

Cloning, Sequencing, and Regulation of Expression of an Extracellular Esterase Gene from the Plant Pathogen *Streptomyces scabies*

GREG RAYMER,¹ JAN M. A. WILLARD,^{1†} AND JANET L. SCHOTTEL^{1,2*}

Department of Biochemistry¹ and the Plant Molecular Genetics Institute,² University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minnesota 55108

Received 30 May 1990/Accepted 24 September 1990

The gene that encodes the extracellular esterase produced by *Streptomyces scabies* has been cloned and sequenced. The gene was identified by hybridization to a synthetic oligonucleotide that corresponds to the amino-terminal amino acid sequence determined for the secreted form of the esterase. Nucleotide sequence analysis predicted a 345-amino-acid open reading frame, a putative ribosome-binding site, and 39 amino acids at the amino terminus of the sequence that is not found in the secreted protein. This 39-amino-acid sequence has many of the characteristics common to known signal peptides. End mapping the esterase transcript revealed a single 5' end of the mRNA located 51 nucleotides upstream from the start point for translation. Northern (RNA) hybridization analysis of the esterase message by using the cloned esterase gene as a probe indicated that the esterase mRNA is about 1,440 nucleotides in length and was detected only when the cells were grown in the presence of zinc. These results suggest that the level of esterase mRNA detected in the cells is regulated by zinc.

Streptomyces scabies is an aerobic gram-positive soil bacterium that is the causative organism of scab disease on potato, radish, and other underground vegetables (7). For a plant pathogen to infect its host cell, it must first penetrate the plant's outer protective layers (28). The pathogen can do this by entering through a natural opening such as the lenticel, by entering through an existing wound, or by creating an entrance through the protective layer. One possible method of creating an entrance is for the pathogen to secrete one or more enzymes that could degrade the protective barrier. Cutin and suberin are the waxy polyesters that cover the external portions of plants and form the protective barrier against moisture loss and pathogen invasion (26, 27). Both compounds contain an assortment of long-chain fatty acids, fatty alcohols, and dicarboxylic acids. In addition, a major component of suberin is phenolic compounds polymerized via ester and ether linkages (26, 27).

Previous workers have isolated extracellular esterases from many organisms with the ability to depolymerize cutin (9, 28, 32, 46, 50, 53) and have shown that for some, the cutin esterase is necessary for pathogen penetration of the intact cuticle (30, 31, 35). Penetration of the protective suberin layer covering underground tubers by *S. scabies* may also involve the production and secretion of suberin-degrading enzymes. A suberin-specific esterase could be used by *S. scabies* to breach the host's surface integrity and allow penetration.

In earlier studies, we observed production and secretion of an esterase activity in cultures of pathogenic strains of *S. scabies* grown with a suberin-enriched fraction of potato peel as the sole carbon source. Zinc was determined to be the critical component of the suberin-enriched fraction that was necessary for induction of this esterase (38). Zinc is not

required by the esterase for enzymatic activity (38), suggesting that it may instead be necessary for production of the enzyme during transcriptional or posttranscriptional events. To investigate the molecular mechanism of zinc induction of esterase production, the esterase gene from *S. scabies* was cloned and sequenced. The length of the esterase mRNA and the location of its 5' end were determined by Northern (RNA) hybridization and nuclease S1 mapping, using DNA probes made from restriction fragments of the cloned gene. Hybridization studies have indicated that zinc affects the level of esterase mRNA produced by the pathogen and may be a mechanism for modulating transcription of the esterase gene.

(A preliminary account of some of this work has been reported previously [49].)

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and plasmids. *S. scabies* FLI (37) was maintained as a frozen spore suspension in 20% glycerol. pUC118 and pUC119 were used as cloning vehicles and for the generation of single-stranded DNA for sequencing (54). Plasmids were maintained in *Escherichia coli* DH5 α F' (33). M13K07 was used as helper phage for the production of single-stranded DNA for sequencing reactions (54).

Media and growth conditions. *S. scabies* was grown on oatmeal agar (52) at 30°C for spore preparation. Seed cultures were grown at 30°C in tryptic soy broth (Difco) and used to inoculate a modified minimal medium containing 1% glucose, 4 mM asparagine, 3 mM K₂HPO₄, 0.8 mM MgSO₄, 2 μ M FeSO₄, and 2 μ M ZnSO₄ when needed (18). *E. coli* strains were grown on antibiotic medium 2 agar plates (Difco) and in LB (40) liquid cultures at 37°C.

DNA preparations. *S. scabies* genomic DNA was isolated by the lysozyme-sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) method of Hopwood et al. (20), with the following changes. The cell pellet was resuspended in 40 ml of 10% glycerol and centrifuged for 30 min at 12,000 \times g. This pellet was resuspended in 50 mM Tris (pH 8.0)-25% sucrose to a final volume of 6

* Corresponding author.

† Present address: G. I. Research Unit, St. Mary's Hospital, Rochester, MN 55905.

ml. Lysozyme was added to a final concentration of 1 mg/ml, and the mixture was incubated at 30°C. Then 1.34 ml of a freshly prepared STEP solution (0.4 M EDTA, 50 mM Tris [pH 7.5], 0.5% SDS, 1 mg of proteinase K per ml) was added, and the mixture was incubated at 50°C for 60 min with occasional gentle mixing. Phenol (6 ml) was added and mixed by inversion for 5 to 10 min. Chloroform (6 ml) was then added and also mixed by inversion for 5 min. This mixture was centrifuged at $11,000 \times g$ for 2 min, and the aqueous layer was transferred to a new tube. The aqueous phase was extracted with a 1:1 phenol-chloroform mixture, followed by a final extraction with chloroform. Sodium acetate (pH 7) was added to a final concentration of 0.3 M, and the DNA was precipitated in 2 volumes of ethanol. The precipitated nucleic acid was spooled out of suspension on a glass rod, transferred to a 5-ml solution of 50 mM Tris (pH 7.5)–1 mM EDTA–200 μ g of boiled RNase A per ml, and gently mixed at 4°C. The DNA was extracted with an equal volume of phenol-chloroform (1:1), extracted with chloroform, and ethanol precipitated. The precipitated DNA was spooled out of suspension on a glass rod and gently dissolved in 50 mM Tris (pH 7.5)–1 mM EDTA.

E. coli plasmid DNA and lambda DNA were purified essentially as described previously (36), and single-stranded DNA was purified as reported elsewhere (54). Individual DNA restriction fragments were purified by separation on agarose gels, followed by electroelution of the desired band in an IBI model UEA electroelution apparatus according to the manufacturer's directions.

Preparation and screening of the genomic DNA library. *S. scabies* genomic DNA was partially digested with *Sau3A1* such that the average fragment length was about 10 kb, as estimated by electrophoresis on a 0.7% agarose gel. This partially digested DNA was ligated to λ EMBL 3 arms and packaged by using Packagene extract (Promega). The number of PFU per milliliter was determined by infection of *E. coli* LE392 (42) and plating as described previously (36).

Duplicate screenings of each plate (2,500 plaques per plate; total of 10^4 plaques) were prepared by transfer to nitrocellulose paper as described previously (36). Hybridization with a labeled 33-mer oligonucleotide was in $6\times$ SSC (SSC is 0.15 M NaCl plus 0.015 M sodium citrate)– $2\times$ Denhardt solution (8)–25 mM sodium dihydrogen phosphate–0.1% sodium pyrophosphate–30% formamide–0.1% SDS–100 μ g of boiled calf thymus DNA per ml for 15 h at 30°C. The filters were washed in $2\times$ SSC–0.1% SDS once for 5 min at room temperature and then twice for 30 min at 50°C. The final wash was in $0.2\times$ SSC–0.1% SDS for 30 min at room temperature.

Transformations. Competent cells of *E. coli* DH5 α F' (33) were prepared as previously reported (17; protocol 8) and used for all transformation procedures.

DNA sequencing. Both strands of the DNA were sequenced by the dideoxy-chain termination method (48), using a Sequenase kit purchased from United States Biochemical. In all cases, the primer used was the 17-mer (no. 1211; purchased from New England BioLabs). The only exception was for one portion of the sequence in which a synthetic oligonucleotide (33-mer) was used as a primer for a double-stranded sequencing reaction (instructions supplied by United States Biochemical). For all templates, both dG and dI reactions were used.

RNA isolation. RNA was isolated by the hot phenol method, using cells that had been filtered over ice and broken by vortexing with 4-mm glass beads (20). The isolated nucleic acid was incubated with 2.3 U of DNase per ml

in 50 mM Tris (pH 7.8)–50 mM MgCl₂ at room temperature for 30 min. RNA concentration was determined by measuring A_{260} .

Northern analysis. The RNA samples were denatured in 50% formamide–6% formaldehyde–10 mM morpholinopropanesulfonic acid (MOPS; pH 7)–2.5 mM sodium acetate–0.25 mM EDTA at 65°C for 15 min and electrophoresed in 1% agarose gels containing 6% formaldehyde (36). RNA was capillary blotted to a Zeta Probe nylon membrane (Bio-Rad) in 10 mM NaOH and baked at 80°C for 1 h. Prehybridization and hybridization were carried out in 1% SDS–1 M NaCl–10% dextran sulfate at 50°C. The probe used for hybridization was a 330-bp *BglI* fragment that is completely contained within the open reading frame of the esterase gene. This fragment was labeled by the random-priming method (13). The filter was washed in $2\times$ SSC–1% SDS at 55°C and in $0.1\times$ SSC–1% SDS at 40°C.

Nuclease S1 5'-end mapping. The 5' end of the esterase mRNA was mapped by nuclease S1 protection. The DNA fragment used as a probe was a 1,100-bp *SmaI-EcoRI* fragment corresponding to the 5' end of the esterase gene (see Fig. 2). The fragment was 5' end labeled at the *EcoRI* site with polynucleotide kinase and [γ -³²P]ATP (36) after treatment with calf intestine alkaline phosphatase, according to the manufacturers' recommendations. The hybridization mixture containing probe and 50 μ g of total *S. scabies* RNA was heated to 85°C and cooled slowly over 1 h. The hybrids were treated with 150 U of nuclease S1 for 30 min at 25°C. The reaction products were analyzed on a 6% polyacrylamide–8 M urea gel next to a dideoxy DNA sequencing ladder of M13mp18 (57).

DNA and protein sequence analysis. All sequence analysis was carried out through the Molecular Biology Computing Center (College of Biological Sciences, University of Minnesota, St. Paul), using the IntelliGenetics suite of programs (IntelliGenetics, Inc., Mountain View, Calif.).

Chemicals and enzymes. [γ -³²P]ATP (5,000 mCi/mmol), [α -³²P]dCTP (300 mCi/mmol), and [α -³⁵S]dATP (650 mCi/mmol) were obtained from Amersham. DNA polymerase I (Klenow fragment) was obtained from United States Biochemical. RNasin was obtained from Promega, RNase and DNase were purchased from Worthington, nitrocellulose filters were obtained from Schleicher & Schuell, and T4 polynucleotide kinase and mung bean nuclease were purchased from New England BioLabs. RNA size markers were synthesized *in vitro* from the Riboprobe Gemini Positive Control Template (Promega). Random primers and all other enzymes were obtained from Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals and used as specified by the manufacturer. Other chemicals were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co.

Nucleotide sequence accession number. The DNA sequence reported here has been submitted to GenBank and assigned accession number M57297.

RESULTS

Cloning of the *S. scabies* esterase gene. The genomic library of *S. scabies* DNA produced in phage lambda was probed with a 33-mer mixed synthetic oligonucleotide. The choice of this particular oligonucleotide was based on the DNA sequence predicted from the amino-terminal amino acid sequence of the secreted form of the esterase, as determined by sequential Edman degradation (56). The first 30 amino acids were determined to be:

1 10 20 30
APADPVPTVFFGDSYTNANFGIAPVTNQDSE

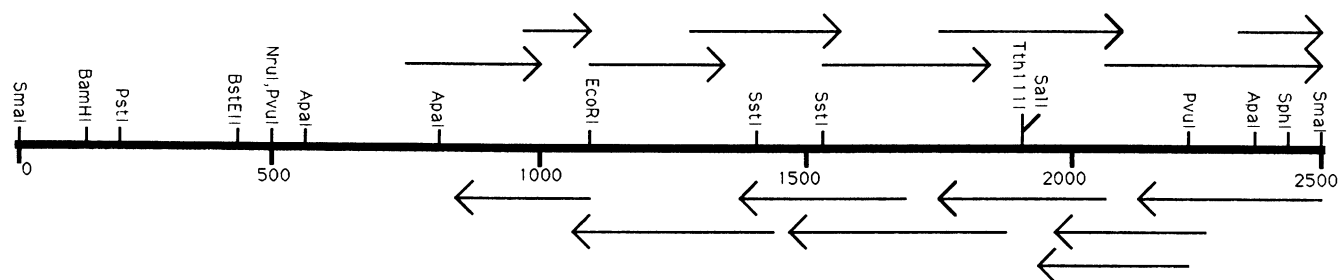


FIG. 1. Restriction endonuclease map of the esterase gene and sequencing strategy. The positions and lengths of all nucleotide sequences determined for the 2.5-kb *SmaI* esterase gene fragment are indicated by the arrows and represent overlapping segments on both DNA strands. The locations of certain endonuclease cleavage sites within this fragment are shown.

The DNA sequence selected for the mixed synthetic oligonucleotide corresponds to amino acid residues 18 through 28. The sequence of the 33-mer mixed oligonucleotide used is 5'-AACTTCGG(C+G)ATCGC(C+G)CC(C+G)GT(C+G)AC(C+G)AACCAGGAC-3'. The rationale for the selection of the mixed synthetic oligonucleotide synthesized was based on the high G+C content of streptomycete DNA. In every position of degeneracy where there was a choice between a T or C residue, the C was chosen. At every position where there was a choice among all four residues, a mixture of G and C was chosen. The 33-nucleotide mixed probe was radioactively labeled with [γ - 32 P]ATP and T4 polynucleotide kinase (36).

The DNA from a positively hybridizing plaque was purified and cleaved with the restriction enzyme *SalI*. The length of the *S. scabies* DNA insert was approximately 10 kb. To analyze the insert further, the lambda genomic clone was cleaved with several different restriction enzymes and probed with the 33-mer mixed synthetic oligonucleotide. The *SmaI* digest revealed a 2.5-kb fragment that hybridized to the probe (data not shown). This *SmaI* fragment was purified and subcloned in both orientations into the *SmaI* site of pUC119 (54). Single and double digestion of these plasmids with various restriction enzymes resulted in the construction of a restriction map of the 2.5-kb fragment (Fig. 1).

Sequence analysis of the esterase gene. Using the restriction map developed for the 2.5-kb cloned fragment, it was possible to construct a series of plasmids for which various regions had been deleted. Deletants were made by removal of specific restriction fragments or by the action of exonuclease III or *Bal* 31 nuclease. The overlapping sequences on both strands that were chosen for DNA sequencing are illustrated in Fig. 1. The DNA and predicted amino acid sequences of the open reading frame encoding the esterase are shown in Fig. 2. This open reading frame encodes 345 amino acids. Amino acids 40 to 69 correspond exactly with the amino-terminal amino acid sequence of the purified extracellular esterase as determined by Edman degradation. Also, the DNA sequence of nucleotides 483 to 515 corresponds to the sequence chosen for the mixed synthetic oligonucleotide that was used as the probe for cloning the esterase gene. These sequence matches indicate that the gene which was cloned actually encodes the *S. scabies* extracellular esterase. The coding sequence of the esterase gene is 69% G+C in the first position of the codons, only 46% in the second, and 92% in the third. The entire coding sequence has an overall G+C content of 69%, compared with about 73% G+C for the entire genome of most *Streptomyces* species (3).

The DNA sequence predicts the presence of two in-frame

AUG codons, either of which could be recognized for initiation of translation. An indication that one or both of these codons is the actual start codon is the presence of a sequence, centered about 11 nucleotides 5' to the first methionine codon, that is complementary to the 3' end of 16S rRNA of *Streptomyces lividans* (2). This sequence (5'-GAAAGG-3') could serve as the ribosome-binding site. Extending from the first AUG start codon to the N-terminal alanine of the extracellular form of the esterase, the DNA sequence predicts the synthesis of 39 additional amino acids. This region of the amino acid sequence may comprise a signal sequence that is removed from the esterase during the process of secretion.

The predicted amino acid composition of the esterase open reading frame from amino acids 40 to 345 (Fig. 2) was compared with the amino acid composition experimentally determined for the purified extracellular form of the esterase. The representations of the amino acids were similar when we compared the predicted composition with the determined composition (data not shown), once again indicating that the cloned gene encodes the extracellular esterase that was purified from *S. scabies* FL1 (38).

Identification of the 5' terminus of the esterase message. End mapping experiments were carried out with nuclease S1 to determine the location of the transcriptional start site of the esterase mRNA. An 1,100-bp *SmaI-EcoRI* fragment from the cloned esterase gene was 5' end labeled at the *EcoRI* site and used as the probe. This 1,100-bp fragment extends from the *SmaI* site at one end of the subcloned esterase gene fragment to the *EcoRI* site within the coding sequence of the esterase gene (Fig. 1). One major fragment was protected from S1 digestion by hybridization with the probe (Fig. 3). This fragment was estimated to be 82 nucleotides in length by comparison with an M13mp18 sequencing ladder. This corresponds to a transcriptional start site at the G residue at position 264 of the esterase sequence, which is 51 nucleotides upstream from the first possible translational start site at position 315. This proposed transcriptional start site is indicated in Fig. 2.

Zinc regulation. Production of the extracellular esterase by *S. scabies* is dependent on the presence of zinc in the growth medium (38). To determine whether zinc regulates enzyme production by affecting the level of esterase mRNA, total RNA was extracted from cells grown in the presence and absence of 2 μ M zinc. Esterase-specific mRNA was detected by Northern hybridization with a 330-bp *BglII* fragment that is contained completely within the open reading frame of the esterase gene. There was very little esterase mRNA in the cells grown without zinc compared with the RNA extracted from the cells grown in the presence of zinc (Fig. 4). The

10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
GAGCGCCGCT	GCTCTGTAGC	GCAGGCCGCG	CGCATTCCGG	ACGCGCTCCG	CCCGCTGCGCA	CATGCCCAAG	CCGCCCGGCC	CCCGTGGCGG	TCGGGCAGCC
110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200
TCCTCCCTTT	TCGGTCTGTG	ATCACATCGG	TACTCATCGG	CCACACCTCC	CCAGCACCCC	TCCTGAACAG	GTGAGATGGA	CACACGTGAG	GGGTTGGCCA
210	220	230	240	250	260	270	280	290	300
GGAACACCCG	GTTTGATCAC	CTCCATTGGA	TTATCACGGT	CCGTATGTGA	CTGAATGCAG	AGCGTTCCAT	CTTGCTCGCG	TCCTCCTCGT	GAGCCTCGGT
310	320	330	340	350	360	370	380	390	400
<u>GAAAGGCAC</u>	AGCC ATG MET	TCT Ser	TCG Ser	GCC Ala	ATG MET	CGT Arg	AAG Lys	ACG Thr	ACG Thr
410	420	430	440	450	460	470	480	490	500
CGT Gly	CCG Pro	CGC Ala	CGG Ala	CGA Gly	AGC Ser	GCG Ala	GCC Gly	GCG Ala	GCG Ala
510	520	530	540	550	560	570	580	590	600
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
610	620	630	640	650	660	670	680	690	700
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
710	720	730	740	750	760	770	780	790	800
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
810	820	830	840	850	860	870	880	890	900
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
910	920	930	940	950	960	970	980	990	1000
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
1010	1020	1030	1040	1050	1060	1070	1080	1090	1100
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
1110	1120	1130	1140	1150	1160	1170	1180	1190	1200
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
1210	1220	1230	1240	1250	1260	1270	1280	1290	1300
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
1310	1320	1330	1340	1350	1360	1370	1380	1390	1400
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
1410	1420	1430	1440	1450	1460	1470	1480	1490	1500
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
1510	1520	1530	1540	1550	1560	1570	1580	1590	1600
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
1610	1620	1630	1640	1650	1660	1670	1680	1690	1700
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala
1710	1720	1730	1740	1750	1760	1770	1780	1790	1800
CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala	CGC Ala

FIG. 2. Nucleotide sequence of the esterase gene, predicted amino acid sequence of the open reading frame, and sequences of 5' and 3' untranslated regions. Sequences were determined from overlapping segments of the DNA and confirmed by sequencing both strands of the DNA as outlined in Fig. 1. The proposed start point for transcription of the esterase mRNA, determined by nuclease S1 mapping (Fig. 3), is indicated by the asterisk above the G residue at position 264. The two boxed Met residues are two potential start sites for translation of the esterase mRNA. The underlined sequence GAAAGG at positions 301 to 306 is the proposed Shine-Dalgarno sequence for translation initiation. The amino acids underlined from positions 432 to 521 correspond to those determined by Edman degradation sequencing of the purified extracellular esterase protein, and those underlined with the dotted line (483 to 515) correspond to the sequence of the mixed synthetic oligonucleotide used as the probe for cloning the esterase gene. The arrow indicates the proposed site for cleavage between the signal sequence and the secreted form of the esterase.

esterase mRNA was estimated to be about 1,440 nucleotides in length, which is sufficient to encode the 36-kDa protein. Two additional bands that were detected in the hybridization most likely arose from nonspecific hybridization of the *Bgl*I fragment with the 16S and 23S rRNAs. These results suggest that zinc is involved in regulating the level of esterase gene transcription or possibly affects the stability of the esterase message.

DISCUSSION

The extracellular esterase produced by *S. scabies* FL1 appears to be different from other known esterases. The nucleotide sequence of the esterase gene was compared with

the sequences of other known genes. In addition, the deduced amino acid sequence was compared with sequences of other available proteins. For either the nucleotide sequence or the amino acid sequence, no significant similarity was found to the *S. scabies* esterase. There was not even significant similarity between the *S. scabies* FL1 esterase and the cutinases reported by Ettinger and co-workers (11). This may not be surprising since there was only 47% homology found when the fungal cutinases from *Fusarium solani* f. sp. *pisi* and *Colletotrichum* species were compared with each other (11). The results of these comparisons suggest that the *S. scabies* esterase is different from other proteins that have been analyzed.

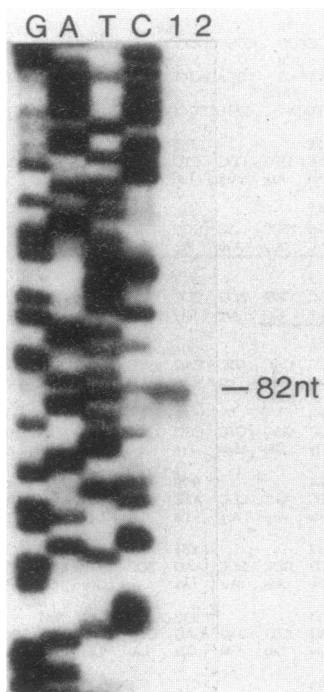


FIG. 3. Nuclease S1 mapping of the 5' end of the esterase mRNA. The 5'-end-labeled probe was incubated either with total cellular RNA isolated from *S. scabies* FLI grown in minimal medium with added zinc (lane 1) or without added RNA (lane 2). The resulting hybrids were treated with nuclease S1, and the products were analyzed by electrophoresis in a 6% polyacrylamide-8 M urea gel. The length of the protected fragment (lane 1) is indicated and was determined by comparison with a sequencing ladder of M13mp18. The four separate sequencing reactions are labeled G, A, T, and C. nt, Nucleotides.

One similarity of the esterase amino acid sequence to sequences of other secreted proteins lies in the putative signal sequence. This sequence has many of the characteristics common to the signal sequences of proteins processed by the signal peptidase I type of pathway (55). The esterase signal sequence has a positively charged n region and a long central hydrophobic h region. It also has one of the most common primary sequences at the processing site, with alanine at both the -3 and -1 positions. One of the striking differences between the *S. scabies* esterase signal peptide sequence and those identified for secreted proteins from organisms other than the streptomycetes (14) is its 39-amino-acid length. These features of the signal peptide have been recognized for other secreted streptomycete proteins (5, 10, 22, 29, 34, 43, 47), even though the components of this sequence essential for efficient secretion have not been identified.

The nucleotide sequence 5' to the proposed transcriptional start site for the esterase gene has been analyzed for an RNA polymerase-binding site by comparison with other known streptomycete gene promoters. There does not appear to be a consensus *E. coli*-like promoter sequence as outlined by Bibb (1) and Hopwood et al. (19). Supportive of this conclusion is the finding that the esterase gene is not expressed in *E. coli* unless a promoter, such as the *lac* promoter, is placed 5' to the esterase-coding sequence (unpublished results).

Sequence comparison of the esterase 5' region with other streptomycete gene promoters that are not *E. coli*-like has

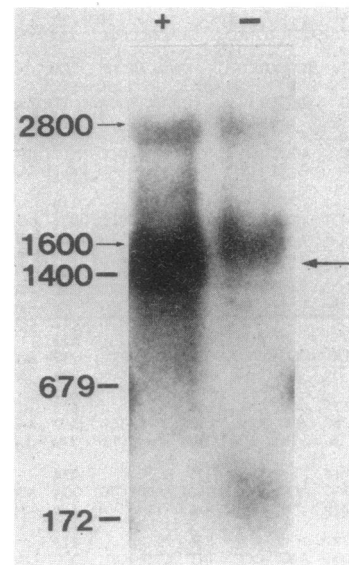


FIG. 4. Analysis of esterase-specific mRNA by Northern hybridization. Total RNA (30 μ g) extracted from cells grown with (+) or without (-) 2 μ M zinc was probed with a DNA fragment contained within the coding sequence of the esterase gene. Numbers on the left indicate the migration (in nucleotides) of labeled RNA transcripts that were synthesized *in vitro* and used as molecular length markers; arrows on the left indicate the migration of 23S and 16S rRNAs; the arrow on the right indicates the migration of the esterase-specific mRNA extracted from the cells grown in the presence of zinc.

revealed some similarities in both the -10 and -40 regions. A sequence centered 10 nucleotides from the esterase gene transcriptional start site (CTGAATG) shares homology with a *dagA* P3 (5) sequence centered at -12 (GAATG), with a *gal* P2 (15) sequence centered at -10 (CTGAA), and with a *tsr* P2 (23) sequence centered at -10 (GAAT). There is also similarity between the esterase -10 sequence and an *actIII* P1 (16) sequence (CTGAgcG); however, this sequence is centered at -4 relative to the transcriptional start site and may not be relevant to RNA polymerase binding. Similarities have also been found between the esterase gene sequence centered at -41 (CTCCA) and other streptomycete gene sequences. The β -galactosidase gene P1 promoter (10) has a similar sequence positioned at -46 (CTCCg), as do the promoters pARC1 (CTCCc) at -39 (21), *actIII* P1 (CTCCc) at -41 (16), *dagA* P3 (CTCCt) at -42 (5), *aml* P1 (gTCCA) at -44 (34), and *gal* P2 (CTCCA) at -51 (15).

Homology between the *dagA* P3 promoter sequence and the esterase gene sequence is of particular interest. *dagA* P3 is apparently recognized by a form of *Streptomyces coelicolor* RNA polymerase designated $E\sigma^{49}$, whose activity predominates in stationary-phase cultures (6). The esterase activity in *S. scabies* is not detected until the culture has reached the late exponential to early stationary phases of growth (unpublished results), suggesting the possibility that transcription depends on a form of RNA polymerase that is active during the later stages of growth. In the streptomycetes, heterogeneity in sigma factors associated with RNA polymerase that may mediate specific regulation of gene expression at the level of transcription has been recognized (4). These homologies between the 5' esterase gene sequence and those of other streptomycete gene promoters

may indicate similarities in the form of RNA polymerase utilized for transcription. Further studies are needed to precisely identify the RNA polymerase-binding site for the esterase gene and to characterize the species of RNA polymerase responsible for transcription of this gene.

Another unique feature of the *S. scabies* esterase is the effect of zinc on esterase mRNA levels. The mechanism of zinc action is not yet understood and could involve either the stability of the esterase mRNA or esterase gene transcription. In procaryotic systems, metals have been shown to play a role in gene expression. The synthesis of iron uptake systems is responsive to iron concentrations (44). The repressor of the *mer* operon acts as both a negative and a positive regulator of transcription of the *mer* genes, depending on the presence of mercuric ions. In the absence of mercuric ion as an inducer, the repressor binds to the DNA and inhibits transcription. When inorganic mercury is present, it is thought to bind to the repressor and the Hg-repressor complex stimulates transcription (45). Studies in eucaryotic systems demonstrating the effects of metals in enhancing transcription of particular genes have been reported. For example, cadmium induces transcription from the metallothionein promoter (25, 51). Zinc has also been recognized as a metal which modulates transcriptional activation of certain genes (12, 41). For the cases in which zinc is involved, a transcriptional activation factor is a zinc-binding protein. The TFIIIA protein of *Xenopus laevis*, which is an RNA polymerase III transcription factor, contains nine zinc finger domains (39). The mammalian SP1 transcription factor contains three of these repeated structures (24). Zinc is necessary for the regulatory protein to bind to the DNA and stimulate transcription.

These examples suggest a likely model for regulation of *S. scabies* esterase gene expression in which a transcription activation factor required for esterase gene expression is a zinc finger protein. Zinc may be required for efficient binding of the factor to the DNA in order to enhance transcription. Studies are currently focused on identifying the nucleotide sequence of the esterase gene that is involved in zinc-regulated expression and on isolation of the putative regulatory protein required for esterase gene transcription.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Neil Anderson, Jim Fuchs, and Anath Das for valuable discussions and Barbara Meyer for providing the in vitro-synthesized RNA markers.

This work was supported by grant DMB-8804638 from the National Science Foundation and by a grant from the Herman Frasch Foundation.

LITERATURE CITED

- Bibb, M. J. 1986. Gene expression in *Streptomyces*—nucleotide sequences involved in the initiation of transcription and translation, p. 25–34. In G. Szabo, S. Biro, and M. Goodfellow (ed.), Biological, biochemical and biomedical aspects of actinomycetes. Akademiai Kiado, Budapest.
- Bibb, M. J., and S. N. Cohen. 1982. Gene expression in *Streptomyces*: construction and application of promoter-probe plasmid vectors in *Streptomyces lividans*. Mol. Gen. Genet. 187:265–277.
- Bibb, M. J., P. R. Findlay, and M. W. Johnson. 1984. The relationship between base composition and codon usage in bacterial genes and its use for the simple and reliable identification of protein-coding sequences. Gene 30:157–166.
- Buttner, M. J. 1989. RNA polymerase heterogeneity in *Streptomyces coelicolor* A3(2). Mol. Microbiol. 3:1653–1659.
- Buttner, M. J., I. M. Fearnley, and M. J. Bibb. 1987. The agarase gene (*dagA*) of *Streptomyces coelicolor* A3(2): nucleotide sequence and transcriptional analysis. Mol. Gen. Genet. 209:101–109.
- Buttner, M. J., A. M. Smith, and M. J. Bibb. 1988. At least three different RNA polymerase holoenzymes direct transcription of the agarase gene (*dagA*) of *Streptomyces coelicolor* A3(2). Cell 52:599–607.
- Davis, J. R., and J. Garner. 1978. Common scab of potato. Current Information Series no. 386. University of Idaho Agriculture Experiment Station, Moscow.
- Denhardt, D. T. 1966. A membrane-filter technique for the detection of complementary DNA. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 23:641–646.
- Dickman, M. B., S. S. Patil, and P. E. Kolattukudy. 1982. Purification, characterization, and role in infection of an extracellular cutinolytic enzyme from *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* Penz. on *Carica papaya* L. Physiol. Plant Pathol. 20:333–347.
- Eckhardt, T., J. Strickler, L. Gorniak, W. V. Burnett, and L. R. Fare. 1987. Characterization of the promoter, signal sequence, and amino terminus of a secreted beta-galactosidase from "*Streptomyces lividans*." J. Bacteriol. 169:4249–4256.
- Ettinger, W. F., S. K. Thukral, and P. E. Kolattukudy. 1987. Structure of cutinase gene, cDNA, and the derived amino acid sequence from phytopathogenic fungi. Biochemistry 26:7883–7892.
- Evans, R. M., and S. M. Hollenberg. 1988. Zinc fingers: guilt by association. Cell 52:1–3.
- Feinberg, A. P., and B. Vogelstein. 1980. A technique for radiolabelling DNA restriction fragments to high specific activity. Anal. Biochem. 132:6–13.
- Ferenci, T., and T. J. Silhavy. 1987. Sequence information required for protein translocation from the cytoplasm. J. Bacteriol. 169:5339–5342.
- Fornwald, J. A., F. J. Schmidt, C. W. Adams, M. Rosenberg, and M. E. Brawner. 1987. Two promoters, one inducible and one constitutive, control transcription of the *Streptomyces lividans* galactose operon. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 84:2130–2134.
- Hallam, S. E., F. Malpartida, and D. A. Hopwood. 1988. Nucleotide sequence, transcription and deduced function of a gene involved in polyketide antibiotic synthesis in *Streptomyces coelicolor*. Gene 74:305–320.
- Hanahan, D. 1985. Techniques for transformation of *E. coli*, p. 109–135. In D. Glover (ed.), DNA cloning: a practical approach, vol. 1, p. 109–135. IRL Press, Oxford.
- Hopwood, D. A. 1967. Genetic analysis and genome structure in *Streptomyces coelicolor*. Bacteriol. Rev. 31:373–403.
- Hopwood, D. A., M. J. Bibb, K. F. Chater, G. R. Janssen, F. Malpartida, and C. P. Smith. 1986. Regulation of gene expression in antibiotic-producing *Streptomyces*, p. 251–276. In I. R. Booth and C. R. Higgins (ed.), Regulation of gene expression. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Hopwood, D. A., M. J. Bibb, K. F. Chater, T. Kieser, C. J. Bruton, H. M. Kieser, D. J. Lydiate, C. P. Smith, J. M. Ward, and H. Schrempf. 1985. Genetic manipulation of *Streptomyces*: a laboratory manual. The John Innes Foundation, Norwich, United Kingdom.
- Horinouchi, S., M. Mishiyama, A. Nakamura, and T. Beppu. 1987. Construction and characterization of multicopy expression-vectors in *Streptomyces* spp. Mol. Gen. Genet. 210:468–475.
- Hoshiko, S., O. Makabe, C. Nojiri, K. Katsumata, E. Satoh, and K. Nagaoka. 1987. Molecular cloning and characterization of the *Streptomyces hygroscopicus* alpha-amylase gene. J. Bacteriol. 169:1029–1036.
- Janssen, G. R., and M. J. Bibb. 1990. Tandem promoters, *tsrp1* and *tsrp2*, direct transcription of the thiostrepton resistance gene (*tsr*) of *Streptomyces azureus*: transcriptional initiation from *tsrp2* occurs after deletion of the -35 region. Mol. Gen. Genet. 221:339–346.
- Kadonaga, J. T., K. R. Carner, F. R. Masiarz, and R. Tjian. 1987. Isolation of cDNA encoding transcription factor Sp1 and

- functional analysis of the DNA binding domain. *Cell* **51**:1079–1090.
25. Karin, M., A. Haslinger, A. Heguy, T. Dietin, and T. Cooke. 1987. Metal-responsive elements act as positive modulators of human metallothionein-II_A enhancer activity. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **7**:606–613.
 26. Kolattukudy, P. E. 1980. Biopolyester membranes of plants: cutin and suberin. *Science* **208**:990–999.
 27. Kolattukudy, P. E. 1981. Structure, biosynthesis, and biodegradation of cutin and suberin. *Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol.* **32**:539–567.
 28. Kolattukudy, P. E. 1985. Enzymatic penetration of the plant cuticle by fungal pathogens. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* **23**:223–250.
 29. Koller, K.-P., and G. Riess. 1989. Heterologous expression of the α -amylase inhibitor gene cloned from an amplified genomic sequence of *Streptomyces tendae*. *J. Bacteriol.* **171**:4953–4957.
 30. Koller, W., C. R. Allen, and P. E. Kolattukudy. 1982. Protection of *Pisum sativum* from *Fusarium solani* f. sp. *pisi* by inhibition of cutinase with organophosphorous pesticides. *Phytopathology* **72**:1425–1430.
 31. Koller, W., C. R. Allen, and P. E. Kolattukudy. 1982. Role of cutinase and cell wall degrading enzymes in infection of *Pisum sativum* by *Fusarium solani* f. sp. *pisi*. *Physiol. Plant Pathol.* **20**:47–60.
 32. Lin, T. S., and P. E. Kolattukudy. 1980. Isolation and characterization of a cuticular polyester (cutin) hydrolyzing enzyme from phytopathogenic fungi. *Physiol. Plant Pathol.* **17**:1–15.
 33. Liss, L. R. 1987. New M13 host: DH5 α F' competent cells. *Focus* **9**(3):13.
 34. Long, C. M., M.-J. Virolle, S.-Y. Chang, S. Chang, and M. J. Bibb. 1987. α -Amylase gene of *Streptomyces limosus*: nucleotide sequence, expression motifs, and amino acid sequence homology to mammalian invertebrate α -amylases. *J. Bacteriol.* **169**:5745–5754.
 35. Maiti, I. B., and P. E. Kolattukudy. 1979. Prevention of fungal infection of plants by specific inhibition of cutinase. *Science* **205**:507–508.
 36. Maniatis, T., E. F. Fritsch, and J. Sambrook. 1982. *Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual*. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
 37. McQueen, D. A. R., N. A. Anderson, and J. L. Schottel. 1985. Inhibitory reactions between natural isolates of *Streptomyces*. *J. Gen. Microbiol.* **131**:1149–1155.
 38. McQueen, D. A. R., and J. L. Schottel. 1987. Purification and characterization of a novel extracellular esterase from pathogenic *Streptomyces scabies* that is inducible by zinc. *J. Bacteriol.* **169**:1967–1971.
 39. Miller, J., A. D. McLachlan, and A. Klug. 1985. Repetitive zinc-binding domains in the protein transcription factor IIIA from *Xenopus* oocytes. *EMBO J.* **4**:1609–1614.
 40. Miller, J. H. 1972. *Experiments in molecular genetics*. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
 41. Mitchell, P. J., and R. Tjian. 1989. Transcriptional regulation in mammalian cells by sequence-specific DNA binding proteins. *Science* **245**:371–378.
 42. Murray, N. E., W. J. Brammer, and K. Murray. 1977. Lamboid phages that simplify the recovery of in vitro recombinants. *Mol. Gen. Genet.* **150**:53–61.
 43. Nagaso, H., S. Saito, H. Saito, and H. Takahashi. 1988. Nucleotide sequence and expression of a *Streptomyces griseosporus* proteinaceous alpha-amylase inhibitor (Haim II) gene. *J. Bacteriol.* **170**:4451–4457.
 44. Neilands, J. B. 1982. Microbial envelope proteins related to iron. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* **36**:285–309.
 45. O'Halloran, T. V., B. Frantz, M. K. Shin, D. M. Ralston, and J. G. Wright. 1989. The merR heavy metal receptor mediates positive activation in a topologically novel transcriptional complex. *Cell* **56**:119–129.
 46. Purdy, R. E., and P. E. Kolattukudy. 1975. Hydrolysis of plant cuticle by plant pathogens. Purification, amino acid composition, and molecular weight of two isozymes of cutinase and a nonspecific esterase from *Fusarium solani* f. *pisi*. *Biochemistry* **14**:2824–2831.
 47. Robbins, P. W., R. Trimble, D. F. Wirth, C. Hering, F. Maley, G. Maley, R. Das, B. W. Gilson, N. Royal, and K. Bieman. 1984. Primary structure of *Streptomyces* enzyme endo-beta-N-acetylglucosamidase H. *J. Biol. Chem.* **259**:7577–7583.
 48. Sanger, F., S. Nicklen, and A. R. Coulson. 1977. DNA sequencing with chain-terminating inhibitors. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **74**:5463–5467.
 49. Schottel, J. L., J. M. A. Willard, and G. Raymer. 1989. Regulation of extracellular esterase production by zinc in *Streptomyces scabies*, p. 113–118. In C. L. Hershberger, S. W. Queener, and G. Hegeman (ed.), *Genetics and molecular biology of industrial microorganisms*. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, D.C.
 50. Sebastian, J., and P. E. Kolattukudy. 1988. Purification and characterization of cutinase from a fluorescent *Pseudomonas putida* bacterial strain isolated from phyllosphere. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* **263**:77–85.
 51. Seguin, C., and D. H. Hamer. 1987. Regulation in vitro of metallothionein gene binding factors. *Science* **235**:1383–1387.
 52. Shirling, E. B., and D. Gottlieb. 1966. Methods of characterization of *Streptomyces* species. *Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol.* **16**:313–340.
 53. Soliday, C. L., and P. E. Kolattukudy. 1976. Isolation and characterization of a cutinase from *Fusarium roseum culmorum* and its immunological comparison with cutinases from *F. solani pisi*. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* **176**:334–343.
 54. Vieira, J., and J. Messing. 1987. Production of single-stranded plasmid DNA. *Methods Enzymol.* **153**:3–11.
 55. von Heijne, G. 1988. Transcending the impenetrable: how proteins come to terms with membranes. *Biochem. Biophys. Acta* **947**:307–333.
 56. Walsh, K. A., L. H. Ericsson, D. C. Parmelee, and K. Titani. 1981. Advances in protein sequencing. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **50**:261–284.
 57. Yanisch-Perron, C., J. Vieira, and J. Messing. 1985. Improved M13 phage cloning vectors and host strains: nucleotide sequences of the M13mp18 and pUC19 vectors. *Gene* **33**:103–119.