator of  $\lambda$ -21 hybrid;  $t_{21}$ , phage 21 late terminator; *ilv-leu* att., *B. subtilis ilv-leu* attenuator; and  $t_{22}$ , phage P22 late terminator. Black rectangles designate regions of RNA release determined by sequencing.



like that of wild-type enzyme if the concentration of NTP, and thus the rate of elongation through the release region, is reduced by no more than 10 to 20 times. The  $\lambda$  gene *Q* transcription antiterminator increases the rate of elongation at a pause near the  $\lambda$  late gene promoter region by about fivefold (17), although *Q* does not necessarily affect the same pause-inducing elements as do the RNAP mutants or the changes in NTP concentration.

Figure 3 shows the presumed structures of the terminators we used. We illustrate the RNA hairpins closed only with stable G-C base pairs (17), although each could be extended by two to four A-U base pairs. The actual RNA ends are shown for  $t_{21}$  and  $t_{22}$ . In these cases, release still occurs after eight to nine nucleotides are transcribed beyond the base of the G-C closed hairpin, conditions under which most of the putative DNA-RNA hybrid would remain. We also show in bold a hypothetical critical nucleotide for other terminators for which increased NTP concentration induces readthrough by RpoB2. Except for  $t_{21}$  and  $t_{22}$ , the critical nucleotide is assigned only by the criteria of distance and sensitivity to NTP concentration, although direct sequencing indicates that the last released RNA does precede the designated "U" for  $t_{82}$  (17). In all cases, the position of the critical nucleotide is consistent with the ability of the terminating complex to release RNA transcribed eight to nine bases beyond the end of the stable RNA stem. For the relatively inefficient *Bacillus subtilis* *ilv-leu* attenuator, readthrough even by wild-type RNAP is controlled by ATP and UTP, nucleotides encoded by the expected region of release.

Although we find no evidence to dispute the conventional view that the RNA hairpin disrupts the RNA-DNA hybrid, or, in particular, that the structure or stability (or both) of terminal rU-dA base pairs are involved in termination (5, 22), it is difficult to explain our results by these properties alone. Release still can occur at a distance from the bottom of the stable RNA stem—eight to nine nucleotides—nearly the length of the putative RNA-DNA hybrid, where the hairpin should have little effect in disrupting the hybrid. Furthermore, for several terminators the abrupt downstream boundary of the release region has no obvious source in the stability of the RNA-DNA hybrid (17); for example, extending the transcript a few nucleotides beyond the ter-

minal position for  $t_{21}$  and  $t_{22}$  only adds rU-dA base pairs to the putative hybrid and thus should add no stability if the hybrid had a constant length. Furthermore,  $t_{22}$  releases efficiently with three terminal G-C base pairs and not at all beyond them. These results are consistent with aspects of a model (6, 7) that envisions distinct conformational states of RNAP—perhaps a repeating cycle of such states—as it progresses through elongation, and that proposes interaction between RNAP and transcript to be particularly important to the stability of the complex. One view of the release process according to this model, which also considers the extended zone of RNA release shown by  $t_{21}$ , is as follows: The release potential persists while the enzyme is in a state, presumably corresponding to a transcription pause, that allows it to bind the RNA hairpin as it synthesizes the U-rich region. When eight to nine nucleotides of RNA have been made (a length that reflects the geometry of the elongation complex) a conformational shift occurs that prevents hairpin binding. The distinct downstream boundary of the terminator would reflect this shift. The mechanism by which antiterminators like  $\lambda Q$  and *N* exert their antipassing and antitermination effects could be to disfavor a conformational state of RNAP that is associated with pausing and RNA release.

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19. By transcribing DNA attached to paramagnetic beads that could be removed from the solution, we have shown that these RNAs are released from the transcription complex (17).
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23. All reactions were carried out in transcription buffer [20 mM tris-HCl (pH 7.9), 120 mM KCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, 1.0 mM dithiothreitol, and 10% glycerol] with 10 nM RNAP, 150 nM NusA protein, 1 nM template, and [<sup>32</sup>P]UTP (0.2 mCi/ml). Two methods of initiation were used, depending on the initial sequence of the transcript. Where possible, elongation complexes were stalled 10 to 20 bases from the site of initiation by starvation for one NTP: The above mixture lacking one NTP was incubated for 10 min at 37°C with 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> and an appropriate primer and nucleotides. Elongation was then continued by adding NTPs to the final concentrations indicated in the figures, along with heparin to 100 µg/ml to prevent re-initiation. For other templates, open complexes were formed by incubation of the above mixture at 37°C with the indicated final concentration of NTPs. After 9.5 min, transcription was initiated by the addition of 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, followed 30 s later by 100 µg of heparin per milliliter. In both cases, incubation at 37°C continued for 10 min after the addition of heparin. Reactions were stopped by the addition of stop buffer [0.6 M tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 12 mM EDTA, and 0.08 mg of transfer RNA per milliliter]; extracted with phenol, chloroform, and isoamyl alcohol; precipitated with ethanol; and electrophoresed on polyacrylamide sequencing gels. RNA in terminated and readthrough bands was visualized by autoradiography and quantified with a Betascope (Betagen, Waltham, MA). The same amount of radioactive UTP was present in each reaction, so that raising UTP concentration lowered the specific activity correspondingly.
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