Interplasmid transposition demonstrates piggyBac mobility in vertebrate species

Neil F. Lobo, Tresa S. Fraser, John A. Adams & Malcolm J. Fraser Jr.* Department of Biological Sciences, Center for Tropical Diseases Research and TrainingUniversity of Notre Dame, P.O. Box 369, Notre Dame, IN 46556-0369, USA; *Author for correspondence: (Phone: +574-631- 6209, Fax: +574-631-7413, E-mail: fraser.1@nd.edu)

Received 16 June 2005; Accepted 1 February 2006

Key words: piggyBac, transposon, transposition

Abstract

The $\frac{pi}{B}$ transposon is an extremely versatile helper-dependent vector for gene transfer and germ line transformation in a wide range of invertebrate species. Analyses of genome sequencing databases have identified $\frac{p \cdot p}{p}$ homologues among several sequenced animal genomes, including the human genome. In this report we demonstrate that this insect transposon is capable of transposition in primate cells and embryos of the zebrafish, *Danio rerio. piggyBac* mobility was demonstrated using an interplasmid transposition assay that has consistently predicted the germ line transformation capabilities of this mobile element in several other species. Both transfected COS-7 primate cells and injected zebrafish embryos supported the helper-dependent movement of tagged $piggyBac$ element between plasmids in the characteristic cut-and-paste, TTAA target-site specific manner. These results validate piggyBac as a valuable tool for genetic analysis of vertebrates.

Introduction

The Lepidopteran-derived *piggyBac* transposon is the type element for a unique group of TTAAtargeting Class II transposable elements originally isolated as mutation-inducing insertions in baculovirus genomes (Fraser, Smith & Summers, 1983; Fraser et al., 1985; Cary et al., 1989; Wang, Fraser & Cary, 1989; see Fraser, 2001 for a review). Initial functional analyses confirmed its potential as a helper-dependent gene transfer vector (Fraser et al., 1995), and subsequent demonstrations of its effectiveness as a gene transfer vector have been performed in a number of invertebrate species including the important disease vectors Aedes aegypti (Kokoza et al., 2001; Lobo et al., 2002) and Anopheles gambiae (Grossman et al., 2001; Kim et al., 2004). Its range of utility has been expanded into non-arthropod invertebrates such as Planaria

(Gonzalez-Estevez et al., 2003). As yet there has been no demonstrated mobilization of *piggyBac* in prokaryotic organisms.

This unique transposon has also become established as a highly useful transgenic vector for the model genetic system, Drosophila melanogaster (Handler & Harrell, 1999; Hacker et al., 2003; Horn et al., 2003; Lorenzen et al., 2003; Ryder and Russell, 2003; Bonin & Mann, 2004; Parks et al., 2004; Thibault et al., 2004). By using $\frac{pigy}{Bac}$ in conjunction with P-element as an insertional mutagenesis tool in Drosophila the number of genes tagged in mutational screens has been significantly expanded (Parks et al., 2004; Thibault et al., 2004). In applying this vector to this invertebrate species there has been a demonstrated potential for a wide variety of useful genetic manipulations (Parks et al., 2004; Thibault et al., 2004). While this report was under review, Ding

348

et al. (2005) reported similar capabilities for piggyBac transformation and interrogation of the mouse genome.

Plasmid-based transposition assays (Coates et al., 1995, 1997; Sarkar et al., 1997; Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999; Thibault et al., 1999; Lobo et al., 2001) have provided presumptive evidence for pursuing a given transposon as a gene transfer tool in a given species. These assays have been used to predict the capabilities for germ-line transgenesis of Sleeping Beauty in a variety of vertebrate systems, and the Tol2 element in zebrafish (Ivics, Izsvák & Hackett, 1997; Kawakami et al., 1998; Izsvak, Ivics & Plasterk, 2000; Kawakami, Shima & Kawakami, 2000). In the case of the piggyBac element, the interplasmid transposition assay allows detection of the characteristic precise insertion and excision events (Elick, Bauser & Fraser, 1996; Elick, Lobo & Fraser, 1997; Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999), a defining feature of the transpositional movement of this element (Fraser et al., 1995, 1996; Elick, Bauser & Fraser, 1996). In every case, demonstration of interplasmid mobilization of *piggyBac* sequences in cells or embryos of a given species has led to successful transgenic manipulation of that species (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999; Grossman et al., 2000, 2001; Lobo et al., 2002).

If the capabilities of precise insertion, excision, and remobilization for enhancer trapping that are exhibited by the $\frac{pigy}{Bac}$ transposon in invertebrate systems such as Drosophila (Parks et al., 2004; Thibault et al., 2004) could be applied to model vertebrate systems such as the zebrafish, genetic analyses in these vertebrate systems could approach the wealth of capabilities developed for genetic manipulations in D. melanogaster. Justification for believing piggyBac movement is possible in vertebrate systems comes from recent analyses of genome sequencing data which identified seemingly complete as well as incomplete homologues of the *piggyBac* element among several sequenced animal genomes (Sarkar et al., 2003). In this report, we use the interplasmid transposition assay to demonstrate *piggyBac* mobilization in a helper-dependent fashion in fertilized embryos of the zebrafish, Danio rerio, and in the primate COS-7 cell line. This study further establishes the utility of this element for germ line transformation in many vertebrate model systems.

Methods

Preparation of plasmid DNAs

Plasmid DNAs used for transfections or microinjections were prepared using the rapid boiling procedure and were purified by CsCl gradient centrifugation. Following collection of the supercoiled fraction and extraction of the ethidium bromide with isoamyl alcohol, the DNAs were dialyzed against four changes of 4000 volumes of $0.1 \times$ SSC and stored frozen at -20 \degree C until used. Because these plasmids were to be used for transfection of cell cultures they were handled as sterile reagents at all times. At no time were these DNAs subject to contamination with any other plasmids.

The target plasmid used in these analyses was pGDV1, a chloramphenicol resistance plasmid derived from the Bacillus subtilis plasmid pTZ12 (Aoki et al., 1987) by the addition of a multiple cloning site between 1970 and 2029 bp (Bron, 1995; Sarkar et al., 1997). The $pB(KO\alpha)$ plasmid (Thibault et al., 1999) was used as the $\frac{pigy}{Bac}$ donor and was derived from a p3E1.2 plasmid derivative by insertion of a cartridge containing the kanamycin resistance gene, the ColE1 origin, and the α ?peptide of β -galactosidase at a unique BglII site within the $\frac{pigy}{Bac}$ open reading frame. The transposase helper was the *phspBac* (formerly named pBhs Δ Sac) expression plasmid (Handler et al., 1998).

A stock plasmid mixture of pGDV1 (0.8 μ g/ μ l), $pB(KO\alpha)$ (0.4 $\mu g/\mu l$) and phspBac (0.4 $\mu g/\mu l$) was prepared in sterile distilled water and used for all of the COS-7 and zebrafish experiments. A separate stock plasmid mixture of pGDV1 (0.8 μ g/ μ l) and $pB(KO\alpha)$ (0.4 $\mu g/\mu l$) was used for the transfection and injection controls.

Maintenance and transfection of COS-7 cells

African green monkey kidney cells (COS-7) were maintained by passage at 1:5 dilutions in a 37° C incubator 5% CO₂ in DMEM medium (Life Technologies) with 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (Life Technologies).

Transfections were performed using a starting cell density of 5×10^4 cells/well of a 6-well culture plate. The LipofectAMINE Plus Reagent (Life Technologies, Inc.) was combined with a total of

 10μ g of the stock experimental plasmid mixture in and added to COS-7 monolayers according to the manufacturer's recommended procedure. Control transfections utilized the same reagents and 10 μ g of the stock control plasmid mixture containing $pGDV1$ and $pB(KO\alpha)$ to verify both a lack of contaminating positive transposition plasmids among these reagents, and the absence of endogenous piggyBac transposase activity in COS-7 cells.

Microinjection of Danio rerio embryos

Fresh zebrafish eggs were collected (Friemann Centre, University of Notre Dame) and injected with DNA solution as described by Westerfield (1993). Microinjection of plasmid DNA was carried out using an agarose gel (made in Hanks Solution, Westerfield, 1993) with depressions, created by a capillary tube, as a holding place (Westerfield, 1993). The DNA solution was airpressure-injected approximately an hour after fertilization at the 1–8 cell stage zebrafish. Injected eggs were stored at 28°C in Hanks Solution for 18 h.

Each injection set was performed independently of the others using the same plasmid DNA preparations. The experimental injections used the stock plasmid mixture of pGDV1, $pB(KO\alpha)$, and (phspBac). The control injections utilized the stock control plasmid mixture containing pGDV1 and $pB(KO\alpha)$ to verify both a lack of contaminating positive transposition plasmids and the absence of endogenous piggyBac transposase activity in the zebrafish embryos.

Plasmid excision assay

A standard transposon plasmid excision assay (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999) was performed to determine if the COS-7 primate cells could support the first step of the cut-and-paste reaction mediated by the *piggyBac* transposase. This assay utilized the transposase helper plasmid, phspBac, to drive excision of the *piggyBac* element from the donor plasmid, pBKOa. Equal concentrations of both plasmid DNAs were transfected at 2 and 5 μ g total DNA concentration, recovered by modified Hirt (1967) extraction (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999; Lobo et al., 2001) at 24 h, digested with BgIII, electroporated into DH10B cells, and immediately plated without recovery on LB/Amp/X-gal plates.

No heat shock was used to induce expression of the transposase from the helper.

Because excision of the transposon results in removal of the lacZ gene in the plasmid, positive excision events are recovered as white colonies on LB Amp/Xgal plates. The number of recoverable donor plasmids for each experiment was estimated by electroporating a 1 μ l aliquot of undigested DNA from the same Hirt extract and counting the number of blue colonies representing the donor plasmid.

Interplasmid transposition assay

Plasmid DNAs were recovered from COS-7 cells at 24 h post transfection, and from zebrafish embryos at 18 h post injection using a modified Hirt (1967) extraction (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999; Lobo et al., 2001), and electroporated into E. coli DH10B cells. Neither cells nor embryos were subjected to heat shock to induce transposase expression from the helper plasmid. Interplasmid transposition events were identified and characterized by immediate selective plating of electroporated bacteria on LB Chloramphenicol (Cam; $25 \mu g/ml)/K$ anamycin (Kan; 50 $\mu g/ml)/X$ -gal $(0.025 \mu g/ml)$ plates essentially as previously described (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999; Lobo et al., 2001). The total amount of donor plasmid recovered was estimated by simultaneous plating of an aliquot (1%) of the transformation mix on LB Ampicillin $(50 \mu g/ml)/X$ -gal $(0.025 \mu g/ml)$ plates and recording the estimated number of blue colonies.

Control transfections or injections were performed using the donor and target plasmids in the absence of the helper phspBac element insuring both that no endogenous transposase activity is evident in either COS-7 cells or zebrafish embryos. In addition, a control transformation of E. coli with the stock experimental plasmid mix containing all three plasmids verified the absence of background transposition events occurring in the transformed bacteria and confirmed the absence of contaminating positive transposition plasmids among all three plasmid reagents.

Analysis of transposition events

Putative interplasmid transposition products were isolated from colonies recovered from LB Cam/

Kan/X-gal plates and were directly sequenced using *piggyBac* specific primers (JF01: CCTCGATATACAGACCGATAAAAACACA-TG and JF02: GCACGCCTCAGCCGAGCT-CCAAGCGGCGAC) enabling the verification of transposition events as well as the identification of insertion sites on the pGDV1 plasmid.

Results

Excision assay to determine piggyBac mobilization in vertebrate cells

Because the *piggyBac* transposon moves using a precise cut-and-paste mechanism (Elick, Bauser & Fraser, 1996; Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999, Lobo et al., 2001), a plasmid excision assay can be used as a predictor of piggyBac transposase activity. We performed a preliminary standard excision assay (Lobo et al., 2001) in COS-7 cells and zebrafish embryos using the donor and helper plasmids, $pBKO\alpha$ and $phspBac$, respectively. The transposase providing helper plasmid, phspBac (Handler et al., 1998) expresses the piggyBac ORF under the control of the D . melanogaster $hsp70$ promoter, which has a demonstrated activity in vertebrate cells (Romano et al., 2001).

In both systems we recovered excision events in the presence of the phspBac helper that were exclusively precise, characteristic of *piggyBac* transposase activity (Elick, Bauser & Fraser, 1996), while no excision events were recovered in the absence of the helper (data not shown). These results demonstrated the activity of the *piggyBac* transposase in mediating the first step of the cutand-paste movement of the element, and confirmed the utility of the Drosophila hsp70 promoter in these systems to drive expression of the transposase gene.

Interplasmid transposition assays in COS-7 cells

An interplasmid transposition assay (Thibault et al., 1999; Lobo et al., 2001; Figure 1) was utilized to determine if the piggyBac element was

Figure 1. Interplasmid transposition assay flow diagram. A combination of 3 plasmids were introduced into cells or embryos. The donor plasmid, $pB(KO\alpha)$, carries a *piggyBac* element marked with the kanamycin resistance gene, ColE1 origin of replication (ori), and the α peptide of the β -galactosidase gene. The transposase providing helper plasmid, phspBac expressed the *piggyBac* ORF under the control of the D. melanogaster hsp70 promoter and is unable to transpose as it lacks a terminal repeat. The target B. subtilis plasmid, pGDV1, is incapable of replication in $E.$ coli, and contains the chloramphenicol resistance gene. Transposition of the genetically tagged piggyBac element from the donor into the target plasmid pGDV1 with the help of the transposase provided by the helper phspBac, results in an interplasmid transposition (IPT) product. This pGDV1 derived IPT plasmid with its acquired ColE1 ori can replicate in E. coli and produce blue colonies on LB/kan/cam/X-gal plates. Blue colonies that grew on LB/kan/cam/ X-gal plates were grown up and plasmid DNA isolated for sequencing to confirm piggyBac mediated transposition.

capable of helper dependent transposition in vertebrate cells. The assay is an accurate predictor of germ-line transposition and measures the ability of the piggyBac element to move from a donor plasmid ($pB(KO\alpha)$) into a target plasmid ($pGDV1$) in the presence of piggyBac transposase expressed from the helper plasmid (phspBac). COS-7 cells, a vertebrate cell line derived from African green monkey kidneys (Gluzman, 1981) were co-transfected with a combination of these three plasmids. Positive transposition events were recovered from Hirt extracts of transfected COS-7 cells by plating transformed bacteria on Cam/Kan/X-gal plates. No transposition events were recovered from control transfections in the absence of the helper plasmid, demonstrating the recovered transpositions were not the result of endogenous transposase activity and the lack of contaminating positive plasmids in the donor and target plasmid preparations. A further standard control in these assays

transformed all three plasmids directly into E. coli (Table 1). Since we had previously determined that there is no $\frac{pigy}{Bac}$ mobility in these bacteria, this control effectively establishes the absence of contaminating positive plasmids among the three starting plasmid preparations.

Transposition frequencies were estimated relative to the total number of recovered donor plasmids, Amp/X-gal plates (Table 1). Fifteen interplasmid transposition events were recovered in 8 independently performed transfections, yielding a calculated cumulative interplasmid transposition frequency of 5.7×10^{-4} (Table 1).

All putative interplasmid clones were sequenced using the JF01 or JF02 outward-facing piggyBac specific primers (Methods), allowing identification of the insertion site on the pGDV1 plasmid. Confirmation of a transposition event was obtained by observing the characteristic duplication of a TTAA target site in the pGDV1

Cell transformed	Helper plasmid	Extraction	$#$ wells per extraction	# Donor plasmid	# IPT events	Frequency
$COS-7$	phspBac		6	19,800	5	5.7×10^{-4}
		2		800	3	
		3		1800	θ	
		4		300	3	
		5		300	3	
		6		3100		
		7		100	θ	
		8		100	θ	
		Total	13	26,300	15	
Controls						
$COS-7$	None		12	\sim 700,000	θ	$\boldsymbol{0}$
		2	12	\sim 700,000	θ	
		3		1000	θ	
		4		900	$\mathbf{0}$	
		Total	26	$\sim 1,401,000$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	
E. coli	$phsp$ Bac	13		\sim 127,000	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$

Table 1. Transposition of piggyBac in the COS-7 cell line

Plasmids were recovered by Hirt extraction 24 h following transfection of COS-7 cells and were transformed into E. coli DH10B cells. One percent of the transformed cells were plated without recovery on LB/ampicillin plates with X-Gal, and the number of blue colonies containing donor plasmids ($pB(KO\alpha)$) was counted or, where necessary, estimated (# donor plasmid). The remaining cells were plated without recovery on LB plates containing Cam, Kan, and X-Gal, and blue colonies resulting from transposition events into the target plasmid (pGDV1) were counted and sequenced using the *piggyBac*-specific inverse primers JF01 and JF02 (Methods) to determine the number of precise Interplasmid Transposition events (# IPT events). The frequency of transposition into the target pGDV1 plasmid was calculated relative to the estimated number of donor plasmids recovered. Control transfections consisted of cells transfected with donor and target plasmids alone. An additional control to demonstrate a lack of bacterial mobilization and absence of contaminating transposition plasmids consisted of the three plasmids directly transformed into E. coli DH10B cells.

sequence on each side of the inserted transposon. Transposition events were recovered at only one of the 21 available TTAA target sites that do not result in an interruption of the chloramphenicol resistance gene (between 1169 and 1655 bp) in the pGDV1 plasmid, at base pair position 363 (Table 2), and all insertions at this site were in the same orientation.

Interplasmid transposition assays in zebrafish embryos

Following the successful demonstration of transposition in a mammalian cell line we tested $\frac{p \cdot p}{p \cdot q}$ movement in the phylogenetically distant and experimentally valuable vertebrate model animal, Danio rerio. Zebrafish embryos were injected at the 1–8 cell stagewitha2:1:1ratiooftarget:donor:helperplasmid ratio in a total concentration of 1.6 μ g/ μ l. Plasmid DNA was recovered from the injected embryos 18 h postinjection byHirt extraction, electroporatedinto

Plasmid DNAs recovered from blue Kan/Cam colonies were sequenced to verify the transpositional insertion of the $KO\alpha$ -marked *piggyBac* element into the pGDV1 target plasmid. A total of 10 interplasmid transposition events were recovered from five independent injection experiments yielding a combined total of 1310 injected embryos, and resulting in a cumulative interplasmid transposition frequency of 1.4×10^{-6} (Table 2). All clones possessed the characteristic TTAA tetranucleotide target site duplication flanking the inserted transposon which confirms *piggyBac*mediated transposition. All recovered insertions occurred at base pair position 363 in the plasmid pGDV1, and all were in the same orientation. Control transformations of the combined plasmids in E. coli yielded no interplasmid transposition events (Table 2), confirming a lack of contaminating positives, and that the observed mobility

Plasmids were recovered by Hirt extraction 18 h following microinjection of zebrafish embryos. One percent of the transformed cells were plated without recovery on LB/ampicillin plates with X-Gal, and the number of blue colonies containing donor plasmids $(pB(KO\alpha))$ was counted or, where necessary, estimated (# donor plasmid). In several of the control injections the number of donor plasmids was estimated to be approximately the same. The remaining cells were plated without recovery on LB plates containing Cam, Kan, and X-Gal, and blue colonies resulting from transposition events into the target plasmid (pGDV1), were counted and sequenced using the *piggyBac*-specific inverse primers JF01 and JF02 (Methods) to determine the number of precise Interplasmid Transposition events (# IPT events). The frequency of transposition into the target pGDV1 plasmid was calculated relative to the counted or estimated number of donor plasmids recovered. As controls, embryos were injected with the donor and target plasmids in the absence of the helper plasmid (phspBac), and the three plasmids were transformed directly into E . coli DH10B cells.

was occurring in the zebrafish embryos and not in subsequently transformed bacteria.

Interplasmid transposition assay using a deletion mutation of pGDV1

In previous analyses of a number of independent insertion sites (Li et al., 2005) we had established that there was no apparent consensus sequence configuration apart from the TTAA target site necessary for insertion of the *piggyBac* transposon. However, these interplasmid transposition results demonstrate a preferential insertion of the piggy-Bac vector at the TTAA target site at 363 bp among all alternative sites in the pGDV1 plasmid. Since we believed we had reasonably ruled out contamination as a factor, we sought an experimental verification of some alternative explanation for the observed target site preference.

We investigated the possibility that preferential insertion at a given position in the pGDV1 plasmid could result from factors other than sequence recognition by taking advantage of a spontaneous deletion mutation of pGDV1, named $pGDV1\Delta148$, which has a deletion of sequence between 506 and 654 bp. Utilizing $pGDV1\Delta148$ as the target plasmid in an interplasmid transposition assay in COS-7 cells we recovered 25 of 26 individual insertions at the TTAA site at position 85 bp (Table 3) instead of position 363 bp. Simultaneous control transfections in the absence of the helper plasmid yielded no transformation events. Interestingly, all these insertions were in the same orientation as those previously observed

353

at position 363 bp. These results demonstrate that the previously observed preferential insertions at 363 bp likely result from a plasmid configuration effect rather than the affinity for a specific sequence.

Discussion

In this report we provide evidence of piggy Bac transposition in cells of a vertebrate species. Utilizing a previously established excision and interplasmid transposition assays we demonstrate that the piggyBac element can mobilize in both the COS-7 vertebrate cell line and in fertilized zebrafish embryos. In both cases mobility is absent in the absence of the $\frac{pig}{y}$ Bac transposase demonstrating that the intact *piggyBac* transposase is necessary for transposition and endogenous pig $gyBac$ homologues do not provide a detectable level of independent transposition events. As observed in a previous report (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999) mobility is not detected when the plasmids are passaged through E. coli demonstrating that the eukaryote intracellular environment is necessary for transposition and the prokaryotic intracellular environment is apparently unfavorable.

The frequency of transposition observed in zebrafish embryos is two orders of magnitude less than the frequency typically obtained with this assay in insect embryos as well as the frequency obtained in this study for interplasmid transposition in COS-7 cells, possibly reflecting the relative inefficiency of the Drosophila heat shock promoter

Table 3. Interplasmid transposition assay in COS-7 cells using $pGDV1\Delta148$ as target

Cell transformed	Helper plasmid	Expt.	$\#$ wells in Expt.	$#$ Donor plasmid	$# IPT$ events	Frequency
$Cos-7$	phspBac			336,800	12	3.56×10^{-5}
				420,000	14	3.33×10^{-5}
$Cos-7$	None			468,300		$\overline{0}$
				542,800		0

Plasmids were recovered by Hirt extraction 24 h following transfection of COS-7 cells and the DNAs obtained were transformed into E. coli DH10B cells. One percent of the transformed cells were plated without recovery on LB/ampicillin plates with X-Gal, and the number of blue colonies, indicating the number of donor plasmids ($pB(KO\alpha)$), was determined (# donor plasmid). The remaining cells were plated without recovery on LB plates containing Cam, Kan, and X-Gal, and the number of blue colonies, indicating transposition events into the target plasmid (pGDV1 Δ 148), were counted and sequenced using the piggyBac-specific inverse primers JF01 and JF02 (Methods) to determine the number of precise Interplasmid Transposition events (# IPT events). Control transfections consisted of cells transfected with donor and target plasmids alone. The frequency of transposition into the target pGDV1 Δ 148 plasmid was calculated relative to the number of donor plasmids recovered.

in expressing the transposase in zebrafish. This frequency is similar to those frequencies obtained with other transposable elements in zebrafish embryo injections. This relatively consistent reduced frequency observed among all transposons applied in injected zebrafish embryos could reflect an inherently unfavorable environment for unprotected DNA.

In these initial transposition assays of both COS-7 and zebrafish embryos all observed insertions were limited to one of the 21 recoverable TTAA insertion sites that do not interrupt the chloramphenicol gene on the target pGDV1 plasmid, and all were in the same orientation. This apparent target site and orientation preference is not without precedent. Our own previous studies had noted an apparent preference for insertion at one or two target sites within pGDV1 in both D. melanogaster and Ae. aegypti (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999). Interestingly enough, in these insect embryos insertions were limited to positions 363 and 491, with position 363 being the most favored site in Drosophila. Further, the insertions recovered at position 393 in all insect species previously tested happened to be in the same orientation (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999) corresponding with the orientation observed in these studies. In contrast, insertions at several alternative sites were recovered from the lepidopterans Trichoplusia ni (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999) and Pectinophora gossypiella (Thibault et al., 1999), with no apparent orientation preferences at those alternative sites.

We consider contamination to be ruled out for both our previous (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999) and current results for several reasons. First, the plasmid mixtures for each experimental series, whether COS-7 or zebrafish, were also used in several control transfections, injections, or transformations that demonstrated both a lack of mobility due to resident piggyBac homologues known to be present in each species genome (Sarkar et al., 2003) and a lack of contaminating positive plasmids in all the reagents used, including the pGDV1, helper, and donor plasmids. If contamination of reagents were a problem we would have recovered positive insertion events in one or more of these controls. Likewise, if starting plasmids were contaminated in some manner we would also have recovered transposition events in one or more of the controls, and at the very least, in the direct transformations of the plasmids in E. coli. Second,

each of the transfection or injection experiments were carried out independently and at separate times, with all Hirt extraction and bacterial transformation reagents having been freshly prepared. In addition, the electroporation competent E. coli DH10B were purchased and not prepared in our lab, and therefore would be free of contamination.

We also note that while initial experiments in some species indicated a species-dependent preference for certain TTAA sites, subsequent analyses proved these apparent preferences were not strict. We therefore believe this apparent target site preference to be the result of limited sampling size.

We interpret the evidence to indicate that the pGDV1 plasmid may present a configuration within some cells that favors insertion at a particular TTAA target site, and possibly a particular orientation at that site. This interpretation is further supported by a second interplasmid transposition assay performed in COS-7 cells using the $pGDV1\Delta148$ deletion plasmid which removed 148 bp of sequence between 506 and 654 of the pGDV1. Using this plasmid as the target we were unable to recover any insertions at position 393, but did recover 25 of 26 individual insertions at position 85, all in same orientation. Interestingly, this orientation corresponded to the orientations observed for all position 85 insertions recovered in previous insect embryo assays (Lobo, Li & Fraser, 1999), and for those position 393 insertions recovered in the present COS-7 and zebrafish assays. We do not have an explanation for this orientation preference at this time.

The most successful transgenesis system currently available for vertebrates is the pantropic retrovirus vector (Lin et al., 1994; Gaiano et al., 1996a, b; Amsterdam & Hopkins, 1999). Pantropic retrovirus vectors provide a significant improvement in the identification of mutated genes compared to chemical mutagenesis strategies by tagging genes associated with a phenotypic alteration (Gaiano et al., 1996b; Amsterdam & Hopkins, 1999). In addition, the retrovirus approach potentially allows reinsertion of mutated genes for analysis of function, limited promoter or enhancer trapping, or directed gene knockouts using RNAi approaches (e.g. Korn et al., 1992; Sablitzky et al., 1993; Xiong, Leahy & Stuhlmann, 1999). However, retrovirus vectors lack some significant capabilities of an ideal transgenesis vector such as

remobilization following insertion and a carrying capacity greater than 10 kb. They are also difficult to produce and present a biohazard to laboratory personnel (Linney et al., 1999; BD Biosciences/ Clontech manual). A suitable transposon vector could provide a desirable alternative to retroviruses in developing functional genomics of vertebrate systems.

An ideal transposon vector should facilitate not only the identification of tagged genes through frequent and mechanistically predictable insertion and excision, but should also allow defined regulation of movement permitting the development of enhancer and suppressor trapping capabilities. These manipulations are essential for full development of functional genomics in model vertebrate systems.

Application of piggyBac in the D. melanogaster model system has validated its capabilities as a versatile genetic transformation vector with many of the most desirable transposon vector capabilities (Parks et al., 2004; Thibault et al., 2004). While this manuscript was in review, similar capabilities were reported for piggyBac in the transformation of the mouse genome and human cell cultures (Ding et al., 2005). Our results further demonstrate that this insect transposon can move in widely divergent vertebrate systems.

The mobility of *piggyBac* in a variety of model systems and target organisms permits the testing, verification, and perfection of strategies in easily manipulated models, and application of those proven strategies to other, less tractable models. Based upon these observations and the recent publication of Ding et al. (2005) there is ample justification to expect that the $piggyBac$ element would mediate germ line transformation in many higher vertebrates, extending its effective range throughout the animal kingdom.

While the extension of *piggyBac* mobility into vertebrate systems is exciting from a genetic and functional genomic standpoint, this report supports and enhances concerns for using this transposon in particular, and virtually any transposon with vertebrate homologues, for applied genetic engineering of agricultural or medical pest species. In this regard, the recent report by Handler, Zimowski and Horn (2004) of post-transformation inactivation of a piggyBac transposon could provide a certain amount of security against possible escape of engineered genes from genetically modified target spe-

cies. However, the use of autonomously mobile $piggyBac$ elements should be ruled out due to its apparently unlimited mobility characteristics.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by NIH grants RO1 AI033656 to J. A. Adams and RO1 AI48561 to M. J. Fraser.

References

- Aoki, T., N. Noguchi, M. Sasatsu & M. Kono, 1987. Complete nucleotide sequence of pTZ12, a chloramphenicol-resistance plasmid of *Bacillus subtilis*. Gene 51: 107-111.
- Amsterdam, A. & N. Hopkins, 1999. Retrovirus-mediated insertional mutagenesis in zebrafish. Methods Cell Biol. 60: 87–98.
- Bonin, C.P. & R.S. Mann, 2004. A piggyBac transposon gene trap for the analysis of gene expression and function in Drosophila. Genetics 167: 1801–1811.
- Bron, R., 1995. Plasmids, pp. 75–174 in Molecular Biological Methods for Bacillus, edited by C.R. Harwood & S.M. Cutting. John Wiley and Sons, New York.
- Cary, L.C., M.J. Goebel, B. Corsaro, H.G. Wang, E. Rosen & M.J. Fraser, 1989. Transposon mutagenesis of Baculoviruses: analysis of Trichoplusia ni transposon IFP2 insertions within the FP-locus of nuclear polyhedrosis viruses. Virology 172: 156–169.
- Coates, C.J., C.L. Turney, M. Frommer, D.A. O'Brochta & P.W. Atkinson, 1997. Interplasmid transposition of the mariner transposable element in non-drosophilid insects. Mol. Gen. Genet. 253: 728–733.
- Coates, C.J., C.L. Turney, M. Frommer, D.A. O'Brochta, W.D. Warren & P.W. Atkinson, 1995. The transposable element mariner can excise in non-drosophilid insects. Mol. Gen. Genet. 249: 246–252.
- Ding, S., X. Wu, G. Li, M. Han, Y. Zhuang & T. Xu, 2005. Efficient transposition of the piggyBac (PB) transposon in mammalian cells and mice. Cell (Aug 12) 122(3): 473–483.
- Elick, T.A., C.A. Bauser & M.J. Fraser, 1996. Excision of the piggyBac transposable element in vitro is a precise event that is enhanced by the expression of its encoded transposase. Genetica 98: 33–41.
- Elick, T.A., N. Lobo & M.J. Fraser, 1997. Analysis of the cisacting DNA elements required for piggyBac transposable element excision. Mol. Gen. Genet. 255: 605–610.
- Fraser, M.J., 2001. The TTAA-specific family of transposable elements: identification, functional characterization, and utility for transformation of insects, pp. 249–268, in Insect Transgenesis: Methods and Applications, edited by A.M. Handler & A.A. James. Boca Raton, Florida, CRC Press.
- Fraser, M.J., J.S. Brusca, G.E. Smith & M.D. Summers, 1985. Transposon-mediated mutagenesis of a Baculovirus. Virology 145: 356–361.
- Fraser, M.J., L. Cary, K. Boonvisudhi & H.H. Wang, 1995. Assay for movement of Lepidopteran transposon IFP2 in insect cells using a Baculovirus genome as a target DNA. Virology 211: 397–407.
- Fraser, M.J., T. Ciszczon, T. Elick & C. Bauser, 1996. Precise excision of TTAA-specific lepidopteran transposons piggy-Bac (IFP2) and tagalong (TFP3) from the baculovirus genome in cell lines from two species of lepidoptera. Insect Mol. Biol. 5: 141–151.
- Fraser, M.J., G.E. Smith & M.D. Summers, 1983. Acquisition of host cell DNA sequences by baculoviruses: relationship between host DNA insertions and FP mutants of Autographa californica and Galleria mellonella nuclear polyhedrosis viruses. J. Virol. 47: 287–300.
- Gaiano, N., M. Allende, A. Amsterdam, K. Kawakami & N. Hopkins, 1996a. Highly efficient germ-line transmission of proviral insertions in zebrafish. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 93: 7777–7782.
- Gaiano, N., A. Amsterdam, K. Kawakami, M. Allende, T. Becker & N. Hopkins, 1996b. Insertional mutagenesis and rapid cloning of essential genes in zebrafish. Nature 383: 829–832.
- Gluzman, Y., 1981. SV40-transformed simian cells support the replication of early SV40 mutants. Cell 23: 175–182.
- Gonzalez-Estevez, C., T. Momose, W.J. Gehring & E. Salo, 2003. Transgenic planarian lines obtained by electroporation using transposon-derived vectors and an eye-specific GFP marker. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 100(24): 14046–14051.
- Grossman, G.L., C.S. Rafferty, J.R. Clayton, T.K. Stevens, O. Mukabayire & M.Q. Benedict, 2001. Germline transformation of the malaria vector, Anopheles gambiae, with the piggyBac transposable element. Insect Mol. Biol. 10: 597– 604.
- Grossman, G.L., C.S. Rafferty, M.J. Fraser & M.Q. Benedict, 2000. The $piggyBac$ element is capable of precise excision and transposition in cells and embryos of the mosquito, Anopheles gambiae. Insect Biochem. Mol. Biol. 30: 909–914.
- Hacker, U., S. Nystedt, M.P. Barmchi, C. Horn & E.A. Wimmer, 2003. *piggyBac*-based insertional mutagenesis in the presence of stably integrated P elements in Drosophila. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 100: 7720–7725.
- Handler, A.M. & R.A. Harrell, 1999. Germline transformation of Drosophila melanogaster with the piggyBac transposon vector. Insect Mol. Biol. 8: 449–457.
- Handler, A.M., S. McCombs, M.J. Fraser & S.H. Saul, 1998. The lepidopteran transposon vector, piggyBac, mediates germ-line transformation in the Mediterranean fruit fly. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 95: 7520–7525.
- Handler, A.M., G.J. Zimowski & C. Horn, 2004. Post-Integration stabilization of a transposon vector by terminal sequence deletion in Drosophila melanogaster. Nat. Biotechnol. 22(9): 1150–1154.
- Hirt, B., 1967. Selective extraction of polyoma DNA from infected mouse cell cultures. J. Mol. Biol. 26: 365–369.
- Horn, C., N. Offen, S. Nystedt, U. Häcker & E.A. Wimmer, 2003. piggyBac-based insertional mutagenesis and enhancer detection as a tool for functional insect genomics. Genetics 163: 647–661.
- Ivics, Z., Z. Izsvák & P.B. Hackett, 1997. Molecular reconstruction of *Sleeping Beauty*, a Tcl-like transposon system

from fish and its transposition in human cells. Cell 91: 501– 510.

- Izsvak, Z., Z. Ivics & R.H. Plasterk, 2000. Sleeping Beauty, a wide host-range transposon vector for genetic transformation in vertebrates. J. Mol. Biol. 302: 93–102.
- Kawakami, K., A. Koga, H. Hori & A. Shima, 1998. Excision of the Tol2 transposable element of the medaka fish, Oryzias latipes, in zebrafish, Danio rerio. Gene 225: 17–22.
- Kawakami, K., A. Shima & N. Kawakami, 2000. Identification of a functional transposase of the Tol2 element, and Ac-like element from the Japanese medaka fish, and its transposition in the zebrafish germ lineage. PNAS 97(21): 11403– 11408.
- Kim, W., K. Koo, A.M. Richman, D. Seely, J. Vizioli, A.D. Klocko & D.A. O'Brochta, 2004. Ectopic expression of a cecropin transgene in the human malaria vector mosquito Anopheles gambiae (Diptera: Culcidae): effects on susceptibility to Plasmodium. J. Med. Entomol. 41(3): 447-455.
- Kokoza, V., A. Ahmed, E.A. Wimmer & A.S. Raikhel, 2001. Efficient transformation of the yellow fever mosquito Aedes aegypti using the piggyBac transposable element vector pBac[3xP3-EGFP afm]. Insect Biochem. Mol. Biol. 31: 1137–1143.
- Korn, R., M. Schoor, H. Neuhaus, U. Henseling, R. Soininen, J. Zachgo & A. Gossler, 1992. Enhancer trap integrations in mouse embryonic stem cells give rise to staining patterns in chimaeric embryos with a high frequency and detect endogenous genes. Mech. Dev. 39: 95–109.
- Li, X., R.A. Harrell, A.M. Handler, T. Beam, K. Hennessy & M.J. Fraser, 2005. *piggyBac* internal sequences are necessary for efficient transformation of target genomes. Insect Mol. Biol. 14: 17–30.
- Lin, S., N. Gaiano, P. Culp, J.C. Burns, T. Friedmann, J.K. Yee & N. Hopkins, 1994. Integration and germ-line transmission of a pseudotyped retroviral vector in zebrafish. Science 265: 666–669.
- Linney, E., N.L. Hardison, B.E. Lonze, S. Lyons & L. DiNapoli, 1999. Transgene expression in zebrafish: a comparison of retroviral-vector and DNA-injection approaches. Dev. Biol. 213: 207–216.
- Lobo, N.F., A. Hua-Van, X. Li, B.M. Nolen & M.J. Fraser, 2002. Germ line transformation of the yellow fever mosquito, Aedes aegypti, mediated by transpositional insertion of a piggyBac vector. Insect Mol. Biol. 11: 133–139.
- Lobo, N., X. Li & M.J. Fraser, 1999. Transposition of the piggyBac element in embryos of Drosophila melanogaster, Aedes aegypti and Trichoplusia ni. Mol. Gen. Genet. 261: 803–810.
- Lobo, N., X. Li, A. Hua-Van & M.J. Fraser, 2001. Mobility of the piggyBac transposon in embryos of the vectors of Dengue fever (Aedes albopictus) and La Crosse encephalitis (Ae. triseriatus). Mol. Genet. Genomics 265: 66–71.
- Lorenzen, M.D., A.J. Berghammer, S.J. Brown, R.E. Denell, M. Klingler & R.W. Beeman, 2003. piggyBac-mediated germline transformation in the beetle Tribolium castaneum. Insect Mol. Biol. 12(5): 433–440.
- Parks, A.L., K.R. Cook, M. Belvin, N.A. Dompe, R. Fawcett, K. Huppert, L.R. Tan, C.G. Winter, K.P. Bogart, J.E. Deal, M.E. Deal-Herr, D. Grant, M. Marcinko, W.Y. Miyazaki, S. Robertson, K.J. Shaw, M. Tabios, V. Vysotskaia, L. Zhao, R.S. Andrade, K.A. Edgar, E. Howie, K.

Killpack, B. Milash, A. Norton, D. Thao, K. Whittaker, M.A. Winner, L. Friedman, J. Margolis, M.A. Singer, C. Kopczynski, D. Curtis, T.C. Kaufman, G.D. Plowman, G. Duyk & H.L. Francis-Lang, 2004. Systematic generation of high-resolution deletion coverage of the Drosophila melanogaster genome. Nat. Genet. 36(3): 288–292.

- Romano, G., K. Reiss, X. Tu, F. Peruzzi, B. Belletti, J.Y. Wang, T. Zanocco-Marani & R. Baserga, 2001. Efficient in vitro and in vivo gene regulation of a retrovirally delivered pro-apoptotic factor under the control of the Drosophila HSP70 promoter. Gene Ther. 8: 600–607.
- Ryder, E. & S. Russell, 2003. Transposable elements as tools for genomics and genetics in Drosophila. Brief Funct. Genomic Proteomic 2: 57–71.
- Sablitzky, F., J.-I. Jonsson, B.L. Cohen & R.A. Phillips, 1993. High frequency expression of integrated proviruses derived from enhancer trap retroviruses. Cell Growth Differ. 4: 451–459.
- Sarkar, A., C.J. Coates, S. Whyard, U. Willhoeft, P.W. Atkinson & D.A. O'Brochta, 1997. The Hermes element from Musca domestica can transpose in four families of cyclorrhaphan flies. Genetica 99: 15–29.
- Sarkar, A., C. Sim, Y.S. Hong, J.R. Hogan, M.J. Fraser, H.M. Robertson & F.H. Collins, 2003. Molecular evolutionary analysis of the widespread $piggyBac$ transposon family and related ''domesticated'' sequences. Mol. Genet. Genomics 270: 173–180.

Thibault, S.T., H.T. Luu, N. Vann & T.A. Miller, 1999. Precise excision and transposition of *piggyBac* in pink bollworm embryos. Insect Mol. Biol. 8: 119–123.

- Thibault, S.T., M.A. Singer, W.Y. Miyazaki, B. Milash, N.A. Dompe, C.M. Singh, R. Buchholz, M. Demsky, R. Fawcett, H.L. Francis-Lang, L. Ryner, L.M. Cheung, A. Chong, C. Erickson, W.W. Fisher, K. Greer, S.R. Hartouni, E. Howie, L. Jakkula, D. Joo, K. Killpack, A. Laufer, J. Mazzotta, R.D. Smith, L.M. Stevens, C. Stuber, L.R. Tan, R. Ventura, A. Woo, I. Zakrajsek, L. Zhao, F. Chen, C. Swimmer, C. Kopczynski, G. Duyk, M.L. Winberg & J. Margolis, 2004. A complementary transposon tool kit for Drosophila melanogaster using P and piggyBac. Nat. Genet. 36: 283–287.
- Wang, H.H., M.J. Fraser & L.C. Cary, 1989. Transposon mutagenesis of Baculoviruses: analysis of TFP3 lepidopteran insertions at the FP locus of nuclear polyhedrosis viruses. Gene 81: 97–108.
- Westerfield, M., 1993. The Zebrafish Book. University of Oregon Press, Eugene, OR.
- Xiong, J.-W., A. Leahy & H. Stuhlmann, 1999. Retroviral promoter-trap insertion into a novel mammalian septin gene expressed during mouse neuronal development. Mech. Dev. 86: 183–191.