# Bacillus subtilis ada operon encodes two DNA alkyltransferases

## Fumiko Morohoshi, Kenshi Hayashi<sup>1</sup> and Nobuo Munakata

Radiobiology Division and 1Oncogene Division, National Cancer Center Research Institute, Tsukiji, 5-1-1, Chuo-ku, Tokyo 104, Japan

Received June 11, 1990; Revised and Accepted August 23, 1990 **EMBL** accession no. X53399

## ABSTRACT

By prophage transformation and subcloning, we have obtained Bacillus subtilis DNA fragments that could complement the hypersensitivity of ada (adaptive response deficient) mutants to N-methyl-N'-nitro-Nnitrosoguanidine (MNNG). The nucleotide sequence contained two open reading frames that were assigned to the genes adaA and adaB, encoding methylphosphotriester-DNA methyltransferase and 06-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase, respectively. These two genes overlap by 11 bp and comprise a small operon. The 1.6 Kb transcripts derived from the operon were detected in ada+ cells cultured in the presence of MNNG but not in control ada<sup>+</sup> cells. From analysis of the syntheses of DNA alkyltransferases in the ada mutant cells harboring the plasmid carrying the complete or partial fragment, we conclude that the adaA gene product functions as a transcriptional activator of the ada operon, while the adaB gene product specializes in repair of mutagenic 06-methylguanine residues. Comparison with Escherichia coli ada operon showed that the two genes correspond to portions of the E. coli ada gene, implicating gene fusion or splitting as the origin of the difference in the organizations of the genes.

## **INTRODUCTION**

In 1977, Samson and Cairns reported that Escherichia coli cells acquired resistance to alkylating chemicals such as N-methyl-<sup>N</sup>'-nitro-N-nitrosoguanidine (MNNG) when they were cultured in the presence of these compounds (1). This 'adaptive response' has been intensively studied in E. coli, leading to the discovery of DNA alkyltransferase, which collects alkyl groups from alkylated DNA in a suicidal manner  $(2-4)$ . The *ada* gene coding for DNA alkyltransferase (Ada protein) has been cloned and sequenced  $(5-9)$ . The adaptive response depends on the unique activities of the Ada protein. The protein is composed of two domains, an N-terminal one that accepts a methyl group from methylphosphotriesters and a C-terminal one that accepts a methyl group from mutagenic  $O^6$ -methylguanine residues  $(4,6,10)$ . When the Ada protein has collected a methyl group from methylphosphotriesters, it can activate the transcription of the ada operon itself and of other genes including alkA coding for 3-methyladenine-DNA glycosylase II (11,12). The inducible syntheses of the repair enzymes make the cells resistant to the lethal and mutagenic effects of MNNG.

This response is not universally distributed, but seems to be confined to several prokaryotic species (4,13,14). We showed that Bacillus subtilis cells exhibit a similar response to alkylation; however, several differences between the E. coli and B. subtilis system have been noted  $(15-19)$ . Most of the *ada* mutants isolated in E. coli seem to be pleiotrophic, and defective in multiple phenotypes of the response to various degrees (20,21), while the *ada* mutants of B. subtilis isolated belong to two distinct types; those totally deficient in the response  $(ada-1$  type) and those defective only in the O<sup>6</sup>-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase activity ( $ada-4$  type) (17,18). This may be explained from the finding that the inducible DNA methyltransferase activities in B. subtilis resided in two separate molecular species; 27 Kd methylphosphotriester-DNA methyltransferase and 22 Kd 06-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase (18). However, we could not completely rule out the possibility that these two activities were produced by post-translational proteolysis, as seen in the E. coli Ada protein (22). Another phenotypic difference noted was that B. subtilis ada mutants were not hypersensitive to methylmethanesulfonate (MMS) unlike E. coli mutants (16,20).

We thought that cloning of the genes complementing the defects in the  $B$ . *subtilis ada* mutants should provide answers to these questions and shed light on the generality and variations of the molecular mechanisms of this response. We report here that the genes complementing the defects of the ada mutations encode two DNA alkyltransferases with partial sequence similarities to the E. coli Ada protein.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Bacteria, phage and plasmids

Bacillus subtilis strains 168T (thyA thyB) (23), TKJ1922 (thyA thyB hisH101 metB101 leuA8 lys-21)(16), TKJ0922 (the same as TKJ1922 but ada-1)(16) and TKJ2924 (the same as TKJ1922 but ada-4)(17) were used. B. subtilis strains UOTO994 (hisAl metB5  $\phi$ CM) (24) and B. subtilis template phage  $\phi$ 105 were obtained from Fujio Kawamura (Institute of Applied Microbiology, University of Tokyo). pHY300PLK, a shuttle vector between  $E$ . *coli* and  $B$ . *subtilis* (25) was obtained from Toyobo (Tokyo). E. coli plasmid, Bluescript  $SK +$  and its host strain, XLI-blue, were from Stratagene. E. coli strains, K802 and HBIOI were used as hosts of plasmids (26). Lambda EMBL3a and its host ED8654 and NM535 were obtained from Hans Lehrach (European Molecular Biology Laboratory)(27). Lambda EMBL3 and <sup>a</sup> packaging kit were obtained from Promega (Madison).

#### Transformation and assay of sensitivity

Competent cells of B. subtilis prepared in transformation medium (28) were mixed with chromosomal DNA or plasmids, and incubated for 90 min at 37°C with shaking. Chloramphenicoland tetracycline- resistant transformants were selected by plating the cells on Nutrient agar medium (Difco) containing  $5 \mu g/ml$ of chloramphenicol and  $12.5 \mu g/ml$  of tetracycline, respectively. For the selection of MNNGr colonies, drug resistant colonies were aligned on nutrient agar plates containing the antibiotic and after overnight-incubation at 37°C, they were replica plated on Spizizen medium (28) containing  $30 \mu g/ml$  of MNNG and required nutrients. For examination of the  $ada<sup>+</sup>$  transforming activities of DNA fragments in phage or plasmids, they were digested with appropriate restriction enzymes to separate chromosomal DNA from vector sequences. The digested DNA  $(0.2 \mu g)$  together with a small amount  $(0.01 \mu g)$  of the DNA from  $met<sup>+</sup>$  ada cells carrying the same ada mutation as the recipient cells was used to transform metB101 ada mutant cells. The MNNG sensitivity of  $met^+$  transformants was examined by replicating the  $met^+$  colonies on plates containing MNNG as described above.

## Construction of phage library

A B. subtilis DNA library from strain 168T was constructed with lambda EMBL3a and a DNA library from a CM<sup>r</sup> MNNG<sup>r</sup> transformant was constructed with lambda EMBL3 as described (26).

## Restriction enzyme digestion and subcloning

Standard procedures were followed (26).

## Assay of DNA alkyltransferases

Crude sonic extracts (15) were incubated for 20 min with calf thymus DNA that had been treated with [3H] MNU (1.6 Ci/mM, NEN) and heated at 80°C for 16 hours to remove Nmethylated purines. After the addition of gel-loading buffer (18), extracts were boiled for 3 min and subjected to SDS gel electrophoresis (12.5%). The fluorogram of the gel was prepared using EN<sup>3</sup>HANCE (NEN).

#### Sequence determination

Isolated DNA fragments (2.2 Kb EcoRI-SalI and 5.2 Kb EcoRI-Sall) were inserted into the EcoRI-Sall site of the polylinker of Bluescript  $SK +$ . DNA fragments with a deletion from the  $EcoRI$ or Sall site were obtained by digesting the plasmids with either SacI and EcoRI or KpnI and Sall. Unidirectional deletions were introduced with Exonuclease III (BRL) and Exonuclease VII (BRL) according to the protocol of Yanish-Perron et al.(29). Their sequences were determined by the dideoxy chain termination method (30) with Sequenase (USB).

#### Northern blotting and primer extension analysis

Total RNA was extracted from logarithmically growing cells according to Gilman and Chamberlin (31), and Northern blotting was carried out as described (32). Probe <sup>I</sup> was a 0.59 Kb EcoT22I-PvuH fragment located in the coding region of the adaA



Fig. 1.  $Ada<sup>+</sup>$  transforming activities of DNA fragments derived from the  $ada$ region. Thick horizontal and wavy lines show B. subtilis DNA and  $\phi$ CM DNA, respectively. All EcoRI (E) sites in the region and two HindlIl (H) sites close to the ada operon are shown. Restriction sites in brackets are in the linker sequences of the phage or plasmid. S: Sall, Bg: BglII, Bm: BamHl. The arrow indicates the locus of the *ada* operon and the direction of *ada* transcription. When more than  $1\%$  of the *met*<sup>+</sup> colonies (about 1,000) could grow on the medium colonies (about  $1,000$ ) could grow on the medium containing MNNG, the DNA employed was judged to be positive (+). N.D. means 'not done'.

and adaB genes (nucleotide 621 to 1212 in Fig.2). The following four probes were synthesized by the polymerase chain reaction (33) using wild type DNA as <sup>a</sup> template and 20mer synthetic nucleotides from the 5'-end of each strand of the fragments as primers: probe II (nucleotide 44 to 367 in Fig.2), probe III (nucleotide 329 to 680), probe IV (nucleotide 641 to 990) and probe V (nucleotide <sup>951</sup> to 1329). The transcription start site of the ada operon was determined by primer extension analysis. A 20mer oligodeoxynucleotide that corresponds to the 8th to 27th nucleotides from the translational initiation site of the adaA gene was synthesized and used for the analysis. A mixture of total RNA (10 or 50  $\mu$ g) and 2 pmole of the primer in 40  $\mu$ l of buffer (60 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.3, 90 mM KCl, 3.6 mM  $MgCl<sub>2</sub>$  and 120  $\mu$ g/ml gelatin) was heated at 95°C for 2 min and then incubated for 30 min at 37 $^{\circ}$ C. To the mixture, 1  $\mu$ l of 0.5 M dithiothreitol, 2  $\mu$ l of RNasin (Promega, Madison), 5  $\mu$ l of 5 mM 4 dNTPs and 0.4 units of MMLV-reverse transcriptase (BRL) were added and the mixture was further incubated for 30 min at 37°C. After the incubation, it was treated with RNase A (1 mg/ml) for 30 min at 37°C in the presence of 20mM EDTA. Then the mixture was shaken with phenol-chloroform and the DNA was precipitated with ethanol. An equal volume of formamide-dye solution (26) was added to the DNA dissolved in <sup>10</sup> mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0)-l mM EDTA, and the mixture was heated for <sup>2</sup> min at 80°C. The size of the DNA was analyzed with sequencing gel.

## RESULTS

## Cloning of DNA fragment conferring MNNG-resistance on ada-i cells

B. subtilis DNA fragments capable of correcting the high sensitivity to MNNG of *ada-1* cells were cloned by the prophage transformation method using lysogenic phage vector  $\phi$ CM. The vector was derived from  $\phi$ 105 and carried the chloramphenicol acetyltransferase (cat) gene as a selection marker (24). The  $Bg/\Pi$ digested 168T ( $ada^+$ ) DNA was ligated into the  $\phi$ CM DNA digested with the same enzyme. This ligation mixture was used to transform cells of strain TKJ0922 (ada-1) lysogenized with  $\phi$ 105. Chloramphenicol-resistant (CM<sup>r</sup>) colonies were picked



Fig. 2. Nucleotide sequence of B. subtilis adaA and adaB loci and the deduced amino-acid sequences of two ORFs. The nucleotides from 227 to 859 and from 849 to 1385 code for AdaA and AdaB proteins, respectively. The dashed underlines indicate possible SD sequences, and the arrow shows the transcription start site. Possible  $\div$ -10' and  $\div$ -35' sequences are boxed. Open arrows indicate inverted-repeat sequences.

up. Then, MNNG-resistant clones were selected among the CMr clones. We selected five doubly-resistant (CMr MNNGr) clones, but on treatment with mitomycin C, none of them yielded phage capable of complementing the  $ada-1$  mutation, suggesting that they were defective in induction. Therefore, we examined the CMr MNNGr clones to determine if the two resistant markers were closely linked in DNA-mediated transformation. Two of the clones exhibiting more than 90% linkage were chosen for subsequent experiments. Both of them regained the ability of adaptive response to the lethal and mutagenic effects of MNNG, and the extract from the cells pretreated with MNNG contained as high DNA alkyltransferase activities as the extract from the pretreated  $ada^+$  cells (data not shown).

A DNA library was constructed in lambda EMBL3 from one of the CMr MNNGr strains. This library was screened with <sup>a</sup> 1.0 Kb BgIII-BamHI fragment from  $\phi$ CM located next to the cloning site as <sup>a</sup> probe (Fig. 1). DNAs from all three independent clones hybridizing with the probe could confer MNNG-resistance upon transformation of the *ada-1* cells. The restriction sites of one of the phage clones, H12, are shown in Fig. 1. The insert in the phage DNA consisted of 4.4 Kb B. subtilis DNA and 10.4 Kb  $\phi$ CM DNA. The activity conferring MNNG resistance to ada-1 cells was found to be located in the terminal 2.2 Kb Sall-EcoRI fragment of the 4.4 Kb fragment. However, this DNA could not confer MNNG resistance on another mutant ada-4. Since these two mutations are closely linked in the chromosome

(17), we searched for extended clones that could also complement the *ada-4* mutation by screening a B. subtilis DNA library made with lambda EMBL3a using the 2.2 Kb Sall-EcoRI fragment as a probe. Most of the phages hybridizing to the fragment did not multiply well for some unknown reason. However, one clone, F411, that contained a 15.2 Kb insert, grew relatively well and its DNA could complement both the  $ada-1$  and  $ada-4$  mutation. These activities resided in a terminal 5.2 Kb Sall-EcoRI fragment including the 2.2 Kb Sall-EcoRI fragment (Fig. 1).

#### DNA sequence of *ada* genes

The DNA sequence of the 2.2 Kb EcoRI-SalI fragment in the phage H12 was determined. Two open reading frames (ORFI and ORF2) were recognized. ORFI, located in the middle of the fragment could encode a protein consisting of 211 amino acid residues. ORF2 is initiated at the <sup>3</sup>' terminus of ORF1, and the two ORFs overlap by <sup>11</sup> bp. ORF2 continues to the Sall site in the linker sequence of the plasmid without a termination codon. To extend the <sup>3</sup>' sequence, we inserted the 5.2 Kb EcoRI-Sall fragment in phage F411 into Bluescript  $SK +$  and determined its sequence. ORF2 can code for a protein consisting of 179 amino acid residues. The nucleotide sequence of the region containing ORFI and ORF2 and their deduced amino acid sequences are shown in Fig. 2. Two sequences, GAGGTGA and AATGGAGG conforming to the Shine-Dalgarno consensus are seen immediately upstream of the initiation codons of ORFI and

		<b>5476</b> Nucleic Acids Research, Vol. 18, No. 18
AdaA	1	DAEMIT <b>GHKESHDH</b> R S N 1 МP D S т N N
AdaA Ada	26 10	DRKWOAIINNDAAYNNQFFFYAVKST DQRWQSVLARDPNADGEFVFAVRTT
AdaA Ada	51 35	GIFCKPSCKSRVPKKENVCIFPNT GIFCRPSCRARHALRENVSFYANA
AdaA Ada	76 60	QALRANFRPCKRCKFTTNEKMPDSEW EALAAGFRPCKRCQPEKANAQQHR-
AdaA Ada AraC	101 84 179	$\begin{array}{c}\n\textbf{V} & \textbf{D} & \textbf{L} & \textbf{I} & \textbf{T} & \textbf{E} & \textbf{Y} & \textbf{I} & \textbf{I} & \textbf{I} & \textbf{F} & \textbf{F} \\ \textbf{L} & \textbf{D} & \textbf{K} & \textbf{I} & \textbf$ ESL $\frac{\mathbf{T}}{\mathbf{E}}$ A $\frac{1}{9}$ LIT $\tilde{\mathbf{P}}$ $V$ $I$ $L$ $E$ $A$ $L$ $A$ ত সি ১ D ъ ङ N F $\sim$
<b>AdaA</b> Ada AraC	123 107 202	K I G TI-ILIV E $GT$ $P[Y H]$ $M$ $H$ $R$ $T$ $F$ KK 1 1 с н $G$ $MT$ $P$ $K$ $A$ $W$ $F$ $H$ $T$ $H$ $R$ $T$ $F$ $K$ $K$ $T$ $F$ $K$ $T$ $T$ $R$ $T$ $T$ $T$ $R$ $T$ $T$ $T$ T Τl A s $\mathbf{P}$ D QIVIA м STILISTIL FIRQQ VETISIWI াার LIG ls P Q HIVIC L
AdaA AraC	147 227	Y I QQVRVHAAKKYHI QTNKAIIQD I A REDQ-RISQAKLLLSTTRMPILATVG
AdaA AraC	172 251	CVGIANAPYFITLFKKKTGQTPAR R
<b>AdaA</b> AraC	197 276	EETYNGN <mark>K</mark> LS мs RIQ K m E RAGCE

Fig. 3. Sequence comparison of B. subtilis AdaA, E. coli Ada (N-terminal portion) and E. coli AraC (C-terminal portion). Amino acid residues that are identical in at least two proteins are boxed. A possible helix-tum-helix motif is underlined.

ORF2, respectively. There is an inverted repeat of about 40 bp from 60 bp downstream of the termination codon of ORF2. This sequence may be the signal terminating the transcriptions of these genes.

Calculated molecular masses of the protein encoded by ORFl and ORF2 were 24,3 Kd and 20.1 Kd, respectively. It was considered likely that they corresponded to the two inducible DNA alkyltransferases identified by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; 27 Kd methylphosphotriester-DNA methyltransferase and 22 Kd O<sup>6</sup>-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase (18). Since our previous studies have demonstrated that the functions of the ada gene(s) in B. subtilis are similar to those of the *ada* gene in E. coli, we first compared the amino acid sequences specified by the two ORFs with that of the E. coli Ada protein. The predicted amino acid sequences of ORFI and the N-terminal region of the E. coli Ada protein exhibit similarity as shown in Fig. 3. Contiguous residues from 43 to 137 of ORFI are similar to the residues from 27 to <sup>121</sup> of the Ada protein; 44 (46%) amino acid residues are identical in the two sequences. A stretch of <sup>7</sup> amino acid residues, -Phe-Arg-Pro-Cys-Lys-Arg-Cys-, located in the middle of the aligned region, is found in both proteins (6,7). The central cysteine residue in this stretch of the E. coli Ada protein has been shown to accept a methyl group from methylphosphotriesters (10). From the sequence similarity between these two proteins and also from the similarity of the size of the protein encoded by ORFI and that of methylphosphotriester-DNA methyltransferase estimated previously, we concluded that ORFI was the structural gene coding for methylphosphotriester-DNA methyltransferase and named this gene adaA.

On the other hand, the amino acid sequence of ORF2 shows extensive similarity to that of the C-terminal portion of the E.  $\,$ coli Ada protein carrying O<sup>6</sup>-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase activity (6,7). We previously recognized the similarity of the sequences of Ada and Ogt of  $E$ . *coli* (35) and Dat of B. subtilis (34,36). Recently, c-DNA coding for human 06-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase (MGMT) was cloned. The predicted amino acid sequence of the MGMT also showed similarity to the bacterial proteins with the same activity (37). From these comparisons and from the similarity of the size of the protein, we conclude that ORF2 is <sup>a</sup> structural gene coding for 06-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase, and named this



Fig. 4. Sequence comparisons of  $O^6$ -methylguanine-DNA methyltransferases. Amino acid residues that are identical in at least three of the five proteins are boxed.

gene adaB. The AdaB protein was aligned with the four other 06-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferases (Fig. 4). Sequence similarity is obvious within a contiguous sequence of 88 amino acid residues (from amino acid 81 to 168 in AdaB) in which 24 residues are identical in all five alkyltransferases and 32 residues are identical in the four prokaryotic alkyltransferases. Comparison of pairs of sequences showed identities of about 52% between prokaryotic transferases and of about 40% between bacterial and human proteins. There are no significant differences in the degrees of sequence conservation in the prokaryotic enzymes; neither a species differences (E. coli vs. B. subtilis) nor a difference in the mode of synthesis (constitutive vs. inducible) seems to affect the extent of the similarity. The four prokaryotic enzymes seem to have diverged or converged independently. A stretch of five amino acid residues, -Pro-Cys-His-Arg-Val- is conserved in all five proteins and this sequence is flanked by either valine or isoleucine. In E. coli Ada, the cysteine residue in this stretch has been shown to accept a methyl group from  $O<sup>6</sup>$ -methylguanine (6). Residues that are identical in all five proteins are distributed on both sides of this active center.

#### Transcriptions of *adaA* and *adaB*

We previously showed that two alkyltransferases were synthesized when  $ada<sup>+</sup>$  cells were cultured in the presence of MNNG (18). To determine whether this inducible synthesis is regulated at transcription, we examined total RNAs from cells of strain TKJ1922  $(ada<sup>+</sup>)$  and strain TKJ0922  $(ada-1)$  by Northern blot analysis using probe I, which is a 0.59 Kb Eco 7221-PvuII fragment located in the coding region of the *adaA* and *adaB* genes. Three bands migrating to positions corresponding to 1.6, 1.2 and 0.9 Kb were observed in the RNA from the MNNG-treated cells, as shown in Fig. 5. The signal of the largest RNA of 1.6 Kb appeared to be the strongest. In contrast, no band was observed in the RNA from the  $ada<sup>+</sup>$  cells without pretreatment or in RNAs from ada-1 cells with or without pretreatment. This clearly demonstrates that inducible synthesis of the two transferases is regulated primarily at the transcription level. The finding that ada transcripts were not detectable in pretreated *ada-1* cells is consistent with our previous observation that neither of the two enzymes was induced in this mutant strain (18).

To characterize the nature of the three transcripts, we repeated



Fig. 5. Northern blot of ada m-RNA. Total RNA from control  $(-)$  and MNNG-treated  $(+)$  cells were subjected to electrophoresis in 1.2% agarose-formamide gel, transferred to a nylon filter and hybridized to the probes described in MATERIALS AND METHODS. Probe I (lanes  $1-4$ ), probe II (lanes  $5-6$ ), probe III (lanes  $7-8$ ), probe IV (lanes  $9-10$ ) and probe V (lanes  $11-12$ ). Lanes 1, 2 and  $5-12$ , RNAs extracted from TKJ1922 (ada<sup>+</sup>) cells; lanes 3 and 4, RNAs from TKJ0922 (ada-l) cells.

Northern blottings with four probes of different regions of the adaA and adaB genes (Fig. 5). Probe II covered the 5'-terminal and upstream non-coding region of adaA, probe III, the middle part of adaA, probe IV, the 3'-terminal part of adaA and <sup>5</sup>'-terminal part of adaB and probe V covered the middle part of adaB (see MATERIALS AND METHODS). Probes II and III detected only the largest 1.6 Kb transcript, probe IV detected 1.6 Kb and 1.2 Kb transcripts, and probe V detected all three types of the transcripts. These findings demonstrate that the syntheses of the two smaller transcripts with the same 3'sequence as the largest transcript start within *adaA* or *adaB* gene (18).

The start site for the largest transcript was determined by primer extension analysis. As shown in Fig.6, it was identified as an adenine residue located 121 bp upstream of the initiation codon of the *adaA* gene. TATAGT and TTATTT located in the promoter region of the adaA gene (boxed in Fig. 2) may be the  $-10'$  and  $\div$  35' sequences, respectively. From the size of the main transcript (1.6 Kb), no additional ORF seems to exist in the region covered by the transcript. Therefore, we conclude that the adaA and adaB genes comprise a small operon, the expression of which is induced by treatment with MNNG.

#### Functions of the two genes

Genetic analyses suggested that methylphosphotriester-DNA methyltransferase was responsible for transcriptional activation of the ada operon upon accepting a methyl group from methylphosphotriesters. To substantiate this proposition and also to confirm that adaA gene directed the synthesis of 27 Kd methylphosphotriester-DNA methyltransferase and adaB gene directed 22 Kd O<sup>6</sup>-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase, we introduced two kinds of DNA fragments, a 1.2 Kb HindIII fragment containing the adaA gene and a 5.2 Kb SalI-EcoRI fragment containing both the  $adaA$  and  $adaB$  gene (Fig. 1) into a shuttle vector pHY300PLK and termed the plasmids pHYl.2 and pHY5.2, respectively. We used two mutant strains, TKJ0922  $(ada-1)$  and TKJ2924  $(ada-4)$  as hosts of the plasmids. The  $ada-1$ mutant cells are deficient in all the inducible phenotype of the adaptive response and defective in transcription of the ada operon, as shown in the previous section, while the ada-4 mutant cells are deficient only in the inducible synthesis of the 22 Kd



Fig. 6. Primer extension analysis of the start site of ada transcription. Total RNA (10 or 50  $\mu$ g) and 20mer synthetic primer (nucleotide 234 - 253 of the sequence in Fig. 2) were used for reverse transcription. The DNA sequence of the complementary strand of the corresponding region is shown in lanes T, C, G and A. Template RNAs: lanes <sup>1</sup> and 4, t-RNA; lanes 2 and 5, RNAs from control cells of strain TKJ1922 ( $ada^+$ ); lanes 3 and 6, RNAs from MNNG-treated cells of TKJ1922 (ada<sup>+</sup>). Sample size: lanes  $1-3$ , 10  $\mu$ g RNA; lanes  $4-6$ , 50  $\mu$ g RNA.

06-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase (18). Both mutant cells constitutively synthesize 20 Kd 06-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase (Dat), its synthesis being independent of the adaptive response (34).

The DNA alkyltransferase activities of extracts of cells harboring plasmid pHY1.2 or plasmid pHY5.2 were assayed either by SDS-polyacrylamide gel fluorography (Fig. 7) or by proteinase K digestion (3) (data not shown). Extracts from the untreated TKJ0922 (pHY1.2) and TKJ2924 (pHY1.2) cells contained neither 22 Kd nor 27 Kd transferase. But the extract from MNNG-pretreated TKJ0922 (pHYl.2) cells contained both 27 Kd and 22 Kd transferases, the former activity being predominant. The total alkyltransferase activity in this extract was several times higher than that in control cells of the same strain. In contrast, the extract from MNNG-treated TKJ2924



Fig. 7. Expression of cloned methyltransferase genes in ada mutant cells. Crude extracts were incubated with [3H]-MNU treated and heated DNA (3,500 cpm) for 20 minutes and subjected to SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (12.5%). Lane 1, without extract; lane 2, from TKJ1922 (ada<sup>+</sup>) cells; 3-4, from TKJ0922 (ada-1 pHY300PLK) cells; 5-6, from TKJ0922 (pHY1.2) cells; 7-10, from TKJ0922 (pHY5.2) cells; 11-12, from TKJ2924 (pHY1.2) cells; 13-14, from TKJ2924 (pHY5.2). Protein extracts were from control cells (-) and MNNG-treated cells (+). Samples of 150  $\mu$ g protein were applied to lanes 2-8 and 11-14, and of 50  $\mu$ g protein to lanes 9-10.



Fig. 8. Comparison of the structures of B. subtilis and E. coli ada operons. The regions of amino-acid sequence similarity (shaded and striped) and the regions of sequence identity (dark shaded and grated) are shown. Methyl-accepting cysteine residues in E. coli Ada and corresponding residues in B. subtilis AdaA and AdaB are shown.

(pHY1.2) cells contained only 27 Kd transferase. These results were consistent with the MNNG sensitivities of these transformed mutant strains. Namely, TKJ0922 (pHY1.2) cells were as resistant to MNNG as wild type cells. They were about 2.8 times more resistant than TKJ0922 cells when the concentrations of the drug that reduced the survival to 37 percent were compared.

TKJ2924 (pHYl.2) cells were as sensitive as the parental TKJ2924 cells. The extracts from control TKJ0922 (pHY5.2) cells and TKJ2924 (pHY5.2) cells contained both 22 Kd and 27 Kd transferase activities. Their total alkyltransferase activities were about 1.5 to 2 times higher than that of the adapted cells of the wild-type  $ada +$  strain (data not shown). Similar constitutive expression was observed when the E. coli ada gene was introduced into a multicopy plasmid (5). The activity was further enhanced about six times by adaptive pretreatment. In the extracts of both control and MNNG-pretreated cells of ada mutant strains carrying the pHY5.2, AdaB activity was higher than AdaA activity, as observed in the extract of pretreated cells of the wild type strain (18). These two transformed strains were about 3.2 times more resistant to MNNG than the wild type strain.

These results can be interpreted as follows; pHY1.2 can direct the synthesis of AdaA transferase but not of AdaB since the Cterminal coding sequence is missing, while pHY5.2 can direct the syntheses of both AdaA and AdaB transferases. When  $pHY1.2$  is introduced into the  $ada-1$  mutant strain with a defect presumably in the adaA gene, methylated AdaA protein derived from the plasmid gene can activate the transcription of the chromosomal ada operon, leading to the synthesis of 22 Kd 06-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase (AdaB protein), which is intact in the  $ada-1$  mutant. However, when the same plasmid is introduced into the *ada-4* mutant strain with a defect presumably in the *adaB* gene, it cannot complement the defect and the active AdaB protein is not synthesized.

## **DISCUSSION**

Using the prophage transformation method, we cloned DNA fragments that can correct the MNNG-hypersensitivity of ada mutants. The cloned DNA carried two genes, adaA and adaB in tandem with an overlap of 11 bp, comprising a small operon. The *adaA* gene is assigned as the structural gene for methylphosphotriester-DNA methyltransferase and the adaB as that of 06-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase.

The main object of this work was to compare the adaptive response of E. coli and B. subtilis at a molecular level. Our results showed intriguing differences in the structures of the ada operons as schematized in Fig.8. In both bacteria, all the inducible DNA alkyltransferase activities are derived from small operons, and the products of the operons act as a transcriptional activator upon collection of a methyl group from methylphosphotriesters and as a suicidal repair enzyme for mutagenic 0-alkylated bases (4,6,9,10,37). These alkyltransferase activities reside in a product (Ada) of one gene in  $E$ . *coli*  $(3,6,10,22)$ , while they are split in products (AdaA and AdaB) of two genes in  $B$  subtilis. The striking similarities in amino acid sequences of the proteins and overall functions of the operons indicate that the sequences of functional importance are conserved. The conserved sequences comprise the two domains for DNA alkyltransferase activities on methylphosphotriesters and 06-methylguanine residues. We do not know whether they were originally in one gene or two genes. However, the events causing the reorganization seem to have left a region of sequence divergence between the two domains, since the sequences in the middle part (corresponding to residues 128 to 241 of the E. coli Ada protein) are totally dissimilar.

Another difference in operon organization is that, in E. coli, there is an additional gene  $alkB$  that overlaps the termination codon of the ada gene by one bp (38). There is no large ORF within about 500 bp downstream region of the B. subtilis adaB gene. Since the largest transcript should terminate within about 300 bp from the end of the adaB coding sequence, we conclude that a gene corresponding to alkB does not exist in the ada operon of  $B$ . subtilis. The mutations in the  $alkB$  gene cause hypersensitivity to MMS, though the biochemical activity of the gene product has not yet been identified (39,40). The absence of a similar gene in  $\ddot{B}$ . *subtilis* seems to explain why none of the six B. subtilis ada mutants exhibits hypersensitivity to MMS, unlike E. coli ada mutants (16,20).

We searched the NBRF protein data bank for sequence similarity, and found that <sup>a</sup> portion of AdaA is similar to the AraC proteins of E. coli (42,43) and Salmonella typhimurium (44). As shown in Fig. 3, in a stretch of 79 amino acids from residue 120 of AdaA, 27 amino acid residues (34%) are identical to those of the E. coli AraC protein. AraC protein is well characterized as a prokaryotic transcriptional regulator (45), so this similarity may be meaningful. In particular, the 20 amino acid residues starting at residue 197 of E. coli AraC form a helixturn-helix structure that is implicated in binding to DNA (46). The corresponding sequence in the B. subtilis AdaA protein also yields a helix-turn-helix structure when analyzed by the algorithm of Garnier et al. (47). The sequence of the E. coli Ada protein aligned to this motif contains several residues identical to those in AdaA (12 of 20). However, it does not yield a typical helixturn-helix structure by the same algorithm.

The AdaA protein also shows similarity to another classical DNA-binding protein, lambda CI repressor; the sequence of five amino acid residues, -Glu-Ser-Leu-Ala-Asp-, in the N-terminal helix (helix2) of the AdaA is almost identical to the corresponding sequence, -Glu-Ser-Val-Ala-Asp-, of the repressor. This sequence similarity is intriguing, because in this sequence of the CI repressor, two acidic amino acids (glutamic acid and aspartic acid) are considered to be crucial for transcriptional activation (48).

In E. coli, methylated Ada protein binds to the immediate 5'-sequence of the start sites of the *ada* operon and *alkA* gene (11). In this region, the two genes have a common sequence, AAAGCGCA, and this sequence ('ada box') has been shown to be important for regulation (11,12,49). The B. subtilis ada promoter does not, however, have a similar sequence. Thus the regulatory sequences in this operon remain to be identified.

In B. subtilis, the AdaA protein seems to be sufficient for transcriptional activation and the intact AdaB protein is not required. However, in E. coli, C-terminal truncation of the Ada protein modified its function as a transcriptional activator, indicating the C-terminal portion is also required for its proper function (50). Since proteolytic cleavage at the middle part of the protein leaves the activity of O<sup>6</sup>-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase intact, this may be a way to economize the response by facilitating repair and terminating the response (4). In *B. subtilis*, however, such regulation is not possible. The present finding that in adapted cells transcription also started inside the *adaA* coding region suggests a way to produce the repair enzyme in larger amount than the activator protein. This may also explain our previous finding that in the adapted cells, the alkyltransferase activity on  $O<sup>6</sup>$ -methylguanine is consistently higher than that on methylphosphotriesters (18).

In the current model of the adaptive response (11), constitutive production of Ada protein (or AdaA protein in B. subtilis) at a low level is required. In our assays, neither the AdaA activity nor the ada transcript has been detected so far. A more sensitive assay of the transcript may be required to determine the exact level of constitutive expression. It is also imperative to define DNA-binding and activation functions of the AdaA protein by in vitro assays and mutational analyses. Finally, for obtaining information on the phylogenic relationship of  $E$ . coli and  $\overline{B}$ . subtilis systems, extension of comparisons to other organisms seems indicated.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Miss Reiko Makino (Oncogene Division) for technical instructions and Dr. Hiroshi Tanooka (Radiobiology Division) for encouragement and support. This work was supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid for Cancer Research from the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture of Japan.

#### **REFERENCES**

- 1. Samson, L. and Cairns, J. (1977) Nature, 267, 281-283.
- 2. Karran, P., Lindahl, T. and Griffin, B. (1979) Nature (London), 280, 76-77.
- 3. McCarthy, T. V. and Lindahl, T (1985) Nucleic Acids Res., 13, 2683-2698. Lindahl, T., Sedgwick, B., Sekiguchi, M. and Nakabeppu, Y. (1988) Ann.
- Rev. Biochem., 57, 133-157.
- 5. Sedgwick, B. (1983) Mol. Gen. Genet., 191, 466-472.
- 6. Demple, B., Sedgwick, B., Robins, P., Totty, N., Waterfield, M. D. and Lindahl, T. (1985) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 82, 2688-2692.
- 7. Nakabeppu, Y., Kondo, H., Kawabata, S., Iwanaga, S. and Sekiguchi, M. (1985) J. Biol. Chem., 260, 7281-7288.
- 8. LeMotte, P. K. and Walker, G. C. (1985) J. Bacteriol., 161, 888-895.
- 9. Margison, G. P., Cooper, D. P. and Brennand, J. (1985) Nucleic Acids Res., 13, 1939-1952.
- 10. Sedgwick, B., Robins, P., Totty, N. and Lindahl, T. (1988) J. Biol. Chem. 263, 4430-4433.
- 11. Teo, I., Sedgwick, B., Kilpatrick, M. W., McCarthy, T. V. and Lindahl, T. (1986) Cell, 45, 315-324.
- 12. Nakabeppu, Y. and Sekiguchi, M. (1986) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 83,  $6297 - 6301$ .
- 13. Kimball, R. F. (1980) Mutation Res., 72, 361-372.
- 14. Ceccoli, J., Rosales, N., Goldstein, M. and Yarosh, D. B. (1988) Mutation Res., 194, 219-226.
- 15. Morohoshi, F. and Munakata, N. (1983) Mutation Res., 110, 23-37.
- 16. Morohoshi, F. and Munakata, N. (1985) J. Bacteriol., 161, 825-830.
- 17. Morohoshi, F. and Munakata, N. (1986) Mol. Gen. Genet., 202, 200-206.
- 18. Morohoshi, F. and Munakata, N. (1987) J. Bacteriol., 169, 587-592.
- 19. Jeggo, P., Defais, M., Samson, L. and Schendel, P. (1977) Mol. Gen. Genet.,  $157, 1-9.$
- 20. Jeggo, P. (1979) J. Bacteriol. 139, 783-791.
- 21. Demple, B. (1986) Nucleic Acids Res., 14, 5575-5589.
- 22. Teo, I., Sedgwick, B., Demple, B., Li, B. and Lindahl, T. (1984) EMBO J., 3, 2151-2157.
- 23. Makino, F. and Munakata, N. (1977) J. Bacteriol., 131, 438-445.
- 24. Seki, T., Miyachi, H., Yoshikawa, H., Kawamura, F. and Saito,
- H. (1986) J. Gen. Appl. Microbiol., 32, 73-79.
- 25. Ishiwa, H. and Shibahara-Sone, H. (1986) Jpn. J. Genet., 61, 515-528.
- 26. Sambrook, J., Fritsch, E. F. and Maniatis, T. (1989) Molecular Cloning. A Laboratory Manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory.
- 27. Frischauf, A. M., Lehrach, H., Poustka, A. and Murray, N. (1983) J. Mol. Biol., 170, 827-842.
- 28. Spizizen, J. (1958) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 44, 1072-1078.
- 29. Yanisch-Perron, C., Vieira, J. and Messing, J. (1985) Gene, 33, 103- 119.
- 30. Sanger, F., Coulson,A. R., Barrell, B. G., Smith, A. J. H. and Poe, B. A. (1980) J. Mol. Biol., 143, 161-178.
- 31. Gilman, M. Z. and Chamberlin, M. J. (1983) Cell, 35, 285-293.
- 32. Davis, L. G., Dibner, M. D. and Battey, J. F. (1986) Basic Methods in Molecular Biology. Elsevier, 276-284.
- 33. Orita, M., Suzuki, Y., Sekiya, T. and Hayashi, K. (1989) Genomics, 5, 874-879.
- 34. Morohoshi, F., Hayashi, K. and Munakata, N. (1989) Nucleic Acids Res., 17, 6531-6543.
- 35. Potter, P. M., Wilkinson, M. C., Fitton J., Carr, F. J., Brennand, J., Cooper, D. P. and Margison, G. P. (1987) Nucleic Acids Res., 15, 9177-9193.
- 36. Kodama, K., Nakabeppu, Y. and Sekiguchi, M. (1989) Mutation Res. 218,  $153 - 163$ .
- 37. Tano, K., Shiota, S., Collier, J., Foote, R. S., Mitra, S. (1990) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 87, 686-690.
- 38. Kondo, H., Nakabeppu, Y., Kataoka, H., Kuhara, S., Kawabata, S. and Sekiguchi, M. (1986) J. Biol. Chem. 261, 15,772- 15777.
- 39. Kataoka, H., Yamamoto, Y. and Sekiguchi, M. (1983) J. Bacteriol. 153,  $1301 - 1307$ .
- 40. Kataoka, H. and Sekiguchi, M. (1985) Mol. Gen. Genet., 198, 263-269.
- 41. Demple, B., Jacobsson, A., Olsson, M., Robins, P and Lindahl, T. (1982) J. Biol. Chem., 257, 13776-13780.
- 42. Wallace, R. G., Lee, N. and Fowler, A. V. (1980) Gene, 12, 179-190.
- 43. Miyada, C. G., Horwitz, A. H., Gass, L. G., Timko, J. and Wilcox, G. (1980) Nucleic Acids Res. 8, 5267-5274.
- 44. Clarke, P., Lin, H.-C. and Wilcox, G. (1982) Gene, 18, 157-163.
- 45. Greenblatt, J. and Schleif, R. (1971) Nature (London) New Biol. 233,  $166 - 170.$
- 46. Pabo, C. 0. (1984) Ann. Rev. Biochem. 53, 293-321.
- 47. Gamier, J., Osguthorpe, D. J. and Robson, B. (1978) J. Mol. Biol., 120,  $97 - 120$
- 48. Bushman, F. D., Shang, C. and Ptashne, M. (1989) Cell, 58, 1163- 1171. Nakamura, T., Tokumoto, Y., Sakumi, K., Koike, J., Nakabeppu, Y. and
- Sekiguchi, M. (1988) J. Mol. Biol., 202, 483-494.
- 50. Shevell, D. E., Lemotte, P. K. and Walker, C. G. (1988) J. Bacteriol., 170,  $5263 - 5271$ .