Regulation of *Bacillus subtilis* Glutamate Synthase Genes by the Nitrogen Source

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The wild-type alleles of the gltA292 and gltB1 mutations of *Bacillus subtilis* have been identified in banks of *B. subtilis* DNA cloned in phage lambda. These mutations are thought to define the genes for the two subunits of glutamate synthase. Sequences having transforming activity for each allele were subcloned in plasmids and used as hybridization probes for measurements of the rates of synthesis and steady-state levels of glt mRNAs under different growth conditions. For both gltA and gltB, the level of mRNA varied according to the nitrogen source in the growth medium, to an extent sufficient to explain the variation in glutamate synthase activity under the same conditions. Two start points for mRNA synthesis were detected within the cloned DNA, one of which corresponded to the gltA locus. The other start point appears to define a transcription unit, separate from gltA and gltB, within which mutations cause loss of glutamate synthase activity.

Glutamate synthase (L-glutamate:NADP⁺ oxidoreductase [transaminating], EC 1.4.1.13) is required for synthesis of glutamate and, in conjunction with glutamine synthetase, for assimilation of ammonium ion into cellular metabolic pathways. Mutations in this enzyme cause glutamate auxotrophy, which can be relieved by addition to the medium of glutamate, aspartate (a substrate for glutamate:2-ketoglutarate transaminase), or glutamine (which is converted to glutamate by the action of glutaminase).

The specific activity of glutamate synthase in *Bacillus* subtilis varies considerably in cells grown in media containing different nitrogen sources (24, 28). It is not known to what extent this reflects alterations in enzyme activity or changes in gene expression. It is also not known whether this regulation is a reflection of a global control mechanism affecting many genes involved in nitrogen metabolism. In the *Escherichia* spp.-*Klebsiella* spp. group of gram-negative bacteria, the *ntr* gene products regulate a large number of nitrogen metabolism genes, including the gene for glutamine synthetase and genes involved in intracellular production of ammonia (20). Even in this well-characterized system, however, it is unclear whether the genes for glutamate synthase are subject to *ntr* regulation.

The construction by Ferrari et al. (12) of a collection of recombinant coliphage λ clones containing large segments of the *B. subtilis* chromosome has made possible the purification and amplification of a number of genetic loci. We report here the subcloning in *Escherichia coli* of *B. subtilis* DNA that includes the wild-type alleles of gltA and gltB, the genes which apparently code for the two subunits of glutamate synthase (9). Deshpande and Kane (9) have shown that an extract of a gltB1 mutant complements in vitro an extract of a gltA292 mutant. These authors have therefore concluded that gltA292 and gltB1 define two cistrons whose products constitute the two subunits of glutamate synthase.

We have correlated the transforming activity for gltA and gltB with regions of cloned DNA and shown that transcription of these regions is subject to regulation by the nitrogen

source in the growth medium. The difference in steady-state levels of gltA and gltB mRNA in cells grown in media containing different nitrogen sources is sufficient to account for the differences in specific activity of glutamate synthase seen under the same conditions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial and phage strains. *B. subtilis* strains SMY, SF31 (gltA292 trpC2 hutH1 metC), and UTB602 (gltB1 leu met his) were obtained from P. Schaeffer, S. Fisher, and J. Kane, respectively. Mutants PY150 and PY194, both of which are glutamate auxotrophs caused by insertion of Tn917, were from P. Youngman. *E. coli* strain MM294 (hsdR endA thi) was from R. Losick, and strain DP50supF (dapD8 lacY Δ gal-uvrB Δ thyA nalA hsdS supE44 supF58) was from J. Hoch. Plasmids pBR325 (4) and pTR262 (25) were obtained from K. Dharmalingam and T. Roberts, respectively.

Two pools of hybrid λ phages carrying *B. subtilis* DNA were made available to us by J. Hoch. One pool was made from the left and right arms of λ Charon 4A DNA ligated to *B. subtilis* DNA that had been partially methylated before cleavage with *Eco*RI (3). The other pool had the left and right arms of λ gtWES. λ B DNA (18) ligated to *B. subtilis* DNA that had been partially cleaved with *Eco*RI (J. Hoch, personal communication). In both cases, a 10- to 20-kilobase (kb) size class of *B. subtilis* DNA was used for ligation. Growth of λ phage derivatives has been described previously (13).

DNA extraction. DNA of lambda phages was prepared for transformation or enzymatic digestion by phenol extraction (21) or by treatment of virions with formamide (7). For transformation of *B. subtilis*, it was sufficient to treat virions with 0.02% Triton X-100 and 5 mM EDTA (pH 8), for 15 min at 65°C. As noted by Ferrari et al. (12), untreated phage stocks also had transforming activity. Chromosomal DNA of *B. subtilis* was extracted as described previously (30).

Two methods were used to extract plasmids from *E. coli*. Small amounts of DNA suitable for restriction analysis and transformation of *B. subtilis* were prepared from colonies or 1- to 3-ml cultures by the method of Holmes and Quigley (17). For detailed analysis, subcloning, and transformation

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of *E. coli*, the method of Birnboim and Doly (2) was used. The plasmid DNA was further purified by centrifugation to equilibrium in a gradient of CsCl containing ethidium bromide (500 μ g/ml) (5).

Purification of λ *glt* **phages.** Approximately 1,000 plaques of each of two lambda phage libraries of *B. subtilis* DNA were picked and transferred in groups of about 100 to duplicate plates seeded with *E. coli* strain DP50 *supF*. The next day, one plate of each set was harvested for phage; the other served as a master plate. DNA was extracted from the lysates of each set of plaques and used to transform (6) competent cells of *B. subtilis* auxotrophs to prototrophy.

If DNA of a particular subpool was able to transform a given allele, the 100 plaques of that subpool were inoculated in groups of 8 to 10 onto fresh pairs of indicator plates. If transformation with DNA extracted from pools of 8 to 10 plaques was again positive, individual plaques were tested for transforming activity. In this way, we obtained purified phages that carried the wild-type alleles of gltA292 (8) and gltB1 (9). It should be noted that after identification of a particular plaque as having transforming activity, it was necessary to replate and test a number of single plaques to obtain a pure clone.

Large-scale isolation of *B. subtilis* RNA. Strain SMY grown in TSS medium (14) containing various nitrogen sources was harvested in the midlogarithmic phase. As described by Fisher et al. (13), RNA was extracted from protoplasts with phenol and purified over a column of cellulose (15) or precipitated with LiCl from an extract prepared by passage through a French pressure cell (36). RNA was stored at -70° C as an ethanol precipitate. As judged by agarose gel electrophoresis, RNA was intact and contained <1% contaminating DNA.

Isolation of pulse-labeled RNA from *B. subtilis. B. subtilis* strain SMY was grown in TSS medium with 0.25 mM K_2 HPO₄ and various nitrogen sources until growth slowed due to phosphate exhaustion. Three milliliters of cells (100 to 150 Klett units) was mixed with 3 to 6 mCi of carrier-free ³²P-PO₄ (New England Nuclear Corp.; 20 mCi/ml in 20 mM HCl) and shaken at 37°C for 5 min. Cells were then poured over 1.5 ml of frozen 121 medium (11) to stop incorporation and RNA degradation. RNA was extracted from protoplasts and the mRNA-rRNA fraction was purified by cellulose column chromatography (15).

Preparation of ³²**P**-labeled plasmid DNA. Nick translation reactions contained (in 20 μ l) 0.5 μ g of DNA, 100 μ Ci of one α -³²**P**-labeled deoxynucleoside triphosphate (New England Nuclear Corp.; 3,200 Ci/mmol, 10 mCi/ml, in Tricine), 50 mM Tris-hydrochloride (pH 7.2), 10 mM MgSO₄, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 100 μ M each of the remaining deoxynucleoside triphosphates, 4 U of *E. coli* DNA polymerase I (Bethesda Research Laboratories, Inc.), and 1 μ l of DNase I (Worthington Diagnostics; 0.1 μ g/ml, DPFF grade). The reaction was incubated at 14°C for 30 min. Labeled DNA was separated from unincorporated substrate by two precipitations with ethanol and passage through a column of Sephadex G-100 in 1 mM Tris-hydrochloride (pH 8)–0.1 mM EDTA.

To label DNA at protruding 5' ends, restriction endonuclease-treated plasmids or purified fragments were treated with calf intestinal alkaline phosphatase (Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals) at 37°C. Reactions contained 50 mM Tris-hydrochloride (pH 9.0), 1 mM MgCl₂, 0.1 mM ZnCl₂, 1 mM spermidine, and 0.04 U of calf intestinal alkaline phosphatase. After 30 min, a second dose of 0.04 U of calf intestinal alkaline phosphatase was added. The reaction was terminated 30 min later by incubation at 65°C for 15 min, followed by three phenol extractions and three CHCl₃ extractions. After ethanol precipitation, dephosphorylated DNA was suspended in water and labeled by the action of T4 polynucleotide kinase (New England Biolabs, Inc.). Reactions (50 µl) contained 50 mM Tris-hydrochloride (pH 7.6), 10 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM dithiothreitol, 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.1 mM spermidine, 100 to 150 µCi [γ -³²P]ATP (New England Nuclear Corp.; 3,200 Ci/mmole, 10 mCi/ml, in Tricine), and 4 to 8 U of kinase. After 30 min at 37°C, reactions were terminated by ethanol precipitation in the presence of carrier *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* RNA. Unincorporated radioactive material was removed by multiple ethanol precipitations.

Hybridization techniques. DNA fragments separated on 1% agarose gels (20 cm long, 5 to 8 mm thick) were transferred to nitrocellulose (Millipore Corp; HAHY) as described by Southern (31). After overnight blotting, the nitrocellulose sheets were baked for 2 h at 80°C in a vacuum oven and stored for short periods at 4°C.

For hybridization, blots were wetted one side at a time in $2 \times$ SSC (1 \times SSC is 0.15 M NaCl, 0.015 M trisodium citrate), prehybridized for at least 2 h at 37°C in 10 to 20 ml of 5× SSC containing 50% formamide [deionized with AG501-X8 (D) mixed bed resin; Bio-Rad Laboratories], 0.5% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 0.1% Ficoll, 0.1% polyvinylpyrollidone, 0.1% bovine serum albumin, and 200 to 500 μ g of sheared, denatured calf thymus or salmon sperm DNA. The radioactive RNA probe or heat-denatured DNA probe was added to the same hybridization solution, and blots were incubated in sealed plastic bags for 16 to 48 h at 37°C. After hybridization, the solution containing the probe was removed and frozen for possible reuse, and nitrocellulose membranes were washed three times at 22°C for 15 to 30 min each time by shaking in 100 ml of 2× SSC plus 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate and three times at 50°C for 15 to 30 min each time in $0.2 \times$ SSC plus 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate. Nitrocellulose membranes were then dried on Whatman 3MM paper and subjected to autoradiography with Kodak XAR-5 film and DuPont Cronex Lightning Plus intensifying screens at -70° C. Dot blots, prepared by the method of Thomas (32), have been described previously (13).

To map the 5' ends of transcripts, the S1 nuclease technique of Berk and Sharp (1) was employed. DNA probes labeled at 5' termini (10,000 to 50,000 cpm) were mixed with various amounts of B. subtilis RNA. S. cerevisiae RNA was used to bring all mixtures to equal nucleic acid concentration. Ethanol-precipitated nucleic acids were suspended in 10 or 20 µl of hybridization buffer containing 80% deionized formamide, 40 mM piperazine-N,N'-bis(2-ethanesulfonic acid) (pH 6.5), 0.4 M NaCl, and 1 mM EDTA. Nucleic acids were denatured by treatment at 80°C for 5 min in sealed glass capillary pipettes and then incubated overnight at 45°C. Hybridization was terminated by dilution into 10 volumes of ice-cold S1 digestion buffer (0.25 M NaCl, 50 mM sodium acetate [pH 4.5], 5 mM ZnSO₄). S1 nuclease (Bethesda Research Laboratories, Inc.) was added (0.3 to 0.5 U/µg of RNA), and the reactions were incubated at 37°C for 30 min. Reactions were terminated by the addition of EDTA to 25 mM and ethanol precipitation in the presence of carrier S. cerevisiae RNA. Washed pellets were dried and suspended in 3 to 5 µl of 80% formamide, 0.089 M Tris, 0.089 M boric acid. 0.2 mM EDTA, 0.025% bromphenol blue, and 0.025% xylene cyanol. Samples were heated to 90°C for 5 min, cooled on ice for 5 min, and subjected to electrophoresis through a 6 or 8% polyacrylamide gel containing 8 M urea.



FIG. 1. Restriction map of the *gltA* region. The top line shows a physical map of the *B. subtilis* DNA contained within pLS23-17 (Amp^r Tet^r), a pBR325 derivative that gives Glt⁺ transformants with all *gltA* mutants tested. The locations of some *gltA* mutations are indicated. The various *Hin*dIII sites have been identified with subscripts a through f. The remaining lines show the *B. subtilis* DNA content of various subclones of pLS23-17. To construct pLS30 (Tet^r Amp^s), pLS23-17 was partially cleaved with *PstI* and religated. pLS31, pLS36, and pLS39 (all Tet^r) were formed by ligation of *Hin*dIII fragments of pLS30 to pTR262. pLS33, pLS37, and pLS43 (all Tet^r) were found after digestion of pLS30 with *Hin*dIII and religation. To create pLS54, pLS37 was cut with *Hin*dIII and religated. pLS61 (Amp^r Tet^s) was formed by cloning *ClaI* fragments of pLS37 in pBR322. In some cases, the relative orientations of segments of the *gltA* region became inverted during subcloning. For instance, in pLS37, the *Hin*dIII fragment of 1.9 and 1.8 kb are in the opposite orientation to that shown with respect to the 0.5-kb *Hin*dIII-*PstI* fragment. In pLS61, the 0.3-kb *ClaI* fragment lies to the left of the 3.0-kb *ClaI* fragment. pRE1 (Amp^r Tet^r) carries a fusion of the *gltA* promoter region (1.9-kb *Hin*dIII fragment) to the *E. coli lacZ* gene. It was constructed by ligating together pLS54 and pCED6 (10), each of which had been cut with *Hin*dIII. Restriction sites are abbreviated as follows: C, *ClaI*; E, *Eco*RI; H, *Hin*dIII; P, *PstI*; Pv, *PvuII*; S, *SaII*.

Dried gels were exposed to Kodak XAR-5 film and DuPont Cronex Lightning Plus intensifying screens at -70° C.

RESULTS

Cloning of the gltA allele. A λ phage whose DNA transformed B. subtilis strain SF31 (gltA292) to Glt⁺ was isolated from the $\lambda gtWES$ bank and named $\lambda gtWES$ -10-9. Upon cleavage by endonuclease EcoRI, this DNA yielded fragments of approximately 7.5, 5.5, and 4.85 kb, as well as the left and right arms of AgtWES (22 and 14 kb, respectively [18]). Transformation with B. subtilis DNA fragments extracted from agarose gels showed that the 7.5-kb fragment carried the transforming activity for $gltA^+$. This was confirmed by subcloning the 7.5-kb EcoRI fragment in pBR325, creating plasmid pLS23-17 (Fig. 1). The gltA region is known to be near the terminus of DNA replication (16); pLS23-17 has been shown to hybridize to a restriction fragment that contains the terminus (33). After establishing a rudimentary restriction map of pLS23-17, we subcloned the region of Glt⁺ transforming activity. These smaller plasmids are described by their restriction maps in Fig. 1.

Location of gltA292 and gltA::Tn917 mutations. Each of the plasmids shown in Fig. 1 was used to transform *B. subtilis* strain SF31 (Table 1). Only those plasmids (pLS23-17, pLS30, pLS37, pLS61) that contained DNA from the right side of *Hind*III site *d* were able to give Glt⁺ transformants. Cleavage of these plasmids with *Hind*III destroyed Glt⁺ transforming activity. The results indicate that the gltA292 mutation lies very close to this *Hind*III site or between the *Hind*III site and the nearest *Cla*I site to the right.

The transposon Tn917, which occurs in natural isolates of *Streptococcus* spp. and can function in *B. subtilis*, has a high propensity for generating glutamate-requiring mutants of *B. subtilis* (34; S. Zahler, personal communication). For some

 TABLE 1. Transformation of glutamate auxotrophs by plasmids^a

Plasmid ^b	Recipient strain							
	SF31 (gltA292)	PY150 (glt::Tn917)	PY194 (glt::Tn917)	CU3278 (glt::Tn917)	UTB602 (gltB1)			
pLS23-17	+	ND	+	+	_			
pLS30	+	+	ND	ND +				
pLS31	-	-	ND	ID –				
pLS33	-	+	ND	-	ND			
pLS36	_	+	ND	ND	ND			
pLS37	+	+	+	+	ND			
pLS39	_	-	ND	-	ND			
pLS43	-	-	ND	ND	ND			
pLS54	ND	+	+	-	ND			
pLS61	+	-	+	+	ND			
pRE1	ND	+	ND	-	ND			
pCS23	-	-	-	-	+			
pCS24	ND	ND	ND	ND	+			
pLS24-1	-	-	-	-	+			

^a Competent cells of the indicated recipient strain were transformed with plasmid DNAs and tested for ability to given Glt^{*} transformants. +, >1,000 transformants per μ g of donor DNA; -, <10 transformants per μ g; ND, not done.

^b Plasmids used are described in Fig. 1 and 3.



FIG. 2. Sites of insertion of Tn917 in the *gltA* and *gltB* regions contained in pLS23-17 and pCS23, respectively. This figure shows the locations of Tn917 insertions in the *B. subtilis* chromosome which caused a Glt⁻ phenotype. All of the mutations recombine with various cloned *glt* DNAs to generate Glt⁺ transformants. Closed arrows indicate specific positions of transposon insertions mapped within a restriction fragment; the numbers within parentheses refer to the total number of independent insertions within a particular fragment. The open arrows indicate the direction and minimum extent of transcriptional units found in the *gltA* region.

of these mutants the transposon has been shown to have inserted in the vicinity of gltA (S. Zahler, personal communication). Tn917-induced glutamate auxotrophs were transformed to Glt⁺ by various plasmids (Table 1). The glt::Tn917 mutation in strain CU3278, provided by S. Zahler, mapped to the right of HindIII site d. Strain PY194 appeared to have a Tn917 insertion in the ClaI-HindIII segment to the left of *Hind*III site d, since it could be transformed to Glt⁺ by both pLS54 and pLS61. In PY150, the site of Tn917 insertion appeared to be in the HindIII-ClaI segment to the right of *Hind*III site c (Fig. 1), since transformation to Glt^+ was obtained with pLS54 and pRE1, but not with pLS61. To prove the sites of insertion, we purified chromosomal DNA from PY150 and PY194, cleaved the DNA with various restriction endonucleases, and subjected it to electrophoresis in agarose. After transfer to nitrocellulose by the method of Southern (31), the fragments were hybridized to nicktranslated pLS54 or pLS61 DNA. Wild-type DNA showed the hybridization pattern expected from the restriction maps of pLS23-17 and pLS30. Mutants PY150 and PY194, however, had inserts in the middle of a 0.3-kb HindIII-ClaI fragment and in a 1.6-kb ClaI-HindIII fragment, respectively (data not shown; Figure 1). The latter insertion was approximately 0.6 kb to the left of the HindIII site. A number of additional Glt⁻ mutants caused by insertion of Tn917 were obtained from J. Perkins and P. Youngman and mapped genetically, by recombination with various subclones of the gltA region, and physically. Three insertions were near the site of insertion in PY194, but were located approximately 0.4, 0.7, and 1.0 kb to the left of HindIII site d (Fig. 2). Four other Tn917-induced glt mutations were in the same 0.3-kb HindIII-ClaI segment as was the mutation in PY150. It may be noted that, although the gltA region is a hot spot for Tn917 insertion, no two insertions tested were at exactly the same site.

Identification of gluB. A purified λ phage whose DNA was able to transform strain UTB602 (gltB1) to Glt⁺ was purified from the λ Charon 4A bank and designated λ Charon 4A-112-1. Upon cleavage by EcoRI this phage proved to carry fragments of B. subtilis DNA having sizes of 5.5 and 8.5 kb. Subcloning in pBR325 indicated that the fragment of 8.5 kb carried the wild-type allele of gltB1. Two gltB⁺ plasmids were obtained at this step. One, pCS23, contained the 8.5-kb EcoRI fragment of λ Charon 4A-112-1. The other, pCS24, carried an *Eco*RI fragment of only 7.1 kb. Detailed restriction analysis led us to conclude that pCS24 was similar to pCS23, but had its insert in the opposite orientation and had undergone a deletion of 1.4 kb of *B. subtilis* DNA, removing a *Bam*HI site. Restriction maps of the *B. subtilis* DNA inserts of pCS23 and pCS24 are shown in Fig. 3. We were able to narrow down the limits of the GltB⁺ transforming activity by finding a spontaneous deletion mutant of pCS24 that had lost ampicillin resistance, but retained tetracycline resistance and Glt⁺ transforming activity. In this way, we obtained pLS24-1, which has retained no more than 2.1 kb of *B. subtilis* DNA (Fig. 3), but still transforms strain UTB602 to Glt⁺ (Table 1).

These subclones of the gltB region also recombine with



FIG. 3. Physical maps of *gltB* plasmids. Only the *B. subtilis* DNA is shown for plasmids that transform *gltB* mutants to Glt⁺. In all cases the vector was pBR325 or a deletion derivative of pBR325. pCS23 and pCS24 (both Amp^r Tet^r) were created by cloning *Eco*RI fragments of λ Charon 4A-112-1 (*gltB*⁺) into pBR325. Note that the *B. subtilis* DNA in pCS24 is deleted and inverted relative to that in pCS23. To isolate pLS24-1, pCS24 was cut with *PstI* and transformed into *E. coli*, selecting Tet^r. Amp^s clones were isolated; one of these proved to carry pLS24-1, which presumably arose by deletion of pCS24. Restrictions sites are abbreviated as in Fig. 1. In addition, B stands for *Bam*HI.



FIG. 4. Hybridization of pulse-labeled RNA to DNA from the *glt* regions. *B. subtilis* strain SMY was grown in defined medium containing various nitrogen sources and pulse-labeled with ${}^{32}PO_4$ as described in the text. RNA was purified and hybridized to restriction fragments of (A) *gltA* DNA or (B) *gltB* DNA. To the left of the autoradiogram in A is shown the restricted DNA that was blotted. The restricted DNAs were (A) pLS30 cut with *Hind*III and *ClaI* (lanes a, d, g, and j), with *ClaI* (lanes b, e, h, and k), and with *Hind*III (lanes c, f, i, and l) and (B) pLS24-1 cut with *Hind*III. The RNA sources were as follows: N, ammonia-grown cells; Gt, glutamate-grown cells; Gn, glutamine-grown cells.

certain other glt mutations. Zahler et al. (35) reported the mapping of a mutation designated gapA2 (subsequently renamed gltA2). Although this mutation lies between citKland *citB1*, it was not transformed to prototrophy by any of our clones from the gltA region. It was, however, transformed efficiently by pCS23, pCS24, and pLS24-1. Moreover, Zahler (personal communication) has found that gapA2 is complemented by an SPB transducing phage that also complements gltB1, but not by a phage that complements gltA mutations. We propose that this mutation be redesignated gltB2. In addition, a Tn917-induced glt mutation provided by Perkins and Youngman was rescued by pCS23 and pLS24-1. Thus three independent mutations causing a Glt⁻ phenotype lie within the region of B. subtilis DNA carried on pLS24-1 and outside the region carried on any subclones from the gltA region. Although we have not shown by in vitro complementation that gltB2 and the gltB::Tn917 mutation are in a different cistron than is any gltA mutation, we have adopted the working hypothesis that they are in the same genetic locus as is gltB1.

It has been reported that gltA and gltB are not closely linked (9). The $\lambda gltA^+$ and $\lambda gltB^+$ phages we have isolated, in fact, do not show any cross-transformation. Moreover, none of the plasmid subclones for $gltA^+$ or $gltB^+$ transforms the other mutated allele. On the other hand, $gltA^+$ - $gltB^+$ phages have been isolated from the λ Charon 4A bank by R. Fischer, J. Hoch, and J. Kane (personal communication) and by Monteiro et al. (22). Recent experiments in our laboratory have suggested that the EcoRI fragments cloned in pLS23-17 and pCS23 are contiguous in the B. subtilis chromosome (C. Mathiopoulos, D. E. Bohannon, and A. L. Sonenshein, unpublished data). These same experiments, however, indicate that the DNA cloned in pCS23 is not a true representation of the chromosomal DNA structure. Since pCS23 hybridizes to two EcoRI fragments of chromosomal DNA (5.5 and 9.0 kb), it must have arisen by a deletion event during cloning. Thus the $gltB^+$ clones we have isolated can be used for recombination experiments and as hybridization probes, but are not a faithful representation of the gltB gene.

Transcription of the *gltA* **and** *gltB* **genes in vivo.** To identify the transcription units corresponding to *gltA* and *gltB* and to study their regulation, we pulse-labeled RNA in wild-type

cells growing in a minimal medium that contained glucose as the carbon source and various nitrogen sources. Glutamate synthase activity in *B. subtilis* is known to vary with the nitrogen source, the ratio of activities being 1:3:7 for cells grown in glutamate, glutamine, and ammonia, respectively, as the sole nitrogen source (24). The radioactive RNA was purified and hybridized to various restriction fragments from the *gltA* and *gltB* regions. For pLS30 (*gltA*⁺), *Hind*III fragments of 1.9 and 1.8 kb, a *ClaI* fragment of 3 kb, and *ClaI-Hind*III fragments of 1.5 to 1.6 kb hybridized strongly to RNA from ammonia-grown cells or glutamine-grown cells, but much less well to RNA from glutamate-grown cells (Fig. 4A). Equal amounts of radioactivity were used in each of the hybridizations, and DNA was always in excess. A similar pattern of hybridization with respect to nitrogen

		gitB				
0.8 6.4 0.5 A B C	H 0.3 C 1.6 D E	H 0.75	₽ 0.75 G	603 630.2 H 1 J		[∎] ^H o.ss ^H
	Engement	Nit	Nitrogen source			
	Fragment	Amm	Gin	Git	. •	
	A	-	-	-		
	B,C,D	-	+	+		
	D, E	++	++	+		
	F	**	+7.	•		
	F,G	+++	++	•		
	E,F,G	+++	++	+		
	F,G,H	++	**	+		
	G	++	+	+		
	G,H, I	++	+	+		
	1,J	+	-	-		
	A'	+	+	- ·		
	В'	+++	**	+		

FIG. 5. Interpretation of hybridization experiments. The results of the experiment shown in Fig. 4 and additional experiments in which cloned DNAs were cut with the same and different restriction enzymes are summarized. Strength of hybridization by indicated segments of the *gltA* and *gltB* regions to various RNA preparations is denoted as +++ (strong), ++ (moderate), + (weak), or - (none detected).



FIG. 6. Dot blot analysis of *glt* mRNA. Nitrogen source regulation of steady-state *glt* transcripts is shown in this dot blot experiment. RNA was purified from cells grown in minimal glucose medium with ammonia (AMM), glutamate (GLT), or glutamine (GLN) as the nitrogen source. Samples (5 μ l) of serial threefold dilutions of RNA (2.5 mg/ml suspension) were baked on a nitrocellulose filter and probed with nick-translated plasmids containing subcloned (A) *gltA* (pLS39), (B) *gltB* (pLS24-1), or (C) a control gene (*veg*, pPH9) DNA.

source could be seen with a 0.85-kb *Hin*dIII fragment of pCS24 (data not shown) and pLS24-1 ($gltB^+$) (Fig. 4B). The results of several experiments of this type are summarized in Fig. 5. A transcribed region whose regulation is consistent with that expected for glutamate synthase occupies the right half of pLS30 as drawn. This transcribed region is bordered on its left side by a weakly transcribed region. These results suggest that the *gltA* gene may occupy more than 2.5 kb of DNA. The *gltB* region includes a 0.85-kb segment that is transcribed at a higher rate in ammonia-grown cells than in glutamate-grown cells.

Glutamate synthase has not been purified from *B. subtilis*. The enzyme isolated from *Bacillus licheniformis*, however, has two subunits of 158,000 and 54,000 daltons (27). These would require about 4.3 and 1.5 kb of DNA-coding capacity, respectively. Given the relative sizes of the apparent transcription units for each locus, it is probable that the *gltA* locus corresponds to the large subunit of glutamate synthase and the *gltB* locus to the small subunit.

Steady-state levels of glt mRNA. The results with pulselabeled RNA were difficult to quantitate reproducibly (perhaps because the transfer of DNA fragments of differing lengths from agarose to nitrocellulose occurs with varied efficiency). As a result, we turned to dot hybridization of radioactive DNA probes to steady-state RNA from cells grown in various nitrogen sources. Two probes were used for gltA, a 1.9-kb HindIII fragment of pRE1 (data not shown) and a 0.5-kb *Hin*dIII-*Pst*I fragment of pLS39 (Fig. 1). For *gltB*, the probe was pLS24-1, a plasmid that contains within <2.1 kb of *B. subtilis* DNA both GltB⁺ transforming activity and a region that hybridized differentially to pulse-labeled RNAs from cells grown in different nitrogen sources.

The autoradiogram shown in Fig. 6 demonstrates that RNA from ammonia-grown cells contained a much larger proportion of gltA and gltB sequences than did RNA from glutamate-grown cells. Glutamine-grown cells had an intermediate level of glt RNA. As a control, we used pPH9 (S. F. J. LeGrice, C.-C. Shih, and A. L. Sonenshein, manuscript in preparation), a probe for the veg gene (23). This gene is not thought to be under nitrogen control; its use verified that all RNA preparations were similarly competent for hybridization. The approximate ratios of RNA content, as estimated by inspection of hybridization by serial dilutions of RNA, for cells grown in ammonia, glutamine, and glutamate media were 9:3:1 for gltA and 27:6:1 for gltB. This result indicates that the differences in specific activity of glutamate synthase for cells grown in the different media can be accounted for by differences in steady-state levels of gltA and gltB mRNA.

Transcription start points. Fusion of *gltA* DNA to the *lacZ* gene of E. coli in appropriate fusion plasmids suggested the existence of a promoter site for the gltA region located between HindIII sites c and d (R. Emond, D. E. Bohannon, C. E. Donnelly, and A. L. Sonenshein, unpublished results). This was confirmed by analysis of the 5' ends of in vivo transcripts from the B. subtilis chromosomal gltA region. In fact, S1 mapping experiments revealed the presence of two transcripts in the gltA region (Fig. 7). These transcripts protected two fragments of a 1.9-kb gltA probe (pRE1) of 800 to 900 bases (Fig. 7A). Additional experiments showed that one of these transcripts (I) varied in abundance according to the nitrogen source, in a manner similar to that for glutamate synthase. When pRE1 was labeled at its HindIII sites and subsequently cut with ClaI, the DNA protected by the regulated transcript remained at a length of 900 bases (Fig. 7B). This indicates that the regulated transcript extends rightward (at least to HindIII site d) and correlates with the positions of gltA mutations. This transcript is depicted in Fig. 2. It was about fivefold more abundant in ammoniagrown cells than it was in glutamine-grown cells (Fig. 7B). In other experiments (data not shown), we found that there was ninefold more of transcipt I in ammonia-grown cells than in glutamate-grown cells. Finer mapping of the start point of transcript I (Fig. 7C) indicated that it begins 125 base pairs to the left of an HinfI site and from a point located approximately 825 base pairs to the left of *HindIII* site d.

The second transcript was only slightly more abundant in ammonia-grown cells than it was in glutamine-grown cells (Fig. 7B). Transcript II is synthesized in the opposite direction from transcript I (i.e., to the left in Fig. 2), starting about 1,000 base pairs to the left of *Hind*III site *d*. This places the two transcriptional start points within about 200 base pairs of each other.

DISCUSSION

Using transformation of glutamate auxotrophs as an initial assay, we have identified regions of cloned *B. subtilis* DNA that correspond to the wild-type alleles of *gltA* and *gltB*. These same regions correlate with DNA segments whose transcription in vivo is regulated according to the nitrogen source in the growth medium. This is the first evidence that expression of glutamate synthase is regulated at the transcriptional level and is, to our knowledge, one of only two

FIG. 7. S1 mapping of *gltA* transcripts. Steady-state RNA was used to protect end-labeled fragments from the *gltA* region, shown at the bottom of the figure. Restriction sites are abbreviated as in Fig. 1. In addition, Hf stands for *Hinf*I. The region shown corresponds to that located between *Hind*III sites c and d in Fig. 1. The rightmost *Hinf*I site is actually two sites located 29 base pairs apart. End-labeled molecular weight markers were pCS24 cut with *Hind*III (M) and pBR322 cut with *Hpa*II (M'). These photographs depict autoradiograms of polyacrylamide gels after electrophoresis of the products of S1 nuclease digestion. (A) Lane a, 50 μ g of RNA from glutamine-grown cells was used to protect from S1 nuclease digestion the 1.9-kb *Hind*III fragment of pRE1 (shown below) labeled at both 5' ends. (B) To identify the directions of these transcripts, the same probe was cut with *ClaI* after labeling, yielding 0.3- and 1.6-kb fragments, each of which was labeled at its *Hind*III end. They were hybridized to RNA isolated from cells grown in medium containing either ammonia or glutamine as a nitrogen source. Lanes: b, DNA hybridized to S. cerevisiae RNA (the faint protected band at 300 bases presumably reflects reannealed probe DNA); c, d, and e, DNA protected by 1, 3, and 9 μ g of RNA from ammonia-grown cells, respectively; f, g, and h, DNA protected by 3, 9, and 27 μ g of RNA from glutamine-grown cells, respectively; in probe before treatment with *HinfI* before end labeling. As seen from the diagram at the bottom of the figure, fragments of 0.6, 0.2, and 0.7 kb were generated. Their relative orientations were mapped in separate experiments. Lanes: j, probe DNA protected by 9, 27, and 81 μ g of RNA from glutamine-grown cells, respectively; n, o, and p DNA protected by 9, 27, and 81 μ g of RNA from glutamine-grown cells, respectively.

examples of regulation of transcription of a growth gene of a gram-positive bacterium in response to the nitrogen source in the growth medium. (The other example is the glutamine synthetase gene of B. subtilis [13]). The mechanism of this regulation is entirely unknown. It may be that glutamate synthase expression is simply controlled by a gene-specific regulator that responds to the intracellular pool of ammonia or glutamate or both. Alternatively, gltA and gltB may be members of a larger group of genes whose expression is controlled by a global mechanism that affects genes involved in nitrogen metabolism. However, the total number of genes subject to this supposed regulation is probably small. In surveys of enzymes that produce ammonia from amino acids, neither Schreier et al. (28) nor S. H. Fisher (personal communication) was able to find any regulation by the nitrogen source. This reflects a major difference in regulation of metabolism between B. subtilis and the Escherichia spp.-Klebsiella spp. group of gram-negative bacteria. On the other hand, endospore formation in Bacillus spp. and Clostridium spp. is regulated by the availability of nitrogencontaining compounds (26, 29). Thus, understanding how gltA and gltB are controlled may contribute to our understanding of how the process of sporulation is initiated.

We have found two transcripts that originate in the gltA region, one of which is regulated by the nitrogen source and crosses the region within which the prototypical gltA mutation, gltA292, lies. For these reasons we conclude tentatively that this rightward transcript corresponds to gltA mRNA. The leftward transcript is unlikely to correspond to gltB, since it is not appreciably regulated by the nitrogen source. Why mutations in the region coding for this transcript cause glutamate auxotrophy is unknown; it is conceivable that this region codes for a factor required for the

expression of gltA or gltB or both. It should be noted that the gltA and gltB mutations used are assumed to be in the structural genes for this enzyme, but have not been proved to be so. We have not yet looked for any transcripts that might begin within the gltB region.

To determine whether our subclones of gltA and gltB contained the entire coding sequences of the respective genes, we transformed a glutamate auxotroph of E. coli with various chimeric plasmids. Only one locus for glutamate synthase (gltB) has been identified in E. coli, although a cloned DNA sequence of 8.55 kb appears to code for both subunits of the enzyme (19). A mutation at this locus was not complemented by any of the glt subclones of B.subtilis. We do not know whether this means that our plasmids lack an entire glt cistron or whether both Bacillus spp. subunits must be present to complement the E. coli defect. Determination of the mechanism of regulation of gltA and gltB will require analysis of in vitro transcription and isolation of regulatory mutants. We are currently analyzing the promoter site for gltA and using a gltA-lacZ fusion plasmid to advance this process.

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