Transcription of the *Bacillus subtilis sacX* and *sacY* Genes, Encoding Regulators of Sucrose Metabolism, Is Both Inducible by Sucrose and Controlled by the DegS-DegU Signalling System

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Received 13 April 1992/Accepted 26 July 1992

The adjacent sacX and sacY genes are involved in sucrose induction of the Bacillus subtilis sacB gene by an antitermination mechanism. sacB, encoding the exoenzyme levansucrase, is also subject to regulation by the DegS-DegU signalling system. Using sacXY'-lacZ and sacX'-lacZ fusions, we show that the transcription of the sacX and sacY genes is both inducible by sucrose and regulated by DegU. sacX and sacY appear to constitute an operon, since the deletion of the sacX leader region abolished the expression of a sacXY'-lacZ fusion. The degU-dependent promoter was located by deletion analysis and reverse transcriptase mapping 300 nucleotides upstream from the sacX initiator codon. Sucrose induction of the sacX'-lacZ fusion requires either SacY or the homologous SacT antiterminator, which is involved in sucrose induction of the intracellular sucrase gene (sacPA operon). Sequence analysis of the sacX leader region revealed (20 nucleotides downstream from the transcription start site) a putative binding site for these regulators; however, no structure resembling a rho-independent terminator could be found overlapping this site, unlike the situation for sacPA and sacB. Deletion of a segment of the leader region located 100 nucleotides downstream from this site led to constitutive expression of the sacXY'-lacZ fusions. These results suggest that the mechanism of sucrose induction of sacXY is different from that of sacPA and sacB.

Levansucrase, encoded by sacB, is a Bacillus subtilis extracellular enzyme involved in the metabolism of sucrose. Its synthesis is induced by sucrose through an antitermination mechanism requiring the sacY (formerly sacS) gene product, which prevents early termination at a rho-independent terminator located upstream of sacB (2, 25, 28). Genetic evidence has suggested that SacY activity is modulated by sucrose through a regulatory cascade involving the phosphotransferase system and the sacX gene product (5). The sacXand sacY genes are contiguous and probably constitute an operon; sequence analysis has not revealed any obvious terminator in the intergenic region (38), which moreover appears to be permeable to transcription (13). The deduced amino acid sequence of SacY (38) shows extensive similarity to those of the B. subtilis sacT and Escherichia coli bglG gene products, involved, respectively, in induction of the sacPA operon (encoding a sucrose transporter and an intracellular sucrase) and induction of the bgl operon (6, 16, 23); SacT and BglG, activated by the presence of the corresponding inducer, prevent termination at a terminator(s) located upstream of the structural genes (14, 16). Direct evidence was obtained in vitro that BglG is an RNA binding protein; its target sequence is approximately 30 nucleotides (nt) long and overlaps the transcription terminator (10). Binding of BglG to this sequence, referred as RAT (ribonucleic antiterminator), and formation of the terminator hairpin appear to be mutually exclusive. A similar RAT sequence and its position relative to the respective terminator are conserved upstream of sacPA and sacB (3, 6, 30). Mutational analysis has indicated that SacT and SacY indeed interact with the RAT sequences of sacPA and sacB, respectively (3). Hence, the mechanism of induction appears to be very similar in these three carbohydrate utilization systems.

In addition to sucrose induction, expression of sacB in *B.* subtilis is affected by the degS-degU two-component regulatory system (formerly sacU); this signalling system has a pleiotropic regulatory role (8, 12). DegU, the effector of the pair, is a positive regulator that, directly or indirectly, activates transcription of sacB; degU(Hy) and degU(-)mutations considerably increase and decrease sacB transcription, respectively (1, 25). A target sequence for this DegU-mediated regulation has been localized upstream from the sacB promoter (7). However, another target sequence, located downstream from the promoter, has also been identified and appears to be merged with sequences involved in sucrose control (7). This finding suggested that DegU could additionally control sacB via the control of sacY or its product.

In this report, we show that the transcription of sacX and sacY is subject to double control by the DegS-DegU system and by sucrose and present a preliminary characterization of the mechanism of induction by sucrose.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and prophages. E. coli TGI [supE hsd $\Delta 5$ thi Δ (lacproAB) F' (traD36 proAB⁺ lacI^q lacZ $\Delta M15$)] was used as the host for the construction of plasmids. Isogenic derivatives of B. subtilis GM671 and GM720 were constructed as summarized in Table 1. Insertion of the sacXY $\Delta 4$ allele (a deletion of the 3' end of sacX and all of sacY) into the chromosome by transformation with pSL132 was done as previously described (5). The same method was used to insert the following alleles: degU::neo, an insertion of a neomycin resistance cassette into degU; sacT::neo, a deletion of all of

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Strain	Genotype ^a	Origin or reference ^b	
PY480	SPβc2Δ2::Tn917	20	
GM108	sacA321 Δ (sacB)::nptI trpC2	Laboratory collection	
GM671	$sacA321 \ sacB\Delta 23$	Laboratory collection	
GM699	SPBMS1	This study (Fig. 1b)	
GM719	$sacA321 \ sacB\Delta 23 \ degU::neo$	pIC34 tf GM671	
GM720	$sacA321 \ sacB\Delta 23 \ degU32$	Laboratory collection	
GM755	SPBSA1	This study (Fig. 1c)	
GM788	GM720 with <i>sacXY</i> Δ4	pSL132 (5) tf GM720	
GM820	GM720 with sacY::neo	pSL190 tf GM720	
GM824	GM720 with sacT::neo	pIC97 tf GM720	
GM836	GM720 with <i>sacXY∆4</i> <i>sacT::neo</i>	pSL132 (5) tf GM824	
GMT693	sacA321 sacB∆23 degU32 zü-83::Tn917	Laboratory collection	
CAM90	GM671(pREP43)	pREP43 tf GM671	
CAM91	CAM90 with degU::neo	GM719 DNA tf CAM90	
CAM93	CAM90 with degU32	GMT693 DNA tf	
	zü-83::Tn917	CAM90	

TABLE 1. B. subtilis strains

^a $\Delta(sacB)::nptI$ (formerly sacR::nptI) is the replacement of sacB by the nptI kanamycin resistance gene (2); $sacB\Delta 23$ [formerly $\Delta(sacB-sacR)23$] removes the leader region and the 5' end of the coding sequence of sacB (30).

tf, transformation of (the indicated donor plasmid or chromosomal DNA was used to transform the indicated recipient strain).

sacT, except the first 45 and the last 4 codons; and sacY::neo, a deletion of all of sacY, except the first 58 codons. CAM93, a degU32 mutant harboring pREP43, a replicative plasmid, was constructed by cotransfer of the degU32 mutation with the zii-83::Tn917 insertion (32), conferring erythromycin resistance; cotransfer of degU32 was verified on LB plates supplemented with skim milk (8).

SPBrX0 (19), SPBMS1 (27), and SPBSA1 (3) are derivatives of the $SP\beta c2\Delta 2::Tn917$ prophage (20), differing from SP $\beta c2\Delta 2$::Tn917 by sequence substitutions within the in-

FIG. 1. Structures of the SPBrX0, SPBMS1, and SPBSA1 prophages and utilization of SPBMS1 and SPBSA1 as insertion platforms for *lacZ* fusions. These derivatives of SP $\beta c2\Delta 2$::Tn917 were constructed in several in vivo recombination steps affecting the inserted Tn917 transposon. (a) SPBrX0 was previously described (19) and contains, from left to right, the left end of Tn917 (Tn'), including the 5' end of the erm gene; pBR322 sequences (pBR); the cat gene, a 276-bp fragment from pBR322 (t); and the right end of Tn917 ('Tn). The Tn'-pBR-cat-t-'Tn segment is from a pTV21 $\Delta 2$ (34) derivative carrying a 1.9-kb Bg/II deletion within 'Tn. (b) SPBMS1 was derived from SPBrX0 in two transformation steps (27), which substituted amyF-lacZ-neo sequences for the 5' end of the cat gene in SP β rX0 (*amyF*, the "*amy*-front" segment of the *amyE* gene, and the promoterless *lacZ* gene are from plasmid ptrpBG1 [24]; the *neo* cassette is from pBEST501 [11]; and 'cat is the 3' end of the cat gene with a deletion to the NcoI site). Derivatives of ptrpBG1 or pSL150 (shown linearized at the Scal site) can be inserted into SPBMS1 through a double crossover, as shown. These insertions can be distinguished from insertions into other loci (for example, amyE) by their chloramphenicol-resistant, neomycin-sensitive (Cmr Neos), and amylase-positive phenotype. The black rectangle represents the DNA segment controlling the expression of lacZ. (c) SP β SA1 (3) was derived from SPBc2 $\Delta 2$::Tn917 through substitution of the Tn917-lac transposon present in pTV32 (34) for the wild-type Tn917 transposon. Plasmids such as pAMU36 can be inserted into the prophage by a crossover between the prophage lacZ gene and the truncated lacZ' gene present in pAMU36. Symbols are as defined for panels a and b.

serted Tn917 (Fig. 1). lacZ fusions used in this study were inserted into SPBMS1 or SPBSA1 as shown in Fig. 1 and transduced into various recipient strains as described below. The SPBMS1 prophage (Fig. 1b) can be used as an insertion platform for *lacZ* fusions (initially designed to be inserted into the amyE gene) carried by ptrpBG1 derivatives (24).

Plasmids. Several plasmids carrying transcriptional fusions between various fragments of the sacX-sacY locus and lacZ (fused to the spoVG translational signals) were constructed; they were derived from pSL150 (5) as shown in Fig. 2; all are integrative, except for pREP43. pAMS20 is pAMU36 in which the EcoRI-BamHI fragment upstream of lacZ has been replaced by the EcoRI-SalI fragment of pAMU43, containing part of the sacX upstream region (Fig. 2).

pIC34 contains a neomycin resistance gene (neo) inserted in the degU gene; it was derived from pDH74 (8) by insertion of a Smal fragment from pBEST501, containing neo (11), at the HpaI site in degU. pIC97 and pSL190 are integrative plasmids carrying, respectively, the sacT and sacY genes, a fragment in each of which (BgIII for sacT and AsuII-NruI for

Tn' pBR

SPB'



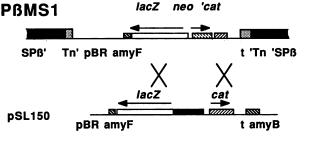
а

b





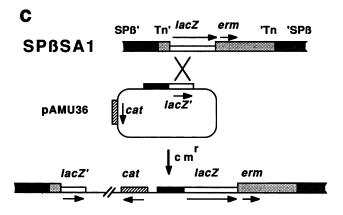
SPBMS1



cat

t'Tn 'SPß





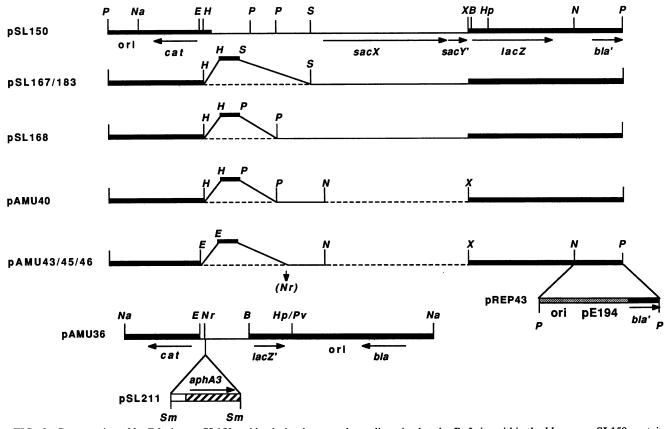


FIG. 2. Construction of *lacZ* fusions. pSL150 and its derivatives are shown linearized at the *Pst*I site within the *bla* gene. pSL150 contains a 3-kb fragment (thin line) from the *B. subtilis* chromosome upstream from a promoterless *lacZ* gene. Regions deleted in pSL150 derivatives are indicated by broken lines. The deletions in pSL167 and pSL168 were obtained by substituting the indicated segment of the pUC19 polylinker (33) for the *Hind*III-*Sal*I and *Hind*III-*Pst*I fragments of pSL150, respectively. pSL183 is identical to pSL167, except that it carries the *sacXp3* mutation. Construction of pAMU40 was made possible by the replacement of the TTG *sacX* initiation codon by an ATG codon, which created an *Nsi*I restriction site (14). pAMU40 was derived from the pSL168 derivative containing this mutation by intramolecular deletion. pAMU43, pAMU45, and pAMU46 are pAMU40 derivatives containing deletions of the *sacX* leader region (see Fig. 5). The 7-bp linker between *cat* and *B. subtilis* sequences is from pBEST502 (11); the junction created an *Nru*I site in the case of pAMU46. pREP43 was derived from pAMU43 by the introduction of the *cop*-6 origin of replication of pE194 carried on a *Pst*I fragment from pHV Δ (35). pAMU36 is shown linearized at its unique *Nar*I site; the *Nar*I-H*pa*I moiety containing *cat* and the fusion was from pAMU46, containing the *aphA3* gene with its promoter but devoid of its transcription terminator, into the *Nru*I site. Only the relevant sites are indicated; *B, E, H, Hp, N, Na, Nr, P, Pv, S, Sm*, and *X* represent *Bam*HI, *Eco*RI, *Hind*III, *HpaI*, *NsiI*, *NarI*, *NruI*, *PstI*, *PvuII*, *SalI*, *SmaI*, and *XbaI* restriction sites, respectively.

sacY) has been replaced by the pBEST501 neo gene in the same orientation (14).

Genetic techniques and media. Techniques for the use of SP β were essentially those previously described (21, 37). SP β lysate was prepared from the relevant lysogenic strains grown in LB medium to the mid-exponential phase and stored at -20° C in 60% glycerol. *B. subtilis* was transduced by mixing 100 µl of an exponentially growing culture in LB medium with 0.2 to 10 µl of SP β lysate; the mixture was incubated for 5 min at 37°C and then plated. *E. coli* and *B. subtilis* were transformed as previously described (1, 2, 5). Transformants and transductants were selected on LB plates containing the appropriate antibiotics: ampicillin, 50 µg/ml; chloramphenicol, 4 µg/ml; kanamycin, 5 µg/ml (*B. subtilis*) or 15 µg/ml (*E. coli*); and neomycin, 10 µg/ml.

Liquid cultures of *B. subtilis* were made with CgCH medium, which is C mineral medium (1) supplemented with glucitol (1 g/liter) and casein hydrolysate (0.1 g/liter). This

medium was supplemented with tryptophan (50 mg/liter) when required.

DNA manipulation. Plasmid DNA from *E. coli* and chromosomal DNA from *B. subtilis* were extracted as previously described (2, 5). DNA sequences were determined by the method of Sanger et al. (22) with a Sequenase kit (U.S. Biochemical Corp.).

β-Galactosidase assays. Liquid cultures and preparation of extracts were done as previously described (1); induction was performed by the addition of sucrose (20 g/liter). β -Galactosidase activity was assayed as described by Miller (17).

Primer extension analysis. RNA was extracted from cells grown in 10 ml of CgCH medium containing chloramphenicol (10 μ g/ml); at an optical density at 600 nm of approximately 1.2, cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4°C and resuspended in 1 ml of CgCH medium. To the suspension were added 1.5 ml of phenol, 60 μ l of 20% sodium dodecyl sulfate, and 2.3 g of glass beads (diameter, 0.10 to 0.11 mm; Braun Sciencetec), and the cells were broken by vortexing.

After centrifugation, the aqueous phase was collected and extracted successively with 1 volume each of phenol-chloroform and chloroform. NaCl was added to 0.2 M, and nucleic acids were precipitated with 2.5 volumes of ethanol for 30 min at -20° C. The pellet was recovered by centrifugation and resuspended in 20 mM EDTA. A final saline precipitation with 2 volumes of sodium acetate (4.5 M, pH 7) removed most of the contaminant DNA.

The promoter was mapped with reverse transcriptase by a method adapted from that of Morrisson and Jaurin (18). Oligonucleotides were synthesized with a Cyclone synthesizer (Biosearch). RNA (45 µg) and primer (10 ng) were mixed in a final volume of 10 µl of annealing buffer (0.3 M NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], 2 mM EDTA). The sample was heated for 5 min at 75°C, cooled slowly to 42°C, and incubated for another 15 min at 42°C. The sample was brought to a final volume of 50 µl in 60 mM NaCl-50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.3)-75 mM KCl-3 mM MgCl₂-10 mM dithiothreitol-30 U of RNasin-0.5 mM each dCTP, dGTP, and dTTP-10 μ Ci of [α -³⁵S]dATP; extension of the annealed primer was performed with 200 U of Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (GIBCO BRL). After incubation for 20 min at 37°C, cold dATP was added to 2 mM, and incubation was continued for another 20 min. The reaction was stopped with 2 µl of 0.25 M EDTA, and RNA was hydrolyzed by the addition of 3.5 μ l of 2 N NaOH and incubation at 65°C. After neutralization, DNA was recovered by precipitation, dried, and resuspended in 6 µl of formamide dye solution. Extension products (2 µl) were analyzed on 6% polyacrylamide sequencing gels.

Nucleotide sequence accession number. The nucleotide sequence reported here will appear in the GenBank nucleotide data bank under accession number M97301.

RESULTS

Organization and expression of the sacX and sacY genes. The regulation of transcription of the sacX and sacY genes was studied with transcriptional fusions to lacZ. To determine whether these genes were organized in an operon, we constructed fusions in which a promoterless lacZ gene was fused to various fragments of the sacX-sacY locus. The fusions were inserted into the SPBMS1 prophage and transduced into strain GM671 and isogenic strains harboring a degU null allele (degU::neo) or a degU hyperactive allele (degU32). β -Galactosidase activity was assayed after cultivation of the resulting strains in the presence or in the absence of sucrose. Transcription of sacY, as assessed with fusion I, was very low in the degU::neo mutant and about 20-fold higher in the degU32 mutant (Fig. 3). Transcription in the wild-type strain was barely higher than that in the degU::neo mutant (data not shown). In the degU32 mutant, transcription of sacY was increased by approximately 10fold by sucrose. Deletion of a PstI-SalI fragment upstream from sacX (fusion II) abolished the expression of lacZ; on the other hand, the expression of lacZ from fusion III, in which the coding sequences of sacX and sacY were deleted, was similar to that from fusion I. This result suggested that sacX and sacY were transcribed from the same promoter region and that no additional promoter or target for regulation was present downstream from the sacX initiator codon.

Thus, the transcription of sacX and sacY is both inducible by sucrose and controlled by DegU. The genes appeared to be transcribed from a promoter that initiated transcription at a very low rate unless activated by DegU. Sequences upstream from the *Sal*I site (itself 122 nt upstream from the putative initiator codon of sacX were required for detectable transcription of sacY (and, as shown below, sacX).

Functional analysis of a degU-dependent promoter region upstream from sacX. The regulatory region upstream from sacX was sequenced (Fig. 4). To localize cis-acting sequences mediating control by DegU, we constructed a set of lacZ fusions, derived from fusion III (Fig. 3), in which progressive deletions were generated from the PstI site toward the Sall site (Fig. 4). The fusions were inserted into SPβMS1 and transduced into strains GM719 (degU::neo) and GM720 (degU32), in which their expression was compared (Table 2). Deletion ΔA , which contains 399 bp of the regulatory region upstream from lacZ, did not affect the transcription of *sacX*, whereas deletion ΔB , which removes an additional 57-bp segment, greatly reduced the β-galactosidase activity measured in the degU32 mutant; sequences mediating degU regulation are presumably present within this 57-bp segment. A further 34-bp deletion (ΔC) abolished transcription in the degU32 mutant. Examination of the DNA sequence upstream from sacX revealed a putative B. subtilis σ^{A} promoter (Fig. 4). Deletion ΔC extends past the -35 box.

To determine whether transcription initiated within this region, we used primer extension analysis. To increase the relevant mRNA copy number per cell, we constructed degU32 and degU::neo mutants harboring the sacX regulatory region on replicative plasmid pREP43, yielding CAM93 and CAM91, respectively. pREP43 carries a high-copynumber origin of replication (cop-6) from pE194 (9) and contains the lacZ reporter gene fused to the sacX regulatory region. As regulation is often altered when cis-regulatory targets are present in multiple copies, lacZ regulation in these strains was analyzed. We observed that stimulation by degU32 was not altered and that the high copy number of the fusion indeed led to an increase in lacZ expression; however, induction was partly lost (Table 2). RNA was extracted from uninduced CAM93 and CAM91, and extension was performed with primer AM2. A transcription start site was identified at an appropriate distance from the putative promoter. In both strains, the corresponding extension product migrated at the same position, but the signal was more intense with RNA extracted from CAM93 (Fig. 5). Omission of the primer from the reaction resulted in no product being formed. A product migrating at the same position was also obtained when extension was performed with CAM93 RNA and another primer (AM5; Fig. 4) (data not shown). In experiments with AM2, an additional major extension product, 44 nt shorter, was reproducibly observed. This product might correspond to an artifact due to mispolymerization resulting from secondary structures of the transcript (Fig. 5).

Targets for degU regulation and sucrose induction of sacXY. Fusion IV was derived from fusion ΔA by deletion of a 120-bp segment just upstream from sacX. Expression of this fusion was stimulated by degU32. However, fusion IV in the degU32 background was similarly expressed in the absence or the presence of sucrose and at a level corresponding to that of induced fusion ΔA (Fig. 3). This constitutive expression shows that a *cis*-acting region having a negative effect on sucrose induction is located in the 120-bp fragment directly upstream from the sacX coding sequence.

The sacX promoter was replaced by the strong constitutive aphA3 promoter to determine whether, as seemed likely, induction by sucrose did not affect transcription initiation. The expression of fusion V, a tripartite fusion among the aphA3 promoter, the sacX leader region, and lacZ, was indeed inducible by sucrose (Fig. 3). However, the

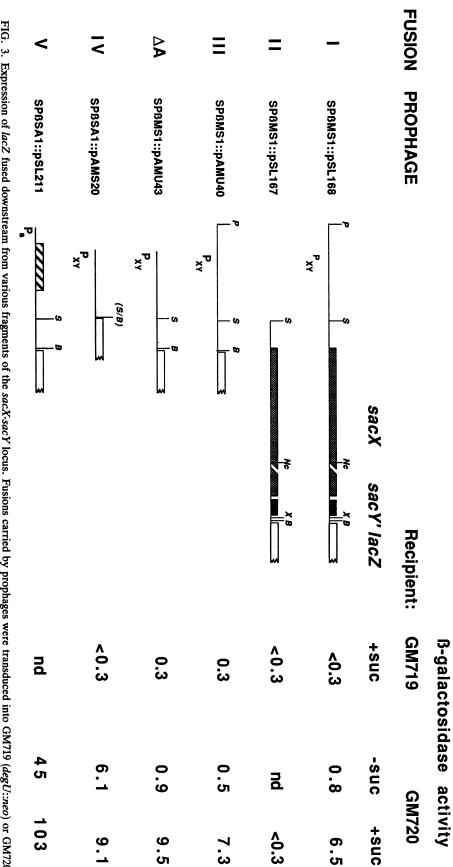


FIG. 3. Expression of *lacZ* fused downstream from various fragments of the *sacX-sacY* locus. Fusions carried by prophages were transduced into GM719 (*degU::neo*) or GM720 (*degU32*). The basal (-suc) and sucrose-induced (+suc) levels of β-galactosidase activity are expressed in Miller units; nd, not determined. Cross-hatched, black, white, and hatched boxes represent *sacX*, *sacY*, *lacZ*, and *aph43* coding regions, respectively. P_{XY} and P_a indicate the *sacX* promoter characterized in this study and the *aph43* promoter, respectively. *B*, *Nc*, *P*, *S*, and *X* indicate *Bam*HI, *Nco1*, *Pst1*, *SaI1*, and *Xba1* restriction sites, respectively.

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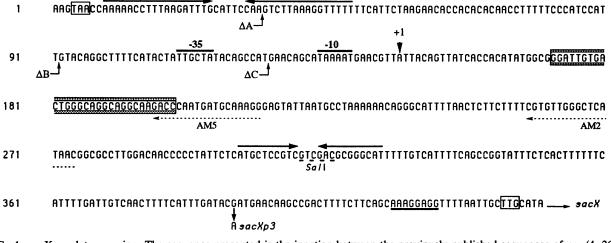


FIG. 4. sacX regulatory region. The sequence presented is the junction between the previously published sequences of epr (4, 26) and sacXY (38). The sacXp3 mutation is indicated. Inverted repeats of the epr terminator and a putative terminator around the SaII site are overlined by arrows. The translational stop codon of epr and the start codon of sacX are boxed. The putative ribosome binding site of sacX is underlined. Deletion endpoints generated by Bal31 exonuclease digestion in plasmids pAMU43, pAMU45, and pAMU46 are indicated (ΔA , ΔB , and ΔC , respectively). The vertical arrow indicates the transcription start site (+1). The corresponding -10 and -35 regions are overlined. The positions of oligonucleotides AM2 and AM5, used in primer extension analysis, are indicated. The dotted box highlights a putative binding site for SacY and SacT antiterminators (see Fig. 6). The sequence downstream from epr, up to the SaII site, has been deposited with GenBank under accession number M22407 by Sloma et al. (26); it is identical to that presented here, except that it contains an additional undetermined nucleotide between positions -3 and -2.

level of induction was lower than that observed with fusion ΔA in SP β MS1. A similar phenotype was observed with CAM93, which carries fusion ΔA on the pREP43 multicopy plasmid (Table 2). This result could have been due to the titration of a regulator involved in sucrose induction. These experiments showed that *degU* regulation and sucrose inducibility act at different (at least partially separable) targets upstream from *sacX*.

Regulators involved in induction by sucrose of sacX. SacY and SacT, regulators of sucrose metabolism, could be involved in induction by sucrose of sacX. To test this possibility, we analyzed the induction of fusion III in mutants affected in sacY, sacT, or both genes as follows. Fusion III was transduced into isogenic derivatives of GM720; deletion of either sacY or sacT did not have a strong effect, whereas deletion of both abolished induction of the fusion (Table 3). Thus, both antiterminators can induce the fusion in the

TABLE 2. Deletion analysis of a degU-dependent promoterregion upstream from sacX

Fusion	Prophage or plasmid	Junction ^a	β-Galactosidase activity ^b in the following genetic background ^c :	
	-		degU::neo	degU32
III	SPBMS1::pAMU40	-220	0.3	7.3
ΔA	SPBMS1::pAMU43	-112	0.3	8.4 (0.4)
$\Delta \mathbf{B}$	SPBMS1::pAMU45	-55	0.4	1.5
ΔC	SPBMS1::pAMU46	-21	<0.3	<0.3
ΔΑ	pREP43	-112	7.0	150.0 (70.0)

^a 5' End of the *sacX* leader region fused to *lacZ*, given in nucleotides relative to the transcription start site determined in this study (Fig. 4). ^b In Miller units; measured in both sets of *degU* mutant strains after

induction by sucrose, except for values in parentheses (uninduced).

^c SPβMS1 derivatives were transduced into GM719 and GM720. Mutants carrying pREP43 (last line) were constructed by introduction of *degU::neo* or *degU32* into CAM90 (yielding CAM91 and CAM93, respectively).

presence of sucrose, but either of them alone appears to be sufficient.

Characterization of the sacXp3 mutation. Several classes of mutations affecting in the sacX-sacY locus have been described and mapped (5, 15). Point mutations rendering SacY sucrose independent have been sequenced (5). Another class of mutations leads to overproduction of levansucrase in the presence of sucrose; these mutations were mapped within the upstream portion of the operon and might affect its regulation (5). We cloned the sacXp3 allele (formerly $sacS^{h3}$) and determined the nucleotide sequence of the segment in which the mutation lay. This mutation corresponds to a point mutation at position +244 (Fig. 4); the G-to-A transition transformed a TACGAT sequence into a TACAAT sequence, closer to the consensus of a σ^{A} promoter -10 box. A putative -35 box (TTGATT) lay 17 bp upstream. To test whether the sacXp3 mutation indeed created a promoter, we constructed pSL183, which is identical to pSL167 (Fig. 2) except that it carries this mutation. The fusions carried by pSL167 and pSL183 were inserted into the chromosome of a $degU^+$ strain (GM108) by the method of Shimotsu and Henner (24). Expression of the pSL183 fusion was high and similar in the absence and in the presence of sucrose (10.5 and 8.6 Miller units, respectively), whereas expression of the pSL167 fusion was undetectable, as shown for fusion II in Fig. 3.

DISCUSSION

The sacX-sacY locus was previously shown to consist of two genes, both involved in induction of sacB by sucrose (5, 38). It is flanked by transcription terminators separating it from the upstream *epr* gene (4, 26) and a downstream open reading frame in the opposite orientation (38). sacX and sacY both appeared to be transcribed from a region upstream from sacX (fusions I, II, and III; Fig. 3); these results and the observations discussed below indicated that sacX and sacY

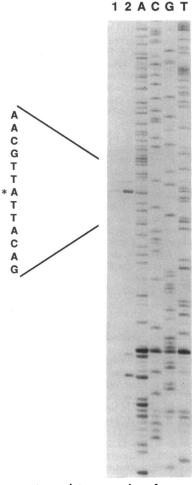


FIG. 5. Reverse transcriptase mapping of a transcription start site upstream from *sacX*. Extension was performed with primer AM2 (Fig. 4) and RNA extracted from CAM91 (lane 1) and CAM93 (lane 2). Extension products were labelled during elongation with $[\alpha^{-35}S]$ dATP and analyzed by electrophoresis along with DNA sequencing reactions performed with the same primer. The asterisk indicates the transcription start site.

constitute an operon whose transcription is subject to double control by the *degS-degU* regulatory system and by sucrose.

Both sucrose and stimulation by DegU are also required for maximal transcription of sacB. It has been suggested that null and hyperactive mutations affecting the DegU effector could mimic the absence and the presence, respectively, of a signal transmitted by the signalling system and that the concomitant presence of this hypothetical signal and external sucrose could represent the conditions under which the synthesis of levan by levansucrase is of value to the cell (29). The degU32(Hy) mutation and the presence of sucrose also cooperatively enhanced sacY transcription (fusion I; Fig. 3). This result suggests that the regulation exerted on this gene, encoding a positive regulator required for full expression of sacB, constitutes an additional lock on levansucrase synthesis under unsuitable conditions. The sacXp3 (formerly $sacS^{h3}$) mutation, leading to overproduction of levansucrase, appears to create a relatively strong constitutive (sucrose-independent) promoter just upstream of sacX, resulting in a high level of transcription of sacY in the $degU^+$ background.

 TABLE 3. Sucrose induction of sacX (visualized with fusion III) in sacY and sacT mutants

Recipient	Relevant genotype ^a	β-Galactosidase activity ^b with (+) or without (-) induction by sucrose	
		_	+
GM720		0.5	4.2
GM788	sacXY∆4	0.6	3.9
GM820	sacY::neo	0.6	3.8
GM824	sacT::neo	0.4	2.4
GM836	sacXY∆4 sacT::neo	0.3	0.2

^a All strains carry the degU32 mutation.

In Miller units.

Stimulation by DegU and induction by sucrose of sacXY appear to act at different targets, as in the case of sacB. cis-acting sequences mediating regulation by DegU are located upstream of a σ^A -like promoter characterized in this work. Deletion analysis showed that full stimulation by DegU of the expression of a sacX'-lacZ fusion required sequences between -112 and -55 (Table 2). This observation is very similar to that of Henner et al. (7) for the activation of the sacB promoter (-117 and -96). A transcription start site was mapped 287 nt upstream of the sacX initiation codon; transcription initiated at the same point in the degU::neo and degU32 mutants and, as expected, the steady-state level of the transcripts was higher in the degU32 mutant (Fig. 5). Hence, it is likely that DegU (directly or indirectly) activates transcription from the sacX promoter.

Induction by sucrose does not affect initiation from the sacX promoter, as shown by the phenotype of fusion IV. A fusion derived from fusion I (Fig. 3) by deletion of the SaII-NcoI fragment yielded similar results (data not shown). This result indicated that sequences negatively involved in sucrose induction of both sacX and sacY were located between +125 and the sacX initiation codon (+288) (Fig. 4). Antiterminators for levansucrase and endocellular sucrase expression, SacY and SacT, respectively (see above), were involved in this control (Table 3). This result strongly suggests that the target for induction is RNA. The sacXp3 mutation renders transcripts initiated from the new promoter do not contain the sequences involved in induction.

SacY, SacT, and BglG form a family of proteins that prevent termination, probably by interacting with homologous RAT sequences overlapping conditional terminators (see above). The sacX upstream region contains a sequence whose strong similarity with RAT sequences (Fig. $\overline{6}$) suggests that it might be involved as a binding site for SacY and SacT in induction of sacXY by sucrose. The RAT sequences are imperfectly palindromic (Fig. 6); a set of mutations in sacB RAT, including pairs of compensatory substitutions, indicated that a stem-loop structure in the mRNA was required for function (3). A similar mutational analysis indicated that the sacX leader RAT-like sequence was positively involved in sucrose induction of a sacX-lacZ fusion (31). However, the location of this sequence was somewhat surprising: (i) no obvious overlapping rho-independent terminator could be identified; and (ii) sequences at a distance of at least 100 nt downstream played a major role in induction of sacXY by sucrose. These sequences, playing a

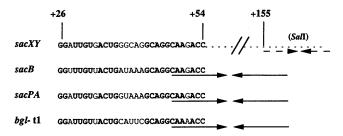


FIG. 6. Putative target for anterminators in the sacX leader region. Shown is homology between a target for SacT and SacY in the sacX leader region and targets (RAT sequences) for SacY, SacT, and BglG in the leader regions of sacB, sacPA, and the *E. coli bgl* operon (t1 terminator), respectively. Nucleotides conserved in the four sequences are in boldface type. Inverted arrows indicate the terminator palindromes in the sacB, sacPA, and bgl leader regions. Broken inverted arrows indicate a putative terminator centered on the SalI site (Fig. 4).

negative role, contain the 3' portion of a palindrome whose structure is reminiscent of a transcription terminator (Fig. 6).

The results presented here do not allow the construction of a detailed model for induction by sucrose of *sacXY*; however, they provide evidence for a rather original mechanism, which might be antitermination, but with unusual features (the antiterminators acting at a great distance from the termination site) or another mechanism, in which SacY and SacT play a positive role by, for example, stabilizing the mRNA. These hypotheses are currently under investigation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank D. J. Henner, M. Itaya, P. Youngman, and D. R. Zeigler for providing strains and plasmids. We also thank Dominique Le Coq for critical reading of the manuscript, Pablo Tortosa, Dominique Le Coq, and Stéphane Aymerich for communicating unpublished observations, and Alex Edelman for help with the English.

Financial support came from the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique and the Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique (government of France).

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