Streptococcus Plasmid pAMal Is a Composite of Two Separable Replicons, One of Which Is Closely Related to Bacillus Plasmid pBC16

JOHN B. PERKINS* AND PHILIP YOUNGMAN

Department of Cellular and Developmental Biology, The Biological Laboratories, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138

Received 24 March 1983/Accepted ¹¹ May 1983

A tetracycline resistance plasmid of Streptococcus faecalis, $pAM\alpha1$, is shown to contain two independent sets of replication functions, separated from each other on either side by short (300- to 400-base-pair) sequences of homology. The homologous sequences are oriented as direct repeats and therefore permit the dissociation of pAM α 1 into its component replicons, referred to here as pAM α 1 Δ 1 and $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$, as the reciprocal products of a simple intramolecular recombination. $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ is a 4.6-kilobase plasmid which carries the *tet* gene, and $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$ is a 5.1-kilobase plasmid which carries no known selectable marker. $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ is shown to replicate efficiently in Bacillus subtilis and to confer tetracycline resistance on Bacillus hosts. We demonstrate by restriction mapping analysis that $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ is virtually identical to a 4.6-kilobase tetracycline resistance plasmid of Bacillus cereus, pBC16, which is known to show extensive homology to plasmid isolates from Staphylococcus species (such as pUB110), as well as from other Bacillus species. The $pAM\alpha1\Delta1-pBC16-pUB110$ replicon thus exists naturally in at least three different gram-positive genera, indicating that these plasmids have a high degree of interspecific functional adaptability and supporting the view that plasmid DNA is commonly exchanged among many species of gram-positive bacteria in their natural environments.

 $pAM\alpha1$ (Fig. 1A) is a 9.6-kilobase (kb), nonconjugative plasmid of Streptococcus faecalis which confers amplifiable tetracycline resistance (Tc'). The tetracycline resistance determinant (tet) is located on a 4.2-kb segment of $pAM\alpha1$, which is flanked by homologous sequences of ca. 380 base pairs (referred to as RS sequences), oriented as direct repeats; the remaining 4.7-kb portion of the plasmid carries no known selectable marker (30). Clewell and his co-workers (6) have shown that amplification is probably accomplished by a series of "uneven recombinations" between RS sequences within a replicating molecule or by intermolecular recombination at RS homology to generate tandem duplications of the *tet*-containing segment (Fig. 1B).

Intramolecular recombination at RS homology (Fig. 1C) is also possible. This would dissociate $pAM\alpha1$ into two circular molecules, each containing a single RS sequence: a 4.6-kb molecule carrying the tet determinant (Fig. 1E) and a 5.1-kb molecule without a drug resistance gene (Fig. 1D). Yagi and Clewell (31) have identified the 5.1-kb dissociation product as an autonomous replicon in S. faecalis, leading them to conclude that the replication functions of $pAM\alpha1$ probably reside in this region of the plasmid; no autonomous replicon corresponding with the 4.6-kb tet-containing dissociation product could be detected, however, despite an intensive search, indicating that this plasmid species may not have the capacity to replicate in S. faecalis.

In the present work, we found that the 4.6-kb dissociation product (referred to here as $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$) functions as an autonomous replicon in Bacillus subtilis. This demonstrates that $pAM\alpha1$ is actually a composite of two functional replicons (which are separable by a simple intramolecular recombination between RS sequences) and that at least one of the component replicons ($pAM\alpha1\Delta1$) is capable of replication in B. subtilis. In addition, we found very unexpectedly that $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ is virtually identical in its proffle of restriction endonuclease recognition sites to a tet-containing Bacillus cereus plasmid of the same size, pBC16. Interestingly, Polak and Novick (22) have recently reported substantial regions of homology between pBC16 and a Staphylococcus aureus replicon, pUB110, which carries a kanamycin resistance (Km^r) determinakt; pUB110 and pBC16 were found to be replication incompatible and differed in their

FIG. 1. Schematic diagram of $pAM\alpha1(A)$, showing amplified (B) and deleted forms (D and E) of the plasmid that can result from different kinds of recombination events involving homologous RS sequences (RS) which flank the tetracycline resistance gene (tet) (see text).

restriction maps only in the drug-resistancecontaining regions. We interpret the discovery of highly homologous replicons in isolates from three different genera to be evidence of extensive natural exchange of plasmid DNA among gram-positive bacteria.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Plasmids and bacterial strains. S. faecalis strains harboring pAM α 1 and pAM α 1::Tn917 in the JH2-2 genetic background (29, 31) were kindly provided to us by D. B. Clewell. B. subtilis 168 strains harboring plasmids pBC16 and pUB110 were obtained from the Bacillus Genetic Stock Center at Ohio State University. B. subtilis 168 derivatives were used as recipients in all plasmid DNA transformation experiments.

Preparation of plasmid DNA. Plasmid DNA was isolated from B. subtilis bacteria grown to the late log phase in LB broth (Luria-Bertani broth [18]) as described previously (32). Plasmid DNA was isolated from S. faecalis in a similar way, except that the growth medium was supplemented with ¹⁰ mM DLthreonine (Sigma Chemical Co.), the lysozyme concentration was increased to 5 to 10 mg/ml, and the time of incubation with lysozyme was extended to 60 to 90 min.

Transformation and selection. Transformation-competent B. subtilis bacteria were prepared, stored, and transformed as described by Dubnau and Davidoff-Abelson (8). Plasmid transformants were selected for Tc^r or macrolide-lincosamide-streptogramin B resistance (MLS') on LB agar plates, using a double softagar overlay to provide a period of expression or induction before selection as described previously (32). Because the MLSr phenotype conferred by Tn917 is erythromycin inducible (29), transformants were plated together with 0.1 ml of a 10 - μ g/ml erythromycin solution in 2.5 ml of LB soft agar as the first overlay. After 2 h at 37° C (or 3 h at 33° C), another LB soft-agar overlay was added, which contained 0.1 ml of a 400- μ g/ml erythromycin solution and 0.1 ml of a 10-mg/ml lincomycin solution. To select for Tc^r , no drug was added to the first LB soft-agar overlay, and 0.1 ml of a 4-mg/mi tetracycline solution was added to the second overlay.

Restriction enzyme analysis. Restriction endonucleases purchased from New England Biolabs and Bethesda Research Laboratories were used according to the instructions of the manufacturers. Restriction digestions were analyzed by electrophoresis in horizontal 0.8% agarose or vertical 7.5% polyacrylamide slab gels, as described by Segall and Losick (25).

Restriction endonuclease mapping. The relative positions of HpaII cleavage sites in $pAM\alpha1$, $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$, $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$, and $pAM\alpha1$::Tn917 were determined from the analysis of enzyme digestions run to completion or prematurely terminated at various times, as described previously (21). BamHI, EcoRI, PvuII, PstI, HindIII, and XbaI cleavage sites were then ordered by using those enzymes individually, in combination with each other, and in combination with HpaII. MboI, TaqI, and HpaI cleavage sites of $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ were ordered by analyzing partial digests of restriction fragments radioactively end labeled with ³²P, as described by Smith and Birmstiel (26).

Heteroduplex analysis. DNA heteroduplex molecules were constructed and spread using standard procedures (7, 14) modified as described previously (15). After adsorption to copper grids, DNA molecules were shadowed with platinum-palladium (80:20) and observed with a Philips 300 electron microscope at magnifications of x9,433 and 12,726. All molecular size determinations used ϕ X174 replicative form II DNA as a double-stranded reference and ϕ X174 virion DNA as ^a single-stranded reference.

RESULTS

Introduction of pAMal and pAMal::Tn917 into B. subtilis. Tn917 is a 5.4-kb transposon of S. *faecalis* which confers resistance to erythromycin and other macrolide-lincosamide-streptogramin B antibiotics. Our interest in the structure and replication properties of $pAM\alpha 1$ in Bacillus species was a consequence of experiments in which we unsuccessfully attempted to introduce $pAM\alpha 1::Tn917$ into B. subtilis by transformation. Our inability to obtain either Tc^r or MLS^r transformants of B . subtilis with $pAM\alpha$ 1::Tn917 plasmid DNA was difficult to reconcile with successful efforts in the Clewell laboratory (5) to obtain Tc^{r} transformants of B. subtilis with pAMal itself.

We were able to confirm the observations of Clewell and his colleagues that B. subtilis is transformable with pAM α 1, obtaining ca. 2 \times $10²$ Tc^r transformants per ml of competent cells (see above), using 1μ g of plasmid DNA per ml (a relatively low transformation efficiency). As in their work, moreover, we found that none of the B. subtilis transformants contained the 9.6 kb form of $pAM\alpha1$ used in the transformations. Instead, each contained a deleted form, which we refer to here as $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$, estimated from the mobility of supercoiled molecules in agarose gels to be less than 5.0 kb (data not shown). When digested with EcoRI, $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ was found to retain the two EcoRI recognition sites of $pAM\alpha1$ (Fig. 2), which were known to be within the amplifiable portion of the plasmid (31). From the mobility of the EcoRI digestion products of $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ (Fig. 2), we estimated the plasmid to be ca. 4.6 kb in size. In the course of many subsequent transformations of $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ into new B. subtilis recipients, no further deletions of the plasmid have been observed.

The transformation of plasmid DNA into B. subtilis is sometimes greatly enhanced when the transformation recipient already contains a plasmid with some homology to the transforming DNA (11). For this reason, we attempted to use $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ already present in the transformation recipients as a "resident homology" to enhance

FIG. 2. EcoRI digests of pAMa1 (lane 2) and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ (lane 3) separated electrophoretically in a 0.8% agarose gel. A HindIll digest of lambda DNA was run in lane 1.

the transformation of B. subtilis by $pAM\alpha$ 1::Tn917. When a $pAM\alpha$ 1 Δ 1-containing B. subtilis strain was grown to transformation competence, it was found to be transformable to MLS^r at moderately high efficiency (more than $10⁴$ transformants per ml), using pAM α 1::Tn917 plasmid DNA. The plasmid content of such MLSF transformants was complex, but included a prominent species of ca. 10 kb (the expected size of $pAM\alpha1\Delta1::Tn917$, as well as a prominent p $AM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ -size species (data not shown). When plasmid DNA prepared from MLS' transformants was used to transform plasmidless B. subtilis strains, MLS' transformants were obtained at moderate frequencies $(<10⁴/ml)$; these contained a simpler profile of plasmid species, with a 10-kb form (presumed to be $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$::Tn917) remaining the most prominent, and invariably retained a $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ -size species, despite the absence of a Tc^r selection. In the absence of tetracycline and macrolidelincosamide streptogramin B antibiotics, MLS' transformants rapidly lost MLS' but stably maintained Tcr, with a gradual loss of all plasmid species except $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$.

Restriction endonuclease mapping analysis of $pAM\alpha1$, $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$, $pAM\alpha1$::Tn917, and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1::Tn917$. As diagrammed in Fig. 1, a circular, tet-containing molecule 4.6 kb in size is expected as one of the dissociation products of $pAM\alpha1$ when recombination occurs between different RS sequences within the same plasmid. The origin of $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ is thus easily understood if the amplifiable portion of $pAM\alpha1$ contains the information required for autonomous replication in B. subtilis in addition to the information required for conferring Tc^r. As an initial test of the hypothesis that $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ is, in fact, identical to the 4.6-kb dissociation product (species E in Fig. 1), we mapped several restriction endonuclease recognition sites in $pAM\alpha1$ and $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ (a restriction map of $pAM\alpha 1$ recently published by Burdett et al. [3] is in agreement with ours for sites mapped in common). The results (Fig. 3) indicated that the deletion suffered by $pAM\alpha1$ in generating $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ probably involved the excision of a single, continuous 5.1-kb segment, the endpoints of which must be at or very near the positions of the RS sequences in $pAM\alpha 1$ (determined relative to the $EcoRI$ sites by Yagi and Clewell [30]). A simple restriction analysis of pAMal::Tn917 and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1::Tn917$ (data not shown) allowed us to determine the approximate location of the transposon insertion in this plasmid (shown on the map in Fig. 3) and to verify that the 10-kb plasmid species present in B. subtilis bacteria transformed to MLSr by pAMal::Tn917 actually was $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$::Tn917. A detailed restriction map of Tn917 will be presented elsewhere (J. B.

FIG. 3. Restriction maps of pAM α 1, pAM α 1 Δ 1, and $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 2$. Restriction sites are indicated as follows: B, BamHI; E, EcoRI; H_d, HindIII; H, HpaII; P_s , PstI; and P_v , PvuII. The approximate locations of the tet genes (tet) of $pAM\alpha1$ and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ were determined from the data of Burdett et al. (3) and Polak and Novick (22). Symbols: A, insertion sites of the transposon in $pAM\alpha1:Tn917$ and $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1::Tn917;$ \longrightarrow , positions of the RS sequences (31; see text). Size coordinates are given for pAMal in kb.

Perkins and P. Youngman, manuscript in preparation).

Heteroduplex analysis of pAMal::Tn917 and $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$. If $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ were generated by a single, continuous 5.1-kb deletion, a heteroduplex of $pAM\alpha1::Tn917$ and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$, each linearized by BamHI digestion (a unique site in both molecules), would display two singlestranded loops: one of transposon size (with a short stem formed by the terminal inverted repeats) and one of deletion size. The doublestranded portion of the heteroduplex would be of $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ size. In an actual experiment of this kind, several such structures were observed, one of which is shown in the photograph in Fig. 4. An analysis of the measurements made of the double-stranded portions and the singlestranded loops of several heteroduplex molecules is summarized in Table ¹ and is in good agreement with the predicted values. These data place the site of the transposon insertion at ca.

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FIG. 4. Electron micrograph and line drawing of a representative heteroduplex molecule prepared with $BamHI$ -digested (linearized) $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ and pAMal::Tn917 DNAs annealed at a concentration of 50% formamide. The arrows indicate the locations of single-stranded DNA structures corresponding either to $Tn917$ sequences (TTn) or to sequences deleted from pAMa1 to generate pAMa1 Δ 1 (Δ ₁). Letters mark duplex regions that are separated by Δ_1 and $\Gamma \Gamma$ n: A, long-arm duplex; B, short-arm duplex; C, middle duplex (see Table 1).

1.0 kb from the unique BamHI site in $pAM\alpha$ 1::Tn917 and position the RS sequences as shown in Fig. 3 (assuming that these are located at either end of the 5.1-kb deletion, as expected if the deletion were generated by recombination at RS homology). The position of the transposon insertion was confirmed independently by measurements of BamHI-digested $pAM\alpha1-pAM\alpha1::Tn917$ heteroduplex molecules (data not shown).

Heteroduplex analysis and restriction mapping of the 5.1-kb dissociation product of $pAM\alpha1$. The

 a Magnification, \times 9,433.

^b Ninety-five percent confidence level.

 c ϕ X174 replicative form II standard used.

 d ϕ X174 virion standard used.

5.1-kb dissociation product of $pAM\alpha1$ (Fig. 1D), which we refer to here as $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$, is known to function in S. faecalis as an autonomous replicon (5, 30) and may be recovered from Tc' segregants of $pAM\alpha1$ -containing cells $(pAM\alpha 1\Delta 2)$ is called αd in publications from the Clewell laboratory). A heteroduplex of $pAM\alpha1$ and $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$, each linearized by digestion with PstI (Fig. 2), should display one single-stranded loop 4.6 kb in size and two double-stranded arms that together total 5.1 kb. The sizes of the double-stranded arms would reflect the distances from the PstI site in $pAM\alpha1$ to its two RS sequences. The arms should be 3.1 and 2.0 kb in size, respectively, if the RS sequences were correctly positioned on the map in Fig. ³ by the analysis presented above of $pAM\alpha1::Tn917$ $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ heteroduplexes. A $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$ dissociation derivative of pAMal was isolated as described by Clewell et al. (6) and annealed with $pAM\alpha1$ to generate heteroduplex molecules. Several molecules were observed with the structure of the one shown in Fig. 5, measurements were made of the single-stranded loops and the double-stranded arms, and the results are summarized in Table 2. Of the molecules analyzed, double-stranded arms averaged 3.0 ± 0.11 and 1.88 ± 0.11 kb, in good agreement with predicted values.

A restriction map was prepared for $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 2$, and the results (Fig. 3) confirmed that $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ and $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$ derive from separate halves of $pAM\alpha1$.

Tc' segregants were found to arise in pAMa1::Tn917-containing S. faecalis populations at the same level as in $pAM\alpha1$ -containing populations, and these contained a plasmid species identical to $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 2$.

 $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ is highly homologous to pBC16. pBC16 is a 4.6-kb tet-containing plasmid originating from a German isolate of B. cereus (1) which is now known to be a typical representative of a family of closely related Tc^r-

FIG. 5. Electron micrograph and line drawing of a representative heteroduplex molecule prepared with PstI-digested (linearized) $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$ and $pAM\alpha1$ DNAs annealed at a concentration of 50% formamide. The arrow indicates the location of a single-stranded DNA structure corresponding to deleted sequences from pAM α 1 to generate pAM α 1 Δ 2 (Δ ₂). Letters mark duplex regions on either side of Δ_2 : A, long-arm duplex; B, short-arm duplex (see Table 1).

Class of molecules ^a	Arbitrary length (cm)	φX174 units	kb	No. of molecules measured
φX174 replicative form II	5.74 ± 0.1^b	1.0	5.384	
$\&$ X174 virion	4.73 ± 0.2	0.82		6
$pAM\alpha1\Delta2-pAM\alpha1::Tn917$				
Long-arm duplex	3.28 ± 0.12	0.57 ^c	3.08 ± 0.11	
Short-arm duplex	2.00 ± 0.12	0.35 ^c	1.88 ± 0.11	
Δ_2 heteroduplex	4.08 ± 0.48	0.86^{d}	4.63 ± 0.5	

TABLE 2. Analysis of $pAM\alpha1\Delta2-pAM\alpha1$ heteroduplex molecules

 a Magnification, \times 12,726.

 b Ninety-five percent confidence level.</sup>

 c ϕ X174 replicative form II standard used.

 d ϕ X174 virion standard used.

conferring replicons widely dispersed among such Bacillus species as B. licheniformis, B. subtilis, B. sphaericus, and B. stearothermophilus (2, 22). Polak and Novick (22) have mapped several restriction sites in pBC16, which allowed them to identify extensive homology between this plasmid and a Kmr-conferring plasmid of S. aureus, pUB110. Some of their data are reproduced in Fig. 6, where it can be seen that the restriction maps of the two plasmids are superimposable over all areas except the regions in which the heterologous drug resistance determinants are located. By inspection of these data, it was apparent that our restriction map of $pAM\alpha\overline{1\Delta}1$ was identical to that of pBC16 for all restriction sites characterized by both laboratories. To assess better the extent of homology, we compared the restriction "fingerprints" (i.e., the profiles of restriction fragments resolved on polyacrylamide gels) of pBC16 and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$, prepared with two different restriction endonucleases. MboI and TaqI, each of which cleaves both plasmids several times. These fingerprints (Fig. 7) resolved a total of 14 restriction fragments (9 from the MboI digests and 5 from the TaqI digests), all of which were held in common by the two plasmids. The same results were obtained with several other restriction enzymes (BamHI, PvuII, HpaI, HpaII, EcoRI, and XbaI), whose recognition sites in $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ we had already mapped. In all, 23 restriction fragments of pBC16 and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ were compared, and no differences were observed. Known homologies in the restriction maps of pBC16 and pUB110 are summarized in Fig. 6.

DISCUSSION

Intramolecular recombination between the two RS sequences of $pAM\alpha1$ in S. faecalis dissociates the plasmid into two circular molecules 5.1 and 4.6 kb in size. The 5.1-kb dissociation product ($pAM\alpha1\Delta2$) is known to function in S. faecalis as an autonomous replicon and is the plasmid species found in Tc^s segregants of $pAM\alpha$ 1-containing strains (6, 31). The 4.6-kb tet-containing dissociation product represents

FIG. 6. Alignment of the restriction and genetic maps of pUB110, pBC16, and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$. Restriction sites are indicated as in Fig. 3 except: $H₁$, HpaI; H_{II} , HpaII; M, MboI; P, PvuII; T, TaqI; and X, XbaI; dotted lines connect conserved restriction sites. ori refers to the origin of DNA replication identified in pUB110 by Scheer-Abramowitz et al. (24), and the approximate locations of the antibiotic resistance determinants of the plasmids are indicated by regions labeled kan and tet (3, 22). These maps include data published previously by Polak and Novick (22), Scheer-Abramowitz et al. (24), and Jalanko et al. (13), as well as unpublished DNA sequence data supplied by McKenzie, T. Tanaka, and N. Sueoka. Four conserved MboI restriction sites within the antibiotic resistance regions of pBC16 and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ are not mapped, and several restriction sites in the kan gene of pUB110 are not listed.

FIG. 7. TaqI and MboI restriction fingerprints of pUB110, pBC16, and pAMalAl. Plasmids pUB110 (lanes 2 and 5), pBC16 (lanes 3 and 6), and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ (lanes 4 and 7) were digested with either MboI (lanes 2 to 4) or $TaqI$ (lanes 5 to 7), and the fragments were separated electrophoretically in 7.5% polyacrylamide. An HpaII digest of pBR322 was run in lane 1.

the amplifiable portion of $pAM\alpha1$ and was not previously known to encode replication functions.

When $pAM\alpha1$ was used to transform B. subtilis bacteria to Tc^r, a 4.6-kb replicon, pAM α 1 Δ 1, was the only plasmid species detected in the transformants. Restriction mapping and heteroduplex analysis of $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ revealed that this replicon was derived from $pAM\alpha1$ by a single, continuous 5.1-kb deletion covering the portion of pAM α 1 contained in pAM α 1 Δ 2, with endpoints at or near the RS sequences; i.e., the $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ replicon is apparently identical to the 4.6-kb tet-containing dissociation product of $pAM\alpha$ 1. The RS sequences of $pAM\alpha$ 1 therefore divide the plasmid into two separable domains, both with a set of replication functions and each active in a different genus.

A derivative of pAMal that contains the MLS^r-conferring S. faecalis transposon Tn917 (referred to here as pAMal::Tn917) was found to be unable to transform plasmidless B. subtilis bacteria to either Tc^r or MLS^r. Heteroduplex analysis and restriction mapping revealed the transposon to be inserted at a site within the tetcontaining domain of $pAM\alpha 1$ (the $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ domain). Recombination between RS sequences in $pAM\alpha1::Tn917$ should therefore generate $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$ and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$::Tn917 as dissociation products. That such a recombination event is not inhibited by the presence of Tn917 in the molecule is supported by the observation that Tc^s segregants containing only $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$ are equally abundant in populations of $pAM\alpha1$ - and pAMal::Tn917-containing S. faecalis bacteria. The failure of $pAM\alpha 1::Tn917$ to tansform B. subtilis thus tends to suggest that $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$::Tn917 cannot replicate in B. subtilis (although other explanations are possible, of course). Nevertheless, when B. subtilis bacteria containing $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ were used as recipients, pAMal::Tn917 transforming DNA produced MLSr transformants very efficiently. Such transformants did contain a $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1::Tn917$ plasmid species, but they invariably contained $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ as well. More significantly, when plasmid DNA was isolated from such transformants and used to transform a plasmidless B. subtilis recipient to MLS^r, pAM α 1 Δ 1 was invariably cotransferred and became established in the new transformants along with pAMa1A1::Tn917. A likely interpretation of these observations is that Tn917 has insertionally inactivated a gene whose product is required for the replication of $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ in B. subtilis (but which is unnecessary for the replication of $pAM\alpha1$ in S. faecalis) and that $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ must be present to supply this gene product in trans for $pAM\alpha1\Delta1::Tn917$ to be maintained stably in B. subtilis.

A question not clearly resolved in the present work is whether the two sets of replication functions contained in $pAM\alpha1$ are actually restricted in their activity to one or the other genus: whether $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ can replicate in Streptococcus species and whether $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 2$ can replicate in Bacillus species. If $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ replicates independently in S. faecalis, but at a lower copy number than $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 2$ (or $pAM\alpha 1$), it may be too rare to have been detected in previous searches (31). Alternatively, $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ replication functions may be expressed in S. faecalis, but may be suppressed in the presence of (the more stable?) $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$ (or $pAM\alpha1$). The failure of $pAM\alpha 1$::Tn917 to transform plasmidless B. subtilis strains could be explained as the failure of $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 2$ replication functions to be expressed, but might instead reflect the presence of a gene in $pAM\alpha1\Delta2$, having nothing to do with replication, whose product is toxic to B. subtilis.

A chance observation of similarities in the restriction maps of $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ and the tet-containing *B. cereus* plasmid pBC16 led us to examine possible homologies between the two with greater sensitivity by comparing the patterns of restriction fragments generated when both were cleaved with different restriction endonucleases. Remarkably, no differences at all were detected, demonstrating a very high order of sequence homology between $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ and $pBC16$. Because pBC16 is now known to share extensive homology with replicons from Staphylococcus species, such as pUB110 (22), we can conclude that close relatives of this replicon are distributed over at least three gram-positive genera.

We do not regard the discovery of homologous replicons in Staphylococcus, Streptococcus, and Bacillus species as very surprising in itself, since these genera have long been recognized to include members with natural mechanisms for efficient uptake of and transformation by both chromosomal and plasmid DNAs (9, 12, 17, 19, 20, 27, 28). Recent reports of conjugative plasmids in these bacteria that transfer across genus barriers, as well as species barriers (4, 10, 16, 23), further strengthen the conclusion that intergeneric exchange of genetic material in their natural environments must be relatively common among them. We were surprised, however, by the very high degree of sequence homology between pBC16 and $pAM\alpha1\Delta1$ apparent in their restriction fragment fingerprints. To find a perfect correspondence among 23 of 23 different restriction enzyme recognition sites in two plasmids is, in the most conservative interpretation, roughly equivalent to sequencing a total of more than 100 nucleotide base pairs from each, representing 23 scattered regions, and finding a perfect match. In addition, indistinguishable restriction fingerprints indicate a very high conservation of sequence homology between the sites tested and tempt one to conclude in this case that $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ and $pBC16$ are virtually identical plasmids. Because most of the DNA in $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ is likely to be nonessential in S. faecalis both for replication of pAMal and for amplification of the tet-containing segment, much greater sequence divergence might have been expected. We therefore interpret the high conservation of homology between pBC16 and $pAM\alpha 1\Delta 1$ as evidence that selective pressure for the dispersal of pBC16-pAM α 1 Δ 1-associated Tc^r in Streptococcus species is probably very recent, perhaps as recent as the widespread use of tetracycines as medical antibiotics and livestock feed supplements.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank R. Losick for advice, encouragement, and critical reading of the manuscript, D. B. Clewell for generous gifts of strains and unpublished data, R. Novick, J. Polak, and V. Burdett for many helpful discussions, and T. McKenzie, T. Tanaka, and N. Sueoka for sharing with us the unpublished data of their DNA sequencing analysis of pUB110.

This work was carried out in the laboratory of R. Losick and was supported by National Science Foundation grant PCM-8208349 to R. Losick and P.Y., by a postdoctoral fellowship grant to P.Y. from the Jane Coffin Childs Memorial Fund for Medical Research, and by a postdoctoral feliowship to J.B.P. from the American Cancer Society.

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