Regulation of the sacPA Operon of Bacillus subtilis: Identification of Phosphotransferase System Components Involved in SacT Activity

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The sacT gene which controls the sacPA operon of Bacillus subtilis encodes a polypeptide homologous to the B. subtilis SacY and the Escherichia coli BglG antiterminators. Expression of the sacT gene is shown to be constitutive. The DNA sequence upstream from sacP contains a palindromic sequence which functions as a transcriptional terminator. We have previously proposed that SacT acts as ^a transcriptional antiterminator, allowing transcription of the sacPA operon. In strains containing mutations inactivating $ptsH$ or ptsI, the expression of sacPA and sacB is constitutive. In this work, we show that this constitutivity is due to a fully active SacY antiterminator. In the wild-type $sacT^+$ strain or in the $sacT30$ mutant, SacT requires both enzyme I and HPr of the phosphotransferase system (PTS) for antitermination. It appears that the PTS exerts different effects on the sacB gene and the sacPA operon. The general proteins of the PTS are not required for the activity of SacY while they are necessary for SacT activity.

In Bacillus subtilis, the expression of both the sacPA operon and the $sacB$ gene are induced by sucrose (21). The sacA gene codes for an endocellular sucrase (10, 11, 22), and $sacP$ is the structural gene of a membrane-associated, specific component of the phosphoenolpyruvate-dependent carbohydrate phosphotransferase system (PTS) for sucrose transport $(8, 9)$. The sacB gene encodes a second sucrosehydrolyzing enzyme called levansucrase (22, 37). Two regulatory loci, $sacT$ and $sacS$, control the transcription of these genes (21, 22). Transcriptional regulation of the sacB gene involves an antitermination mechanism (31, 35): between the promoter and the $sacB$ coding sequence, a region of dyad symmetry acts as a transcriptional terminator. Deletion of this termination structure or single-base changes that modify the dyad symmetry led to constitutive synthesis of levansucrase (34) . The regulatory locus sacS was identified by analysis of several constitutive mutants. It contains two genes, sacX and sacY, which seem to form an operon. The sacY gene encodes an antiterminator similar to the $bglG$ gene product of *Escherichia coli* $(2, 30, 42)$. The sacX gene encodes an enzyme II-like protein, similar to sacP of B. subtilis, bglF from E. coli, and scrA from E. coli, Streptococcus mutans, and Vibrio alginolyticus (3, 43). A specific component of the PTS is also involved in induction of the *bgl* operon of E. coli. A model of regulation of the bgl operon has been proposed: the enzyme $\overline{II}^{\text{Bgl}}$, which is involved in P-glucoside transport, negatively regulates the positive regulator BglG by phosphorylation, and thereby abolishing its activity (1, 29).

A similar model of regulation was proposed for sacB. In the absence of inducer, the sacB gene is not transcribed. SacX might be phosphorylated by enzyme ^I via HPr and an enzyme III and could then inhibit the antiterminator SacY by phosphorylation. In the presence of sucrose, SacX and SacY

would be fully dephosphorylated and thereby activated (2, 4).

Genetic and biochemical studies have shown that sacP mutants do not take up sucrose (9, 22). It seems, therefore, that the $sacX$ gene product is not involved in sucrose uptake in the wild type. This suggests that SacX is a minor but nevertheless functional enzyme II^{Scr} playing a regulatory role (4).

The sacT locus regulating the expression of the sacPA operon has been identified by a mutation called $sacT30$, leading to the constitutive expression of $sacPA$ (21). The sacT gene located upstream of the sacPA operon encodes a polypeptide homologous to the B. subtilis SacY and E. coli BglG antiterminators (5). The DNA sequence upstream of the sacP gene contains a palindromic sequence which is similar to a transcriptional termination site and almost identical to that found upstream of sacB. Thus, we have proposed that SacT acts as a transcriptional antiterminator, allowing the RNA polymerase to pass through ^a terminator located between the sacPA promoter and sacP. "Cross talk" between the two regulatory systems controlling the sacPA and sacB genes has been observed. A constitutive level of sacB expression is detected in the sacT30 mutant. Conversely, in sacY(Con) mutants, the sacPA operon expression is constitutive (22, 36). In a strain containing a deletion of *ptsH*, *ptsI*, and *ptsG* genes encoding HPr, enzyme I, and enzyme II^{GIC}, respectively, the expression of sacPA and sacB genes is also constitutive $(4, 5)$. This result strongly suggests that the PTS negatively regulates the SacT and SacY activities by phosphorylation.

In this study, we have reinvestigated the role of SacT in sacPA regulation in a variety of mutants, including PTS mutants (5, 21, 22). The results presented here indicate that both in the wild-type strain grown in the presence of sucrose and in the constitutive sacT30 mutant strain, SacT needs both enzyme ^I and HPr to be an active antiterminator. It was also shown that the weak constitutive expression of sacPA

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a erm is the erythromycin resistance gene of pHV1209 (7). cat is the pC194 chloramphenicol acetyltransferase gene (16) and aphA3 is the Streptococcus faecalis kanamycin resistance gene. tet is the tetracycline resistance gene of the plasmid pBC16 of Bacillus cereus (17).

 b if \rightarrow indicates transformation; td \rightarrow indicates transduction.

^c pts::erm corresponds to an insertion of the erm gene between the ptsG 3' end and the ptsI 5' end (7).

ptsI7 is a point mutation in the ptsI gene (13)

 e ptsH::cat corresponds to the deletion of a 155-bp HindIII-HpaI fragment within the ptsH gene which was replaced by the cat gene of pC194. The ligation of the Stul site of cat to the Hpal site of ptsH led to a fusion between cat and the end of ptsH, allowing expression of ptsI.
SacXY::tet and sacXY::tephA3 are insertions of tet or aphA3 genes, respectively, between the sacX

⁸ sacP::cat, the internal EcoRV fragment of the sacP gene is replaced by the cat gene (5).

 h sacT::aphA3, the aphA3 gene was substituted to a BgIII internal fragment of the sacT gene (5).

 t ptsG::cat (a gift from J. Reizer), an insertion of the cat gene in the ptsG gene replaced in an internal fragment of about 400 bp (38).

observed for a *ptsGHI* null mutant was due to a fully active SacY.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Media. E. coli strains were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth, and B. subtilis strains were grown in Penassay antibiotic medium 3 (Difco), SP medium (8 g of nutrient broth per liter-1 mM MgSO₄-13 mM KCl, supplemented after sterilization with 2.5 μ M FeSO₄, 500 μ M CaCl₂, and 10 μ M MnCl₂), or C medium [70 mM K_2H PO₄ · 3H₂O, 30 mM KH_2PO_4 , 25 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄, 0.5 mM MgSO₄, 0.01 mM $MnSO₄$, 22 mg of ferric ammonium citrate per liter]. C medium was supplemented with the following nutrients: 20 mM potassium succinate, 50 mM potassium glutamate, and 100 mg of auxotrophic requirements per liter (CSK medium).

Strains. All the strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. Strain MZ303 contains an internal $ptsH$ deletion, allowing the expression of ptsI. A 155-bp HindIII-HpaI restriction fragment (15) was replaced by the *cat* gene. In this strain, the

FIG. 1. Restriction maps of plasmids containing the sacX and sacY genes used in this study. Stars indicate the Sau3A restriction sites used during the construction of pMF1.

ptsH mutation has a nonpolar effect on the expression of the downstream ptsI gene. Indeed, after transduction of MZ303 strain with a recombinant SPB prophage carrying $ptsG$ and ptsH but not ptsI, the growth of the resulting transductant was restored on PTS sugars (Glc, Fru, Scr, Mtl, Man).

Plasmids. The pTP1 plasmid can replicate in both E. coli and B. subtilis. It contains the $sacT$ gene and has previously been described (5). The pBSG8-27 plasmid was constructed as follows: a HindIII-StuI DNA fragment containing the first 200 bp of sacP and 851 bp upstream from sacP was cloned between the HindIII and SmaI sites of pUC19 (41). The pJR100 plasmid (a gift from J. Reizer) contains the $ptsG$ gene interrupted by a cat gene (see Fig. 4). The plasmids pMF1O and pMF22 (Fig. 1) were constructed as follows: the complete sacX sacY operon was cloned, starting with pMF1 (6), which contains the *sacY* gene of *B. subtilis* and part of the *sacX* gene. A 1.8-kb *ClaI* restriction fragment containing the aphA3 gene conferring kanamycin resistance (39) was inserted at the unique EcoRV restriction site downstream from $sacY$ in pMF1 (Fig. 1). The resulting recombinant plasmid was linearized, and the aphA3 gene was integrated by a double crossover event into the chromosome of B. subtilis 168. An 11-kb EcoRI DNA fragment containing the sacX sacY operon and the aphA3 gene was cloned in the EcoRI restriction site of pHT3101 (23), resulting in pMF5. A 7.5-kb $EcoRI-HindIII$ fragment containing the $sacX$ sacY operon was purified from pMF5 and cloned between the corresponding restriction sites of pUC9, giving pMF9. The inserted DNA fragment in pMF9 contains a ClaI restriction site in the middle of sacX and one downstream from sacY (35, 43). The pMF9 plasmid was restricted with ClaI, and the ClaI fragment was replaced by a ClaI DNA fragment containing the $aphA3$ gene, resulting in pMF10. A 4.5-kb PstI-HindIII restriction fragment overlapping the sacX sacY operon was cloned in the corresponding sites of pUC9 to give pMF20. A 2.5-kb SspI fragment containing the tetracycline resistance gene from pBC16 (17) was cloned between the ClaI sites of pMF20 to give pMF22. The lacZ translational fusions were constructed either in two steps by using the pIS112 (24) and pAF1 vectors (12) or in a single step by using pAC2 (Cm^r) (25) or $pAC7$ (Km^r) (40) $(Fig. 2)$. All the resulting plasmids carrying translational *lacZ* fusions are derivatives of ptrpBG1 (32), allowing single-copy integration at the amyE locus via homologous recombination. The plasmid pBSG8- 32 and its derivatives were constructed as follows: the 1-kb DNA fragment from pBSG8-27 flanked by ^a HindIII site, and the EcoRI site of the polylinker was cloned between the corresponding sites of mpl8 replicative form DNA. A singlestrand M13 recombinant phage, called ϕ 1, was obtained and used for site-directed mutagenesis (see below). A derivative of ϕ 1, called ϕ 2, contains a single-base change in the transcriptional terminator of the sacPA operon (Fig. 3B). The replicative form of the ϕ 2 phage was purified, and the XmnI-SspI DNA fragment containing the promoter, the modified transcriptional terminator, and the beginning of the sacP coding sequence was cloned at the BamHI site (made blunt) of the *lacZ* gene of pIS112. The resulting plasmid containing an in-frame translational fusion was called pBSG8-32. The translational fusion was then transferred to pAF1, which contains a promoterless lacZ gene and two fragments of the B. subtilis amy E gene. The p AF1 plasmid also contains the *cat* gene, allowing selection of integrants. The cat and lacZ genes of pIS112 contain unique StuI and SacI restriction sites. An StuI-SacI DNA fragment containing the translational fusion was inserted between the Stul and SacI restriction sites of pAF1 to give plasmid pBSG8-34. The corresponding wild-type XmnI-SspI DNA fragment of pBSG8-27 was similarly cloned in pIS112 to give pBSG8-37 and transferred into pAF1 to give plasmid pBSG8-38. The pBSG8-35 plasmid was constructed as follows. pBSG8-34

FIG. 2. Construction of sacP-lacZ fusions. Translational fusions constructed in pIS112 were transferred into pAF1 as described in Materials and Methods.

FIG. 3. (A) Simplified restriction map of the sacTPA region of B. subtilis. The upper line indicates the position of the XmnI-SspI restriction fragment (300 bp) which contains the promoter. Convergent arrows indicate the palindromic sequence. (B) Mutations created in vitro in the palindromic sequence. Dots indicate the location of mutations. In sacPt1, the introduction of a C in the place of a G creates a BamHI restriction site. In sacPt2, the BamHI restriction site was made blunt by using Klenow fragment.

TABLE 2. Effects on the expression of sacP-lacZ fusion of mutations introduced into the palindromic structure^{a}

Strain	Relevant genotype	Palin- dromic structure	B-Galactosidase activity (Miller units/mg of protein) with:		
			No sugar added	0.15% sucrose	0.15% sucrose and $0.1%$ glucose
OB6055	$sacT^{+}$ sacP-lacZ	WT	38	940	150
OB6057	\triangle sacT sacP-lacZ	WT	27	27	
OB6058	$sacT^{+}$ sacP-lacZ	t1	16	650	
OB6054	$sacT^{+}$ sacP-lacZ	t2	400	800	90
OB6056	\triangle sacT sacP-lacZ	t2.	395	382	37

^a Cells were grown on CSK medium with or without glucose or sucrose, as indicated. WT, wild type; tl and t2, mutated palindromic structures (see Fig. 3B).

was restricted by using BamHI and treated with the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase ^I in the presence of the four dXTPs. The DNA was religated to give plasmid pBSG8-35. As a result, four bases were added in the loop of the palindromic sequence located upstream from the sacP gene. The pTP7 plasmid has previously been described (5): the XmnI-SspI restriction fragment of pBG8-27 was cloned in the *Smal* site of the $lacZ$ gene of pIS112, and the fusion was transferred into pAF1 to give pTP7. The pTP11 plasmid contains the same translational fusion as pTP7, but the cat gene is replaced by an *aphA3* gene. The pTP11 plasmid contains the same XmnI-SspI restriction fragment but cloned in the pAC7 vector. A 716-bp EcoRI-EcoRV DNA fragment containing the beginning of $sacT$ was cloned between the EcoRI and SmaI sites of pAC2 to give pTZ2. In pTZ2, 73 codons of sacT were cloned in frame with lacZ.

Site-directed mutagenesis. The Muta-Gene M13 kit (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Richmond, Calif.) was used for sitedirected mutagenesis. The sequence of the 45-mer oligonucleotide used as the primer was $5'$ -AGG ACA CAG GGA TTC TTT TTC ATT TAC GCA AAT TTT AGG TCT TGC-3'. The underlined G replaces ^a C in the wild-type sequence. The presence of the mutation in the M13 phage was confirmed by sequencing single-strand phage DNA. Sequencing was performed according to the method of Sanger et al. by using a series of oligonucleotides priming at intervals of 200 nucleotides (28).

Transformation of B. subtilis. Transformation was performed as previously described (18). Antibiotic-resistant transformants were selected on SP medium containing chloramphenicol (5 μ g/ml), tetracycline (20 μ g/ml), and kanamycin (5 μ g/ml). To select erythromycin-resistant transformants, erythromycin (1 μ g/ml) and lincomycin (25 μ g/ml) were added to SP medium.

I8-Galactosidase assays. B. subtilis cells containing lacZ fusions were grown in CSK medium supplemented with 0.1% glucose or 0.15% sucrose as indicated in the tables. ,-Galactosidase assays were carried out as previously described (26).

RESULTS

Alteration of the palindromic sequence upstream from sacPA. In previous work (5) , we proposed that SacT functions as an antiterminator and interacts with the palindromic sequence located between the promoter and the sacP gene (Fig. 3A). A constitutive mutant in which sacPA is ex-

TABLE 3. Regulation of sacT gene expression in B. subtilis^a

Strain	Relevant genotype	B-Galactosidase activity (Miller units/mg of protein) with:		
		No sugar added	0.15% sucrose	0.1% glucose
OB6066	sacT-lacZ	70	96	83
OB6067	sacT-lacZ AsacT	70		
OB6068	$sacT-lacZ \Delta pts(GHI)$	73		
OB6069	sacT-lacZ Δ(sacX sacY)	76		

^a Cells were grown on CSK medium with or without glucose or sucrose, as indicated.

pressed in the absence of sucrose has previously been isolated (21) : the constitutive sacT30 mutation corresponds to an Asp-96 to Tyr missense mutation located in a region highly conserved between SacT and SacY (5). Since no mutation in the putative termination structure had been identified, we decided to test the hypothesis that the palindromic sequence functions as a transcriptional terminator. Two mutations were created in vitro to modify this region of dyad symmetry (Fig. 3B). A single-base change was introduced by site-directed mutagenesis between the two inverted repeats (see Materials and Methods). This mutation creates ^a BamHI restriction site, which was first introduced upstream from a sacP-lacZ translational fusion and then reintroduced as ^a single copy at the amyE locus of the B. subtilis chromosome, giving strain QB6058 (sacPt1). By using plasmid pBSG8-34 containing the BamHI restriction site, four nucleotides were also inserted by using a Klenow fragment. This mutation was introduced upstream from the sacP-lacZ fusion in plasmid pBSG8-35, allowing integration into the chromosome by a double crossover event at the amyE locus, resulting in strain QB6054 (sacPt2). The expression of lacZ was assayed for these different strains (which do or do not contain a wild-type allele of the $sacT$ gene) with and without induction by sucrose (Table 2). The single-base change creating the BamHI restriction site in strain QB6058 had a small effect on the expression of the sacPA operon. However, the introduction of four bases in the middle of the palindrome resulted in weak constitutive expression of the sacPA operon (for example, in strain QB6054). This result is surprising, since the calculated ΔG of the secondary structure is not greatly modified by these mutations. It is therefore likely that this modification affects the target of the SacT regulatory protein. Addition of sucrose to the growth medium resulted in a twofold increase in lacZ expression in strain QB6054 (sacPt2). This result indicates that overinduction by sucrose is dependent on the presence of SacT.

The induced level of expression of β -galactosidase in strain QB6055 (sacT⁺ sacP-lacZ) which has a wild-type terminator was sixfold lower when glucose was present in the growth medium. It has already been shown that the synthesis of sucrase is markedly repressed by various carbon sources, including glucose (19, 22). This result indicates that in strain QB6055, the XmnI-SspI DNA fragment containing the inducible promoter of the sacPA operon also includes the target involved in the glucose effect. In strain QB6056 (\triangle sacT) grown in the presence of glucose, a 10-fold reduction of lacZ expression was also observed. This result suggests that the glucose effect requires the presence of the XmnI-SspI fragment in the promoter region of the sacPA operon and is SacT independent.

Control of sacT gene expression. The regulation of $sacT$

FIG. 4. Restriction map of the ptsGHI region of B. subtilis. In the Δp ts(GHI) strain, the BgIII-SacI fragment was substituted with the ermC gene (15). In the Δp tsG strain, the cat gene was cloned between the NciI-HindII fragment of the ptsG gene. In the Δp tsH strain, the cat gene was inserted between the HindIII and HpaI sites of ptsH. A translational fusion was made between cat and the end of ptsH, allowing the expression of ptsI (not shown).

gene expression was analyzed by using gene fusions. In order to construct a sacT-lacZ translational fusion, an EcoRI-EcoRV DNA fragment, containing the beginning of the sacT coding sequence and the 500 bp upstream from the ATG initiation codon, was cloned in pAC2 (see Materials and Methods). The resulting plasmid, called pTZ2, was introduced by transformation into B. subtilis 168, and Erm^r colonies were isolated. Since the promoter of the $sacT$ gene was not localized, only fusions integrated by a single crossover event at the sacT locus were retained, and one such strain was reisolated. In this strain, QB6066, the entire plasmid was integrated into the chromosome by a Campbelltype recombination event via the $EcoRI-ECoRV$ homologous DNA fragment. The $sacT-lacZ$ fusion was mapped by transformation at the sacT locus. Therefore, the sacT-lacZ fusion is expressed from the chromosomal promoter of the sacT gene. β -Galactosidase in cultures of QB6066 (sacT-lacZ) grown in minimal medium containing sucrose or glucose as

TABLE 4. Control of sacP-lacZ expression in sacT, sacX, sacY, and pts mutants^a

Strain	Relevant genotype	β-Galactosidase activity (Miller units/mg of protein) with:	
		No sugar added	0.15% sucrose
OB6010	sacP-lacZ	13	620
OB6024	sacP-lacZ AsacT	36	14
OB6023	$sacP-lacZ \Delta(sacX sacY)$	16	576
OB6014	$sacP-lacZ \Delta pts(GHI)$	1,540	
OB6027	sacP-lacZ Δpts(GHI) ΔsacT	1,660	
OB6026	sacP-lacZ Δp ts(GHI) Δ (sacX sacY)	15	
OB6011	sacP-lacZ sacT30	7,600	
OB6039	sacP-lacZ sacT30 Δp ts(GHI)	1,610	
OB6040	sacP-lacZ sacT30 Δ (sacX sacY)	7,800	
OB6041	sacP-lacZ sacT30 Δ(sacX sacY) Δp ts(GHI)	24	

^a Cells were grown on CSK medium with or without glucose or sucrose, as indicated.

carbon sources was assayed (Table 3). The expression of sacT was neither induced by sucrose nor repressed by glucose in the culture medium. The replicative plasmid, $pTP1$, containing the entire sacT gene, was introduced by transformation into strain QB6066, and P-galactosidase in the transformants was assayed. The presence of pTP1 did not modify the expression of the sacT-lacZ fusion (not shown). It seems, therefore, that $sacT$ is not negatively autoregulated. Two deletions, inactivating the $sacT$ or the $sacX$ and $sacY$ genes, were introduced into strain QB6066, resulting in strains QB6067 and QB6069, respectively (Table 3). Assays of $lacZ$ expression indicate that $sacT$ gene expression is not negatively controlled by SacT or SacY. A large deletion encompassing *ptsH* encoding HPr, *ptsI* encoding enzyme I, and $ptsG$ encoding enzyme II^{GIC} (Fig. 4) was introduced into QB6066, giving strain QB6068. The sacT gene expression did not appear to be controlled by the PTS in strain QB6068, as measured by lacZ expression (Table 3).

Role of the PTS in the expression of the sacPA operon. It was previously shown that the PTS regulates the expression of the sacPA and sacB genes in B. subtilis. As proposed by Crutz et al. (4), SacX might be a sucrose sensor which is phosphorylated via the PTS and in this state inhibits the SacY antiterminator by transferring the phosphoryl group to SacY. Exogenous sucrose would lead to the dephosphorylation of SacX and consequently SacY, thereby allowing antitermination. It was suggested that SacT could be regulated by phosphorylation via the PTS (5). Thus, we constructed a series of strains in which the sacP-lacZ translational fusion was integrated at the $amyE$ locus of B. subtilis. In these strains, chromosomal deletions inactivating sacT or sacY or the different genes of the PTS were created. The various strains were grown in minimal medium in the presence or absence of sucrose as the inducer (Table 4). Strains QB6023 and QB6024 are Δ (sacX sacY) and Δ sacT derivatives, respectively, of QB6010. QB6023 and QB6010 displayed inducible lacZ expression. The induction of lacZ expression was not observed in the Δ sacT strain QB6024. Thus, SacX and SacY have no effect on induction in the wild-type strain. However, in a pts mutant strain, SacY is fully active and allows the expression of sacPA through

TABLE 5. Effects of pts mutations on $sacP-lacZ$ expression^a

B-Galactosidase activity (Miller units/mg of protein)

^a Cells were grown on CSK medium.

cross talk (Table 4). It has been previously shown that induction of $sacB$ in the wild-type strain requires a high concentration of sucrose (22). Under these conditions, the expression of sacPA is abolished, probably because of catabolite repression. Furthermore, it was confirmed that SacT is a positive regulatory protein which controls sacPA operon expression. A deletion encompassing $ptsH,ptsI$, and ptsG was then introduced into these strains. sacPA was expressed constitutively in strains QB6014 and QB6027, probably because of the sacY gene product. Indeed, this constitutive expression in strain QB6026 was not observed. It is probable that when the PTS is inactivated, the SacY antiterminator is not phosphorylated and, therefore, is fully activated and probably interacts with the terminatorlike structure located downstream from the sacPA promoter, allowing transcription of the operon. In strain QB6026 containing deletions inactivating both the PTS and the SacY antiterminator, the sacPA operon was not expressed, indicating that SacT needs a component of the PTS to be an active antiterminator. To determine whether the sacT30 gene product also requires the PTS for activity, sacY and pts null mutations were introduced into the $sacT30$ strain. β -Galactosidase in cultures of these strains grown in minimal medium was assayed (Table 4). In strain QB6011 (sacT30), the uninduced level of expression of the sacPA operon was 10-fold higher than that observed in the induced QB6010 $(sacT⁺)$ strain. The high constitutive value was unaffected in strain QB6040 Δ (sacX sacY) sacT30, confirming that the sacT30 gene product is responsible for this high level of expression. In strain QB6039 (sacT30 Δp ts), an intermediate constitutive level of sacPA expression was observed and is probably due to SacY since it was completely abolished in a Δp ts Δ (sacX sacY) sacT30 background (strain QB6041). These results show that in the absence of a functional PTS, the activities of both the $sacT30$ and wild-type $sacT$ gene products are abolished.

Roles of the genes of the PITS. The general proteins of the PTS, enzyme ^I and HPr, are required for the transport and

TABLE 6. SacT-independent expression of the sacPA operon in the sacPt2 mutant^a

Strain	Relevant genotype	B-Galactosidase activity (Miller units/mg of protein)
OB6054	sacP-lacZ sacPt2	350
OB6060	$sacP-lacZ \Delta(sacX sacY) sacPt2$	355
OB6063	sacP-lacZ Δ (sacX sacY) Δ pts(GHI) sacPt2	375

^a Cells were grown on CSK medium.

phosphorylation of all PTS-sugars. Sugar specificity is determined by specific-membrane-bound enzymes II (SacP in the case of sucrose transport). In some cases, an enzyme III is involved (27). An enzyme III^{Glc} (crr) is involved in the uptake of sucrose in both E. coli and Klebsiella pneumoniae $(20, 33)$. Enzymes III^{GIc} from gram-negative bacteria correspond to the C-terminal domain of an enzyme II^{Glc} in B. subtilis $(14, 38)$. Moreover, this C-terminal enzyme III^{G1c} like domain of enzyme II^{GIC} was shown to be involved in sucrose uptake via the sucrose-specific enzyme II, SacP (14, 38).

Mutations inactivating $ptsH$ (HPr), ptsI (enzyme I), pts G (enzyme II^{Glc}), or sacP (enzyme II^{Scr}) were introduced in a $sacT30$ constitutive strain (Fig. 4). A deletion inactivating $sacX$ and $sacY$ was also introduced into each of these strains to avoid constitutive expression of the sacPA due to SacY (Table 5). In strain QB6064, from which $sacP$ has been deleted, the constitutive expression of the sacPA operon is the same as that in the parental strain QB6052. In strain QB6065 containing a deletion of the C-terminal domain of enzyme II^{Glc} , the expression of the sacPA operon was also not significantly different from that of strain QB6052. These results clearly indicate that both enzyme $II^{Ser} (sacP)$ and the enzyme III-like domain of ptsG are not involved in the expression of the sacPA operon. The introduction of either a point mutation (ptsI7) into enzyme ^I (QB6053) or a nonpolar internal deletion of the $ptsH$ gene (strain QB6050) led to dramatic decreases in the expression of the operon, showing that enzyme ^I and HPr are necessary.

In strain QB6054 (Table 6), which contains an insertion modifying the transcriptional terminator, the operon is constitutively expressed. It was previously shown that this mutation allows the expression of the operon in absence of SacT in strain QB6056 (Table 2). As expected, the expression of the operon was unaffected in strain QB6060 from which $sacX$ and $sacY$ have also been deleted. A similar result was obtained with strain QB6063 deleted for ptsG, ptsH, and ptsI, confirming that the PTS is not required when the terminator is modified, for example, by the sacPt2 mutation.

DISCUSSION

In B. subtilis, the expression of the sacPA and sacB genes is probably regulated by antitermination (4, 5). SacT, which controls the sacPA operon, shares extensive similarity with SacY, which regulates sacB gene expression. Both SacT and SacY are homologous to BglG, the antiterminator of the bgl operon of E. coli (5, 30, 35). Moreover, their putative targets are palindromic structures which are extremely similar (5). These properties could explain the observed cross talk between the two regulatory systems in B. subtilis (22, 36).

In this work, we used gene fusions to show that expression of the $sacT$ gene is not autoregulated and is not controlled by the PTS or subject to a glucose effect. Since the expression of the sacPA operon was strongly reduced in the presence of glucose, a target of the glucose effect must be present in the 300-bp XmnI-SspI restriction fragment which contains the promoter of the sacPA operon. This restriction fragment also contains a palindromic sequence downstream from the promoter. A mutational insertion between the two inverted repeats led to constitutive expression of the sacPA operon. This result strongly suggests that the inverted repeat acts as a transcriptional terminator, although no experimental data are yet available. Using this constitutive mutant in which the expression of the operon is independent of SacT, we showed

FIG. 5. Models proposed for the regulation of sacPA expression. In model 1, two sites of phosphorylation are present on SacT: site 1 is the activation site which is phosphorylated by components of the PTS (enzyme I, HPr, and possibly enzyme $III^{S(1)}$; site 2 is the inactivation site which is phosphorylated in absence of inducer (-1) . In the presence of sucrose $(+1)$, site 2 is dephosphorylated as a consequence of sucrose transport and SacT becomes active. The role of site 2 is functionally equivalent to that proposed for the BglG antiterminator (1, 29). In model 2, in the absence of inducer (-1) , the activation site 1 is phosphorylated while site 2 is not occupied; in the presence of sucrose $(+1)$, sucrose-phosphate, formed during the transport of sucrose, acts as an internal inducer, activating SacT by interacting at site 2.

that the expression of the operon remained subject to a glucose effect.

It was previously shown that the PTS negatively regulates both sacPA and sacB gene expression $(4, 5)$. A model was proposed for the control of SacY antiterminator activity. In this model, SacX is a minor but functional enzyme II^{Ser} which would phosphorylate SacY, thereby inactivating the antiterminator (4). In order to study a specific effect of SacT on the expression of the $sacPA$ operon in pts mutants, it was essential to construct a series of strains deleted for sacY. Indeed, in a strain containing a deletion of ptsH, ptsI, and ptsG, the expression of the sacPA operon is constitutive. This study shows that SacY is responsible for the expression of sacPA in these pts mutants. Under these conditions, SacY could interact with the sacPA terminator. We also show that in ptsI or ptsH strains, both the wild-type SacT and the modified SacT30 antiterminators are not functional. This unexpected result strongly suggests that functional HPr protein and enzyme ^I are required for the activity of SacT. During the phosphorylation cascade, HPr is phosphorylated by enzyme I. Thus, the HPr protein is ^a candidate for interactions with the SacT antiterminator. It is therefore likely that HPr or a phosphorylated protein thereof phos-

phorylates the antiterminator SacT as a prerequisite for its activity. No specific enzyme III^{scr} has been identified so far. However, an enzyme II^{GIc} (PtsG) with an enzyme III^{GIc}-like domain was shown to be involved in sucrose uptake via the enzyme II^{Scr} (SacP) (38). In this study, we showed that both the *ptsG* and *sacP* gene products are not required for SacT activity. Still, we cannot exclude that a specific enzyme III^{Scr} is involved as an intermediate in the phosphorylation cascade. In this case, this putative enzyme III^{Scr} would activate SacT by protein-protein contact or by phosphorylation on a specific site (Fig. 5). The role of sucrose as an inducer remains ambiguous. We can postulate that in the absence of sucrose, SacT is presumably phosphorylated at a second site, which leads to its inactivation as proposed for BglG (1, 29) and SacY (4). This step would require an unidentified enzyme II^{Scr} or the above postulated enzyme III^{Scr}. In the presence of sucrose, this second site of SacT would be dephosphorylated and SacT thereby would be fully activated, while sucrose would be phosphorylated during its uptake (Fig. 5, model 1). An alternative to this phosphorylation hypothesis is the direct interaction of SacT, phosphorylated by enzyme ^I and HPr, with an internal inducer (Fig. 5, model 2).

In conclusion, the PTS exerts different effects on sacB and sacPA. The general proteins of the PTS are not required for the activity of $Sac\hat{Y}$, while they are necessary for $SacT$ activity.

Confirmation of the phosphorylation of SacT by the PTS components will be necessary, by using purified proteins.

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