Expression of Both Bacillus subtilis Threonyl-tRNA Synthetase Genes Is Autogenously Regulated

NATHALIE GENDRON, HARALD PUTZER,* AND MARIANNE GRUNBERG-MANAGO

Service de Biochimie, Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique URA 1139, Institut de Biologie Physico-Chimique, 75005 Paris, France

Received 3 August 1993/Accepted 2 November 1993

The "housekeeping" threonyl-tRNA synthetase gene (thrS) of Bacillus subtilis is shown to be transcribed in vivo and in vitro from a single promoter. In vitro, 85% of all messages transcribed from the thrS promoter are terminated at a strong factor-independent terminator localized upstream of the thrS Shine-Dalgarno sequence, within the 305-nucleotide-long leader region. Overexpression of thrS represses transcriptional and translational thrS-lacZ fusions to a similar extent, suggesting that thrS is autoregulated at the transcriptional level. We show that autogenous control does not act at the level of transcription initiation but involves antitermination of the transcription mechanism. thrZ, the second threonyl-tRNA synthetase gene, is also autogenously regulated. However, the ability of the ThrS synthetase to repress thrS as well as thrZ expression is much greater than that of the ThrZ synthetase.

In Bacillus species, most of the known aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase genes seem to be regulated by a similar mechanism involving antitermination of transcription. This assumption is based on the presence of strongly conserved structural elements in their regulatory regions (12, 14, 22; for a review, see reference 23); an 18-nucleotide (nt) consensus sequence called the T-box, followed by a stem-and-loop structure upstream of the Shine-Dalgarno sequence. Upstream leader sequences comprise domains of conserved secondary structure, with a codon specific for the appropriate amino acid at the identical position in each sequence. In the case of tyrS, this codon has been shown to be sufficient for the specificity of derepression following tyrosine starvation (12). Of the 12 aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase genes cloned and sequenced so far, only 3 do not present the conserved elements in their leader region: Bacillus stearothermophilus metS (17), Bacillus subtilis metS (which nevertheless contains a stem-loop structure upstream of the Shine-Dalgarno sequence [18]), and B. subtilis gltX (4). Furthermore, certain amino acid biosynthesis operons in \overline{B} . subtilis, ilv-leu (10) and cysE-cysS (4), and in Lactobacillus species, the trpDCFBA operon of Lactobacillus casei (19) and the trpEGDCFBA and his operons of Lactococcus lactis (2, 7), also carry these conserved elements. This situation is in contrast to that in Escherichia coli, for which there is no evidence for a general mechanism of regulation (11, 23).

Two independent genes, thrS and thrZ, encode two isozymes of threonyl-tRNA synthetase, ThrS and ThrZ, respectively, in B. subtilis (21). Expression of both genes has been shown to be regulated by antitermination of transcription, but only thrS is expressed under normal growth conditions (22). Disruption of thrS or a decrease in the intracellular ThrS concentration induces thrZ expression. Both thrS and thrZ are derepressed under starvation conditions for the cognate amino acid but not for other amino acids, such as tryptophan or arginine (22). Destruction of the T-box leads to an uninducible phenotype and a dramatic drop (>60-fold) in the basal level of expression (22). The T-box element has been shown to be essential for

derepression of *B. subtilis tyrS* after tyrosine starvation (14). The terminator structure itself and the T-box are functionally related. Destruction of the T-box has no effect on thrS expression in the absence of a functional terminator (22).

Here we show that expression of the B . subtilis thr S gene influences not only thrZ expression but also the expression of its own gene. Our data suggest that the is autogenously controlled at the transcriptional level, involving an antitermination mechanism. Similarly, expression of the thrZ gene is also autoregulated. However, in contrast to ThrS, overexpression of ThrZ influences thrS expression only slightly.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains. E. coli JM109 [recA1 endA1 gyrA86 thi hsdR17 $supE44$ relA1 $\lambda^ \Delta (lac$ -proAB) F' (traD36 proAB lacI^q $lacZ\Delta M15$)] was used for plasmid construction except when concatemer plasmids were needed for B. subtilis transformation. In that case, E. coli JM101 [thi supE44 $\Delta (lac$ -proAB) F' (traD36 proAB⁺ lacI^q lacZ Δ M15)] was used. E. coli RZ1032 (thi-1 supE44 relA1 spoT1 dut-1 ung-1 zbd::Tn10) and helper phage M13KO7 were used to prepare single-stranded plasmid DNA templates for site-directed mutagenesis (15). The B. subtilis strains used are listed in Table 1.

Transformation of strains. E. coli and B. subtilis cells were transformed as described before (6, 13). E. coli plasmid transformants were selected on LB plates supplemented with ampicillin (100 μ g/ml). The antibiotics used for selection of chromosomal plasmid integrants of B. subtilis were added at 5 μ g/ml for chloramphenicol and for kanamycin, and those used for selection of replicative plasmids were added at 20 μ g/ml for tetracycline and $0.5 \mu g/ml$ for phleomycin.

Plasmid constructions. For pHM2, the SalI site at position 5164 of pDG268 (1) was deleted by Sall partial digestion, Klenow filling, religation, and transformation. Clones lacking this site were selected by double digestion. This treatment leaves a unique Sall site at bp 3725 in $\bar{I}acZ$ for the construction of protein fusions.

For pHMS2, a 0.9-kb Dral-EcoRI fragment of plasmid P33 (20) containing the thrS leader and 535 bp of the structural gene was inserted into the Bluescript KS+ vector (Stratagene) digested with SmaI and EcoRI.

^{*} Corresponding author. Mailing address: Institut de Biologie Physico-Chimique, 13, rue Pierre et Marie Curie, 75005 Paris, France. Phone: 33-1-43298226. Fax: 33-1-40468331. Electronic mail address: putzer@ibpc.fr.

^a Bacillus Genetic Stock Center, Columbus, Ohio.

For pHMS12, a thrS-lacZ translational fusion was constructed by inserting a thrS BamHI-ClaI (position 142 of the thrS structural gene, treated with mung bean nuclease to produce ^a blunt end) fragment from pHMS2 into pHM2 digested with BamHI and SalI (blunted by mung bean nuclease). The correct reading frame was confirmed by DNA sequencing (24) .

Plasmid pHMS15 is based on ^a recombinant pUC18 plasmid carrying ^a 3-kb EcoRV fragment which contains the B. subtilis thrS gene downstream of nt ⁷⁵ of the structural gene. A 930-bp StuI fragment, internal to thrS, was replaced with a kanamycin resistance cartridge from transposon Tn9O3 to give pHMS15. It was used to disrupt the *B*. *subtilis thrS* chromosomal copy after integration by double-crossing-over recombination.

A 0.4-kb ClaI fragment was deleted from plasmid pHMS2 to give pHMS17. This deletion comprises all thrS sequences downstream of the ClaI site (ordinate 507 in reference 21). The truncated insert contains the *thrS* leader and 142 bp of the structural gene.

For pHMS23, a 0.44-kb XbaI (filled in with Klenow fragment)-EcoRV fragment from pHMS2 was cloned in the shuttle vector pHM3 (22) digested with SmaI. The selected plasmid contains the thrS regulatory region in the opposite orientation to lacZ.

For pHMS30, an 80-bp BamHI-AfllII (filled in with Klenow fragment, ordinate 77 in reference 21) fragment from pHMS2 (containing the promoter and encoding only 20 bp of the thrS mRNA) was cloned in the lacZ fusion vector pHM2 digested with EcoRI (filled in with Klenow fragment) and BamHI.

For pHMZ8, ^a 1-kb NheI-HindIII fragment from pHMZ6 (22) containing the entire thrZ regulatory region and 135 nt of the structural gene was subcloned in the shuttle vector pHM3 (22) digested by $XbaI$ and HindIII, in the opposite orientation with respect to lacZ.

For pHMZ10, the entire thrZ gene (from 80 bp downstream of the thrZ promoter) on a 4.0-kb BgIII fragment was cloned in plasmid pTZ19R (USB) digested by BamHI, in the same orientation as lacZ. A spontaneous deletion occurred from ¹⁵⁰ bp downstream of the thrZ stop codon to the pTZ19R polylinker.

Nested deletions were made in plasmid pHMZ10 for sequence purposes as described before (31). Clone pHMZ20, deleted to nt 521 of the thrZ sequence (22), lacks part of the thrZ regulatory region.

For pHMZ23, the entire thrZ gene was subcloned from the mutated pHMZ20 (see below) as an XbaI-NsiI fragment in pDG148 (28) fully digested by XbaI and incompletely digested by PstI. Since one of the two PstI sites is situated in the β -lactamase gene, insertion in the right polylinker *PstI* site was selected on LB plates with ampicillin. Expression of thrZ from pHMZ23 is dependent on the addition of isopropylthiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) to the growth medium.

Site-directed mutagenesis. Site-directed mutagenesis was performed on ^a single-stranded DNA template by the method of Kunkel (15) . The synthetic oligonucleotide $G(823)TGTTT$ TTTTCTAGACAACAATGAATAAGGAG(854) (the numbering corresponds to the thrZ sequence shown in reference 22) was used to create an XbaI site in pHMZ20 16 nt upstream of the Shine-Dalgarno sequence of thrZ.

DNA sequencing. Double-stranded recombinant plasmid DNA was used as the template in dideoxy chain termination sequencing reactions $(24, 25)$.

Isolation of B. subtilis chromosomal DNA and total cellular RNA. B. subtilis chromosomal DNA and total cellular RNA were isolated as described previously (22).

Transcription in vitro. The method described by Grandoni et al. (10) was used for in vitro transcription. Purified fragments of plasmid pHMS17 were used as templates. Purified B. subtilis RNA polymerase (sigma A) was ^a gift of Stewart Legrice (Institut Pasteur, Paris, France). Reaction mixtures (20 μ l) containing a 0.2 mM concentration (each) ATP, CTP, GTP, and UTP, 10 µCi of $\left[\alpha^{-32}P\right]$ UTP (Amersham), 0.5 µg of purified B. subtilis RNA polymerase (sigma A), ⁶⁰ ng of template, and ⁸ U of RNasin (Promega) in ⁴⁰ mM Tris-Cl (pH 8.0)-50 mM KCl-4 mM $MgCl₂-1$ mM dithiothreitol-50 μ g of bovine serum albumin per ml. Samples were incubated for 30 min at 30 $^{\circ}$ C, and then 160 μ l of water, 20 μ l of sodium acetate (pH 5.2), and 20 μ l of 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) were added. The RNA was extracted with water-equilibrated phenol, precipitated, washed, dried, suspended in $10 \mu l$ of formamide loading buffer, and analyzed on ^a denaturing 5% polyacrylamide gel. Transcription in vitro was also performed under the same conditions with the addition of purified B. subtilis ThrS (0.15 μ M; isolation of the protein will be described elsewhere), ATP (50 μ M), and threonine (50 μ M) in the following combinations: ThrS alone; ThrS, ATP, and threonine; ThrS and ATP; and ATP and threonine.

Northern (RNA blot) analysis. Routinely, $10 \mu g$ of total cellular RNA was separated on formaldehyde-containing gels essentially as described by Lehrach et al. (16) and transferred to a nylon membrane (Amersham Hybond N) in $10 \times$ SSC $(1 \times$ SSC is 0.15 M NaCl, 0.015 M sodium citrate) with a vacuum blotter (Hoefer). Hybridization was performed in 50% formamide-5 \times SSC-5 \times Denhardt's solution-0.3% SDS-200 μ g of denatured herring sperm DNA per ml at 45 \degree C overnight with probes radiolabeled with $32P$ by random priming (9). Blots were washed three times for ¹⁵ min each in 50% formamide-5 \times SSC-0.3% SDS at 45°C and rinsed in 2 \times SSC before autoradiographic exposure.

Reverse transcription. The technique of Uzan et al. (29) was used for reverse transcription. Ten micrograms of B. subtilis total RNA and 2 pmol of $32P$ -labeled specific oligonucleotide in 5 μ l of RT buffer (50 mM Tris-Cl [pH 8.3], 10 mM MgCl₂, ⁸⁰ mM KCl) were heated at 60°C for ³ min and then placed in ethanol-dry ice. After thawing on ice, $5 \mu l$ of a mixture containing ^a ² mM concentration (each) dATP, dCTP, dGTP, and dTTP and ⁸ mM dithiothreitol in RT buffer and ¹ U of avian myeloblastosis virus reverse transcriptase (Boehringer) were added. Samples were incubated at 37 or 48°C for 30 min, precipitated, washed, dried, suspended in $5 \mu l$ of formamide loading buffer-TE (1:1), and run on a denaturing 5% polyacrylamide gel.

 β -Galactosidase assay. The β -galactosidase activity of lacZ fusions was measured as described before (22).

Western blots (immunoblots). B. subtilis ThrS and ThrZ proteins were immunodetected as described before (21). An-

FIG. 1. Sequence and organization of the thrS regulatory region. Restriction sites used for cloning are heavily underlined. The primers used for primer extension experiments (HP9 and HP27) are shown by open-headed arrows. The 5' ends of the thrS mRNA found by primer extension with oligonucleotide HP9 are shown by asterisks. The terminator stem-loop structure is indicated by the shaded half-arrows. The locations of the T-box and the putative Shine-Dalgamo site (SD) are indicated.

tibodies against E. coli ThrRS were a generous gift of J. Dondon. Under the conditions used, these antibodies recognize B. subtilis ThrS about twice as well as ThrZ (as judged from serial dilutions of ThrS- and ThrZ-overproducing E. coli strains). The blots were analyzed in a Phosphorlmager (Molecular Dynamics) for quantification of radioactivity in specific bands.

Computer analysis. For general sequence analysis, we used the facilities of the Centre Interuniversitaire d'Informatique a Orientation Biomedicale, Paris, France (8). RNA secondary structures with minimum free energy were identified by the program described by Zuker (32).

RESULTS

Mapping of the thrS promoter. The 5' end of the thrS mRNA produced in vivo was mapped by reverse transcription of B. subtilis 1A2 total RNA with ^a specific oligonucleotide (HP9 in Fig. 1) as the primer. The reaction was performed at 37 and 48°C to discriminate between signals caused by secondary structures and genuine ⁵' ends. The control sequence was determined on plasmid pHMS17 as the template with the same primer. Only one signal was found at both temperatures, localized immediately downstream of ^a putative sigma A promoter sequence (Fig. 2). Reverse transcription was also performed with an oligonucleotide (HP27 in Fig. 1) located within the thrS structural gene. No additional signals other than the genuine ⁵' end were detected, with the exception of an artifactual signal caused by a premature stop of the reverse transcriptase at the stem-and-loop structure (data not shown).

To verify the activity of this predicted promoter, transcription in vitro was performed with two different fragments of pHMS17 as templates: ^a 510-bp BamHI-ClaI fragment and a 440-bp *BamHI-EcoRV* fragment (Fig. 3A). The lengths of the transcripts were evaluated by comparison to DNA size standards. The size of the runoff fragment produced by initiation at the putative thrS promoter should be 450 nt (ClaI) or 380 nt (EcoRV). As shown in Fig. 3B, the predicted thrS promoter is effectively recognized by the B. subtilis RNA polymerase, since transcripts of the expected size are present. A 280-nt-long transcript was found with both templates, and its size corresponds to termination of transcription in the run of uridines

following the stem-and-loop structure (Fig. ¹ and 3). Quantification of the different signals with a PhosphorImager revealed that 85% of the total thrS transcripts terminate at this secondary structure, indicating that it actually functions as a

FIG. 2. Primer extension of the in vivo-produced thrS mRNA. B. subtilis 1A2 total RNA was used as the template for primer extension with primer HP9. Lane 1, reaction at 37° C; lane 2, reaction at 48° C. The control sequence was performed with pHMS17 as the template and oligonucleotide HP9 as the primer. Asterisks indicate nucleotides of the control sequence corresponding to the ⁵' ends of the thrS mRNA found by primer extension (see Fig. 1).

FIG. 3. Transcription in vitro. A 510-bp-long BamHI-ClaI fragment and ^a 440-bp-long BamHI-EcoRV fragment from pHMS17 (see Materials and Methods) were used as templates. Transcription in vitro
was performed with purified B. subtilis o^A RNA polymerase, and the transcripts were labeled by including [32P]UTP in the reaction mix. (A) Schematic representation of the transcripts obtained. The templates are represented by hatched boxes, and the RNA is represented by curvy arrows. (B) Lane 1, MspI-digested pBR322 size standards (in nucleotides). Lane 2, transcription reaction on the BamHI-ClaI fragment. Lane 3, transcription reaction on the BamHI-EcoRV fragment. RT, runoff transcripts; T, terminated transcript; X, contaminating band (see text).

factor-independent terminator of transcription. An additional band of approximately 360 nt was detected in both reactions. Since it was observed with both templates, it cannot be due to a second initiation site downstream of the identified promoter, and no secondary structure was found to explain a stop of the polymerase about 20 nt upstream of the EcoRV site. Its size is compatible with ^a transcript initiating at the BamHI end and ending at the terminator. Alternatively, this band could be caused by transcription initiation on the complementary strand, resulting in ^a fragment terminated at the BamHI site. However, S1 mapping analysis of thrS transcripts did not detect ^a corresponding mRNA species, indicating that this additional transcript observed in vitro is most likely an artifact and does not exist in vivo (data not shown).

thrS is autogenously controlled at the transcriptional level. To test whether thrS expression was controlled by its own product, which is the case for the E. coli thrS gene, we constructed two thrS-lacZ fusions, an operon fusion (pHMS11 [22]) (Fig. 4) and a protein fusion (pHMS12; see Materials and Methods and Fig. 4). These fusions were integrated at the amyE locus on the B. subtilis chromosome by double cross-over recombination, resulting in a single copy of the fusion per cell. Integration at the $amyE$ locus is indicated by an amy phenotype on LB-starch plates. The β -galactosidase activities of these fusions were measured in strains overexpressing ThrS from the recombinant multicopy plasmid pHMS3 and, as ^a control, in strains containing pHM3, the cloning vector. The results are presented in Table 2. ThrS was overexpressed in strains HP18 (containing the operon fusion) and HP25 (containing the protein fusion) 9.8- and 5.0-fold, respectively, as measured by immunoblotting (Fig. 5). These levels of ThrS overproduction resulted in a 10.7-fold decrease in P-galactosidase activity in HP18 and a 7.3-fold decrease in HP25. ThrS overexpression represses the operon fusion as well as the protein fusion to a similar extent, suggesting that the control of thrS expression occurs at the transcriptional level and not, as in E . coli , at the translational level (5, 26, 27).

The thrS-overexpressing plasmid pHMS3 contains the entire thrS transcriptional unit. It is thus possible that the decrease in P-galactosidase activity in ThrS-overexpressing strains is caused by the excess of leader mRNA in the cell titrating ^a putative activator factor involved in the antitermination mechanism of thrS. To test this hypothesis, we constructed a plasmid, plasmid pHMS23 (see Materials and Methods), carrying only the thrS regulatory region in the shuttle vector pHM3 (the same plasmid used to overexpress ThrS). pHMS23 was used to transform strain HP18 containing the thrS-lacZ operon fusion. As shown in Table 2, overexpression of the regulatory region alone did not repress thrS-lacZ fusion expression, and thus the high copy number of the thrS regulatory region is not sufficient to account for the decrease in β -galactosidase activity obtained when ThrS is overexpressed.

We have shown previously that ThrS overexpression practically abolishes expression of a thrZ-lacZ transcriptional fusion (pHMZ9 [22]) (Fig. 4) in ^a thrS mutant strain (see also Table 2). Here, we also examined the effect of overexpression of the thrS regulatory region on thrZ-lacZ fusion expression. The results are presented in Table 2 and show that overexpression of the thrS regulatory region alone cannot account for the complete shutoff of thrZ expression obtained when ThrS is overproduced. Nevertheless, we observed a twofold repression of the thrZ-lacZ fusion. This might actually be caused by titration of a putative antiterminator factor (see Discussion). As for the *thrS-lacZ* fusion, it is the overexpression of the ThrS synthetase that is responsible for the efficient repression of the thrZ-lacZ fusion. However, thrZ is much more sensitive to repression by ThrS overexpression (greater than 200-fold repression) than is thrS (10-fold repression at the most).

Control of thrS expression involves antitermination. A thrS promoter-lacZ fusion lacking the downstream regulatory elements (pHMS30; see Materials and Methods and Fig. 4) was constructed, and β -galactosidase activity was measured in the

A. thrS

50 pb

FIG. 4. Fusions between thrS or thrZ and lacZ. (A) thrS-lacZ fusions; (B) thrZ-lacZ fusions. The thrS or thrZ part is represented by an open box labeled with the name of the gene, and lacZ is shown as a hatched box. The construction of pHMZ9 has been described (22). Inverted arrows represent factor-independent terminators. The T-box is shown as an open box. The XbaI* site was created by site-directed mutagenesis.

presence of the ThrS-overexpressing vector pHMS3. As shown in Table 3, ThrS overexpression does not affect the β -galactosidase activity of this fusion. Thus, the promoter and sequences immediately adjacent to it are by themselves not sufficient for control by ThrS, suggesting that regulation does not occur at the level of initiation of transcription. One of the characteristic features of the thrS leader region is the terminator structure located immediately upstream of the structural gene. In order to examine the importance of this terminator for thrS autoregulation, we constructed a transcriptional thrS-lacZ fusion lacking the lacZ proximal half of the terminator stem (pHMS21 [22]) (Fig. 4). Expression of this fusion is only slightly repressed by ThrS overexpression (Table 3). The significant difference in repression of a wild-type fusion (pHMS11 [22],

repressed more than 10-fold) and the terminator deletion fusion (pHMS21, repressed 1.4-fold) demonstrates that the terminator is an important part of the mechanism regulating thrS expression.

A Northern blot analysis of thrS mRNA is presented in Fig. 6. In a wild-type strain, we observed, as expected, a short terminated transcript of 280 nt mapping to the terminator structure and ^a long readthrough transcript of 2,300 nt. A short band, approximately ¹⁷⁰ nt long, was also detected. We do not know whether it has the same 5^r endpoint as the other mRNAs analyzed or whether it is a breakdown fragment that comes from a distal part of the operon. As described above, in vitro, 85% of the total transcripts of thrS do not extend beyond the terminator (Fig. 3B). In vivo, thrS transcription is also partially

 a Fragment cloned in vector pHM3 for overexpression in B. subtilis.

^b Measured by Western blot (see Materials and Methods).

FIG. 5. Overexpression of ThrS and ThrZ. B. subtilis total-cell extracts $(5 \mu g)$ were electrophoresed on SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, and ThrS and ThrZ expression was quantified by Western blotting (see Materials and Methods) with antibodies directed against E. coli ThrRS. Lane 1, strain HP18 plus pHM3 (vector without insert [22]). Lane 2, strain HP47 plus pDG148 (vector without insert [28]). Lane 3, strain HP18 plus pHMS3 (overexpresses ThrS [22]). Lane 4, strain HP47 plus pHMZ23 (grown in the presence of 0.5 mM IPTG to induce thrZ transcription; see text).

terminated at the terminator but much less efficiently, as shown in Fig. 6, lane 1. In a strain in which thrS was disrupted by the insertion of a kanamycin resistance cassette, the ratio of readthrough (1,300 nt; caused by the presence of the Kmr cassette) to terminated transcripts is greatly increased (Fig. 6, lane 2). This corresponds well to the β -galactosidase activity data for a wild-type thrS-lacZ fusion (pHMS11 [22]) in which expression is stimulated fourfold in the absence of a functional thrS gene (688 versus 163 U/mg of protein). Derepression of thrS thus occurs via transcriptional antitermination. The great difference in readthrough of the terminator in vitro and in vivo strongly suggests the existence of an antitermination factor involved in the derepression of thrS.

thrZ expression is also autogenously controlled. As shown previously, thrZ expression is regulated by antitermination of transcription, in much the same way as thr $S(22)$. We wondered whether thrZ expression was also autogenously controlled. To verify this, a plasmid overexpressing ThrZ and lacking the entire thrZ regulatory region was constructed (pHMZ23). In this plasmid, thrZ expression is under the control of an IPTG-inducible promoter (P_{spac}) . We used 0.5 mM IPTG to obtain about the same level of overexpression as for ThrS (Tables 2 and 4; Fig. 5). The overproduction levels of ThrZ synthetase are given relative to the intracellular concentration of ThrZ in a thrS mutant strain which has the same growth rate as a wild-type strain expressing only thrS. The activity of a thrZ-lacZ fusion (pHMZ9) in the thrS mutant strain was measured in the presence of the thrZ-overexpressing plasmid pHMZ23 and, as ^a control, of the cloning vector alone

FIG. 6. Northern blot of thrS mRNA. Total RNA (10 μ g) from B. subtilis was hybridized with a $32P$ -radiolabeled thrS-specific probe (DraI-EcoRI fragment, coordinates 3 to 899 of reference 21) obtained by random priming (9). It covers the regulatory region and 535 bp of the coding sequence. Lane 1, B. subtilis wild-type strain 1A2; lane 2, B. subtilis thrS mutant strain HP47. RT, runoff transcript; T, terminated transcript.

(pDG148). As shown in Table 4, ThrZ repressed thrZ-lacZ fusion activity 6.3-fold. thrZ is thus autogenously regulated. We also measured the effect of ThrZ overproduction on a thrSlacZ fusion (pHMS11 [22]). ThrZ also repressed the thrS-lacZ fusion but only 2.1-fold, which is much less efficient than the repression observed with ThrS (10.7-fold). Thus, the ThrZ synthetase does resemble the ThrS protein in its regulatory action, but its capacity to repress both thrS and thrZ is significantly lower than that of ThrS.

DISCUSSION

We have shown in this work that the two genes, thrS and thrZ, each encoding a functional threonyl-tRNA synthetase in B. subtilis are autogenously regulated. This is reminiscent of the situation in $E.$ coli, in which the thrS gene is also regulated by its own product. The E. coli synthetase can bind to a tRNA^{Thr}-like structure in the thrS leader region, thereby preventing the ribosome from binding to its translational initiation site (5, 26, 27). The control of expression thus occurs at the level of translation.

TABLE 3. ThrS overproduction does not affect ^a thrS promoter-lacZ fusion and ^a thrS-lacZ fusion without its terminator

Strain	Integrated plasmid	Multicopy plasmid	Insert ^a	β-Galactosidase sp act (U/mg)	Repression factor (fold)
HP124 HP45	pHMS30 (thrS promoter fusion) pHMS21 (thrS without terminator)	pHM3	Control	577	
		pHMS3 pHM3	thrS Control	557 238	1.02
		pHMS3	thrS	171	1.39

^a Fragment cloned in vector pHM3 for overexpression in B. subtilis.

Strain ^a	Integrated plasmid	Multicopy plasmid	Insert ^b	B-Galactosidase sp act (U/mg)	Repression factor (fold)	ThrZ over- production ^{c} (fold)
HP30	pHMZ9 (thrZ operon fusion)	pDG148	Control	25		
HP79	pHMS11 <i>(thrS</i> operon fusion)	pHMZ23 pDG148	thrZ Control	500	6.3	11
		pHMZ23	thr Z	230	2.1	12

TABLE 4. Effect of ThrZ overproduction on thrS-lacZ and thrZ-lacZ transcriptional fusions

^a All cultures contained 0.5 mM IPTG.

 b Fragment cloned in vector pDG148 for overexpression in B. subtilis.</sup>

^c Measured by Western blot (see Materials and Methods).

On the other hand, the regulation of expression of the B. subtilis thrS gene (as well as that of thrZ; see below) takes place at the transcriptional level (22). Moreover, it is not achieved by modulating transcription initiation but rather by transcriptional antitermination. Several lines of evidence support this conclusion. When a fragment containing the promoter and the first ²⁰ bp of the identified thrS mRNA ⁵' end is fused to lacZ, the resulting fusion (pHMS30) is no longer repressed by ThrS overexpression (Table 3). Since additional downstream promoters may be involved in thrS regulation, we also verified that thrS mRNA transcription is actually initiated at ^a single σ^A -type promoter 305 bp upstream of the coding sequence, at least during vegetative growth. No additional promoters could be detected in primer extension experiments with an oligonucleotide that hybridized to the structural part of the thrS mRNA. Moreover, B. subtilis σ^A RNA polymerase can recognize this promoter in vitro (see Fig. 3), and the ⁵' end of the synthetic transcript corresponds to that of the thrS mRNA synthesized in vivo (Fig. 2). This also demonstrates that the identified mRNA ⁵' end is actually generated by transcription initiation and is not due to mRNA processing.

Transcriptional and translational thrS-lacZ fusions are repressed to a similar degree when ThrS is overexpressed in trans (Table 2). The ratio of thrS readthrough to terminated transcripts increases greatly in a thrS deletion strain (Fig. 6). This corresponds well to the P-galactosidase activity data for a transcriptional thrS-lacZ fusion (pHMS11), the expression of which is stimulated fourfold in the absence of a functional thrS gene. The same stimulation is also observed with a translational thrS-lacZ fusion (data not shown).

We have shown previously that the B . subtilis thr Z gene is usually silent and is expressed only under two conditions: when the cells are starved for threonine and when thrS expression is reduced below its normal level (22). Induction of thrZ is achieved by transcriptional antitermination involving the three terminator structures present in its leader sequence. We also showed that the 18-bp consensus sequence (T-box) preceding the three thrZ terminators as well as the single thrS terminator is crucial for efficient readthrough of the terminator. The very strong conservation of these structural regulatory elements in both genes suggested that the two genes are regulated by the same mechanism. The nonexpression of thrZ under normal growth conditions is most likely due to the fact that the control elements are present as a triplet (22).

The experiments presented here corroborate this hypothesis. In fact, not only do both synthetases regulate their own synthesis, but each of them is capable of repressing the other gene, thrS or thrZ, when overproduced. This strongly indicates that the two synthetase genes are subject to the same control mechanism. We have overexpressed both genes to the same or a very similar degree in order to compare their influence on thrS and thrZ regulation. The overexpression levels indicated are based on the enzyme levels in a wild-type strain (for ThrS) and a thrS mutant strain (for ThrZ). Since the wild-type and thrS deletion strains grow equally well (22) , these values actually represent the overproduction of both synthetases with respect to ThrS and ThrZ levels, allowing identical growth rates.

Our data show that the ThrZ synthetase is a remarkably less efficient effector of regulation. ThrZ overproduction represses a thrZ-lacZ fusion 6-fold, whereas a similar ThrS overexpression represses the same thrZ-lacZ fusion more than 200-fold (compare Tables 2 and 4). Similarly, ThrZ can repress thrS expression but only slightly (2-fold [versus 10-fold for ThrS]; Tables 2 and 4). These values imply that under normal physiological conditions (e.g., in the absence of a multicopy plasmid overexpressing ThrZ), the ThrZ synthetase cannot practically influence thrS expression but that the intracellular concentration of ThrS is extremely critical for ThrZ synthesis (22). The higher efficiency of ThrS than of ThrZ as a repressor is also reflected by the fact that in a thrS deletion strain (depending exclusively on ThrZ synthesis), thrS expression (as monitored by a thrS-lacZ fusion) is stimulated more than fourfold comnpared with expression in a wild-type strain.

ThrS can thus quite effectively downregulate its own as well as thrZ expression when overproduced. On the other hand, ThrS can be effectively overexpressed (10-fold) from a multicopy plasmid containing the entire thrS transcriptional unit (pHMS3; 20 to 30 copies per cell [3]). This indicates a less strict autocontrol than that observed for most ribosomal proteins. However, our data closely resemble those obtained for the E. coli thrS gene, which is autogenously regulated at the translational level. In fact, a pBR322-derived multicopy plasmid (30 to 50 copies per cell) carrying the E. coli thrS transcriptional unit also overexpresses thr \overline{S} 10-fold (27).

We have examined whether ThrS can interact with the nascent thrS mRNA and alter readthrough at the terminator structure. The in vitro transcription experiments showed that addition of purified ThrS with or without threonine and ATP did not affect the ratio of terminated transcripts to runoff transcripts (data not shown). In all cases, 85% of the initiated transcripts were prematurely terminated. Similar results were also obtained in a study on the B. stearothermophilus tyrS gene (30). Thus, these data did not provide evidence of a direct interaction of the ThrS protein with its mRNA. On the other hand, they confirm our suggestion (22) that the alternative secondary structure (the antiterminator) involving the T-box element and a second complementary sequence localized in the promoter-proximal half of the terminator stem (23) is not stable enough by itself to allow efficient readthrough of the terminator ($\Delta G = -6.1$ kcal/mol [versus -16.2 kcal/mol for the terminator]). ThrS cannot increase termination above the 85% caused by the terminator structure alone. Moreover, these in vitro experiments demonstrate the need for an antitermination factor in order to obtain the expression levels observed in vivo.

Further evidence of an antitermination factor comes from in vivo titration experiments. Overexpression of the thrS leader region represses a thrZ-lacZ fusion twofold, while a thrS-lacZ fusion is not repressed under the same conditions. This can be explained by the presence of three terminators in the thrZ leader, compared with one in thrS, which renders thrZ particularly sensitive to titration of an antitermination factor. Recently, it has been shown for the B. subtilis tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase that the specificity of induction following tyrosine starvation probably involves the uncharged cognate tRNA interacting with a loop structure containing a tyrosine codon (12). Since most of the gram-positive aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase genes, including thrS and thrZ, contain the same structural features (similar codon-bearing loop, T-box, and terminator), the cognate tRNA (the $tRNA^{Thr}ACC$ isoacceptor in the case of thrS and thrZ) probably plays an important role in the specificity of antitermination of these genes (12). If the uncharged tRNA has a direct role in antitermination of thrS and/or thrZ transcription, then overexpression of the thrS leader could derepress thrZ by titrating the uncharged tRNAThrACC species and possibly other factors which might be involved in antitermination. So far, the following elements in the regulatory events have been identified: (i) the T-box consensus sequence and the terminator; (ii) the aminoacyltRNA synthetase itself; and (iii) ^a cognate codon triplet in the leader mRNA which could interact with the tRNA anticodon. The aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase and the codon in the mRNA leader, which are related to the cognate tRNA, could thus act to specifically regulate the expression of each aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase gene.

Autogenous control of thrS and thrZ can be achieved by at least two different mechanisms. When overexpressed, the synthetases could compete with other components of the antitermination mechanism by interacting directly (possibly via the uncharged tRNA, as described above) with the mRNA. Second, the synthetases could regulate their expression more indirectly via the pool of uncharged tRNA. Overexpression of the charging enzymes would thus lead to a decrease in the concentration of uncharged tRNA, possibly a direct positive effector in antitermination. We have shown previously that the wild-type, thrS mutant, and thrZ mutant strains have identical growth rates, implying that ThrS and ThrZ are equally efficient in tRNA charging. In this case, the different abilities of ThrS and ThrZ to act as a repressor could be due to differences in recognizing regulatory structures on the mRNA. However, we do not know whether ThrS and ThrZ are equally efficient in the charging of both $tRNA$ ^{Thr} isoacceptors, of which only the $tRNA^{Thr}ACC$ should have a regulatory role by analogy with the model proposed for tyrS (12) .

It is difficult to predict whether different catalytic parameters of ThrS and ThrZ for the two tRNAThr species would be sufficient to explain the different regulatory capacities of ThrS and ThrZ and at the same time have no effect on growth rate. We are currently investigating the mechanism of autocontrol in order to distinguish between ^a direct or indirect (via tRNA charging) regulatory role for the synthetases. Nevertheless, the existence of different regulatory properties for the two proteins (which have only 51.5% identical residues [21]) seems logical in the sense that the product of an auxiliary gene like thrZ, which is synthesized only when there is a need for elevated levels of threonyl-tRNA synthetase activity, should not counteract the purpose of its induction by downregulating too strongly *thrS* or its own expression.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank J. Plumbridge for critical reading of the manuscript and for helpful discussions.

This work was supported by funds from the CNRS (URA 1139), ARC, to M. Grunberg-Manago and M. Springer, MRE (contract 92C0315) to M. Springer and H. Putzer, and Université Paris 7 (contract D.R.E.D) to P. R6gnier. N. Gendron is a fellow of the Fonds FCAR of the Quebec Government.

REFERENCES

- 1. Antoniewski, C., B. Savelli, and P. Stragier. 1990. The spollJ gene, which regulates early developmental steps in Bacillus subtilis, belongs to a class of environmentally responsive genes. J. Bacteriol. 172:86-93.
- 2. Bardowski, J., S. D. Ehrlich, and A. Copin. 1992. Tryptophan biosynthesis genes in Lactococcus lactis subsp. lactis. J. Bacteriol. 174:6563-6570.
- 3. Bernhard, K., H. Schrempf, and W. Goebel. 1978. Bacteriocin and antibiotic resistance plasmids in Bacillus cereus and Bacillus subtilis. J. Bacteriol. 133:897-903.
- 4. Breton, R. 1991. Ph.D. thesis, Université Laval, Quebec, Canada. 5. Butler, J. S., M. Springer, J. Dondon, and M. Grunberg-Manago. 1986. Posttranscriptional autoregulation of Escherichia coli threonyl-tRNA synthetase expression in vivo. J. Bacteriol. 165:198-203.
- 6. Chung, C. T., S. L. Niemela, and R. H. Miller. 1989. One-step preparation of competent Escherichia coli: transformation and storage of bacterial cells in the same solution. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 86:2172-2175.
- 7. Delorme, C., S. D. Ehrlich, and P. Renault. 1992. Histidine biosynthesis genes in Lactococcus lactis subsp. lactis. J. Bacteriol. 174:6571-6579.
- 8. Dessen, P., C. Fondrat, C. Valencien, and C. Mugnier. 1990. BISANCE: ^a French service for access to biomolecular sequence databases. CABIOS 6:355-356.
- 9. Feinberg, A. P., and B. Vogelstein. 1983. A technique for radiolabeling DNA restriction endonuclease fragments to high specific activity. Anal. Biochem. 132:6-13.
- 10. Grandoni, J. A., S. A. Zahler, and J. M. Calvo. 1992. Transcriptional regulation of the ilv-leu operon of Bacillus subtilis. J. Bacteriol. 174:3212-3219.
- 11. Grunberg-Manago, M. 1987. Regulation of the expression of aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases and translation factors, p. 1386- 1409. In F. C. Neidhardt, J. L. Ingraham, K. B. Low, B. Magasanik, M. Schaechter, and H. E. Umbarger (ed.), Escherichia coli and Salmonella typhimurium: cellular and molecular biology. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, D.C.
- 12. Grundy, F. J., and T. M. Henkin. 1993. Transfer RNA as ^a positive regulator of transcription antitermination in B. subtilis. Cell 74: 475-482.
- 13. Hardy, K. G. 1985. B. subtilis cloning methods, p. 1-17. In D. M. Glover (ed.), DNA cloning: ^a practical approach. IRL Press, Oxford.
- 14. Henkin, T. M., B. L. Glass, and F. J. Grundy. 1992. Analysis of the Bacillus subtilis tyrS gene: conservation of a regulatory sequence in multiple tRNA synthetase genes. J. Bacteriol. 174:1299-1306.
- 15. Kunkel, T. A. 1985. Rapid and efficient site-specific mutagenesis without phenotypic selection. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82:488- 492.
- 16. Lehrach, H., D. Diamond, J. M. Wozney, and H. Boedtker. 1977. RNA molecular weight determinations by gel electrophoresis under denaturing conditions: a critical reexamination. Biochemistry 16:4743-4748.
- 17. Mechulam, Y., E. Schmitt, M. Panvert, J.-M. Schmitter, M. Lapadat-Tapolsky, T. Meinnel, P. Dessen, S. Blanquet, and G. Fayat. 1991. Methionyl-tRNA synthetase from Bacillus stearothermophilus: structural and functional identities with Escherichia coli enzyme. Nucleic Acids Res. 19:3673-3681.
- 18. Nakai, S., H. Yoshikawa, and N. Ogasawara. 1993. Progress report on the systematic sequencing of the replication origin of B. subtilis chromosome. Seventh International Conference on Bacillus, Institut Pasteur, Paris.
- 19. Natori, Y., Y. Kano, and F. Imamoto. 1990. Nucleotide sequences and genomic constitution of five tryptophan genes of Lactobacillus

casei. J. Biochem. 107:248-255.

- 20. Ogasawara, N., S. Moriya, P. G. Mazza, and H. Yoshikawa. 1986. Nucleotide sequence and organization of dnaB gene and neighboring genes on the Bacillus subtilis chromosome. Nucleic Acids Res. 14:9989-9999.
- 21. Putzer, H., A. A. Brakhage, and M. Grunberg-Manago. 1990. Independent genes for two threonyl-tRNA synthetases in Bacillus subtilis. J. Bacteriol. 172:4593-4602.
- 22. Putzer, H., N. Gendron, and M. Grunberg-Manago. 1992. Coordinate expression of the two threonyl-tRNA synthetase genes in Bacillus subtilis: control by transcriptional antitermination involving ^a conserved regulatory sequence. EMBO J. 11:3117-3127.
- 23. Putzer, H., M. Grunberg-Manago, and M. Springer. AminoacyltRNA synthetases in bacteria: genes and regulation of expression. In U. L. RajBhandary and D. Söll (ed.), Transfer RNA, in press. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, D.C.
- 24. Sanger, F., S. Nicklen, and A. R. Coulson. 1977. DNA sequencing with chain-terminating inhibitors. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74:5463-5467.
- 25. Seto, D. 1990. An improved method for sequencing double stranded plasmid DNA from minipreps using DMSO and modified template preparation. Nucleic Acids Res. 18:5905-5906.
- 26. Springer, M., M. Graffe, J. S. Butler, and M. Grunberg-Manago.

1986. Genetic definition of the translational operator of the threonine-tRNA ligase gene of Escherichia coli. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 83:4384-4388.

- 27. Springer, M., J. A. Plumbridge, J. S. Butler, M. Graffe, J. Dondon, J. F. Mayaux, G. Fayat, P. Lestienne, S. Blanquet, and M. Grunberg-Manago. 1985. Autogenous control of Escherichia coli threonyl-tRNA synthetase expression in vivo. J. Mol. Biol. 185:93- 104.
- 28. Stragier, P., C. Bonamy, and C. Karmazyn-Campelli. 1988. Processing of a sporulation sigma factor in Bacillus subtilis: how morphological structre could control gene expression. Cell 52:697- 704.
- 29. Uzan, M., R. Favre, and E. Brody. 1988. A nuclease that cuts specifically in the ribosome binding site of some T4 mRNAs. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 85:8895-8899.
- 30. Waye, M. M. Y., and G. Winter. 1986. A transcription terminator in the ⁵' non-coding region of the tyrosyl-tRNA synthetase gene from Bacillus stearothermophilus. Eur. J. Biochem. 158:505-510.
- 31. Yanisch-Perron, C., J. Vieira, and J. Messing. 1985. Improved M13 phage cloning vectors and host strains: nucleotide sequences of the M13mpl8 and pUC19 vectors. Gene 33:103-119.
- 32. Zuker, M. 1989. On finding all suboptimal foldings of an RNA molecule. Science 244:48-52.