Nitrogen Regulation of *nasA* and the *nasB* Operon, Which Encode Genes Required for Nitrate Assimilation in *Bacillus subtilis*[†]

MICHIKO M. NAKANO,* FANG YANG,‡ PHILLIP HARDIN, AND PETER ZUBER

Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Louisiana State University Medical Center, Shreveport, Louisiana 71130-3932

Received 11 July 1994/Accepted 23 November 1994

The divergently transcribed *nasA* gene and *nasB* operon are required for nitrate and nitrite assimilation in *Bacillus subtilis*. The β -galactosidase activity of transcriptional *lacZ* fusions from the *nasA* and *nasB* promoters was high when cells were grown in minimal glucose medium containing poor nitrogen sources such as nitrate, proline, or glutamate. The expression was very low when ammonium or glutamine was used as the sole nitrogen source. The repression of the genes during growth on good sources of nitrogen required wild-type glutamine synthetase (GlnA), but not GlnR, the repressor of the *glnRA* operon. Primer extension analysis showed that the -10 region of each promoter resembles those of σ^A -recognized promoters. Between the divergently oriented *nasA* and *nasB* promoters is a region of dyad symmetry. Mutational analysis led to the conclusion that this sequence is required in *cis* for the activation of both *nasA* and *nasB*. The derepression of these genes in a *glnA* mutant also required this sequence. These results suggest that an unidentified transcriptional activator and glutamine synthetase function in the regulation of *nasA* and the *nasB* operon.

Bacillus subtilis can use nitrate as the sole source of nitrogen (10). Genes that function in nitrate assimilation in B. subtilis (nasA to nasF), including those encoding nitrate reductase and nitrite reductase, were isolated, and their primary structures were determined (26). Most bacteria possess elaborate mechanisms for controlling genes required for nitrogen utilization in response to changes in nitrogen source availability. In enteric bacteria such as Escherichia coli, the expression of these genes is controlled by the global nitrogen regulatory (Ntr) system. NRII (NtrB) phosphorylates NRI (NtrC) in response to the intracellular ratio of glutamine to α-ketoglutarate. NRI (NtrC) phosphate binds to enhancer-like elements upstream of the Ntr-regulated promoters which are recognized by σ^{54} RNA polymerase (21). In Klebsiella aerogenes (4, 20, 27) and Klebsiella pneumoniae (5), the genes encoding the enzymes involved in nitrate assimilation are induced by nitrate or nitrite and repressed by ammonium. The repression by ammonium is mediated by Ntr (20), and the induction by nitrate in K. pneumoniae was recently shown to be controlled by an antitermination mechanism (19). In Synechococcus sp., ammonium represses the genes encoding nitrate/nitrite reductases, a process which involves the assimilation of ammonium nitrogen through glutamine synthetase (16, 17). A mutation in ntcA, resulting in loss of nitrate/nitrite reductases, glutamine synthetase, and methylammonium transport, was isolated from Synechococcus sp. (39). Inspection of the NtcA amino acid sequence showed that it belongs to the Crp family of bacterial transcriptional activators (38).

It is unlikely that a global Ntr system exists in the sporeforming soil bacterium *B. subtilis* (10, 13). One domain of LevR, a regulatory protein controlling the levanase operon in *B. subtilis*, is similar to the central domain of NtrC (8). RocR (6), a positive regulator of arginine catabolism, was also shown to belong to the NtrC/NifA family. A homolog of σ^{54} , or RpoN, which is required for the transcription of many nitrogen-regulated genes in enteric bacteria, also exists in B. subtilis (9). However, *B. subtilis* σ^{54} is probably not responsible for the transcription of general nitrogen-controlled genes but is responsible only for the levanase operon and the genes that function in the catabolism of arginine, ornithine, isoleucine, or valine. Two types of nitrogen-dependent control have been observed in B. subtilis. One was observed in studies of the hut operon, which functions in the utilization of histidine as a nitrogen source (2, 3), and in studies of *citB* (aconitase) (14) and the dciA operon (34, 35). In these cases, expression is under amino acid-dependent repression in addition to carbon catabolite repression. In the case of the dciA operon, a single mechanism may be responsible for amino acid repression and carbon catabolite repression, since mutations near the transcriptional start site relieve repression by amino acids as well as by glucose (34). A mutation, cod, that relieves amino acid and glucose repression of dciA expression was isolated, suggesting that cod may encode a regulator of dciA transcription, which is responsive to nutritional conditions (34). In the case of the hut operon and citB, amino acid repression was shown to be independent of carbon catabolite repression (2, 14) and glutamine synthetase (2). The second type of control requires the product of glnA, glutamine synthetase (11). In this form of regulation, expression is sensitive to nitrogen availability. Nitrogen-regulated genes in B. subtilis, normally repressed in medium containing ammonium or glutamine, are constitutively expressed in glnA mutants. Genes under this type of control include the glnRA operon (glutamine synthetase) (29), the genes encoding asparaginase (1) and urease (1), and the nrg (nitrogen regulated) genes (1). Among the glnA alleles that cause the derepression of nitrogen-regulated genes in the presence of glutamine are those that result in near-total absence of the enzyme (33). Strains with glnA mutations that confer altered catalytic and/or regulatory properties (7, 31, 33) also express glutamine synthetase at a high level under repressing conditions. These results suggest that catalytic activity of glutamine

^{*} Corresponding author. Mailing address: Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Louisiana State University Medical Center, 1501 Kings Hwy, Shreveport, LA 71130-3932. Phone: (318) 675-5158. Fax: (318) 675-5180. Electronic mail address: mnakan@nomvs. lsumc.edu.

[†] This paper is dedicated to the memory of Fang Yang.

[‡] Deceased.

TABLE 1. Bacterial strains used in this study

		0
Strain	Genotype	reference
Strains derived		
from JH642		
JH642	trpC2 pheA1	J. Hoch
OKB105	pheA1 sfp	23
LAB1166	trpC2 pheA1 SPBc2del2::Tn917::pZS5	
LAB1167	trpC2 pheA1 SPBc2del2::Tn917::pZS6	
LAB1581	trpC2 pheA1 SPBc2del2::Tn917::pFY6	
LAB1583	trpC2 pheA1 SPBc2del2::Tn917::pFY8	
LAB1589	trpC2 pheA1 SPβc2del2::Tn917::pFY9	
LAB1600	trpC2 pheA1 SPβc2del2::Tn917::pPH1	
LAB1655	trpC2 pheA1 SPβc2del2::Tn917::pMMN163	
LAB1656	trpC2 pheA1 SPβc2del2::Tn917::pMMN164	
LAB1685	trpC2 pheA1 SPβc2del2::Tn917::pMMN171	
LAB1686	<i>trpC2 pheA1</i> SPβc2del2::Tn917::pMMN172	
LAB1706	<i>trpC2 pheA1</i> SPβ <i>c2del2</i> ::Tn917::pMMN180	
LAB1707	<i>trpC2 pheA1</i> SPβ <i>c2del2</i> ::Tn917::pMMN181	
LAB1714	trpC2 pheA1 SPβc2del2::Tn917::pMMN183	
LAB1715	trpC2 pheA1 SPβc2del2::Tn917::pMMN184	
LAB1728	trpC2 pheA1 ΔnasB::pMMN192	
LAB1798	<i>trpC2 pheA1 ΔnasA</i> ::pMMN202	
LAB1803	<i>trpC2 pheA1 ΔnasB</i> ::pMMN192 SPβ <i>c2del2</i> :: Tn917::pZS5	
LAB1804	<i>trpC2 pheA1 ΔnasA</i> ::pMMN202 SPβ <i>c2del2</i> :: Tn917::pZS5	
LAB1805	<i>trpC2 pheA1 ΔnasB</i> ::pMMN192 SPβ <i>c2del2</i> :: Tn917::pZS6	
LAB1806	<i>trpC2 pheA1 ΔnasA</i> ::pMMN202 SPβ <i>c2del2</i> :: Tn917::pZS6	
Strains isogenic		
to SF10		•
HJS31	$\Delta gln R57$	29
SF10	wild type	S. Fisher
SF / 3	glnA/3	12
LAB1207	ginA/3 SPBc2ael2::1191/::pZS0	
LAD1206	<i>Agink3/</i> SPBc2 <i>ael2</i> ::1197/::pZ50	
LAD1214	ginA/5 SPBC20012::11917::pZS5	
LAD1213	AginK5/ SPpc2aei2::1191/::pZ55	
LAD1223	SP 62del2T1917pZS5 SP6 62del2Tn017pZS6	
LAD1224 LAB1977	SI $p(2uei21)$ $p(2.50)$ SD $a2dal2Tn017pMMN162$	
LAD10// LAD1079	SI $p_2 u c_1 2 \dots T n 0 17 \dots p_1 N 110 105$ SD $p_2 2 d_2 l 2 \dots T n 0 17 \dots p_M M N 164$	
LAD10/0	SI $p_2 u c_1 2 \dots T n 0 17 \dots p_1 N 11 V 11 N 104$ SD $p_2 2 d_2 l 2 \dots T n 0 17 \dots p_1 M M N 183$	
LAD10/9	SI $p_2 u c_1 2 \dots T n 0 17 \dots p_1 N 11 N 105$ SD $p_2 2 d_2 l 2 \dots T n 0 17 \dots p_1 M M N 184$	
LAD1000	oln 473 SDR 22del2Th917pWWW1104	
LAD1001	$g_{III} = 0$ of $p_{III} = 0$ $g_{III} = 0$	

glnA73 SPBc2del2::Tn917::pMMN184 ^a Unless otherwise noted, all listed strains were derived from this work.

glnA73 SPBc2del2::Tn917::pMMN164

glnA73 SPBc2del2::Tn917::pMMN183

LAB1882

LAB1883

LAB1884

synthetase is involved in the nitrogen regulation of gene expression.

In this report, data are presented which demonstrate that the transcription of the nasB operon encoding nitrate/nitrite reductase subunits and *nasA*, which is transcribed in the opposite direction with respect to the nasB operon, is regulated in response to nitrogen source availability in a manner resembling this second, glnA-dependent mode of nitrogen control. The identification of a cis-acting element required for full expression and regulation of nasA/B expression is also reported.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains, plasmids, and media. The B. subtilis strains used in this study are listed in Table 1, which contains strains of different genetic backgrounds.



FIG. 1. Nucleotide sequence of the promoter region of nasA/B. Translation start sites are marked as fmet. The directions of nasA and nasB translation are shown by arrows in the right margin. Transcription start sites of divergent transcription units, determined by primer extension analysis with 102 and mZS2 oligonucleotides as shown in Fig. 2, are marked as asterisks. The dyad symmetry sequence is boxed. The letters below the dyad symmetry indicate the sites of base substitutions (NR1 to NR3) introduced in three mutagenesis experiments. Arrows with plasmid names show endpoints of deletions constructed.

Some strains are derived from JH642, and some are isogenic to SF10. LAB1223, LAB1224, LAB1877, LAB1878, LAB1879, and LAB1880 were constructed from SF10. LAB1207, LAB1214, LAB1881, LAB1882, LAB1883, and LAB1884 were constructed from SF73. LAB1208 and LAB1215 were constructed from HJS31. Construction of a nasA deletion mutant (LAB1798) is described elsewhere (26). A nasB deletion mutant (LAB1728) was constructed by replacing an internal nasB fragment (0.6 kb) with a phleomycin resistance (Phleor) gene. Minimal glucose medium (MMG) is composed of 0.5% glucose, 1.4% K₂HPO₄, 0.6% KH2PO4, 0.1% sodium citrate, 0.012% MgSO4, 10 mM MnCl2, 1 mM Ca(NO3)2, 1 mM FeSO₄, and 50 µg of auxotrophic amino acid requirement per ml if necessary. For the nitrogen source, 0.2% NH₄Cl, KNO₃, glutamate, proline, or glutamine was added. Glutamine was freshly prepared and filter sterilized. For preparation of agar plates, 1.2% Noble Agar (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Mich.) was used. DS (Difco sporulation) medium was described previously (23). DSG medium was DS medium supplemented with 1% glucose, and DSGG medium was DS medium supplemented with 1% glucose and 0.2% glutamine. Plasmids pTKlac (18), pZS3, pZS4, and pZS5 are described in reference 26. DNA fragments carrying various promoter regions were cloned in front of the lacZ gene of plasmid pTKlac. The recombinant plasmid was introduced into the SP β prophage site on the *B. subtilis* chromosome as previously described (41).

Measurement of β-galactosidase specific activity. B. subtilis cells carrying lacZ fusions were grown in DS, DSG, and DSGG media, and 1 ml of cells was withdrawn every 30 min for measurement of β-galactosidase activity. Cells cultured in MMG supplemented with different nitrogen sources were collected at the mid to late log phase of the growth curve. Preliminary results showed that activities of nasA- and nasB-lacZ fusions were constant during the growth phase in MMG. β -Galactosidase activity was measured as previously described (22).

Primer extension. RNA was isolated from B. subtilis OKB105 (23, 24), a surfactin-producing strain derived from JH642. In surfactin-producing strains, nasA and nasB expression is strongly induced postexponentially in DSG medium (25). OKB105 cells were grown in DSG medium, and RNA was isolated from cells at T_1 (1 h after the end of the exponential phase) and T_5 . RNA was also isolated from cells cultured in MMG supplemented with nitrate or ammonium. nasA and nasB transcription start sites were determined by primer extension as previously described (24). Two different 20-mer oligonucleotides were used as primers: a 20-mer corresponding to bases 148 to 167 (oligo 102 in Fig. 1) for the determination of the nasA transcription start site, and an oligonucleotide complementary to bases 357 to 376 (oligo mZS2 in Fig. 1) for the transcription initiation site of the nasB operon. Nucleotide sequence determination was performed by the dideoxy-chain termination method (28) with the above primers.

Deletion of the promoter region. Plasmids pFY6, pFY8, pFY9, and pMMN180

TABLE 2.	β-Galactosidase	e activities of	nasA/B-lacZ	fusions
in wild-	type cells grown	with various	nitrogen sou	rces

N::	β-Galactosidase activity (Miller units) of ^a :			
Nitrogen source	LAB1166 (nasB-lacZ)	LAB1167 (nasA-lacZ)		
Nitrate	10.3 ± 0.07	18.2 ± 0.9		
Ammonium	< 0.01	0.40 ± 0.19		
Nitrate + ammonium	0.07 ± 0.01	0.64 ± 0.03		
Proline	17.7 ± 2.6	50.0 ± 3.1		
Glutamate	14.2 ± 0.7	50.7 ± 1.6		
Glutamine	0.07 ± 0.01	1.13 ± 0.08		

 $^{\it a}$ Average of two or three independent cultures. The error is the standard deviation.

are deletion derivatives of pZS5 (26). Plasmids pPH1 and pMMN181 are pZS6 (26) derivatives. pFY6 was constructed by unidirectional deletion of pZS5 with the Erase-a-Base system (Promega Corp., Madison, Wis.). The deletion endpoints were determined by nucleotide sequencing. To create pFY8, pZS5 was digested with XbaI, a fill-in reaction was performed with Sequenase (United States Biochemical Corp., Cleveland, Ohio), and then the plasmid was further digested with BamHI. The resulting 380-bp DNA fragment was inserted into pTKlac digested with SmaI and BamHI. pFY9 was constructed by inserting a HpaI-BamHI fragment (290 bp) of the nasB promoter into pTKlac digested with SmaI and BamHI. pZS3 containing the 570-bp promoter region was digested with AvaI. After filling in with Sequenase, the plasmid was further digested with BamHI. A 340-bp fragment was inserted into pTKlac digested with SmaI and BamHI to construct pMMN180. A 230-bp fragment from the same digest was used to construct pMMN181. pZS6 was partially digested with HpaI and then cleaved with SmaI. pPH1 was then constructed by self-ligation of the SmaI-HpaI cleavage plasmid. The resultant plasmids were introduced into the SPB locus as described previously (41).

Oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis. Oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis was done as previously described (24) with M13mp9 containing the 570-bp promoter fragment shown in Fig. 1. Three oligonucleotides (18-mer) complementary to the sequence around nucleotides 250 to 280 were used for the mutagenesis of the dyad symmetry sequence: NR1 (5'-CACAAAAACGTACA CATG-3'), NR2 (5'-TAAACGT<u>A</u>TCACAAAAAC-3'), and NR3 (5'-CATTA AAC<u>A</u>TGTCACAAAA-3') (the mutations introduced are underlined). The mutagenized DNA fragments were isolated from the replicative forms of the mutagenized M13 clones and inserted into pTKlac in both orientations. Plasmids pMMN163 and pMMN164 are pZS6 and pZS5 derivatives, respectively, carrying the NR1 mutation in the dyad symmetry. Plasmids pMMN183 and pMMN184 have the NR2 mutation; pMMN171 and pMMN172 have the NR3 mutation.

RESULTS

Expression of nasA and nasB is nitrogen regulated. The nasBCDEF operon in B. subtilis was found to encode the enzymes required for nitrate and nitrite assimilation and the enzyme for synthesis of the siroheme cofactor of nitrite reductase (26). nasA, whose transcription is in the opposite direction to that of nasBCDEF, is also required for nitrate assimilation (26). The expression of nasA and nasB was monitored by assaying β -galactosidase activity of cells harboring *nasA-lacZ* and nasB-lacZ in the prophage of SPB (SPB::pZS6 and SPB::pZS5, respectively, constructed as described in reference 26). Expression of neither lacZ fusion was detected until early stationary phase, and expression of both increased sharply after T_2 (2 h after the end of the exponential growth phase) in DSG medium, but no expression was detected either in DS medium or in DSGG medium (data not shown). This result suggests that induction of the fusions carried by nasA/B was due to nitrogen limitation. Next, the expression of nasA/B was examined in cells cultured in MMG supplemented with various nitrogen sources. Both lacZ fusions were expressed at constant levels during growth and stationary phase in MMG with nitrate, glutamate, or proline as a nitrogen source, but the expression was significantly reduced in MMG supplemented with ammonium or glutamine (Table 2). In the presence of both nitrate and ammonium, the β -galactosidase activity was also reduced,

TABLE 3. β -Galactosidase activities of *nasA/B-lacZ* fusions in *glnA* and *glnR* mutants

	β-Galactosidase activity (Miller units) of":				
Strain nasB-lacZ		lacZ	nasA-lacZ		
	Glutamate	Glutamine	Glutamate	Glutamine	
LAB1223 (wt) ^b	3.17 ± 0.1	< 0.01			
LAB1224 (wt)			31.8 ± 0.3	0.37 ± 0.02	
LAB1214 (glnA)	NA^{c}	42.9 ± 5.3			
LAB1207 (glnA)			NA	72.3 ± 2.5	
LAB1215 $(glnR)$	5.68 ± 0.38	< 0.01			
LAB1208 (glnR)			18.7 ± 1.3	0.57 ± 0.11	

 $^{\it a}$ Average of two or three independent cultures. The error is the standard deviation.

^b wt, wild type.

^c NA, not applicable.

suggesting that regulation is exerted through negative control depending on the availability of readily utilized nitrogen sources rather than by induction involving a nitrate-dependent mechanism.

Many nitrogen-regulated genes in B. subtilis are known to be controlled by a mechanism that requires wild-type glutamine synthetase, the product of glnA (10, 13). Expression of these genes is derepressed in glnA mutants. Although glnA expression is repressed by the glnR product, glnR mutations do not cause derepression of other nitrogen-regulated genes. To test whether *nasA* and *nasB* expression is derepressed by the *glnA* mutation or the glnR mutation, SPB::pZS5 and SPB::pZS6 were used to lysogenize cells of strains SF73 (glnA73) and HJS31 ($\Delta gln R57$) as well as an isogenic wild-type strain, SF10. In SF73, both fusions were highly expressed in MMG containing glutamine (Table 3) and also were completely derepressed during both exponential and stationary growth phases in DSGG medium (data not shown). However, in the glnR mutant as well as the wild-type strain, the lacZ fusions were still repressed in the presence of glutamine. These results indicate that the expression of *nasA-lacZ* and *nasB-lacZ* is under global nitrogen control through glutamine synthetase.

Mapping of transcription start sites. To determine transcription start sites of nasA and nasB, RNA was isolated from OKB105 cells cultured in MMG containing nitrate or ammonium and in DSG medium. RNA purified from cells grown in MMG with nitrate and those harvested at T_5 from DSG medium gave primer extension products corresponding to nasA and nasB transcripts, but no signal was detected with RNA samples from cells cultured in ammonium medium or a T_1 culture grown in DSG medium (Fig. 2). This result is in agreement with the result obtained by measuring β -galactosidase activity from transcriptional nasA-lacZ and nasB-lacZ fusions. Since the apparent start sites in cells from MMG-nitrate and DSG medium are identical, the activation of the genes by poor nitrogen sources and postexponential induction in DSG medium involves the use of the same promoters. There is a 99-bp space between the divergent transcription start sites. The -10regions of the putative promoters show homology to those of σ^{A} -recognized promoters. (In the case of *nasA*, the sequence is TATCCT, with four of six matches; for *nasB*, it is CATAAT, with five of six matches.) The potential -35 region (TTTTCC), with three of six matching the σ^{A} consensus sequence, is separated by 17 bases from the putative -10 region in *nasA*. However, no appropriately positioned -35 region could be identified in nasB.

Deletion analysis of regulatory regions. In an attempt to



FIG. 2. Primer extension analysis of *nasA* and *nasB* transcription. (A) Determination of the *nasB* transcription start site with the mZS2 oligonucleotide shown in Fig. 1 as primer. (B) Determination of the *nasA* transcription start site with the 102 oligonucleotide as primer. Dideoxy-sequencing ladders (G, A, T, and C) obtained with the same primers used for primer extension analysis are shown. RNA was isolated from cells cultured in DSG medium and harvested 1 h after the end of the exponential growth phase (T_1) (lane 1) and at T_5 (lane 2) and in MMG medium with ammonium (lane 3) or with nitrate (lane 4). The nucleotide positions of the start sites are shown in Fig. 1.

determine the minimal regions required for transcription from the divergently oriented promoters, deletion analysis was carried out. Figure 3 shows a schematic diagram of the promoters and the deletion mutations constructed, along with the corresponding β-galactosidase activities from cells grown in MMG with glutamine (repressing) or glutamate (inducing). Upstream deletions to position -84 of the nasB promoter (pFY6, pFY8, and pMMN180) did not affect nasB-lacZ expression in cells grown in glutamate medium, but the expression in cells grown with glutamine as a nitrogen source was 20- to 40-fold higher in LAB1706 than in the strains carrying fusions with more upstream DNA (LAB1166, LAB1581, and LAB1583). This may suggest either that a negative regulatory site is present in the region between positions -84 and -128 or that the absence of transcription in the opposite direction (nasAlacZ) enhances nasB transcription initiation in glutamine medium. Deletion up to position -28 of the *nasB* promoter (pFY9) resulted in loss of activity. The higher activity detected in this construct (LAB1589) as well as in LAB1707 (nasA-lacZ) under the repressing conditions (glutamine-containing medium) is puzzling, since the potential -35 region of the promoter was deleted. The possibility of alternative transcriptional start sites in these fusions remains to be examined. Similarly, the deletions up to position -71 of the nasA promoter (pPH1) did not cause significant change, except for the observed higher expression in cells grown in glutamine medium compared with LAB1167 cells, again suggesting that a negative regulatory region was deleted in pPH1. Loss of nasAlacZ expression in glutamate medium was observed by deletion of DNA to a point 18 bp upstream of the transcription start site, which probably eliminates promoter activity. These results show that the sequences downstream from position -71 of the nasA promoter and position -84 of the nasB promoter are sufficient for the transcriptional activation of these genes.

Mutational analysis of a dyad symmetry element. In the region between 41 and 59 bp upstream of each transcription start site, a sequence exhibiting dyad symmetry (GTGTNAN₇ TNACAC) was found, which might be a *cis*-acting element involved in the observed regulation. To study the involvement of the dyad symmetry in the expression of the divergently oriented transcription units, three mutations which reduce symmetry in the sequence were introduced (Fig. 4). The NR1 mutation resulted in a 4- to 6-fold reduction in *nasA/B* expression.



FIG. 3. β -Galactosidase activity directed by various deletion derivatives of *nasA* and *nasB* promoters. The divergent *lacZ* transcription directed by *nasA* and *nasB* promoters is shown by arrows. The solid box represents the region of dyad symmetry shown in Fig. 1. The lines above and below represent the fragments of deleted DNA that were inserted into pTKlac. The positions of the deletion endpoints are indicated next to the lines. The resultant plasmids are shown in parentheses. These plasmids were integrated as a single copy at the SP β prophage site in the chromosome, and the resultant strains are indicated as LAB numbers. The promoter activities were measured in ratios (Reg. Ratio) were calculated by dividing the enzyme activities in cultures grown in the presence of glutamate.



FIG. 4. β -Galactosidase activity directed by mutant derivatives of dyad symmetry sequence. The sequence of dyad symmetry (solid box) located within the intergenic region of the divergent transcripts, *nasA* and *nasB*, was subjected to site-directed mutagenesis. The base substitutions introduced by the mutagenesis are shown by arrows and letters. The fragments with the mutations were inserted into pTKlac in opposite orientations to determine the effect of the mutations on *nasA* and *nasB* transcription, and the resultant plasmids are shown in parentheses. β -Galactosidase activities were measured from the cells cultured in MMG supplemented with glutamate or glutamine. The averages of two or three independent cultures are shown along with the standard deviation. Regulation ratios (Reg. Ratio) were calculated by dividing the enzyme activities in cultures grown in the presence of glutamate by those in cultures grown in the presence of glutamate.

sion, and the NR2 mutation led to a 5- to 6-fold reduction in the case of *nasB-lacZ* and a 47-fold reduction of *nasA* promoter activity. The NR3 mutation, which changes one of the outermost bases in the dyad symmetry, did not have a severe effect on *nasA-lacZ* or *nasB-lacZ* expression. Nitrogen regulation of *nasA/lacZ* mutations. This result showed that the sequence TGTNAN₇TNACA is required in *cis* for the transcriptional activity and regulation of both *nasA* and *nasB* promoters. To examine the effect of the dyad symmetry mutations on *nasA* and *nasB* transcription in the *glnA* mutant, the mutant promoters fused to *lacZ* were introduced into cells of a *glnA* strain as well as those of the isogenic wild type by SPβ specialized transduction. Table 4 shows that the activities of the mutant promoters in the glnA cells were as low as those detected in the wild-type strain. This indicates that the derepression caused by the glnA mutation requires the dyad symmetry sequence.

Effects of *nasA* and *nasB* mutations on *nasA/B* transcription. The possibility that transcription in either orientation is subject to autoregulation was examined. Two deletion mutants, $\Delta nasA$ and $\Delta nasB$, were constructed (as described in reference 26) and lysogenized with SP β ::pZS5 and SP β ::pZS6. The *nasA*- and *nasB*-directed β -galactosidase activity was measured in the resulting lysogens (Table 5). In both deletion mutants, transcription from either promoter was 2.5- to 4-fold higher

	TABLE 4.	Expression	of nasA/B-lacZ	fusions with	mutant	promoters in	a glnA	mutant
--	----------	------------	----------------	--------------	--------	--------------	--------	--------

	Activity (Miller units) of":			
Strain	nasl	nasB-lacZ		1-lacZ
	Glutamate	Glutamine	Glutamate	Glutamine
LAB1223 (wt/pZS5) ^b	11.6 ± 0.5	0.05 ± 0.007		
LAB1224 (wt/pZS6)			45.2 ± 5.3	1.55 ± 0.20
LAB1878 (wt/pMMN164)	2.63 ± 0.01	0.32 ± 0.15		
LAB1877 (wt/pMMN163)			7.22 ± 1.0	0.84 ± 0.02
LAB1880 (wt/pMMN184)	2.87 ± 0.4	2.02 ± 0.20		
LAB1879 (wt/pMMN183)			1.48 ± 0.15	1.10 ± 0.04
LAB1207 (glnA/pZS5)	\mathbf{NA}^{c}	25.9 ± 4.5		
LAB1214 (glnA/pZS6)			NA	145.3 ± 11.5
LAB1882 (glnA/pMMN164)	NA	0.48 ± 0.16		
LAB1881 (glnA/pMMN163)			NA	0.43 ± 0.02
LAB1884 (glnA/pMMN184)	NA	1.37 ± 0.10		
LAB1883 (glnA/pMMN183)			NA	0.68 ± 0.04

^a Average of two or three independent cultures. The error is the standard deviation.

^b wt, wild type.

^c NA, not applicable.

 TABLE 5. Effect of *nasA* and *nasB* deletions on the expression of *nasA/B-lacZ* fusion

	Activity (Miller units) of ^a :				
Strain	nasB-lacZ		nasA-lacZ		
	Glutamate	Glutamine	Glutamate	Glutamine	
LAB1166 (wt) ^b	10.9 ± 1.3	< 0.01			
LAB1167 (wt)			31.1 ± 7.0	1.11 ± 0.25	
LAB1803 ($\Delta nasB$)	30.4 ± 8.0	0.14 ± 0.1			
LAB1805 ($\Delta nasB$)			87.6 ± 13.0	3.40 ± 0.70	
LAB1804 ($\Delta nasA$) LAB1806 ($\Delta nasA$)	27.3 ± 0.81	< 0.01	123.3 ± 5.6	1.53 ± 0.04	

^{*a*} Average of two or three independent cultures. The error is the standard deviation.

^b wt, Wild type.

than in wild-type cells in MMG containing glutamate. This suggests that *nasA* and *nasB* transcription is partially autorepressed, being subject to negative control by the product(s) of the divergently oriented transcription units. There is an alternative possibility that a small amount of nitrate contaminating MMG-glutamate serves as an inducer and is consumed quickly in the presence of intact nasA/B genes, resulting in a decreased level of induction in $nasA/B^+$ strains. However, this possibility is unlikely, because the addition of nitrate to MMG-glutamate did not increase nasA/B transcription in wild-type cells (25). Another explanation for this result is that the contaminating nitrate or nitrite in the growth medium was converted to ammonium, which resulted in the slight repression of nasA/B expression in wild-type cells. In the mutant strains which cannot metabolize nitrate or nitrite to ammonium, higher expression might be observed.

DISCUSSION

The data reported here show that the expression of the B. subtilis nasA gene and nasB operon, encoding proteins involved in nitrate assimilation, is regulated by global nitrogen control. Low-level expression of nasA-lacZ and nasB-lacZ fusions was observed in cells grown in medium containing a preferred nitrogen source such as ammonium or glutamine, while nas-directed B-galactosidase activities were high when the fusion-bearing cells were grown in the presence of a poor nitrogen source such as nitrate, glutamate, or proline. This derepression by the absence of good nitrogen sources rather than induction by nitrate is similar to that of nitrate/nitrite reductases in Synechococcus sp. (16, 17). In Klebsiella spp., however, a poor nitrogen source was not sufficient to induce nitrate/nitrite reductases (4, 5), indicating that these genes are induced by the presence of nitrate or nitrite rather than by the absence of ammonium. The ammonium- and glutamine-dependent repression of nasA and nasB required wild-type glutamine synthetase but not GlnR, the glnA operon repressor. This regulatory pattern is also observed in the expression of other nitrogen-controlled genes in B. subtilis, such as nrg-21 and nrgAB (1, 40). Urease and asparaginase activity is also regulated in a glnA-dependent manner (1). The B. subtilis ans operon, which codes for asparaginase and asparatase, and ansR, which is adjacent to ans but is divergently transcribed, have recently been isolated and characterized (36, 37). The phenotype of an ansR null mutation and the presence of a helix-turn-helix motif in the ansR product suggest that ansR encodes a repressor of the ans operon. In an ansR mutant, asparaginase expression was insensitive to repression by ammonium (37). Although asparaginase synthesis is known to be under control of a mechanism involving the *glnA* product (1), transcription of the *ans* operon has not been reported to be controlled by glutamine synthetase. Decapeptides in the carboxy-terminal regions of AnsR and GlnR proteins share six identical residues and three similar ones, leading to speculation that these conserved decapeptides can be modified in response to nitrogen availability, thus changing the affinity of the proteins for their respective DNA targets.

Both GlnR and GlnA are required for repression of *glnRA* transcription under conditions of nitrogen excess. Mutations in either gene result in constitutive expression (7, 29, 30, 33). GlnR, the repressor of the *glnRA* operon, was shown to bind to the operator *glnRA* O₁, a 21-bp symmetrical sequence between positions -40 and -60, as well as to *glnRA* O₂, a quasi-symmetrical element located between -17 and -37. *glnRA* O₂ has partial homology to *glnRA* O₁ (15, 32). The *glnRA* O₁ sequence is similar to the TGTNAN₇TNACA element that may be an activator-binding site associated with *nasA/B*, as proposed herein. However, GlnR appears not to be involved in *nasA/B* regulation.

An operon (*nrgAB*) coding for a protein similar to the *E. coli* glnB-encoded PII protein (40) may also be involved in nitrogen control in B. subtilis. Some similarity is observed between nasA/B and nrgAB. The nrgAB promoter has significant similarity with the -10 region, but not the -35 region, of the consensus sequence for σ^A -dependent promoters. Immediately upstream of the -35 region is a sequence exhibiting dyad symmetry (CATGTNAGN₅CTNACATG), which shares homology (TGTNAN₇TNACA) with the cis regulatory sequences of nasA/B and glnRA, although it is not yet known whether the putative element is involved in the regulation of nrgAB expression. $\Delta nrgAB$ and $\Delta nrgB$ mutants were reported to grow more slowly on minimal medium with nitrate than wild-type cells did (40). It is possible that nrgAB and nasA/B have a common transcriptional activator or that the expression of glnRA, nrgAB, and nasA/B is regulated by different trans-acting factors. In either case, glutamine synthetase is required for the nitrogen-dependent regulation of these genes. Two models have been proposed to explain how glutamine synthetase regulates glnRA (29). In one model, glutamine synthetase responds to nitrogen excess by binding to GlnR, thereby forming a repressor complex with high affinity for its DNA target. A second model is that glutamine synthetase modifies GlnR in response to some metabolic consequence of nitrogen excess. At present, there is no evidence to distinguish between the two models, nor are there clues which might suggest a mechanism for how glutamine synthetase could modulate the activities of diverse trans-acting nitrogen-regulatory factors.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Susan Fisher for the gifts of strains SF10, SF73, and HJS31. We also thank Susan Fisher and Linc Sonenshein for their valuable discussion.

The research reported here was supported by grants GM45898 (to P.Z.) from the National Institute of Health and from the Center of Excellence for Cancer Research Education and Treatment (LSUMC—Shreveport).

REFERENCES

- Atkinson, M. R., and S. H. Fisher. 1991. Identification of genes and gene products whose expression is activated during nitrogen-limited growth in *Bacillus subtilis*. J. Bacteriol. 173:23–27.
- Atkinson, M. R., L. V. Wray, Jr., and S. H. Fisher. 1990. Regulation of histidine and proline degradation enzymes by amino acid availability in *Bacillus subtilis*. J. Bacteriol. 172:4758–4765.
- 3. Atkinson, M. R., L. V. Wray, Jr., and S. H. Fisher. 1993. Activation of the

Bacillus subtilis hut operon at the onset of stationary growth phase in nutrient sporulation medium results primarily from the relief of amino acid repression of histidine transport. J. Bacteriol. **175**:4282–4289.

- Bender, R. A., and B. Friedrich. 1990. Regulation of assimilatory nitrate reductase formation in *Klebsiella aerogenes* W70. J. Bacteriol. 172:7256–7259.
- Cali, B. M., J. L. Micca, and V. Stewart. 1989. Genetic regulation of nitrate assimilation in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* M5a1. J. Bacteriol. 171:2666–2672.
- Calogero, S., R. Gardan, P. Glaser, J. Schweizer, G. Rapoport, and M. Debarbouille. RocR, a novel regulatory protein controlling arginine utilization in *Bacillus subtilis*, belongs to the NtrC/NifA family of transcriptional activators. J. Bacteriol. 176:1234–1241.
- Dean, D. R., J. A. Hoch, and A. I. Aronson. 1977. Alteration of the *Bacillus subtilis* glutamine synthetase results in overproduction of the enzyme. J. Bacteriol. 131:981–987.
- Débarbouillé, M., I. Martin-Verstraete, A. Klier, and G. Rapoport. The transcriptional regulator LevR of *Bacillus subtilis* has domains homologous to both or⁵⁴- and phosphotransferase system-dependent regulators. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 88:2212–2216.
- Débarbouillé, M., I. Martin-Verstraete, F. Kunst, and G. Rapoport. 1991. The Bacillus subtilis sigL gene encodes an equivalent of σ⁵⁴ from gramnegative bacteria. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 88:9092–9096.
- Fisher, S. H. 1993. Utilization of amino acids and other nitrogen-containing compounds, p. 221–228. *In* A. L. Sonenshein, J. Hoch, and R. Losick (ed.), *Bacillus subtilis* and other gram-positive bacteria: biochemistry, physiology, and molecular genetics. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, D.C.
- Fisher, S. H., M. S. Rosenkrantz, and A. L. Sonenshein. 1984. Glutamine synthetase gene of *Bacillus subtilis*. Gene 32:427–438.
- Fisher, S. H., and A. L. Sonenshein. 1984. Bacillus subtilis glutamine synthetase mutants pleiotropically altered in glucose catabolite repression. J. Bacteriol. 157:612–621.
- Fisher, S. H., and A. L. Sonenshein. 1991. Control of carbon and nitrogen metabolism in *Bacillus subtilis*. Annu. Rev. Microbiol. 45:107–135.
- Fouet, A., S.-F. Jin, G. Raffel, and A. L. Sonenshein. 1990. Multiple regulatory sites in *Bacillus subtilis citB* promoter region. J. Bacteriol. 172:5408– 5415.
- Gutowski, J. C., and H. J. Schreier. 1992. Interaction of the *Bacillus subtilis* glnRA repressor with operator and promoter sequences in vivo. J. Bacteriol. 174:671–681.
- Herrero, A., E. Flores, and M. G. Guerrero. 1981. Regulation of nitrate reductase levels in the cyanobacteria *Anacystis nidulans*, *Anabaena* sp. strain 7119, and *Nostoc* sp. strain 6719. J. Bacteriol. 145:175–180.
- Herrero, A., and M. G. Guerrero. 1986. Regulation of nitrate reductase in the cyanobacterium *Anacystis nidulans*. J. Gen. Microbiol. 132:2463–2468.
- 18. Kenny, T. J., and C. P. Moran, Jr. 1991. Genetic evidence for interaction of σ^A with two promoters in *Bacillus subtilis*. J. Bacteriol. **173:**3283–3290.
- Lin, J. T., B. S. Goldman, and V. Stewart. 1994. Genetic control of nitrate assimilation in *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *In* Abstracts of the 94th General Meeting of the American Society for Microbiology 1994. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, D.C.
- Macaluso, A., E. A. Best, and R. A. Bender. 1990. Role of the *nac* gene product in the nitrogen regulation of some NTR-regulated operons of *Klebsiella aerogenes*. J. Bacteriol. 172:7149–7255.
- Magasanik, B., and F. C. Neidhardt. 1987. Regulation of carbon and nitrogen utilization, p. 1321–1325. *In* F. C. Neidhardt, J. L. Ingraham, K. B. Low, B. Magasanik, M. Schaechter, and H. E. Umbarger (ed.), *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella typhymurium*: cellular and molecular biology, vol. 2. Amer-

ican Society for Microbiology, Washington, D.C.

- Miller, J. H. 1972. Experiments in molecular genetics. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- Nakano, M. M., M. A. Marahiel, and P. Zuber. 1988. Identification of a genetic locus required for biosynthesis of the lipopeptide antibiotic surfactin in *Bacillus subtilis*. J. Bacteriol. 170:5662–5668.
- Nakano, M. M., L. Xia, and P. Zuber. 1991. Transcription initiation region of the *srfA* operon, which is controlled by the *comP-comA* signal transduction system in *Bacillus subtilis*. J. Bacteriol. **173:**5487–5493.
- 25. Nakano, M. M., and P. Zuber. Unpublished results.
- Ogawa, K., E. Akagawa, K. Yamane, Z.-W. Sun, M. LaCelle, P. Zuber, and M. M. Nakano. Submitted for publication.
- Riet, J. V., A. H. Stouthamer, and R. J. Planta. 1968. Regulation of nitrate assimilation and nitrate respiration in *Aerobacter aerogenes*. J. Bacteriol. 96:1455–1464.
- Sanger, F., S. Nicklen, and A. R. Coulson. 1977. DNA sequencing with chain-terminating inhibitors. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74:5463–5467.
- Schreier, H. J., S. W. Brown, K. D. Hirschi, J. F. Nomellini, and A. L. Sonsenshein. 1989. Regulation of *Bacillus subtilis* glutamine synthetase gene expression by the product of the *glnR* gene. J. Mol. Biol. 210:51–63.
- Schreier, H. J., S. H. Fisher, and A. L. Sonenshein. 1985. Regulation of expression from the *glnA* promoter of *Bacillus subtilis* requires the *glnA* gene product. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82:3375–3379.
- Schreier, H. J., C. A. Rostkowski, and E. M. Kellner. 1993. Altered regulation of the glnRA operon in a Bacillus subtilis mutant that produces methionine sulfoximine-tolerant glutamine synthetase. J. Bacteriol. 175:892–897.
- Schreier, H. J., C. A. Rostkowski, J. F. Nomellini, and K. D. Hirschi. 1991. Identification of DNA sequences involved in regulating *Bacillus subtilis* glnR4 expression by nitrogen source. J. Mol. Biol. 220:241–253.
- Schreier, H. J., and A. L. Sonenshein. 1986. Altered regulation of the glnA gene in glutamine synthetase mutants of Bacillus subtilis. J. Bacteriol. 167: 35-43.
- Slack, F. J., J. P. Mueller, and A. L. Sonenshein. 1993. Mutations that relieve nutritional repression of the *Bacillus subtilis* dipeptide permease operon. J. Bacteriol. 175:4605–4614.
- Slack, F. J., J. P. Mueller, M. A. Strauch, C. Mathiopoulos, and A. L. Sonenshein. 1991. Transcriptional regulation of a *Bacillus subtilis* dipeptide transport operon. Mol. Microbiol. 5:1915–1925.
- Sun, D., and P. Setlow. 1991. Cloning, nucleotide sequence, and expression of the *Bacillus subtilis ans* operon, which codes for L-asparaginase and Laspartase. J. Bacteriol. 173:3831–3845.
- Sun, D., and P. Setlow. 1993. Cloning and nucleotide sequence of the Bacillus subtilis ansR gene, which encodes a repressor of the ans operon coding for L-asparaginase and L-aspartase. J. Bacteriol. 175:2501–2506.
- Vega-Palas, M. A., E. Flores, and A. Herrero. 1992. NtcA, a global nitrogen regulator from the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* that belongs to the Crp family of bacterial regulators. Mol. Microbiol. 6:1853–1859.
- Vega-Palas, M. A., F. Madueño, A. Herrero, and E. Flores. 1990. Identification and cloning of a regulatory gene for nitrogen assimilation in the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* sp. strain PCC7942. J. Bacteriol. 172:643–647.
- Wray, L. V., Jr., M. R. Atkinson, and S. H. Fisher. 1994. The nitrogenregulated *Bacillus subtilis mgAB* operon encodes a membrane protein and a protein highly similar to the *Escherichia coli glnB*-encoded PII protein. J. Bacteriol. 176:108–114.
- Zuber, P., and R. Losick. 1987. Role of AbrB in Spo0A- and Spo0B-dependent utilization of a sporulation promoter in *Bacillus subtilis*. J. Bacteriol. 169:2223–2230.