A Complex Network Regulates Expression of *eps* and Other Virulence Genes of *Pseudomonas solanacearum*

JIANZHONG HUANG,¹ BRIAN F. CARNEY,²† TIMOTHY P. DENNY,² A. KEYTON WEISSINGER,² and MARK A. SCHELL^{1,2}*

Departments of Microbiology¹ and Plant Pathology,² University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia 30602

Received 12 September 1994/Accepted 20 December 1994

We have discovered an unusual and complex regulatory network used by the phytopathogen *Pseudomonas* solanacearum to control transcription of *eps*, which encodes for production of its primary virulence factor, the exopolysaccharide EPS I. The major modules of this network were shown to be three separate signal transduction systems: PhcA, a LysR-type transcriptional regulator, and dual two-component regulatory systems, VsrA/VsrD and VsrB/VsrC. Using *lacZ* fusions and RNA analysis, we found that both PhcA and VsrA/VsrD control transcription of another network component, *xpsR*, which in turn acts in conjunction with *vsrB/vsrC* to increase transcription of the *eps* promoter by >25-fold. Moreover, gel shift DNA binding assays showed that PhcA specifically binds to the *xpsR* promoter region. Thus, the unique XpsR protein interconnects the three signal transduction systems, forming a network for convergent control of EPS I in simultaneous response to multiple environmental inputs. In addition, we demonstrate that each individual signaling system of the network also acts independently to divergently regulate other unique sets of virulence factors. The purpose of this complex network may be to allow this phytopathogen to both coordinately or independently regulate diverse virulence factors in order to cope with the dynamic situations and conditions encountered during interactions with plants.

Pseudomonas solanacearum causes a lethal wilt disease of over 200 different plants (19). All virulent strains produce large amounts of an unusual extracellular polysaccharide (EPS) slime; the major portion of this slime is EPS I, a >1,000-kDa acidic, unbranched polymer of N-acetylgalactosamine, N-acetylgalactosaminuronic acid, and N-acetylbacillosamine decorated with 3-OH butyric acid (37, 46). Early in vitro studies (26) and recent in planta studies of EPS-deficient mutants (11, 29) suggest that at least one major function of EPS I is to cause wilting of infected plants, probably by blocking water flow in the xylem (12); EPS I, however, is not required for growth in planta. Production of EPS I requires the 18-kb eps gene cluster, which encodes several membrane-associated and soluble polypeptides involved in its biosynthesis and export (11, 22, 46). Synthesis of EPS I and O antigen of P. solanacearum also involves portions of the ops gene cluster, which may encode synthesis of a common sugar precursor (10, 29, 30).

P. solanacearum also produces many extracellular proteins (EXPs) that are likely or proven virulence factors; some are plant cell wall-degrading enzymes such as endoglucanase Egl (44), polygalacturonases PglA and PglB (47, 50), and pectin methylesterase Pme (53). Studies of mutants lacking Egl or PglA (12, 47) suggest that once inside the stem, *P. solanacearum* does not absolutely require these individual enzymes for wilting; more likely, they function in root invasion or acceleration of disease development. Mutants defective in export of most major EXPs outside of the cell (but not EPS) poorly infect plants via the roots and do not wilt or kill, even when large numbers are injected directly into the stem (28). Thus, although EPS I is the primary known virulence factor, some EXP or group of EXPs are also important for rapid wilting and killing.

Previously we reported that *eps* is positively controlled by PhcA (5), a member of the LysR family of transcriptional regulators (45), and also by VsrA and VsrB (21, 48), two distinct sensors of the type found in the two-component regulatory family (39). Each of these regulators appears to additionally and differentially control production of some EXPs and other virulence factors in an independent fashion (6, 47). Here we report identification of three new *eps* regulatory genes: *vsrC* and *vsrD*, encoding distinct response regulators for VsrB and VsrA, respectively, and *xpsR*, encoding a unique basic protein. We also show that because *xpsR* transcription is controlled by both PhcA and VsrA/VsrD, and because XpsR is required by VsrB/VsrC for activation of *eps*, XpsR serves to link together three separate signal transduction systems into a complex virulence control network.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacteria, **plasmids**, **media**. *Escherichia coli* strains used were DH5 α (17), HB101(pRK2013) (14), and BL21 DE3 (57). *P. solanacearum* strains used were AW (wild type) (44), AW1-80 (*phcA80*::Tn5) (6), AW1-130 (*eps-130*::*lacZ*) (11), AW91 (*vsrB91*::Tn*phoA*), AW-MG2 (*vsrB2*::\Omega) and AW1-130B (*eps-130*:: *lacZ/vsrB91*::Tn*phoA*) (21), and AW120 (*vsrA120*::Tn*phoA*) and AW1-135 (*eps-130*::*lacZ/vsrA120*::Tn*phoA*) (48). Plasmid vectors used were pTZ18U or pTZ19U (34) and pRK415 (31). *P. solanacearum* and *E. coli* were grown at 30°C in B broth (4) containing 0.5% glucose (BG medium) and at 37°C in LB (35), respectively. Minimal medium contained BSM salts (50) and 1% sucrose. Antibiotics were used at 50 µg/ml for kanamycin, 100 µg/ml (20 µg/ml for *P. solanacearum*) for ampicillin, 50 µg/ml for spectinomycin, 25 µg/ml for tetracycline, and 40 µg/ml for chloramphenicol.

Plasmid constructions. Plasmids were constructed as follows: pVC3 by inserting the 1.4-kb *Bam*HI-*SalI* fragment of pAW912R (21) into *Bam*HI-*SalI*-digested pTZ18U; pVD211 by ligating the 1.4-kb *FspI* fragment of pDM20 (48) into *SmaI*-digested pTZ18U; pJH161 and pJH162 by cloning the 2.1-kb *Eco*RI-*SlyI* fragment of pQF44 (11) in both orientations into *SmaI*-digested pTZ19U; pOX1 by religating *BspEI-XbaI*-digested pJH161 under dilute conditions; and pJH163 by filling in cohesive ends of *XhoI*-digested pJH161 and religation. The *EcoRI-Hind*III fragments of pVC3, pVD211, pJH161, pJH162, pJH163, and pOX1 were recloned into *EcoRI-Hind*III-digested pRK415 to produce pRVC3 (Fig. 1A), pRVD211 (Fig. 3A), pRJH161, pJH162, pRJH163, and pOX1 (Fig. 4A), respectively. The 1.2-kb *NcoI-Bam*HI fragment of pGA952 (5), which

^{*} Corresponding author. Phone: (706) 542-0512. Fax: (706) 542-2674. Electronic mail address: Schell@UGA.CC.UGA.EDU.

[†] Present address: 58 Meadowbank Park, Letterkenny, County Donegal, Ireland.



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-35 1 CGCGCACAAGCAAAAAACCCTGCCGCGTCATCAAAAACGGCCGCGCGGACG<u>TTGGCG</u>CGCCCTGCCGCGGTC Smal TGATAATCTCGACACCATCATAATGTTCCGCACACCCGGGGTCGGGTGCGCAGT 72 GCATCGCCACCGCCGACACCGCGCTGCAACAACCTGCGGAACACGACCGTGAAGGCCGTCGGCATCAGGCC 143 MluI 214 CGACAGCCATCGCCCGCGCGCGCGCGCGCGCGCGCACAACAACAAGAGGGCTCTGCCTCACCGGGGAATAGA TCG CTG CGT AGC CTG CTG GTG GTC GAT GAC CAC S L R S L L V V D D H D н CTG AAA L K 339 19 Ŀ R 393 37 CCG GCG CAG GCC CTG GCG L A A L D Е G GAT D CTG L 500 73 CTG CTG CCC L P GAG GCA CGC E A R GCG AAG GCG CAG GCG A K A Q A Mlui 554 91 GTC V GGC G GGG L А Ι CAC H GCG A ACG GCC AAC GGC T A N G 662 127 CCG TCG GAA GAC P S E D GAC D CTG L GGC G 716 145 GCC A E L G Т Р TCG GTG CTG GCG CTG CTC GAA GGA CTG CCG AAC AAA TCC ATC GCA CGC CAG S V L A L L L E G L P N K S I A R Q L 181 CTG GGC GTG CGC ACG CGC ATC CAG ATC ATC T R I Q I I TCG CGC 199 s Е R

998 TCGT TCA GTA GGC CAC TTG CGG CTC AGC GGC TCG GCC...<--vsrB STOP Y A V Q P E A A R G

FIG. 1. Mutational and sequence analysis of vsrC. (A) Physical and genetic maps of broad-host-range plasmids carrying vsrC. Dashed arrows represent transcripts. pKVC carrying the inactivated vsrC gene was constructed by replacing the 400-bp MluI fragment of pVC3 (containing the same insert as pRVC3 but on pTZ19U) with a cat (Cmr) cartridge (41). The large box represents the vsrC ORF; the solid arrowhead shows its direction of transcription. Here and in other diagrams, the arrow labeled Plac shows transcription direction from the lac promoter of the pRK415 vector. Here and in Fig. 3A and 4A, the stippled box represents the vector polylinker showing only relevant restriction endonuclease cleavage sites: B, BamHI; H, HindIII; L, SalI; M, MluI; P, PstI; R, EcoRI; S, SmaI; *, not unique site. (B) Nucleotide and predicted amino acid sequences of *vsrC*. The transcription start point $(+1 \rightarrow; \text{see Fig. 6B})$ and -35 and -10 consensus sequences of the promoter (18) are marked. RBS, possible ribosomebinding site. Conserved residues of receiver domains in response regulator proteins are marked (#). The LuxR/FixJ/MalT-type DNA-binding domain is double underlined, and its conserved residues are marked (O).

contains *phcA*, was cloned between the *NcoI* and *Bam*HI sites of the T7 expression vector pET3d (57) to generate pET3231.

pKVC (Fig. 1A) was constructed by inserting the 2.7-kb *Hinc*II fragment containing the *cat* gene (41) into *Mlu*I-digested pVC3. pD9 and pX10 (Fig. 3A) were constructed by inserting the 2-kb *Hind*III fragment containing Ω (42) into pHM20 partially digested with *Stu*I. pJH164 (Fig. 4A) was constructed by inserting the 0.9-kb *SaI*I fragment containing a derivative of *nptI* (15) into *Xho*I-digested pJH161. pJH165 was derived by mutagenesis of pJH162 with λ ::Tn5*B20*(*lacZ*) (52). pRJH166 was derived by mutagenesis of pRJH162 with pHoHo and pSShe (54).

P. solanacearum strain constructions. Regulatory mutants AW-C1 (vsrC1::cat), AW-D9 (vsrD9:: Ω), AW-X10 (orfX10:: Ω), AW-R164 (xpsR164::nptI), and AW-R165 (xpsR165::lacZ) were constructed by electroporation of wild-type AW with

plasmids pKVC, pD9, pX10, pJH164, and pJH165 DNA, respectively. Since all of these plasmids are ColE1 based and hence unable to replicate in *P. solanacea-num*, marker-exchanged recombinants are directly selected by plating on the appropriate antibiotic. Bona fide replacement of the wild-type genomic alleles was always confirmed by Southern blot analysis and complementation with a cloned wild-type gene in *trans* on pRK415. pRK415 derivatives were transferred from *E. coli* to *P. solanacearum* by mobilization with pRK2013 as described previously (50). Strains with the *eps-130::lacZ* reporter and a regulatory mutation(s) were constructed by transformation of strain AW1-130 or its derivatives with genomic DNA from the appropriate regulatory mutant by the procedure of Boucher et al. (4). A *phcA* mutation was introduced into strain AW-R165 as described by Brumbley and Denny (6); other derivatives of AW-R165 were constructed transforming it with genomic DNA.

In planta analysis. Virulence (i.e., rate of wilting and killing) or growth of *P*. *solanacearum* in planta was assessed three times by stem inoculation of at least four tomato plants with 10^4 cells of each strain as described previously (11).

Analysis of EPS I and EXPs. Culture supernatants from 48-h cultures were prepared, dialyzed, and analyzed as described previously (21), either for amount of EPS I by assaying for hexosamine content or for EXPs by sodium dodecyl sulfate–10% polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and enzyme assays for endoglucanase and polygalacturonases.

DNA sequence analyses. Å modified dideoxy-chain termination protocol (51) with double-stranded plasmid templates, Sequenase 2.0 (U.S. Biochemical), [³⁵S]dATP, and deaza-dGTP was used. DNA sequences were analyzed with programs (13) in the Wisconsin Genetics Computer Group and Intelligenetic Group packages or FASTA (40).

Primer extension analysis. Total cellular RNA was isolated as described by Williams and Rogers (59). Primers (5'TTCGGTAATTGCCCTCGGAT3' for *xpsR*, 5'GTCATTCTATTCCCCGGTGA3' for *vsrC*, and 5'GCGAATCATGC GCTCCTTGT3' for *vsrA*) were 5' end labeled with [γ -³²P]ATP and T4 DNA polynucleotide kinase (33), and 200,000 cpm was then annealed with 50 µg of RNA in 20 µl of 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0)–100 mM KCl by heating at 90°C for 1 min, 60°C for 2 min, and then 4°C for 15 min. Hybrids were extended at 42°C for 50 min in 50 µl of 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0)–60 mM KCl-4 mM MgCl₂–0.5 mM deoxynucleoside triphosphates containing 6 U of RNasin and 10 U of avian myeloblastosis virus reverse transcriptase. Products were analyzed on 5% polyacrylamide sequencing gels (33).

Get retardation analysis of DNA binding. E. coli BL21 DE3(pET3231) was grown to mid-log phase, and PhcA production was induced for 3 h with 1 mM isopropyl- β -n-thiogalactopyranoside. Cells were harvested, and crude cell-free protein extracts were prepared by sonication and incubated with ca. 3,000 cpm of DNA fragments (labeled by filling in with Klenow enzyme and [α -³²P]dATP [33]). Binding was analyzed by electrophoresis as described previously (49).

Molecular genetic techniques. Cloning, transformation, fill-in of cohesive ends, electroporation, assay of β -galactosidase, and methods for DNA preparation and analysis were standard (21, 33).

Nucleotide sequence accession numbers. The sequences of *vsrC*, *vsrD*, and *xpsR* have been deposited in GenBank under accession numbers U18134, U18135, and U18136, respectively.

RESULTS

Identification and characterization of VsrC, a response regulator of eps and other virulence genes. vsrB encodes a twocomponent sensor that controls expression of multiple virulence factors of P. solanacearum (21). Since two-component sensors usually regulate by phosphorylating a closely linked response regulator (58), we sequenced regions flanking vsrB; downstream we found a 220-residue (24-kDa) open reading frame (ORF) designated VsrC (Fig. 1). Consistent with this, a plasmid containing a fragment with the ORF fused to the lac promoter specifically caused E. coli to overproduce a new 24-kDa polypeptide (not shown). The VsrC amino acid sequence has ca. 25% identity to members of the RO_{III} group of two-component response regulators, including NarL, FixJ, and BvgA (39). Moreover, VsrC has all of the characteristics expected for a response regulator (Fig. 1B): an N-terminal receiver domain and a C-terminal region similar to the DNAbinding domain found in the LuxR/FixJ/MalT regulator family (20, 27).

To confirm that VsrC is the partner response regulator of VsrB, we inactivated *vsrC* by replacing its 400-bp *MluI* fragment with a *cat* gene (pKVC; Fig. 1A) and then exchanged this mutant allele (*vsrC1::cat*) for the wild-type one in the genome of *P. solanacearum*. The resultant inactivation of *vsrC* in *P. solanacearum* caused (i) a dramatic reduction in virulence (i.e.,

no wilt symptoms seen in stem-inoculated tomato plants), (ii) a 30-fold reduction in EPS I production (Table 1), (iii) a 30-fold decrease in *eps* transcription (as measured with an *eps::lacZ* reporter gene; Table 1), (iv) reduced production of EXPs of 28 and 97 kDa (Fig. 2A), and (v) elevated production of the 52-kDa PglA polygalacturonase (Fig. 2A and enzyme assays not shown). In *trans*, the cloned *vsrC* gene on pRVC3 (Fig. 1A) fully restored *vsrC* mutants to wild type (Table 1 and data not shown). Since the changes caused by *vsrC* mutation are identical in nature and magnitude to those observed for the *vsrB* mutant AW91 (Table 1 and Fig. 2A), it is likely that VsrC is the partner response regulator of VsrB.

Identification and analysis of VsrD, a second response regulator controlling eps and different virulence genes. VsrA is another two-component sensor that also controls eps; it is physically and functionally very different from VsrB (48). Sequence analysis of the region downstream of vsrA (Fig. 3) revealed two ORFs, VsrD (210 residues) and OrfX (146 residues). The VsrD protein (24 kDa) was observed during maxicell analysis (not shown); OrfX was not (see below). In an end-to-end alignment with only two one-residue gaps, the sequence of the VsrD ORF is 40% identical to the sequence of GacA, a RO_{III}-type response regulator that controls production of several distinct antifungal agents by Pseudomonas fluorescens (32). VsrD also shows 25 to 39% sequence identity to other RO_{III}-type response regulators such as UhpA, BvgA, FixJ, and NarL (39) but only 20% identity to the VsrC ORF. Thus, while both VsrD and VsrC are apparently RO_{III}-type response regulators, they are not closely related.

To evaluate the function of *vsrD*, we inactivated it by inserting an Ω fragment into its *StuI* site on pHM20 (D9; Fig. 3A) and exchanged this mutant allele (*vsrD*9:: Ω) into the genome of *P. solanacearum*. The resultant *vsrD* mutant had a phenotype largely identical to that of *vsrA* mutants, as indicated by its (i) loss of virulence and reduced growth in planta (i.e., causing no disease symptoms and exhibiting 30-fold-reduced growth in stem-inoculated tomato plants), (ii) 20-fold-reduced *eps::lacZ* expression and EPS I production (Table 1), and (iii) altered EXP profile (Fig. 2B). EPS I production, *eps* transcription, and altered EXP profile of *vsrD* mutants were fully restored to wild-type levels by cloned *vsrD* on pRVD211 in *trans* (Table 1 and Fig. 2B). These results strongly suggest that VsrD is the partner response regulator of VsrA.

orfX (between vsrA and vsrD; Fig. 3B) appears to encode a polypeptide with amino acid sequence similarity to response regulators that contain only a receiver domain (e.g., CheY and SpoOF [39]). However, orfX lacks a significant ribosome-binding site and when placed in *E. coli* maxicells did not direct synthesis of any proteins of the size expected for OrfX (15 kDa; not shown). Moreover, insertional inactivation of orfX in *P. solanacearum* (X10; Fig. 3A) had no obvious affect on its phenotype (including virulence or production of EPS I and EXPs), indicating orfX is dispensable for expression of all known vsrA/vsrD-regulated genes.

xpsR, a nonallelic suppressor of *vsrA* or *vsrD* mutations, is the sixth regulatory gene required for *eps* expression. While characterizing *vsrA*, we discovered that in *trans*, pQF44 (containing the 6.4-kb *Hind*III-*Eco*RI fragment from just downstream of *eps*; Fig. 4A) restored the wild-type, EPS⁺ (mucoid) phenotype to the EPS-deficient *P. solanacearum vsrA* mutant AW120 but not to *vsrB* mutants. Quantitative measurements showed that pQF44 increased expression of *eps::lacZ* reporters and EPS I production by *vsrA* mutants over 15-fold to nearly wild-type levels (Table 2). While this result suggested that pQF44 complements the *vsrA* mutation, Southern blot analysis and later restriction mapping and characterization of *vsrA* (48) showed that *vsrA* was not on pQF44 or anywhere else in the 10-kb region downstream of *eps*. Thus, pQF44 contains a nonallelic suppressor of *vsrA* that we designated *xpsR*.

Subclones with the 2.1-kb *Eco*RI-*Sty*I fragment of pQF44 in either orientation (pRJH161 and pRJH162; Fig. 4A) also restored the EPS⁺ phenotype to *vsrA* mutants. In *trans*, pRJH161 restored production of EPS I and expression of *eps::lacZ* reporters to *vsrA* mutants exactly like pQF44 (Table 2). Similarly, pRJH161 suppressed mutations in *vsrD* (Table 2), encoding the partner response regulator of VsrA, but not those in *vsrC* (not shown).

 TABLE 1. Effects of inactivation of various regulatory genes on eps expression in P. solanacearum

Relevant genotype ^a	EPS I production (μg of polymeric hexosamine/mg of total cell protein) ^b	<i>eps::lacZ</i> expression ^c
Wild type	393	230
vsrC1::cat	<10	7
vsrC1::cat/vsrC ⁺	281	228
vsrB91::TnphoA	<10	7
vsrA120::TnphoA	<10	9
vsrD9::Ω	<10	13
$vsrD9::\Omega/vsrD^+$	324	238
xpsR164::nptI	<10	8
xpsR164::nptI/xpsR ⁺	351	219
vsrC1::cat xpsR164::nptI	NT	8
$vsrD9::\Omega xpsR164::nptI$	NT	7
$vsrC1::cat$ $vsrD9::\Omega$	NT	4

^{*a*} vsrC⁺ was carried on pRVC3, vsrD⁺ was carried on pRVD211, and xpsR⁺ was carried on pRJH162.

^b Measured from 48-h-old dialyzed culture supernatants, using Erlich's reagent as described by Brumbley and Denny (6). NT, not tested.

^c Expressed as β-galactosidase activity determined with cell extracts of overnight cultures of strains additionally carrying *eps-130*::Tn3HoHo1(*lacZ*) as described by Miller (35). Values are from at least three independent experiments with <20% variation.



FIG. 2. EXP profiles of *P. solanacearum* mutants. One-milliliter culture supernatants were prepared and analyzed by SDS-PAGE and staining with Coomassie blue as described previously (21). Polypeptides whose production is decreased by each mutation are marked by open arrowheads with their sizes; those whose production is increased are marked by solid arrowheads. (A) Lanes: 1, AW (wild type); 2, AW-R164 (*xpsR*); 3, AW91 (*vsrB*); 4, AW-C3 (*vsrC*). (B) Lanes: 1, AW (wild type); 2, AW120 (*vsrA*); 3, AW-D9 (*vsrD*); 4, AW-D9(pRVD211) (*vsrD vsrD*⁺).



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1 TTGCGGCAGCCGCCGTGGCCGCCTGCCCACATCGGGAAGCCGCGTCTCCATGTTGCGATTCATGCACATCG 72 AAGGGCAC TGCGGGCGGCTCCGGTTTGGCGCTA -10 +1-143 CAGTCCGATACAATCGCTGTCGTATCGAA 214 GAC D CAT GAG ATC GTC H E I V М 1 L I A D ∰ GAG GTG GCC GGC 272 CGC CGG CAG GAA GAG CGG GAC ATC 14 R 0 Е R D I Е А G StuT 326 32 GAG TTC F 380 50 GTG GTG GTG CTG GAC ATC GGC ATC GAC ACG CTC AAG 434 CTG CGG CAG CGT CAC CCC GAC CTG ÇÇĞ GTG 68 Q 488 86 CAG Q CTG L GCC A GGC G 542 104 AAG GAA AGC GCG CCG GAC GAA CTC GTC AAG GCC CGC GTC TCG CAA GGC 596 122 CGC GTC V GCC GAG CTG GAG CAG ACC CTG TCC AAG CGC GAG TTC CAG ATC TTC 140 L н Q т _____ 0 AAG CTG GCG CGC CGC CAG TCT GTT TCG ATC ATC GCC GAG GAG CTG TTC CTG 704 TGC 158 ACG GTC AGT ATC CTG 758 176 0 0 0 AAG GCC GAC GCC ATC AAG AAC A I K N CTG GTG GAA TGA L V E STOP 194 D G TGCCGCAGCGGCCGGACAGC GGGGTCCCGATACCCGGCAT CGGCCGCAAACCCTGTTGGC ATGTAGGA 866 934 1 ATCCGATA GCACCCGCTAAACCCGCTGG CTACCATCAACGC ATG CTG GAT CAA GCC GTC L D Q A V GAG GAT TCC 997 GTC V CTA CCC GTG CTG G г R г \mathbf{L} Ι Е D s Stul CTG GAG CTC AAG GCC TCC TTC GTG GCG GTG GTG GAA 1051 CGC ATG GTG TAC GCC 25 Ā v 1105 43 CTG CAG 1159 61 GTO GTG CTG GG7 GCA GAC Q 1267 CAG 1321 115 GAC TCG GAG GAG 1431 CCGGACGGCACCCCCATCCCTCATCCCTTTTCCCCCACGACCGAGGAGTCTGCGATGAAAACCCTG 1502 157 TCA GAC CAG 1644 GGTACGACCGACGAGCCCCGCCACGGGGCTTTTTGCTTTTTATCGGGCGACGTGCA STOP V 1709 CGC GTT GCC CTT GCC CGC CAC GGG CAT GTC TCC CGC ... <-- vsrA М Ρ D G

FIG. 3. Mutational and sequence analysis of *vsrD*. (A) Physical and genetic maps of plasmids containing *vsrD*, orfX, or mutant alleles. Dashed arrows represent transcripts. The solid circle D9 and the open circle X10 show the location of Ω fragments (42) insertion in *vsrD* and *orfX*, respectively. The large box represents the *vsrD* ORF; the solid arrowhead indicates its transcription direction. The arrow labeled Plac and restriction site abbreviations are as in Fig. 1A and additionally F (*Fsp1*) and U (*Stu1*). pHM20 uses a pTZ18U vector. pVD211 contains the same insert as pRVD211 but on pTZ19U vector. (B) Nucleotide and *orfX*. The transcription start point (+1 \rightarrow ; see Fig. 6C) and -35 and -10 consensus sequences of the promoter are

Since cloned xpsR suppresses mutations in either vsrA or vsrD, it likely encodes a new regulator of eps that acts below the level of vsrA or vsrD. To test this, we inactivated xpsR by inserting a nonpolar nptI cartridge (15) into its unique XhoI site and exchanged this mutant allele (*xpsR164::nptI*; Fig. 4A) into the genome of P. solanacearum. Inactivation of xpsR caused a dramatic reduction in virulence, eps::lacZ expression, and production of EPS I and EXPs of 28 and 97 kDa (Table 1 and Fig. 2A). Cloned xpsR on either pRJH162 or pRJH161 (Fig. 4A) restored all of these mutant traits to wild-type levels (Table 1 and data not shown), but cloned vsrA or vsrD or overexpression of vsrC did not (not shown). xpsR mutants clearly differed from vsrB or vsrC mutants in that they did not overproduce the 52-kDa PglA and differed from vsrA or vsrD mutants in EXP profile (Fig. 2 and enzyme assays not shown) and symptom production in tomato plants.

While inactivation of *xpsR* lowered *eps::lacZ* expression by 20-fold, additional inactivation of either *vsrC* or *vsrD* in *xpsR* mutants did not further reduce *eps* expression (Table 1). This and the observation that *vsrC vsrD* double mutants are reduced in *eps* expression almost to the same extent as single mutants (Table 1) implies that none of these regulators act independently on *eps*.

Molecular analysis of xpsR. The DNA sequence of the region containing the xpsR mutation was determined, and a 307residue (35-kDa) ORF was identified as XpsR (Fig. 4B). This was confirmed by maxicell analysis since pJH161 containing the ORF directed synthesis of a 33-kDa polypeptide, whereas pJH163, an identical plasmid except for a 4-bp insertion at the unique XhoI site within the ORF, or pTZ19U vector did not (Fig. 5 and data not shown). Furthermore, when the insert with the 4-bp insertion mutation in the XpsR ORF was recloned onto pRK415 and placed in trans in P. solanacearum mutants, it no longer complemented xpsR mutants or suppressed vsrA or vsrD mutants. The predicted amino acid sequence of XpsR (Fig. 4B) did not show significant homology to any ORF in GenBank, nor did any other of the possible translation products of the xpsR sequence. Thus, XpsR may be a new type of regulatory protein. The putative XpsR protein is very basic (pI 10.6) because of two regions that are rich in basic amino acids (Fig. 4B).

Both *phcA* and *vsrA/vsrD* control *eps* via *xpsR*. Previous studies (5, 6, 47) showed that the LysR-type transcriptional regulatory PhcA controls production of EPS and many other known and potential virulence determinants (e.g., Egl, PglA, and Pme). Consistent with this, inactivation of *phcA* caused a 50-fold reduction in *eps* transcription as measured with an *eps::lacZ* reporter (Table 3). Placing the *xpsR*-containing plasmid pROX1 (Fig. 4A) in a *phcA* mutant largely suppressed this lowered *eps* expression (Table 3) but did not affect the coordinately reduced levels of EPS I, Egl, or Pme (not shown). Thus, cloned *xpsR* on pROX1 apparently suppressed only the effect of a *phcA* mutation on *eps* transcription, but not mucoidy, indicating that EPS I production requires other loci independently controlled by PhcA but not by *xpsR*.

On pROX1, transcription of *xpsR* is high, since its coding region beginning at the ribosome-binding site (*BspEI* site; Fig. 4B) is fused to the *lac* promoter of the pRK415 vector, which is constitutive and strong in *P. solanacearum* (24). In contrast, pRJH162 (on which *xpsR* transcription is directed by its own

indicated. RBS, possible ribosome-binding site. Conserved residues of receiver domains of response regulators are marked (#). The LuxR/FixJ/MalT-type DNA-binding domain is double underlined, and its conserved residues are marked (\bigcirc).



в.

Xba I GAATTAFTGACGCAATCCTTAGGTCTAGACTGTTTTTGGGTATCGGATGGGACTTTTGTGTGATATGGGCG 1 72 CCGT CGGAGGGCAGGGCCGGCTGTGCGACATTTACAAAGCTGGCGTGATGTTAAAAAAATCTTTACTCT 143 IAGTGGTATTTCAGGCAAGCATTG<u>GTGAAA</u>GGGGTCTGGCAAACGGG<u>C2</u> ATGTGCCCTATCTGTG 214 TAGTO TO TTTO TTO TTO CACCA TTO A MAANGA TAT GGGGATTTTGTGGAGATTTTAGCGATGCT 285 356 GAA CAA TTG GAC AGA E O L D R 413 15 TAC TAT GTC TGC 461 33 521 51 GTC CGT 575 69 CGA TGG CAG TCG CAC CAG 629 87 CCG CAG AGC GAG TGC GAT TGG AAG CAT TAC TTC P Q S E C D W K H Y P 683 105 GCG GAT CTG CTC TAC GCG A D L L Y A CCG P 737 123 791 141 AAG CAG CGC TAC GTT GAT CTG TGC CGG 845 159 899 177 953 195 1007 213 CTC GAG L E GAC D GGT ACC G T ACC T TGG W ATC ATC TGT C CCG P CCG P CTG L GCG GGC G TCG S 1061 231 GGG G TTG ACC TCC GAC GTG D V CTG CTC GAA GCG ATG GGG TCG CTG CTG CGG 1115 GGG GCG 1223 285 GCA GGA G CGC GTA R V CCG TTT GGC G AGG R GAC D GAC ATC GCA 1277 303 GGG G GTT GCC TAC V A Y TAA TTCAACAGGTTCAACAGGATGCCGGCACGCTCCCGGGTATGCCGCGA STOP BstEI TAGCGGCTGCCCCGGGTCACCGGGTATGGGTGGCGCGCGGGGGAAAAGCCGCAGTG 1342

FIG. 4. Mutational and sequence analysis of xpsR. (A) Physical and genetic maps of genomic region and plasmids containing xpsR or its mutant alleles. The upper portion shows the segment of the P. solanacearum genome containing region II (rgnII), eps, (hatched boxes [11, 46]), and xpsR; the dashed arrow represents the xpsR transcript. Flag 130 shows the position and transcription direction of genomic Tn3-HoHo1(lacZ) reporter in eps in strain AW1-130 (11); solid circle 164 or 163 shows the position of the nptI cartridge (15) insertion or site of frameshift mutation in xpsR; flags 165 and 166 show positions and transcription direction of Tn5B20(lacZ) and Tn3-HoHo1(lacZ) reporters in xpsR on pJH165 and pRJH166, respectively. Solid bars below pRJH161 indicate fragments used in the gel retardation assay. The large box represents the xpsR ORF; the solid arrowhead shows its transcription direction. Arrows labeled Plac and restriction site abbreviations are as in Fig. 1A and additionally A (XbaI), E (BstEII), I (BspEI), X (XhoI), and Y (StyI). pRJH162 contains the same insert as pRJH161 but in the opposite orientation. pJH161 and pJH162 also contain the same insert but on a TZ19U vector instead of pRK415. (B) Nucleotide and predicted amino acid sequences of xpsR. The transcription start point $(+1\rightarrow)$ (see Fig. 6A) and putative -35 and -10 sequences of the promoter are marked. promoter, because it is in the opposite orientation relative to the vector promoter; Fig. 4A) did not suppress the effect of *phcA* mutation on *eps* expression. Thus, in *phcA* mutants, suppression of reduced *eps* transcription by *xpsR* apparently requires constitutive, high-level expression. However, the lower levels of XpsR produced from pRJH162 were sufficient to cause a major suppressive effect on the lowered *eps::lacZ* expression caused by either a *vsrD* or *vsrA* mutation (Table 2). *phcA vsrD* double mutants showed the same levels of reduced *eps* expression as a *phcA* mutant and were restored to near wild-type levels by pROX1 but not pRJH162, indicating that neither *phcA* or *vsrD* is essential for *eps* transcription when *xpsR* is constitutively expressed (Table 3 and data not shown).

One explanation for the suppressive effect of *xpsR* on *phcA* would be that PhcA positively controls expression of *xpsR*. To test this, we inserted a transcriptional *lacZ* reporter into *xpsR* on pJH162 and exchanged the reporter allele into a wild-type genome (AW-R165; Fig. 4A). When a *phcA* mutation was also introduced into this genome, expression of *xpsR*::*lacZ* was decreased 40-fold (Table 4), suggesting that *phcA* is required for positive control and high-level transcription of *xpsR*.

Since cloned xpsR also suppressed the effect of vsrD mutations on eps::lacZ expression, we tested if VsrD also controls expression of xpsR. A vsrD mutation caused a 5-fold reduction in expression of the genomic xpsR::lacZ reporter (Table 4) or of a plasmid-borne one on pRJH166 (not shown), much less than the 40-fold reduction caused by phcA mutations. However, this is consistent with the above observation that a moderate increase in xpsR expression is sufficient to largely suppress the effect of vsrA or vsrD mutations on eps, whereas a much higher level of XpsR is required to similarly suppress the effect of phcA mutation on eps. Inactivation of vsrB or vsrC did not affect xpsR::lacZ expression. Thus, it appears that both vsrD and phcA exert control over eps transcription indirectly by transcriptionally controlling xpsR. However, since inactivation of vsrD in a phcA background did not further reduce the expression of xpsR::lacZ (Table 4), phcA is epistatic to vsrD for xpsR regulation.

Transcriptional control of xpsR by phcA was confirmed by primer extension analysis. After annealing of purified P. solanacearum RNA with an xpsR-specific primer and extension with reverse transcriptase, two major cDNAs were detected with RNA from the wild type, but none were detected with RNA from phcA mutants (Fig. 6A). Thus, while all detectable xpsR transcription clearly requires active PhcA, it may begin at two different sites (nucleotides 208 and 219; Fig. 4B). Possible E. coli σ^{70} -35 and -10 promoter consensus sequences are correctly positioned upstream of nucleotide 208 but not upstream of nucleotide 219 (Fig. 4B), suggesting that nucleotide 208 is a bona fide transcription start site of *xpsR* and that the apparent additional start site at 219 may be an RNA processing site or termination site for reverse transcriptase. Analogous primer extensions showed that vsrC and vsrD are transcribed independently of phcA, since levels of vsrC- or vsrD-specific cDNA detected after extension of RNA from the wild type and phcA mutants were equivalent (Fig. 6B and C).

PhcA specifically binds to the *xpsR* **promoter region.** If PhcA directly activates transcription of *xpsR*, then it would be expected to bind to the *xpsR* promoter. As with other LysR-type regulators (45), PhcA binding should be detectable by a gel

RBS, possible ribosome-binding site. Sequence with characteristics consistent with consensus binding site of LysR-type regulators (45) is marked (000----000) near -75. Regions rich in basic amino acids are double underlined.

TABLE 2. *xpsR* suppresses the effects of mutations in *vsrA* or *vsrD* on *eps*

Relevant genotype ^a	EPS I production ^b	<i>eps::lacZ</i> expression ^b
Wild type	393	230
vsrA120::TnphoA		
Alone	<10	9
$+pQF44 (xpsR^+)$	165	130
$+pRJH161 (xpsR^+)$	181	145
+pRJH162 (xpsR ⁺)	96	85
vsrD9::Ω		
Alone	<10	13
+pRJH161 (<i>xpsR</i> ⁺)	142	143

^a On plasmids pQF44 and pRJH161, *xpsR* expression is driven by its own promoter and the strong *lac* promoter of pRK415 vector; on pRJH162, it is expressed only from its own promoter.

^b Expressed as in Table 1.

mobility retardation assay. Therefore, a crude protein extract (20% PhcA as estimated from SDS-PAGE) of E. coli harboring the phcA-overexpressing plasmid pET3231 was preincubated with a ³²P-labeled 610-bp fragment containing the xpsR promoter (Fig. 4A) and electrophoresed. Migration of all of the labeled 610-bp fragment was retarded after preincubation with 3 µg of crude extract from E. coli(pET3231), whereas none was retarded after preincubation with extracts from E. coli harboring the pET3d vector lacking phcA (Fig. 7). To better localize the xpsR DNA sequences responsible for the specific binding of PhcA, the labeled 610-bp fragment was cleaved into 160- and 450-bp fragments before use as a binding substrate. The majority of the 450-bp fragment containing the xpsR promoter (positions -177 to +274), but none of the 160-bp fragment lacking it, was specifically retarded by preincubation with 3 μ g of the PhcA-containing extract (Fig. 7). These results suggest that PhcA directly and specifically binds to sequences near the xpsR promoter, possibly at the 13-bp sequence near -75 (Fig. 4B), which is consistent with the sequence organization and position proposed as a consensus for the binding sites of LysR-type regulators (45).

DISCUSSION

Previous studies (6, 21, 48) identified several genes (*phcA*, *vsrA*, and *vsrB*) that differentially affected production of EPS I and other virulence factors of *P. solanacearum*, but they did not investigate interactions between them. As illustrated in the model in Fig. 8 and discussed below, our new studies show that these genes, in combination with two new ones (*vsrD* and *vsrC*),

 TABLE 3. Vector-directed expression of xpsR suppresses the effect of a phcA mutation on eps

Relevant genotype ^{<i>a</i>}	eps::lacZ expression
Wild type	. 230
phcA80::Tn5	
Alone	. 3
$+pRJH162 (xpsR^{+})$. 5
$+pROX1 (xpsR^+)$.	. 94
$phcA80::Tn5 vsrD9::\Omega$	
Alone	. 3
+pROX1 (<i>xpsR</i> ⁺)	. 93

^{*a*} On pROX1, *xpsR* is expressed from the *lac* promoter on pRK415; on pRJH162, it is expressed from its own promoter.

^b Expressed as in Table 1.



FIG. 5. Maxicell analysis of *xpsR. E. coli* SK6501 maxicells (1) containing pTZ19U vector (lane 1) or pJH161(*xpsR*⁺) (lane 2) were UV irradiated, recovered, labeled with $[^{35}$ S]methionine, and analyzed by SDS-PAGE and fluorography as described previously (24). Positions of migration of molecular weight standards are shown at the left.

comprise three separate signal transduction systems that are linked into a complex regulatory network by the newly discovered and unusual *xpsR* gene product. These data also imply that the network modulates transcription from the *eps* promoter (and likely others) in simultaneous response to multiple signals.

The network contains at least three distinct signal transduction systems. Using mutational and DNA sequence analysis, we found that vsrC and vsrD encode the partner response regulators of the two-component sensors VsrB and VsrA, respectively, although in vitro phosphorylation studies are required for absolute confirmation. By analogy to other twocomponent systems (39, 56), the VsrA and VsrB sensors should respond to environmental stimuli by phosphorylating their partner response regulator, which in turn activates (or represses) transcription of the proper target genes. The VsrA/ VsrD and VsrB/VsrC two-component systems are clearly separate and likely respond to different stimuli. This conclusion is based on the observations that (i) the predicted amino acid sequences of VsrD and VsrC show only low similarity; (ii) the amino acid sequences, sizes, and numbers of periplasmic domains, and other structural features of sensors VsrA and VsrB, also are very different (21, 48); and (iii) although inactivation of either system reduces eps transcription (Table 1), other aspects (e.g., EXP profiles and in planta growth) of the phenotypes of their mutants differ, indicating that they control only partially overlapping sets of targets. Only two other dual two-component systems with common target genes have ever been clearly documented (NarX/NarL-NarQ/NarP [55] and ComP/ComA-DegS/DegU [36]). The Nar system differs from the Vsr system because the amino acid sequences of its two response regulators (and sensors) are very similar to one another and because either response regulator can communicate with either sensor. The superficial similarities between the Vsr system and the Com-Deg system remain to be clarified.

PhcA (5) is a member of the large, diverse LysR family of prokaryotic regulators (45), nearly all of which activate tran-

TABLE 4. Regulation of xpsR by phcA and vsrD

Relevant genotype ^a	xpsR::lacZ expression ^l
Wild type	. 1,035
phcA	. 24
vsrD9::Ω	. 221
$phcA vsrD9::\Omega$. 22
vsrB2::Ω	. 1,038
vsrC1::cat	. 1,038

^{*a*} *phcA* is a spontaneous mutation obtained as described by Brumbley and Denny (6).

^b Expressed as β-galactosidase activity in cell extracts of overnight cultures of strains of the indicated genotypes additionally carrying *xpsR165*::Tn5*B20(lacZ)*.



FIG. 6. Primer extension analysis of transcription of regulatory genes. Total cellular RNA purified from the wild type (lane 1) and *phcA* mutants (lane 2) was annealed with gene-specific labeled primers and extended with reverse transcriptase, and the products were analyzed by electrophoresis and autoradiography along with a dideoxy-chain termination sequence ladder (G-A-T-C) generated with the same primers.

scription in response to small signal molecules. Thus, *phcA* transcription activation also likely requires a signal molecule. This signal may relate to cell density, because transcription rates of all PhcA-regulated genes tested (*eps, egl,* and *xpsR*) increase 50-fold during growth from 10^7 to 10^9 cells per ml (8). While other data implicate fatty acid methyl esters as possible signal molecules for *phcA*-regulated genes (9), the precise nature of how signals are perceived by *phcA* (as well as VsrA and VsrB) remains to be defined.

XpsR interconnects several signal transduction systems to bring about convergent control of *eps* **transcription.** The most interesting and novel part of the network is XpsR, a very basic protein with no known homologs. On the basis of the following observations we have concluded that XpsR mediates indirect control of the *eps* promoter by both the VsrA/VsrD and PhcA signal transduction systems: (i) the reduced *eps* transcription caused by inactivation of either PhcA or VsrA/VsrD was completely abolished by constitutively expressed *xpsR* (Table 3), (ii) analysis of *xpsR* transcription by using primer extension and



FIG. 7. Gel retardation assay for binding of PhcA to *xpsR*. Crude cell-free protein extracts [lanes 1 and 4, no protein extract; lanes 2 and 5, 3 μ g of extract protein from *E. coli*(pET3d); lanes 3 and 6, 3 μ g of extract protein from *E. coli*(pET3d)] were prepared and incubated with ³²P-labeled DNA fragments containing the *xpsR* promoter, electrophoresed on a 5% polyacrylamide gel, and autoradiographed. pET3231 contains *phcA* with its translation initiation codon fused in frame to the *NcoI* site of the T7 expression vector pET3d (57). Labeled DNA fragments: lanes 1 to 3, 610-bp *EcoRI-Bam*HI fragment of pRJH161 (Fig. 4) containing positions –339 to +274 of *xpsR* (+1 = transcription start); lanes 4 to 6, the same fragment cut at –177 with *XbaI*, giving fragments of 450 bp (–177 to +274) and 160 bp (–339 to –178). R, position of retarded fragment.



FIG. 8. Model for the organization of the *P. solanacearum* virulence regulatory network. Details of the model are presented in Discussion. Symbols: boxes, membrane-bound two-component sensors; circles, transcriptional regulators; arrowheads, putative signal transduction path; solid arrows, positive transcriptional control; and dashed arrows, negative transcriptional control. IM, inner membrane; *egl*, endoglucanase; *pme*, pectin methylesterase; *pglA*, polygalacturonase A.

lacZ fusions (Table 4) showed that both PhcA and VsrA/VsrD are required for maximum activation of xpsR transcription, and (iii) gel shift assays (Fig. 7) suggested that PhcA directly binds to the xpsR promoter. Since VsrD also controls xpsR (but not via phcA [23]), it too may bind to the xpsR promoter. This would be unusual, since only a few of the more than 50 LysRtype regulators have ever been reported to simultaneously control a promoter in conjunction with another activator (45). However, the phenotype of double phcA vsrD mutants suggested that active PhcA is a prerequisite for modulation of transcription of xpsR by VsrA/VsrD. Thus at xpsR, PhcA acts like a transcriptional switch, while VsrA/VsrD acts as a modulator of the phcA-activated transcription. Consistent with this scenario, the 10-fold increase in transcription of xpsR effected by PhcA is not enough to turn on eps transcription, but rather the further 5-fold increase in xpsR transcription caused by VsrA/VsrD is also required.

Activation of *eps* also required VsrC (and likely its signaldependent phosphorylation by VsrB), because no significant *eps* transcription was observed in *vsrC* or *vsrB* mutants (Table 1), even when *xpsR* is overexpressed (43). Since *xpsR* does not control transcription of *vsrB* or *vsrC* and vice versa (Table 4, Fig. 6B, and reference 21), and since overexpression of *vsrC* did not suppress *xpsR* mutations, it is likely that active XpsR and VsrB/VsrC are simultaneously required and sufficient for activation of the *eps* promoter. Thus, XpsR differs from other ancillary proteins that act in concert with a two-component system (e.g., RcsA [16] and ChvE [60]), because in these other cases, the ancillary proteins are not absolutely required for transcription but rather only enhance expression.

How XpsR and VsrB/VsrC interact to activate *eps* transcription is unclear. One possibility is that via its basic domains, XpsR directly binds to the 150-bp regulatory region of the *eps* promoter (22) to facilitate binding or activation by VsrC; however, XpsR contains no obvious DNA-binding motifs. Alternatively, it could promote signal transfer from VsrB to VsrC or protect VsrC activity; this seems unlikely because inactivation of XpsR did not affect all VsrB/VsrC-regulated processes. Thus, experiments probing the biochemical mode of action of XpsR are essential and may reveal new but common mechanisms used to interconnect signal transduction systems into networks. Although many prokaryotes (56) and some eukaryotes (7, 38) use two-component or similar systems to control fundamental cellular processes in response to environment, it remains to be seen if any of these other systems are interconnected into networks by XpsR-like proteins.

The network also divergently regulates many other virulence factors. Another unusual feature of the network is that, in addition to convergently controlling eps, each of its signal transduction systems independently regulates other known or potential virulence factors. (i) Only the PhcA component positively controls expression of egl, pme, and several other EXP genes (47); in the case of egl (and likely others), PhcA directly binds to and activates its promoter (23, 25). (ii) VsrA and VsrD are the only components that appear to regulate genes required for efficient, rapid growth in planta and negatively control production of some EXPs (Fig. 2B). (iii) PhcA and VsrB/ VsrC (but not VsrA/VsrD) independently exert negative control over *pglA* (21). This control of *pglA* may involve the PehR/PehS two-component system because its expression is affected by PhcA (2, 3). Thus, it is plausible that many other regulatory components, targets, and interconnections of the network remain to be discovered.

What is the purpose of such an elaborate network? Conserved signal transduction systems that control genes in response to single, common environmental parameters (e.g., cell density, osmolarity, and nitrogen levels) are widespread in bacteria. However, in certain situations, the ability to adjust expression of a set of genes in simultaneous response to several environmental signals would confer a major advantage. To convergently control production of the metabolically expensive virulence factor EPS I in response to multiple signals, P. solanacearum has apparently linked several preexisting monotonic signal transduction systems into a network rather than evolving a dedicated system to control eps. Since all network components must be active (i.e., detecting the appropriate signal) for eps expression, the likely purpose of the network is to ensure that high-level EPS I production occurs only if most environmental parameters are favorable. This prevents spurious production of EPS I when it may be disadvantageous or even deleterious. However, retaining the ability to divergently control other targets permits the same network to independently turn on and/or turn off other types of virulence genes in response to individual signals. The network system appears to be designed for maximum economy and utility. It presumably allows this pathogen to monitor its progress during pathogenesis, to deal with challenges from the host defenses, and in general to cope with the dynamic and diverse situations encountered inside or outside of its host plants. Although the hypothesized purpose(s) of the network derives largely from in vitro data, current in planta studies to determine where and when in disease the regulated virulence factors are maximally expressed and in response to what signals should help to verify this model.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported in part by grants from the National Science Foundation (IBN 92-17544) and from the U.S. Department of Agriculture (NIRCGP 92-37303-7753).

We thank R. Wood for manuscript preparation.

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