Mechanism of the down-regulation of cAMP receptor protein by glucose in *Escherichia coli*: role of autoregulation of the crp gene

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Glucose causes catabolite repression by lowering the intracellular levels of both cAMP and cAMP receptor protein (CRP) in Escherichia coli. The molecular mechanism underlying the down-regulation of CRP by glucose has been investigated. We show that glucose lowers the level of *crp* mRNA without affecting its stability. Replacement of the crp promoter with the bla promoter almost completely abolishes the glucosemediated regulation of crp expression. Only a slight reduction in the crp expression by glucose is observed in cya^- or crp^- strains, suggesting that a CRP-cAMP complex is needed for this regulation. We previously showed that transcription of the crp gene is regulated both negatively and positively. Positive autoregulation of crp is caused by the binding of CRP-CAMP to the CRP binding site II located upstream of the crp promoter. Here we show that disrupting the CRP binding site II essentially eliminates the down-regulation of crp expression by glucose. We conclude that the autoregulatory circuit of the crp gene plays a key role in the down-regulation of CRP by glucose.

Key words: autoregulation/catabolite repression/CRPcAMP/crp expression/transcriptional activation

Introduction

The inhibition of gene expression by glucose in culture medium has been a paradigm for understanding how genes are regulated in response to nutrient status in bacteria. Glucose affects gene expression primarily at the transcriptional level by regulating the level or activity of transcriptional regulators (reviewed by Ullman and Danchin, 1983; Magasanik and Neidhardt, 1987; Kolb et al., 1993).

In the case of the *Escherichia coli* lactose operon, glucose lowers transcription by increasing the level of free lac repressor and/or by decreasing the level of activator, CRP (cAMP receptor protein)-cAMP complex. First, glucose inhibits the uptake of inducer into the cell, which in turn increases the level of active free repressor. The inhibition by glucose of inducer uptake occurs by a mechanism called inducer exclusion whereby a dephosphorylated form of enzyme IIA (or enzyme III) specific for glucose, one of the components of the phosphoenolpyruvate-dependent carbohydrate phosphotransferase

system (PTS), appears to play an essential role (reviewed by Postma et al., 1993). Second, glucose represses lac transcription by lowering the concentration of the CRPcAMP complex. This repression is independent of the repressor-mediated negative regulation, since it occurs both in the presence and absence of repressor (Ishizuka et al., 1993). We showed previously that the major part of catabolite repression can be explained by the lowered concentration of the CRP-cAMP complex (Ishizuka etal., 1993).

It had been believed that glucose lowers the level of CRP-cAMP complex only by reducing intracellular cAMP level (reviewed by Ullman and Danchin, 1983; Magasanik and Neidhardt, 1987; Kolb et al., 1993). However, the actual reduction of cAMP level by glucose is too moderate to account for catabolite repression (Pastan and Adhya, 1976; Ishizuka et al., 1993). Although the intracellular CRP level could be another determinant of the level of active CRP-cAMP complex, it had not been seriously tested whether the level of CRP is involved in the modulation of catabolite repression. Recently, we addressed this question by determining the intracellular CRP levels under various conditions. In the previous paper, we showed that the intracellular CRP level is markedly reduced by glucose and that this reduction in CRP level is an important determinant of catabolite repression (Ishizuka et al., 1993). We proposed that glucose causes catabolite repression by reducing both intracellular CRP and cAMP levels.

In this paper we investigate the mechanism by which glucose lowers the intracellular CRP level. We found that glucose reduces the level of crp mRNA without affecting its stability. The crp promoter is needed for this downregulation, suggesting that the regulation occurs at the step of transcription initiation. The effect of glucose on the *crp* transcription was mostly lost in cya^- or crp^- cells, indicating that CRP-cAMP is required for this regulation. Moreover, the disruption of the CRP binding site located upstream of the crp promoter essentially eliminated the effect of glucose. These data indicate that the autoregulatory loop of the crp gene plays a central role in the down-regulation of crp expression by glucose.

Results

Glucose lowers the expression of crp on a multicopy plasmid

We found recently that the presence of glucose in the culture medium lowers the CRP level 2- to 3-fold in exponentially growing wild-type cells (Ishizuka et al., 1993). Here we tested the effect of glucose on the expression of crp in a multicopy plasmid pHA5 carrying the entire crp region in a crp^- strain PP47. The total proteins were prepared from cells growing exponentially

Fig. 1. Effect of glucose on the expression of *crp* in a multicopy plasmid. Total proteins from PP47 transformants grown to OD₆₀₀ = 0.4 and 0.8 were analyzed. (A) SDS-PAGE of total protein (12 μ g). Lane 1 contains 0.5 μ g of purified CRP. The arrowhead indicates the CRP bands. (B) Western blotting of total protein (32 ng). Lane ^I contains ¹ ng of purified CRP.

in LB medium with or without glucose and analyzed by SDS-PAGE. CRP was detected on ^a gel stained with Coomassie brilliant blue when cells harboring pHA5 were analyzed (Figure 1A, lanes 4-7). Densitometric scanning of the stained gel revealed that the relative level of CRP decreased 2- to 3-fold in the presence of glucose. Cells harboring a control plasmid pBR322 showed no detectable CRP band (Figure 1A, lanes 2 and 3). The reduction in CRP was also detected by Western blot analysis with the same samples (Figure 1B). The plasmid copy number was not affected by the presence of glucose in the medium (data not shown). Thus, glucose lowers the expression of crp in a multicopy plasmid to the same extent observed with the chromosomal *crp* gene (Ishizuka et al., 1993).

Glucose lowers the crp mRNA level

The lowered level of CRP in cells grown on glucosecontaining medium could be due to destabilization of the CRP protein and/or ^a decrease in the level of crp mRNA. To determine the steady-state levels of crp mRNA, total RNAs from cells harboring pHA5 grown on LB medium with or without glucose were analyzed by a quantitative S1 nuclease protection assay, using the lower strand of a 910 bp HpaII fragment ^{32}P -labeled at its 5' end as a DNA probe (Figure 2B). An SI -resistant DNA band of ⁴⁹⁷ bases that corresponds to crp RNA was produced in this assay. When the RNA from cells grown in the presence of glucose was used, the S1-resistant band was markedly reduced relative to the band protected by RNA from cells grown in the absence of glucose (Figure 2A). The extent of the reduction in crp mRNA by glucose was essentially identical to that of the CRP protein. This suggests that the lowered level of CRP in glucose-containing medium is primarily due to the reduction in *crp* mRNA. We have not tested whether the stability of CRP protein is affected by glucose.

Glucose does not affect the stability of crp mRNA

How does glucose lower the steady-state level of crp mRNA? Glucose may destabilize the *crp* mRNA or it may affect the transcription of crp. To test the effect of glucose on the stability of crp mRNA, the rate of decay of crp mRNA was determined in exponential pHA5 containing cultures grown with or without glucose, after adding rifampicin to prevent further initiation of transcrip-

Fig. 2. Effect of glucose on steady-state level of crp mRNA. (A) Autoradiograph of S1 products. Total RNA $(10 \mu g)$ prepared from PP47 cells harboring pHA5 grown to an $OD₆₀₀$ of 0.8 was subjected to Sl assay. The arrowhead indicates S1-resistant DNA bands. Lane 1, DNA probe without SI treatment. (B) The upper line shows ^a restriction map of the *crp* region. The open bar indicates the coding region of *crp*. The arrow denotes the start and direction of *crp* transcription. The lower line shows the 910 bp HpaII-HpaII fragment used as ^a DNA probe.

tion. Total RNA was isolated at various times after the addition of rifampicin for the quantitative S1 assay (Figure 3A). The half-life of crp RNA was estimated to be 2.4 min both in the presence and absence of glucose by quantifying the intensity of the S1-resistant DNA (Figure 3B). Thus, glucose does not affect the stability of crp mRNA. This suggests that glucose may inhibit the transcription of crp.

The down-regulation of crp by glucose is dependent on the crp promoter

To gain further insight into the mechanism of crp downregulation by glucose, we examined the effect of glucose on crp expression from the bla promoter in pHA7. Interestingly, the inhibitory effect of glucose on crp expression in cells harboring pHA7 was no longer observed

Fig. 3. Effect of glucose on the stability of crp mRNA. (A) Autoradiograph of S1 products. PP47 cells harboring pHA5 were grown to an $OD₆₀₀$ of 0.8 and total RNA was extracted at the times indicated after the addition of rifampicin (50 μ g/ml). Total RNA (50 gg) was subjected to S1 assay. The arrowhead indicates the SI resistant DNA bands. Lane 1, DNA probe without S1 treatment. (B) Semilogarithmic plots of the radioactivity of S1-resistant DNA versus time. The DNA bands were quantified using ^a Bioimage Analyzer

Fig. 4. Down-regulation of *crp* expression by glucose is dependent on the crp promoter. SDS-PAGE of total proteins from PP47 cells harboring the indicated plasmid grown to an $OD₆₀₀$ of 0.8. The arrowhead indicates the CRP bands.

(Figure 4, lanes 1 and 2). This suggests that the downregulation of crp by glucose occurs primarily at the initiation of transcription and that the *crp* promoter is needed. Further tests were made with a new plasmid, $pHA10w$ (Figure 7A), in which the *bla* promoter in $pHA7$ was replaced by ^a ³¹⁰ bp DNA fragment containing the wild-type crp promoter (see Materials and methods). The expression of CRP in cells harboring pHA10w was clearly repressed by glucose as in cells harboring pHA5 (Figure 4, lanes 3 and 4). Most of the down-regulation of *crp* by glucose is therefore dependent on the crp promoter. However, experiments revealed that glucose reproducibly lowers the CRP level by $~10\%$ even in pHA7 transformants. This small effect of glucose seems to play a role in the down-regulation of crp expression (see Discussion).

Functional CRP-cAMP mediates the inhibitory effect of glucose on crp expression

Having established the role of the crp promoter in the down-regulation of crp by glucose, it was interesting to examine the effect of cAMP on this regulation because the *crp* is autoregulated at the level of transcription (Aiba, 1983; Hanamura and Aiba, 1991, 1992). The effect of cAMP was tested by introducing pHA5 into a cya^- strain PP48 and analyzing total proteins by SDS-PAGE. The repressive effect of glucose on crp expression was lost mostly in the cya mutant (Figure 5A, lanes 3 and 4) while glucose again reduced the CRP level in cya^+ cells (PP47) harboring pHA5 (Figure 5A, lanes 1 and 2). Western blot analysis confirmed that glucose represses expression of the chromosomal crp gene in the wild-type but not in the cya mutant (Figure 5B). This strongly indicates that cAMP plays a key role in the down-regulation of crp by glucose.

To explore the role of CRP itself in this regulation, the effect of glucose on the expression of *crp* mRNA in wild-type (PP6), cya^- (PP48) and crp^- (PP47) cells was examined by S1 assay. PP47 seems to have a point mutation in the crp structural gene and it produces a mutant crp mRNA that can be detected by ^S¹ assay (Mori and Aiba, 1985). As shown in Figure 6, the reduction in crp mRNA by glucose was small in crp^- , whilst glucose markedly reduced the crp mRNA in wild-type cells. As expected, the level of crp mRNA in cya^- cells was also slightly reduced by glucose (Figure 6, lanes 6 and 7). It is therefore concluded that functional CRP-cAMP complex mediates the repressive effect of glucose on crp expression. This strongly suggests that the autoregulatory mechanism controlling the crp gene is closely involved in the downregulation of crp by glucose.

Mutations in the upstream CRP binding site in the crp promoter region abolish the effect of glucose

One simple explanation for the requirement for the crp promoter and CRP-cAMP for the effect of glucose on crp expression would be to propose that the activation of crp transcription by CRP-cAMP is reduced in the presence of glucose while the positive autoregulation of crp transcription is efficiently operating in the absence of glucose. If this were the case, the disruption of the CRP binding site II, which is located upstream of the crp promoter and responsible for the activation of crp transcription by CRPcAMP (Hanamura and Aiba, 1992), should lower the expression of crp in the absence of glucose and eliminate the down-regulation of *crp* by glucose. To test this assumption, we have constructed deletion mutants in which the deletions extend into the CRP binding site II from upstream of the crp promoter (Figure 7). The effects of glucose on the expression of crp from the corresponding plasmids were analyzed in transformants of PP47. The repressive effect of glucose on crp expression was normally observed in cells harboring pHA100 that still retains the CRP binding site II (Figure 8A, lanes ³ and 4). When the deletion extends into the CRP binding site II, the crp

Fig. 5. Role of cAMP in the down-regulation of crp expression by glucose. (A) SDS-PAGE of total proteins from cells harboring pHA5 grown to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.8. Lanes 1 and 2, PP47 (crp⁻ cya⁺) cells harboring pHA5. Lanes 3 and 4, PP48 (cya⁻) cells harboring pHA5. The arrow head indicates CRP bands. (B) Western blotting of total proteins (0.63 µg) from PP6 (crp⁺ cya⁺) and PP48 (cya⁻) cells grown to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.8. The arrowhead indicates the CRP bands.

expression was significantly reduced even in the absence of glucose and the repressive effect of glucose on crp expression was almost eliminated (Figure 8A, lanes 5-8). With pHA10m, which carries point mutations (Figure 7B) in the CRP binding site II that prevent the transcriptional activation by CRP-cAMP (Hanamura and Aiba, 1992), the CRP level was clearly reduced relative to pHAlOw in the absence of glucose (Figure 8B). Moreover, the repressive effect of glucose on crp expression was not observed (Figure 8B, lanes 3 and 4). All of these results are consistent with the view that the lowered expression of crp in the presence of glucose is due to the loss of activation of crp transcription by CRP-cAMP.

Discussion

In *E.coli*, glucose inhibits the synthesis of a number of proteins that are required for the metabolism of other carbon sources by several different mechanisms (reviewed by Ullman and Danchin, 1983; Magasanik and Neidhardt, 1987; Kolb et al., 1993). One of the major effects of glucose is inducer exclusion whereby glucose prevents the uptake of inducer into the cell. The lowered concentration of inducer increases the level of active repressor leading in turn to greater repression of the target genes. Another moderate inhibitory effect of glucose is catabolite repression that is independent of the repressor/inducer system. The original model of catabolite repression, which has dominated many textbooks for a long time, argues that glucose causes catabolite repression by reducing intracellular cAMP level. However, this idea has been challenged by several reports, arguing that cAMP is not the sole mediator of catabolite repression (reviewed by Ullman and Danchin, 1983; Magasanik and Neidhardt, 1987). Our recent finding that glucose lowers the intracellular CRP level has settled this apparent controversy (Ishizuka et al., 1993). In the previous study, we showed that glucose causes catabolite repression of the lactose operon by reducing both the CRP and cAMP levels. Thus, catabolite repression can be explained by a lowering of the concentration of the transcriptional activator, CRP-cAMP.

How does glucose reduce the CRP level? We have

Fig. 6. Expression of crp mRNA in cya^- and crp^- backgrounds. Autoradiograph of S1 products. Total RNAs prepared from PP6 (crp+ cya^+), PP47 (crp⁻ cya⁺) and PP48 (crp⁺ cya⁻) grown to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.8. RNA $(80 \mu g)$ was subjected to S1 assay. The arrowhead indicates SI-resistant DNA bands. Lane 1, DNA probe without SI treatment.

observed that the autoregulation of the crp gene plays a critical role in the inhibitory effect of glucose on crp expression. The major findings can be summarized as follows. (i) Glucose down-regulates the expression of both multicopy plasmid and chromosomal *crp* genes. (ii) Glucose reduces the transcription of crp mRNA without affecting its stability. (iii) The inhibitory effect of glucose on *crp* transcription is dependent on the *crp* promoter. (iv) The effect of glucose on crp expression is mostly eliminated in both cya^- and crp^- backgrounds. In other words, functional CRP-cAMP is needed for the downregulation of the crp transcription by glucose. (v) Mutations in the CRP binding site II in the crp promoter region eliminate the effect of glucose.

We therefore propose the following mechanism for the lowering of CRP level by glucose (Figure 9). The addition of glucose to the culture medium causes a reduction in the intracellular cAMP level. This is presumably due to the decreased level of the phosphorylated enzyme IIA of PTS that appears to be an activator of adenylate cyclase (Postma et al., 1993). The PTS-dependent transport of glucose is known to reduce the level of phosphorylated enzyme IIA (Postma et al., 1993). In addition, the intracellular cAMP level is strongly reduced by CRP (Botsford and Drexler, 1978) due to the negative regulation of adenylate cyclase by CRP (Aiba, 1985; Mori and Aiba, 1985; Botsford and Harman, 1992; Postma et al., 1993).

In addition, it has been shown that the intracellular cAMP level is inversely proportional to the CRP level (Ishizuka et al., 1993; unpublished data). Therefore, in cells harboring ^a multicopy crp plasmid, the cAMP level is extremely low and the addition of glucose further reduces the cAMP level (Ishizuka et al., 1993). The reduction in cAMP level by glucose should lead to the reduction in CRP-CAMP

B

Fig. 7. The *crp* promoter and variants. (A) Diagram of the promoter variants used in this study. The solid lines correspond to the native crp regulatory region. The black boxes represent wild-type CRP binding sites. The hatched box indicates the mutated CRP binding site. The open boxes indicate the coding region of crp. The dotted lines are derived from the vector pBR322. Arrows indicate promoters. (B) Sequences of wild-type and mutant promoters. The DNA sequences around the CRP binding site II are shown. The CRP binding site II and -35 sequence are underlined. The bold letters indicate nucleotides that match the consensus sequence for CRP binding site. The horizontal arrows indicate the end points of deletions. The sequence of the CRP binding site II mutant (pHA1Om) is shown at the top.

level. This in turn reduces the extent of activation of the crp gene by CRP-cAMP. We believe that in the presence of glucose the level of CRP-cAMP complex is not sufficient to occupy the CRP binding site II, especially as we have previously shown that the CRP binding site II has ^a lower affinity for CRP-cAMP than the downstream CRP binding site ^I (Hanamura and Aiba, 1992). In such conditions, the transcription of crp may be moderately repressed by the binding of CRP-cAMP to the downstream CRP binding site I. Upon depletion of glucose, the cAMP level would increase resulting in the increased level of CRP-cAMP complex to allow the occupation of CRPcAMP at the CRP binding site II, and the transcription of crp is activated. This autoregulatory loop can easily explain how glucose reduces the CRP level.

Although the down-regulation of crp expression by glucose can be explained by the autoregulatory loop, we also noticed that glucose slightly but consistently reduces the level of CRP independently of cAMP or the crp promoter. This small effect (estimated at $\sim 10\%$) may act as an initial trigger along with the reduced cAMP level for the promoter-dependent down-regulation of crp by glucose. A possible mechanism for the additional effect of glucose would be a change in the helical density of DNA (Balke and Gralla, 1987).

In addition to the positive autoregulation, the crp gene is also negatively regulated by CRP-cAMP (Aiba, 1983). The negative regulation of *crp* transcription by CRPcAMP is mediated by the CRP binding site ^I located 40 bp downstream from the *crp* start site. The binding of CRPcAMP to CRP binding site I represses *crp* transcription by stimulating the binding of RNA polymerase to the divergent overlapping promoter and thus preventing the occupation of RNA polymerase at the crp promoter (Hanamura and Aiba, 1991). It should be noted that in the presence of glucose the levels of CRP and crp mRNA in cya^- cells are significantly higher than those in wild-type cells (Figures 5 and 6). This suggests that in the presence of glucose the crp transcription is moderately repressed by CRP-cAMP in wild-type cells while the inhibition of crp transcription is eliminated in cya^- cells. We believe that the lowered cAMP level in the presence of glucose may allow a significant repression of the crp gene but not the activation of this gene by CRP-cAMP. This argument is

Fig. 8. Effects of mutations in CRP binding site II on the regulation of crp expression by glucose. SDS-PAGE of total protein from PP47 cells harboring the indicated plasmid grown to an OD_{600} of 0.8. The arrowheads indicate the CRP bands.

Fig. 9. Model for the down-regulation of crp expression by glucose. Glucose lowers the cAMP level by inhibiting adenylate cyclase activity through PTS. Glucose also lowers the CRP level slightly by an unknown mechanism (dotted arrow). The reduction in both cAMP and CRP leads to ^a decreased CRP-cAMP level. The initial reduction of CRP-cAMP affects the positive autoregulatory circuit of crp to cause a further reduction of crp expression.

reasonable since it is known that the cAMP concentrations needed for positive autoregulation are higher than those for negative autoregulation (Hanamura and Aiba, 1992). The present study has clarified the role of the positive and negative autoregulation of the crp gene. The downregulation of CRP by glucose would be ^a consequence of this dual autoregulatory mechanism of the crp gene.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and plasmids

The E.coli K-12 strains used were PP6 $(crp^{+} cya^{+})$, PP47 $(crp^{-} cya^{+})$ and PP48 (crp^+ cya⁻) (Aiba et al., 1981). Plasmid pHA5 contains the complete *crp* gene while plasmid pHA7 contains the *crp* structural gene under the control of the *bla* promoter (Aiba et al., 1982). Plasmids pHA10w and pHA10m contain the *crp* structural gene under the control of the wild-type and mutant crp promoters, respectively. To construct pHAlOw, the 346 bp BamHI-HindIII fragment of pHA7 containing the bla promoter region was first removed, and the 310 bp HpaI-HindIII fragment containing the crp promoter from pHA5 was inserted after treating with Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I. Similarly, pHAlOm was constructed by using a 313 bp HpaI-HindIII fragment containing the mutant crp promoter from pCR41 (Hanamura and Aiba, 1992). Deletion plasmids, pHAIOO, pHA101 and pHA102, were constructed as follows. pHA10w was digested with MluI and treated with nuclease Bal31. The fragments were repaired with Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I, ligated to an 8 bp BamHI linker, and digested with BamHI and HindIII. The resulting crp promoter fragments carrying a series of deletions were eluted from an 8% polyacrylamide gel, ligated to the linearized pHA7 receptor plasmid lacking the 346 bp BamHI-HindIII fragment containing the bla promoter region. The end points of deletions were determined by DNA sequence analysis. Deletions used in this study are shown in Figure 7.

Media and growth conditions

Cells were grown at 37°C in LB medium. Glucose, when present, was added at 0.8%. When cells harbor plasmid, ampicillin was added at 50 gg/ml. Bacterial growth was monitored at 600 nm.

Protein analyses

Cells were grown to mid- to late-log phase. Culture samples equivalent to 0.5 $OD₆₀₀$ were centrifuged and the pellets were suspended in 50 μ l of ⁵⁰ mM Tris-HCI (pH 8.0), ⁵ mM EDTA and 0.1 mM dithiothreitol. To solubilize cells, the cell suspensions were mixed with 50 μ l of 2 \times loading buffer (4% SDS, 10% 2-mercaptoethanol, ¹²⁵ mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 10% glycerol, 0.2% bromophenol blue) and heated for ¹⁰ min

at 90°C. The protein concentration in solubilized cells was determined by the method of Schaffner and Weissmann (1973) by using bovine serum albumin as standard. Total protein (12 μ g) was loaded onto 0.1% SDS-13% polyacrylamide gels and electrophoresed. After electrophoresis, the gels were stained with Coomassie brilliant blue. To determine the amount of CRP, the stained gels were scanned with an LKB Ultrascan XL laser densitometer. For the immunoblot analysis of CRP, the protein samples were diluted appropriately with distilled water. Diluted protein samples in 10 μ l volume were mixed with 10 μ l of 2 \times loading buffer and subjected to electrophoresis as described above. Western blotting was performed as described previously (Ishizuka et al., 1993) using polyclonal anti-CRP antibody and a horseradish peroxidaseconjugated secondary antibody.

SI nuclease assay

A quantitative SI assay was performed as described previously (Mori and Aiba, 1985). Total RNA was isolated from exponentially growing cultures. The lower strand of the 910 bp $HpaII-HpaII$ fragment $32P$ labeled at its ⁵' end was used as the DNA probe for the crp mRNA. The DNA probe and total RNA were hybridized, and treated with ⁵⁰ units of S1 nuclease at 37°C for 5 min. The reaction products were analyzed on ^a 6% polyacrylamide-8 M urea gel.

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