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We report the development of techniques for the genetic mapping of point mutations in the bacterial pathogen Bordetella pertussis. A plasmid vector which is self-transmissible by conjugation and which, by insertion into the B. pertussis chromosome, can mobilize chromosomal sequences during conjugation with a recipient B. pertussis bacterium has been constructed. This vector is used in conjunction with a set of strains containing kanamycin resistance gene insertions at defined physical locations in the B. pertussis genome. In crosses between these donor strains and a mutant recipient strain, transfer of a chromosomal segment flanking the kanamycin resistance gene insertion is selected for, and the percentage of exconjugants which reacquire the wild-type trait is scored. In this way the linkage of the mutant allele to these markers, and thus the approximate chromosomal position of the mutant allele, is determined. We have used this genetic system to map a newly described locus in B. pertussis involved in the regulation of the virulence genes ptx (pertussis toxin) and cya (adenylate cyclase toxin).

The genetic analysis of *Escherichia coli* may be said to have begun nearly 50 years ago upon the discovery of genetic transfer in this species, and it has continued unabated ever since (16). In contrast, the genetic analysis of most other bacteria, including pathogenic bacteria, lacking genetic tools such as Hfr mapping and bacteriophage transduction, has had to await the development of newer techniques. The molecular biology revolution has given us the ability to clone genes from virtually any bacterium and to analyze their primary structure by DNA sequence analysis. However, an equally great impact has been made by the development of new genetic tools in the form of bacterial transposable elements, both those which are naturally occurring and those which have been engineered to have special characteristics.

The great power of transposons as mutagenic agents lies in (i) the ability to directly select for mutations by selecting for transposition events, (ii) the ability to easily clone genes which have been identified by transposon insertion by virtue of the linkage of a selectable marker to those genes, (iii) the ability to easily map the sites of such mutations physically by virtue of the physical nature of the insertion mutations created, and (iv) the ability to introduce gene fusions in order to identify genes regulated in a particular fashion or encoding proteins directed to a particular subcellular compartment.

By their nature transposon-induced mutations are usually "knock-outs" that completely destroy the function of the genes they identify. They thus cannot be used to identify essential genes and cannot generally be used in the isolation of secondsite suppressor mutations. This characteristic has not been a major drawback in the study of bacterial pathogens, as many of these efforts have been directed at the identification of virulence genes which are usually dispensable for a bacterium's viability when grown in vitro. However, in the case of some bacterial pathogens, our increasing knowledge and under-

standing of their pathogenesis has led us to ask increasingly subtle or detailed questions. In these cases, it would be advantageous to be able to work routinely with missense and nonsense mutations. This requires an ability to map such mutations genetically, as the physical changes associated with such mutations are undetectable under most conditions. To this end we have developed tools which allow the genetic mapping of mutations in the human bacterial pathogen Bordetella pertussis.

B. pertussis is a dramatic demonstration of a phenomenon now seen as common in pathogenic bacteria, the regulation of virulence potential in response to environmental signals. In this organism, all known protein virulence factors are regulated by a single genetic locus discovered by transposon mutagenesis and known as  $bvg$  (previously vir) (29). The  $bvg$ locus encodes two genes, bvgA and bvgS, which encode proteins belonging to the receiver or response regulator class and the transmitter or sensor class, respectively, of two-component regulatory systems of bacteria (1, 25, 28). At least one virulence factor, an adhesin, the filamentous hemagglutin, is regulated directly by the bvg locus. This judgment comes from the observations that cloning bvg and fha together in  $E$ . coli reconstitutes expression of filamentous hemagglutinin in response to the correct environmental signals and from biochemical studies showing direct interaction between BvgA and the *fha* promoter  $(18, 21, 27)$ . For other virulence genes, such as ptx, encoding pertussis toxin, and cya, encoding adenylate cyclase toxin, this regulation appears to be indirect or to occur by a different mechanism. Efforts to reconstitute expression of ptx or  $cya$  in  $E$ .  $coll$  have met with failure  $(8, 18)$ . A recent report suggests that  $by$ -dependent expression of  $ptx$  is possible under some conditions, but in this case responsiveness to environmental signals is not seen (22). Efforts to demonstrate binding of BvgA to the promoter regions of the ptx operon have also met with failure (21). Such findings have suggested the existence of accessory regulatory factors, present in B. pertussis but not in E. coli, which are necessary for expression of  $ptx$  and  $cya$  but not fha. Recently two spontaneous mutations

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TABLE 1. Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study						
Strain or plasmid	Relevant feature(s)					
<b>Strains</b>						
E. coli K-12						
$DH5\alpha$	High-efficiency transformation	BRL <sup>a</sup>				
<b>LE392</b>	<b>Transduction recipient</b>	17				
<b>B.</b> pertussis						
Tohama I	Patient isolate	14				
<b>BP953</b>	Tohama I (nal str fhaB-lacZ ptx-phoA)	24				
<b>BP965</b>	$BP953$ $\Delta byg$	24				
<b>BP1000</b>	Tohama I(rif)	This study				
<b>BP1087</b>	Tohama $I(nf ksg)$	This study				
<b>BC7500</b>	unk-1	5.				
<b>BC7501</b>	unk-1 ksg	This study				
<b>BC7502</b>	$unk-1$ rif	This study				
RPV3	$unk-2$	9				
RPV4	$unk-2$ $ksg$	This study				
RPV <sub>5</sub>	$unk-2$ rif	This study				
<b>BP953:K1</b>	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1720	This study				
<b>BP953:K2</b>	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1722	This study				
<b>BP953:K3</b>	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1723	This study				
<b>BP953:K4</b>	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1727	This study				
<b>BP953:K5</b>	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1736	This study				
<b>BP953:K6</b>	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1738	This study				
<b>BP953:K7</b>	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1747	This study				
<b>BP953:K8</b>	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1748	This study				
<b>BP953:K9</b>	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1749	This study				
BP953:K10	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1765	This study				
<b>BP953:K11</b>	Genetic donor constructed by using pSS1771	This study				
<b>BP1137</b> <b>BP1138</b>	Kan <sup>r</sup> Str <sup>s</sup> transconjugant of BP953:K2 and BP1000 Kan <sup>r</sup> Str <sup>s</sup> transconjugant of BP953:K11 and BP1000	This study This study				
<b>Plasmids</b>						
pBR322	Cloning vector	$\overline{2}$				
pEYDG1	Source of BamHI oriT fragment	31				
pHC79	Cosmid cloning vector, source of $\lambda$ cos HaelII fragment	12				
pRK2013	IncP plasmid, source of tra genes	$\tau$				
pSS1129	Derivative of pRTP1 with gentamic n resistance gene	23				
pSS1527	pBR322 derivative with additional cloning sites	This study				
pSS1673	pBR322 derivative with cloned gen PCR fragment	This study				
pSS1720	Used to deliver insertion K1 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1722	Used to deliver insertion K2 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1723	Used to deliver insertion K3 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1727	Used to deliver insertion K4 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1736	Used to deliver insertion K5 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1738	Used to deliver insertion K6 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1747	Used to deliver insertion K7 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1748	Used to deliver insertion K8 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1749	Used to deliver insertion K9 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1765	Used to deliver insertion K10 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1771	Used to deliver insertion K11 to BP953 chromosome	26				
pSS1811	pSS1527 plus BamHI oriT fragment	This study				
pSS1826	pSS1673 plus EcoRI linker at BamHI site	This study				
pSS1827	Replicon fusion of pBR322 and pRK2013 at EcoRI and Sall sites	This study				
pSS1829	pSS1811 plus <i>EcoRI gen</i> fragment from pSS1826	This study				
pSS1832	pSS1829 with one EcoRI site destroyed by addition of a NotI site	This study				
pSS1839	pSS1827 with HindIII site destroyed by addition of a PmeI site	This study				
pSS1840 pSS1853	pSS1839 plus HaeIII cos fragment inserted at the PmeI site Replicon fusion of pSS1840 and pSS1832 at EcoRI and Sall sites	This study This study				

TABLE 1. Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study

<sup>a</sup> BRL, Bethesda Research Laboratories.

conferring the phenotype expected of mutations identifying MATERIALS AND METHODS such a factor (Ptx<sup>-</sup> Cya<sup>-</sup> Fha<sup>+</sup>) have been reported (5, 9). In **Bacterial strains, plasmids, and media.** Bacterial strains and

this study we report the genetic mapping of these mutations in plasmids used in this study are presented in Table 1. E. coli B. pertussis, with the finding that they identify a new locus in  $DH5\alpha$ , which was used as a transformation host for all cloning this organism which is distinct from ptx, cya, fha, and byg. seeps, was obtained from Bethes steps, was obtained from Bethesda Research Laboratories.

The B. pertussis strains BC7501 and RPV4 were spontaneous kasugamycin-resistant derivatives of BC7500 and RPV3, respectively, obtained by selection on Bordet-Gengou agar containing  $200 \mu$ g of kasugamycin per ml. BC7502 and RPV5 were spontaneous rifampin-resistant derivatives of BC7500 and RPV3, respectively, selected on Bordet-Gengou agar containing 100 µg of rifampin per ml. BP1000 was isolated in an identical fashion. BP1087 was isolated in two steps, to rifampin resistance in a manner similar to that described above and to kasugamycin resistance by selection on Bordet-Gengou agar containing  $200 \mu$ g of kasugamycin per ml. B. pertussis strains were grown on Bordet-Gengou agar (Difco) containing 1% proteose peptone (Difco) and 15% defibrinated sheep blood. Concentrations of antibiotics were as follows: gentamicin sulfate, 10  $\mu$ g/ml; kanamycin sulfate, 10  $\mu$ g/ml; 100 kasugamycin-HCl, 100  $\mu$ g/ml; nalidixic acid, 50  $\mu$ g/ml; rifampin, 50  $\mu$ g/ml; and streptomycin sulfate, 100  $\mu$ g/ml. E. coli strains were grown on L agar or in L broth (19) supplemented with antibiotics as appropriate. Concentrations of antibiotics were as follows: ampicillin, 100  $\mu$ g/ml; gentamicin sulfate, 10  $\mu$ g/ml; and kanamycin sulfate,  $10 \mu g/ml$ .

Construction of pSS1853. PCR was used to generate <sup>a</sup> DNA fragment encoding gentamicin resistance. The sequence of the upstream primer was 5'-CGCGAATTCCACCGTGGAAAC GGATGAAGGCACG-3', and the sequence of the downstream primer was 5'-CGCGGATCCAAGCTTTTAGGTG GCGGTACTTGGGTCGATA-3'. The template DNA was pSS1129, which encodes a gentamicin acetyltransferase. After digestion of the PCR product with EcoRI and BamHI, <sup>a</sup> 798-bp fragment which extends from 38 bp upstream of the reported promoter of this gene to just past the reported stop codon (30) was obtained. This fragment was ligated to EcoRIand BamHI-cleaved pBR322 DNA to create pSS1673. An oligonucleotide linker was added at the BamHI site, which resulted in the duplication of the BamHI site and the addition of an EcoRI site between the two BamHI sites, to create pSS1826.

Complementary oligonucleotides having the sequences <sup>5</sup>'- ATTCACTAGTTCTAGAAGATCTGGTACCCTCGAGG-3'and 5'-GATCCCTCGAGGGTACCAGATCTTCTAGAAC TAGTG-3' were annealed and ligated to EcoRI- and BamHIcleaved pBR322 DNA. The resulting plasmid thus had unique restriction sites at this location in the following order: EcoRI, SpeI, XbaI, BglII, KpnI, XhoI, BamHI; and it was named pSS1527. An approximately 760-bp BamHI fragment of pEYDG1, encoding oriT, the origin of transfer from the R plasmid RK2, was added at the BamHI site to create pSS1811. The EcoRI fragment from pSS1826 containing the gentamicin resistance gene was added at the EcoRI site of pSS1811 to create pSS1829. This plasmid was partially digested with EcoRI, and the linker 5'-AATTGCGGCCGC-3' was added to destroy one EcoRI site and add a NotI site at the same position. The resulting plasmid was named pSS1832.

An approximately 39-kb EcoRI-SalI fragment from pRK2013 containing both tra operons was joined to EcoRIand Sall-digested pBR322 to create pSS1827. The single HindIII site in this plasmid in the pRK2013-derived sequences was destroyed and a PmeI was site added by the insertion of the oligonucleotide 5'-AGCTAGTTTAAACT-3' to create pSS1839. A 226-bp HaeIII fragment containing the cos site of bacteriophage  $\lambda$  was cloned into the resulting *PmeI* site by ligation of PmeI-cleaved pSS1839 with HaeIII fragments of the cosmid pHC79, packaging into phage particles in vitro (Packagene; Promega), and transduction of  $DH5\alpha$  to ampicillin resistance. One of the resulting plasmids was named pSS1840. The final step to create pSS1853 was the ligation of the large EcoRI-SalI J. BACTERIOL.



FIG. 1. Physical map of plasmid pSS1853. Coordinates for features of RK2-derived sequences are those of Pansegrau et al. (20), and the positions and extents of the phage Mu-generated deletion and the residual phage Mu sequences in pRK2013 were determined by Figurski and Helinski (7). Coordinates for pSS1832-derived sequences were predicted from the DNA sequence. The sources of different regions are indicated as follows: filled, gen PCR fragment; hatched, pBR322; shaded, Mu phage; checked, phage  $\lambda$ ; and open, RK2.

fragment of pSS1840 with EcoRI- and Sall-digested pSS1832, followed by in vitro packaging and transduction of gentamicin and ampicillin resistance. A map of pSS1853 is shown in Fig. 1.

Construction of B. pertussis Hfr donor pools. The construction of *B. pertussis* BP953 will be described elsewhere  $(24)$ . This strain is nalidixic acid resistant and streptomycin resistant, and it harbors two gene fusions:  $\beta$ haB-lacZ and ptx-phoA. A set of eleven insertions of a kanamycin resistance gene at different locations in the BP953 chromosome was constructed by using the linking plasmids and methods described previously (26). These insertions were named BP953:K1 through BP953:K11, and their positions are shown graphically in Fig. 2.

A library of random B. pertussis fragments in pSS1853 was constructed, using the strategy of Hung and Wensink (13). Chromosomal DNA of BP965 was digested with the restriction enzyme BstYI, which recognizes and cleaves within the sequence R'GATCY, leaving a 4-bp <sup>5</sup>' overhang. The ends were partially filled in with the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase by using  $\alpha$ -S-dATP and  $\alpha$ -S-dGTP as substrates to prevent proofreading by the Klenow enzyme. In a similar fashion, the vector pSS1853 was digested with Sall (G'TC GAC) and the sticky ends were partially filled in, using  $\alpha$ -S-dCTP and  $\alpha$ -S-dTTP as substrates. This approach has the combined virtues of forcing insertions in the vector without allowing insertion of multiple fragments (13). After ligation of pSS1853 vector DNA and BP965 insert DNA, ligations were packaged into bacteriophage  $\lambda$  particles in vitro (Gigapack XL; Stratagene). The resulting phage lysates were used to transduce E. coli LE392 to gentamicin and ampicillin resistance. Approximately  $10<sup>5</sup>$  colonies were pooled and conjugated with each of the BP953 derivatives BP953:K1 through BP953:K11. Selection on Bordet-Gengou agar containing gentamicin, ka-



FIG. 2. Physical map of the B. pertussis Tohama <sup>I</sup> chromosome showing the positions of the kanamycin resistance gene insertions used as selectable markers in conjugations, indicated by filled arrowheads. Locations of genes mapped physically are depicted by thin lines. The approximate locations of loci mapped genetically are indicated by shaded arrowheads. The approximate locations and directions of transfer mediated by pSS1853 derivatives are depicted by bent arrows.

namycin, and streptomycin yielded  $10<sup>3</sup>$  to  $10<sup>4</sup>$  exconjugants, which were pooled to create the Hfr donor pools used for mapping. Similarly, Hfr donor pools for BC7500 and RPV3 were created.

Isolation of pSS1853-12 and pSS1853-42. Some defined donor strains having a single origin of transfer were isolated from the donor pools described above. The location of the pSS1853 insertion in these strains was mapped to a particular SpeI or XbaI restriction fragment by digestion of chromosomal DNA in agarose plugs and electrophoresis on pulsed-field gels as previously described (26). Although the pSS1853 vector does not contain these sites, fragments into which it has been inserted become approximately 50 kb larger as a result of the insertion, thus enabling mapping of the site of insertion to a particular restriction map interval. These plasmids were then recovered from the B. pertussis strains after conjugation with E.  $\text{coll}$  DH5 $\alpha$  and selection for gentamicin resistance on L agar.

The direction of transfer for each plasmid was determined by its reintroduction into strains bearing selectable markers to either side and by determination of which marker could then be transferred with greatest efficiency. In this way, pSS1853-12 and pSS1853-42, which, after integration into B. pertussis Tohama I, have the approximate chromosomal locations and directions of transfer shown in Fig. 2, were isolated.

Conjugations. Hfr donor and recipient strains were grown on Bordet-Gengou agar and then resuspended in phosphatebuffered saline (PBS) to an  $A_{600}$  of approximately 1.0. The suspensions were mixed at a ratio of 1 volume of donor to 10 volumes of recipient, and 50  $\mu$ l was spotted on Bordet-Gengou agar containing 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> and incubated at 37 $\degree$ C for 7 to 8 h. The bacteria were then recovered with a sterile Dacron swab, resuspended in 1.0 ml of PBS, and plated on Bordet-Gengou agar containing the appropriate antibiotics. Dilutions were performed when necessary. Phenotypes of exconjugants were assessed as follows: resistance to the antibiotics kasugamycin, nalidixic acid, rifampin, and streptomycin was determined by patching single colonies onto Bordet-Gengou agar containing the antibiotic indicated in Table 2, and the presence of alkaline phosphatase activity was determined by colony lifts with nitrocellulose membranes as previously described (15). 13-Galactosidase activity was detected in an analogous fashion by using filters soaked in Z-buffer (19) to which 0.003% sodium dodecyl sulfate was added. Hemolysis was apparent on Bordet-Gengou agar. For the data presented in Table 2, 200 exconjugant colonies were scored for each phenotypic marker.

# RESULTS

Construction of a plasmid vector for the mobilization of B. pertussis chromosomal sequences. Hfr strains of E. coli are genetic donors of chromosomal loci as a result of the integration of the F plasmid in the chromosome. By analogy, we created <sup>a</sup> derivative of the conjugative R plasmid RK2 which could be directed to insert into the chromosomes of B. pertussis strains and thus mobilize chromosomal sequences. This plasmid, pSS1853, is depicted in Fig. 1, and the details of its construction are given above. This plasmid contains all necessary information encoded by RK2 to mediate cell-to-cell transfer, including  $\text{ori } T$ , the site of initiation of transfer. The RK2 vegetative origin of replication, oriV, has been deleted, and thus this plasmid is incapable of replication in B. pertussis. However, the inclusion of a ColE1-derived  $oriV$  enables its maintenance in E. coli. Following conjugative transfer to B.

TABLE 2. Linkage of traits to kanamycin resistance markers

 $\alpha$  is the following traiting traiting the following traiting traiting traiting traiting traiting traiting  $\alpha$ 



<sup>a</sup> ND, not determined.

pertussis strains, pSS1853 is lost by segregation unless integration into the chromosome, an event which can be mediated by homologous recombination via cloned chromosomal sequences and which can be selected for by virtue of the gentamicin resistance gene of the plasmid, occurs. Transformation of E. coli hosts with pSS1853 is inefficient because of the large size of this vector. To enable efficient cloning of B. pertussis sequences, the cos site of  $\lambda$  was incorporated to allow in vitro packaging of recombinant plasmids into bacteriophage X particles and subsequent transduction at high efficiency.

Construction of B. pertussis donors. To enable the mapping of mutations in B. pertussis genetically, a set of selectable markers at various chromosomal locations was required. As <sup>a</sup> physical map of B. pertussis Tohama I was available, the most expeditious approach was to use insertions of an antibiotic resistance gene whose physical locations could be established. The markers used in this study were a set of kanamycin resistance gene insertions which were derived as a result of a physical mapping strategy which resulted in the fusion of adjacent chromosomal SpeI or XbaI restriction fragments (26). These insertions were incorporated into the BP953 chromosome as previously described, and their locations are shown in Fig. 2. To mobilize the chromosomal sequences of the resulting donor strains, insertions of pSS1853 were made. Rather than constructing defined Hfr strains for each selectable marker which would have an insertion of pSS1853 in the proper configuration for examining linkage to that marker, we chose to use a more general approach. In this approach, pSS1853 was randomly inserted at multiple locations in each donor strain and the population of donors was pooled. Thus, in a mating with an appropriate B. pertussis recipient, the chromosomal sequences of the donor were transferred from a variety of origins and thus all parts of the chromosome were transferred more or less equally. Transfer of chromosomal sequences in this way is thus analogous to the process of generalized transduction mediated by some bacteriophages, except that much larger regions of the chromosome are transferred and there is not a well-defined upper limit to the size of the transferred region. We suggest the term "generalized conjugation" to describe this approach. Those recipient bacteria which received and incorporated the region of the chromosome containing the selectable marker were able to survive the selection process. A number of these survivors were then tested for the acquisiton of other genetic traits of the donor. In this way the degree of genetic linkage of that unselected trait with the selected marker was determined.

Mapping of genes with known physical locations. As <sup>a</sup> test of this genetic system, the *fha* and  $ptx$  loci, whose physical locations had previously been determined, were mapped. In the BP953-derived donor strains, each of these loci was marked by a gene fusion which provided a readily screenable phenotype. In the case of *fha* the phenotype was  $Lac^+$ , as determined by incubation of colonies in the presence of X-Gal (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-β-D-galactopyranoside). In the case of  $ptx$ , it was Pho<sup>+</sup>, which was determined by incubation of colonies in the presence of BCIP (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-P-Dindolylphosphate). The recipient strain in this mating was BP1087, which is rifampin resistant and kasugamycin resistant but which lacks both gene fusions. The linkages observed are presented in Table 2. These linkages were in keeping with the known physical locations of these two loci as shown in Fig. 2. Thus, for  $ptx$  the level of linkage to K2 was highest, and the level of linkage to K7 or K11 was second highest, depending on the counterselection. For the *fha* locus, the level of linkage to K4 was highest and the level of linkage to K10 was second highest. The linkage of  $ptx$  to some selectable markers, such as

K7, differed greatly depending on the counterselectable marker used, i.e., rif or ksg. This will be discussed below.

Mapping of loci determining antibiotic resistance. Four loci governing resistance to the antibiotics kasugamycin, nalidixic acid, rifampin, and streptomycin were mapped. By analogy with studies of E. coli, resistance to these antibiotics should define the genes encoding an rRNA methylase, <sup>a</sup> DNA gyrase, the  $\beta$  subunit of RNA polymerase, and the ribosomal protein S12, respectively  $(3, 6, 10, 11)$ . The *nal* and *str* loci were mapped in a manner similar to that in which  $fha$  and  $ptx$  were mapped, by using BP1087 as <sup>a</sup> recipient and measuring the coacquisition of nalidixic acid or streptomycin resistance with the selected kanamycin marker. The ksg and rif markers were mapped after conjugation of the donor strains, which are sensitive to both antibiotics, with BP1087, which is both kasugamycin resistant and rifampin resistant. To map ksg, the counterselection used in the mating was rifampin resistance, and kanamycin-resistant, rifampin-resistant exconjugants were then tested for acquisition of kasugamycin sensitivity. The rif locus was mapped in <sup>a</sup> similar fashion after mating of BP1087 with the donor strains and counterselection by kasugamycin resistance. The linkages seen in these matings are presented in Table 2, and the inferred locations of these loci on the B. pertussis Tohama <sup>I</sup> map are shown in Fig. 2. As mentioned above, different linkages were observed for some pairs of markers depending on which antibiotic resistance of the recipient was used as the counterselection. For example, K7 and  $ptx$ -phoA showed 40% linkage when kasugamycin resistance was used as the counterselection, but they showed only 4.5% linkage when rifampin resistance was used as the counterselection. The locations of the  $rif$  and  $ksg$  loci suggest why this is so. In the example described above, the reduced linkage seen when the rif marker was used was due to the fact that this marker was between the selected marker in this cross (K7) and the scored marker (ptx-phoA). Thus, incorporation of both K7 and ptx-phoA into the rifampin-resistant recipient required not two, but four crossovers, and therefore it occurred at a reduced frequency. Similarly, the linkage of K1 and str was reduced from <sup>9</sup> to 1% when the intervening ksg marker was used for counterselection and the linkage of K7 and str was reduced from 23.5 to 3.5% when rifampin resistance was used as the counterselection.

Mapping of a locus affecting expression of the  $ptx$  and  $cya$ loci. Two interesting mutants of B. pertussis, BC7500 and RPV3, in which the expression of pertussis toxin and adenylate cylase toxin, but not filamentous hemagglutinin, is affected have recently been described (5, 9). For the purposes of this paper we will refer to the mutant alleles in these strains as unk-1 and unk-2 (Table 1). Rifampin-resistant and kasugamycin-resistant derivatives of each of these strains were isolated and used as recipients in conjugations with the B. pertussis donor pools as described above. The presence of the unk-1 and unk-2 alleles in exconjugants was indicated by their nonhemolytic (Cya-) phenotype. The results of these matings are shown in Table 3. The behavior of the two mutant strains was indistinguishable in these matings, suggesting that they both defined the same gene, unk. For the mutant alleles, the levels of linkage to K2 and K11 were highest, suggesting <sup>a</sup> location for unk between these two markers. Similar results had been obtained for str (Table 2). As with the str locus, linkage of the unk locus to  $K1$  and  $K7$  was influenced by the choice of the marker used for counterselection. To measure the linkage of str and unk directly, BC7500 and RPV3 were converted into genetic donors by introduction of the pSS1853 pool and then mated with BP1000. Selection was for transfer of streptomycin resistance, and counterselection was for rifampin resistance.

Selected marker	% of colonies hemolytic (no. hemolytic/total no.)				
	Rifampin resistance counterselection		Kasugamycin resistance counterselection		
	$BC7502$ (unk-1)	$RPV5$ (unk-2)	$BC7501$ (unk-1)	$RPV4$ (unk-2)	
K1	9(38/429)	11 (78/730)	0(3/1163)	1(5/485)	
K <sub>2</sub>	74 (214/289)	65 (241/368)	65 (181/279)	70 (179/257)	
K3	4(7/165)	4 (11/277)	0(2/1471)	0(4/1116)	
K4	0(1/283)	0(0/741)	0(0/450)	0(0/417)	
K5	0(0/391)	0(2/629)	0(0/289)	0(1/312)	
K6	18 (65/370)	22 (130/675)	21 (113/547)	22 (125/563)	
K7	4(5/134)	3(13/255)	22 (49/224)	21 (88/417)	
K8	1(3/595)	0(1/887)	0(1/1280)	0(0/219)	
K9	0(1/785)	0(3/1016)	1 (13/1721)	1(9/1137)	
K10	0(0/575)	0(0/798)	0(2/2073)	0(0/469)	
K11	57 (263/461)	52 (238/454)	60 (179/299)	63 (259/412)	

TABLE 3. Linkage of unk-1 and unk-2 to kanamycin resistance markers

These exconjugants were scored for acquisition of the  $Hly$ <sup>-</sup> phenotype. In this way it was demonstrated that linkage of unk-1 and unk-2 to str was about 95% (data not shown).

Three-point crosses to determine the relative locations of str and unk. Since unk and str were very tightly linked, it was not possible to determine their relative order on the chromosomal map by determining linkages to nearby markers. In order to perform a three-factor cross to resolve this issue, the donors shown schematically in Fig. 3 were created. BP1137 was picked as a Kan<sup>r</sup> Str<sup>s</sup> exconjugant from a mating of BP953:K2 and BP1000. Similarly, BP1138 was picked from a mating of BP953:K11 and BP1000. Both were converted into donors after being mated with pSS1853-12 and pSS1853-42, respectively. These defined donors were used in conjugations with BC7501, BC7502, RPV4, and RPV5. Selection was for kanamycin resistance, and counterselection was for streptomycin resistance. In all cases the results obtained were indistinguishable, and they are presented schematically in Fig. 3. These results are explained as follows. Incorporation of either K2 or K11 by flanking crossovers requires (since selection for streptomycin resistance is imposed) that one of these crossovers occur between the marker and the str locus. Since Hly<sup>+</sup> Kan<sup>r</sup> Str<sup>r</sup> exconjugants were obtained only after mating with BP1137:pSS1853-12, this must mean that the unk locus was between K2 and str as depicted in Fig. 2 and 3. Had the order of *unk* and *str* been reversed,  $Hly^+$  Kan<sup>r</sup> Str<sup>r</sup> exconjugants would only have been obtained after mating with BP1138: pSS1853-42.

#### DISCUSSION

In this paper we describe the development and use of tools for genetic mapping of mutations in  $B$ . pertussis by conjugation.



FIG. 3. Schematic representation of three-factor crosses performed to determine the relative order of str and unk loci.

These tools consist of a set of strains having selectable genetic markers at different locations in the B. pertussis genome and a plasmid vector capable of insertion into the B. pertussis chromosome and of mediating transfer of chromosomal sequences in a manner analogous to that of Hfr-mediated conjugation in E. coli. Insertion of this vector into a donor B. pertussis strain can be directed to a specific location and orientation or random locations in <sup>a</sup> pool of genetic donors. We have primarily used the latter method, which we term generalized conjugation. As with phage P1-mediated generalized transduction, linkage of two genetic markers can fail to occur in two ways. Either the fragment of the chromosome which is transferred can fail to contain both markers, or a genetic crossover can occur between the two markers. The probability of either of these events occurring increases as the separation of the markers increases, and thus genetic linkage serves as an inverse indicator of the physical distance between two markers.

We have used these techniques to map two mutations describing a new genetic locus in B. pertussis, one which is involved in the expression of B. pertussis toxin genes. The results we obtained suggest that this new locus is tightly linked to the B. pertussis locus conferring streptomycin resistance, which is expected to be an rpsL homolog. This map position proved accurate enough to direct molecular cloning efforts aimed specifically toward this part of the *B. pertussis* chromosome, which led to the successful cloning and DNA sequencing of these two alleles. Those results are described in the accompanying paper, in which it is shown that these mutant alleles affect the level of the  $\alpha$  subunit of RNA polymerase and are thus alleles of  $\eta$ *oA* (4). It is worth noting that because of the nature of these particular alleles, previous efforts at random cloning by complementation had been unsuccessful.

It should also be noted that these methods have great utility in terms of strain construction. The current method of choice for introducing known genetic markers into B. pertussis strains is to cross them in by using conditionally counterselectable suicide vectors donated from  $E$ . *coli* strains  $(23)$ . This is a two-step process for markers for which there is not a selectable phenotype. However, since only one selection step and only one outgrowth of B. pertussis are required, using conjugation between B. pertussis strains can reduce by half, or by 3 to 5 days, the time required to introduce a marker as long as it is linked to a selectable marker. In this way the Kan<sup>r</sup> Str<sup>s</sup> derivatives BP1137 and BP1138 were isolated.

Clearly the methods we have reported can be refined. This would include the development of a more complete set of selectable markers at a greater number of locations on the B. pertussis chromosome as well as a set of defined Hfr plasmids to allow the efficient transfer of specific regions of the genome. Efforts towards such refinements are currently under way. However, the results reported here show the overall feasibility and utility of such an approach. It is our hope that these tools will be used to further the genetic analysis and understanding of this fascinating bacterial pathogen.

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