# Control of Sensitivity to Inactivation by  $H_2O_2$  and Broad-Spectrum Near-UV Radiation by the *Escherichia coli katF* Locus

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Mutations in the *Escherichia coli katF* gene (hydroperoxidase II) result in sensitivity to inactivation by  $H_2O_2$ and broad-spectrum near-UV (NUV; 300 to 400 nm) radiation. Another mutation, nur, originally described as conferring sensitivity to inactivation by broad-spectrum and monochromatic NUV, also confers sensitivity to inactivation by  $H_2O_2$ . Genetic analysis via transduction suggests that the *nur* mutation is a mutant allele of the katF locus. As previously reported for broad-spectrum and monochromatic NUV wavelengths, the sensitivity of a particular strain to  $H_2O_2$  inactivation is also independent of the recA and uvrA alleles. Extracts of nur and katF strains lack catalase (hydroperoxidase II) as revealed by polyacrylamide gels stained for such activity, which is consistent with the genetic results.

The mutagenic and inactivating effects of both monochromatic and broad-spectrum near-UV (NUV) wavelengths (300 to 400 nm) have been the subject of numerous investigations, which have been extensively reviewed (10, 13, 17, 18, 40).

A mutation in an Escherichia coli gene (nur) has been described which sensitizes cells to inactivation by NUV without affecting sensitivity to far-UV (FUV) inactivation (35-37). Specifically, it was shown that the  $recAI3$ ,  $recAI$ , and uvrA6 mutations did not affect the sensitivity of stationary-phase cells to NUV inactivation. However, the polAl mutation did influence the sensitivity of E. coli cells to inactivation by NUV in an  $nur^+$  genetic background (36). The fact that the polAl mutation sensitizes E. coli to NUV inactivation and that E. coli xthA mutants (exonuclease III deficient) are sensitive to inactivation by  $H_2O_2$  (8) and NUV (31) might mean that repair of or protection against NUVand  $H_2O_2$ -induced damage is based on a complex oxidative defense system (4).

Further evidence that  $H_2O_2$  is involved in NUV inactivation comes from the observation that incorporation of bovine catalase into the plating medium or the irradiated cell suspension protects E. coli cells from both inactivation and mutagenesis by broad-spectrum NUV (32). Hartman (14) has also presented evidence that  $H_2O_2$  is involved with NUV inactivating events in stationary-phase E. coli cells.

Pretreatment of E. coli or Salmonella typhimurium cells with a sublethal concentration of  $H_2O_2$  results in protection against inactivation by a lethal concentration of  $H_2O_2$  (4, 7) as well as by broad-spectrum NUV (33, 39). Tyrrell (39) has shown that pretreatment of growing E. coli cells with low fluences of NUV protects against inactivation by  $H_2O_2$ . Christman et al. (4) have demonstrated that 30 proteins, including catalase and superoxide dismutase, are induced during adaptation to  $H_2O_2$  in S. typhimurium.

If  $H_2O_2$  were one product of NUV irradiation in cells, it would be expected that cells lacking catalase should be sensitive to inactivation by NUV. Recently, Leowen and his colleagues have described mutants which are defective in catalase activity (21-23). In this paper, we present evidence that lesions in the  $k$ at F gene, but not the  $k$ at E or  $k$ at G gene, result in sensitivity to broad-spectrum NUV as well as to

 $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$  independent of the recAl and uvrA6 mutations. Genetic experiments are described which indicate that the nur mutation  $(35-37)$  is an allele of the *katF* gene. Strains carrying mutations in the  $k \alpha t$  gene lack the catalase activity designated hydroperoxidase II (HP-II) (5), as demonstrated by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains. The bacterial and bacteriophage strains used in this investigation are described in Table 1.

**Chemicals.** The reagent  $30\%$   $H_2O_2$  used was obtained from E. K. Industries, Inc. (10 M concentration). The glucose oxidase used in the  $H_2O_2$ -generating system was type X from Aspergillus niger, obtained from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, Mo.

Media. The complex medium was Luria-Bertani (LB) broth, containing (per liter) 10 g of tryptone (Difco Laboratories), 5 g of yeast extract (Difco), and 10 g of NaCl, solidified as required with 12 g of agar (Difco) (27). The minimal medium used to assess response to broad-spectrum NUV and  $H_2O_2$  inactivation was appropriately supplemented minimal A medium (27) solidified with 1.2% agar (Difco).

**Transduction.** The transducing phage (P1 Cm clr-100) is the same one used in previous experiments (20, 36, 37). The methods for producing lysogens, transducing lysates, and selecting transductants have been described previously (27, 29, 30).

The method used to transduce the polA12 mutation from strain MM383 was identical to that used previously to transfer the  $polAI$  mutation (6) from E. coli p3478 to appropriate recipients (36). Briefly, strain RT12 was transduced to  $metE^+$  by using transducing bacteriophage (P1 Cm  $clr-100$ ) prepared on strain MM383 (polA12). Of 345 met $E^+$  transductants, 4 represented cotransductants for polA12 as judged by their sensitivity to FUV inactivation (cotransduction frequency, 1.2%; metE<sup>+</sup> transductants per viable cell, 2.0  $\times$  $10^{-7}$ ; transductants per viable bacteriophage particle, 6.9  $\times$  $10^{-7}$ ). One of the polA<sup>+</sup> metE<sup>+</sup> transductants was selected at random for use in all subsequent experiments and designated RT16(1). This strain is genetically identical to strain RT16 (36), but since it was derived from an independent transduction experiment, it was given the designation (1) to indicate its independent origin. As far as NUV and FUV sensitivity,

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Strain or phage	Relevant genotype	Reference or source	
E. coli strains			
AT713	$F^-$ thi-1 argA21 cysC43 lysA22 mtl-2 xyl-7 malA1 str-104 nur <sup>+</sup> $\lambda^+$ $\lambda^-$ supE44	37	
AB1157	$F^-$ thr-1 leu-6 thi-1 argE3 his-4 proA2 lacY1 galK2 mtl-1 xyl-5 ara-14 rpsL31 tsx-33 $\lambda^-$ supE44	9	
RT2	$F^-$ thi <sup>+</sup> argA21 lysA22 mtl-2 xyl-7 malA1 str-104 $\lambda^r \lambda^-$ supE44? nur	37	
RT <sub>8</sub>	$F^-$ thi <sup>+</sup> argA21 lysA22 mtl-2 malA1 str-104 $\lambda^r \lambda^-$ supE44? nur	35	
<b>RT10</b>	Same as RT8 except nur <sup>+</sup>	35	
RT8 katE	Same as RT8 except katE12::Tn10	This study	
RT8 katF	Same as RT8 except katF13::Tn10	This study	
RT8 katG	Same as RT8 except katG17::Tn10	This study	
RT10 katE	Same as RT10 except katEl2::Tnl0	This study	
RT10 katF	Same as RT10 except katF13::Tn10	This study	
$RT7h$ (Tet <sup>r</sup> )	$F^-$ thi-1 argA21 lysA22 mtl-2 malA1 str-104 $\lambda^r$ $\lambda^-$ supE44?	20	
$RT8$ (Tet <sup>r</sup> )	Same as RT7 (Tet <sup>r</sup> ) except thi <sup>+</sup> uvrA <sup>+</sup>	20	
$RT9$ (Tet <sup>r</sup> )	Same as RT7 (Tet <sup>r</sup> ) except nur <sup>+</sup>	20	
$RT10$ (Tet <sup>r</sup> )	Same as RT7 (Tet <sup>r</sup> ) except thi <sup>+</sup> uvrA <sup>+</sup> nur <sup>+</sup>	20	
<b>MM383</b>	$F^-$ lacZ53 rpsL151 thyA36 rha-5 deoC2 $\lambda^ \Delta$ (rrnD-rrnE) polA12	28	
RT12	$F^-$ thi-1 argA21 lysA22 metE46 xyl-7 malA1 str-104 $\lambda^r$ $\lambda^-$ supE44? nur <sup>+</sup>	36	
<b>RT15</b>	Same as RT12 except $metE^+$ polA1	36	
RT16(1)	Same as RT12 except met $E^+$ pol $A^+$	36; this study	
<b>RT17</b>	Same as RT12 except met $E^+$ polA12	This study	
KL16-99	Hfr PO61; thi-1 relA1 recA1 $\lambda^-$ nur	24	
<b>UM120</b>	$Hfr H$ ; thi-1 katE12:: $Tn10$	22	
<b>UM122</b>	$Hfr H: thi-1 katF13::Tn10$	22	
<b>UN202</b>	$Hfr H$ ; thi-1 kat $GI7::Tn10$	23	
Bacteriophage			
P <sub>1</sub>	$Tn9$ Cm <sup>r</sup> clr-100	29, 30	

TABLE 1. Bacterial strains and bacteriophage

as well as all other markers, are concerned, this transductant proved indistinguishable from the original RT16 transductant and was used in the experiments described in this report. Among the four  $metE^+$  transductants which were identified as carrying *polA12* based on their sensitivity to FUV, one was selected for use in subsequent experiments and designated RT17.

 $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$  dose-response curves. Cells were grown at 37 $\degree$ C with shaking in sidearm flasks (Belco) containing <sup>50</sup> ml of LB broth to stationary phase as described previously (37, 38). A 5-ml portion of cells was washed three times in cold saline, and <sup>3</sup> ml of the washed cells were then added to 10 ml of cold saline. Nine milliliters of this suspension was withdrawn and placed in a sterile 125-ml flask. To initiate the experiment, 1.0 ml of a 500 mM solution of  $H_2O_2$  was added to the flask. The flask was shaken, and a 0.1-ml sample was immediately taken to estimate initial survival. The cell suspension prepared in this manner contained between  $3 \times 10^8$  and  $5 \times 10^8$ cells per ml. At specified time intervals, 0.1-ml samples were removed, diluted appropriately, and plated on minimal medium to assess viability.

 $H_2O_2$ -generating system. The  $H_2O_2$ -generating system used was the glucose-glucose oxidase system modified from the one described by Klebanoff (19). E. coli cells were grown to stationary phase and washed in saline as outlined above. However, for the last wash the cells were brought up in 100 mM sterile glucose dissolved in 0.85% saline, and 9.0 ml was transferred to a sterile flask. Glucose oxidase (Sigma) was made in saline at approximately 10,000 U/ml (1 U of glucose oxidase catalyzes the formation of  $1 \mu$ mol of gluconic acid and  $H_2O_2$  per min from glucose). One milliliter of the glucose oxidase was added to the 9.0 ml of cell suspension, and a 0.1-ml portion was immediately taken and plated to assess initial survival. The reaction mixture prepared in this way is expected to generate 1 mmol of  $H_2O_2$  per min. The reaction flask was shaken at 37°C, and portions were removed at

appropriate intervals and plated to assess survival. All plates were incubated for 48 h at 37°C.

Broad-spectrum NUV fluence response curves. Stationaryphase cells treated with broad-spectrum NUV were prepared as described previously (32). The broad-spectrum NUV source used was identical to that used in all our previous experiments involving broad-spectrum NUV (37). The source consists of <sup>a</sup> bank of four lamps (GE 40BLB, integral filter) with <sup>a</sup> range of emission from 300 to 400 nm, with <sup>a</sup> maximum emission at 350 nm. These lamps emit 97% of their radiant energy between 300 and 400 nm. However, we have measured the fluence rate with <sup>a</sup> DRC-100X digital radiometer equipped with a DIX-365 sensor (Spectroline) and found it to be 24 rather than  $10 \text{ W/m}^2$  as previously reported (32).

Preparation of cellular extracts for polyacrylamide catalase activity gels. Strains to be tested for catalase activity were grown overnight in 200 ml of LB broth at  $30^{\circ}$ C. The stationary-phase cells were harvested by centrifugation at  $10,000 \times g$  for 10 min, suspended in 0.0625 M Tris hydrochloride buffer, pH 6.8, containing  $10^{-4}$  M EDTA, and washed twice in the same buffer. The bacterial cells were ruptured by subjecting the suspensions twice to  $15,000$  lb/in<sup>2</sup> in <sup>a</sup> French pressure cell (American Instrument Co., Urbana, Ill.) at <sup>a</sup> flow rate of <sup>1</sup> ml/min. Cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 12,000  $\times$  g. The cell extracts were stored on ice. Protein content was estimated by standard procedures (25).

Visualization of catalase and peroxidase on polyacrylamide gels. For visualization of catalase and peroxidase, 50  $\mu$ g of crude extract was run on 7.5% polyacrylamide gels with the nondissociating, discontinuous buffer described previously (11), except that the resolving buffer was pH 8.0. The activity stain used to localize catalase was the one described by Harris and Hopkinson (12). Briefly, the gels were rinsed in distilled water after electrophoresis and soaked in a 0.1%



FIG. 1. Survival responses of various E. coli strains when treated with 50 mM  $H_2O_2$ .

H202 solution for 15 min, rinsed twice with distilled water, and soaked in a 50:50 mixture of freshly prepared  $2\%$  FeCl<sub>3</sub> and  $K_6(FeCN)_6$  for 30 s with gentle agitation.

## RESULTS

 $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$  inactivation of DNA repair-deficient strains. Since it has been shown that E. coli xthA mutants (exonuclease III deficient) are sensitive to  $H_2O_2$  (8) and to broad-spectrum NUV (31), it was considered important to test whether another mutation (nur) which sensitizes cells to NUV (35-37, 41) might sensitize cells to  $H_2O_2$  inactivation. The nur mutation does not sensitize E. coli cells to FUV inactivation even in combination with genes which do confer sensitivity to FUV (recA1 and recA13 [37] and uvrA6 [20, 37]). To test the possibility that genes which confer sensitivity to FUV might confer sensitivity to  $H_2O_2$  inactivation, strains differing in FUV sensitivity (recAl and uvrA6) were included among those tested. Figure <sup>1</sup> presents the <sup>50</sup> mM H202 dose-response curves obtained with strains which have been used previously in experiments with NUV. It should be noted that even though both strains RT1 and RT3 carry the recAl mutation conferring sensitivity to FUV, RT3 was resistant to 50 mM  $H_2O_2$  inactivation. Therefore, the *nur*  allele must be the factor which determines the sensitivity of these strains to  $H_2O_2$  inactivation. Similarly, strains RT7h and RT8h were sensitive to  $H_2O_2$  inactivation, while strains RT9h and RT1Oh were resistant to inactivation by <sup>50</sup> mM  $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$ , reflecting the fact that they carry the *nur*<sup>+</sup> allele. For these strains, the fact that RT7h and RT9h carry the uvrA6 mutation did not influence their response to 50 mM  $H_2O_2$ treatment. For those strains carrying the nur allele, RT1, RT7h, and RT8h, the kinetics of  $H_2O_2$  inactivation were initially exponential (or apparently so), followed by a "tail" in the inactivation curve. These kinetics may be explained by assuming that the initial 50 mM  $H_2O_2$  concentration is reduced over time by the enzymatic activity of the cells in suspension (i.e., catalase and peroxidase). If this were true, it would be expected that the kinetics of inactivation would be strictly exponential for a strain carrying the *nur* mutation if  $H_2O_2$  were continually generated within the suspension. Therefore, strains RT7h  $(nur)$  and RT9h  $(nur^+)$  were suspended in an enzyme reaction mixture designed to generate 1 mM of  $H_2O_2$  per min as a product of the glucose oxidase reaction (glucose +  $O_2 \rightarrow$  gluconic acid +  $H_2O_2$  [19]). The results of these experiments are presented in Fig. 2. It is apparent that the kinetics of inactivation for strain RT7h (nur) were exponential after the first 10 min of treatment under these conditions. The  $nur^+$  strain (RT9h) was clearly resistant to  $H_2O_2$  inactivation, whether  $H_2O_2$  was generated continuously (Fig. 2) or held to a single initial concentration (50 mM; Fig. 1).

It has been demonstrated that the polAl mutation sensitizes E. coli cells to inactivation by NUV, but only in an  $nur<sup>+</sup>$  background (36). This was interpreted to mean that the nur gene is epistatic to *polA1*. Therefore, to test whether polA mutations sensitize cells to inactivation by <sup>50</sup> mM  $H_2O_2$ , the experiments had to be done in a *nur*<sup>+</sup> background.

Two polA alleles were tested for their sensitivity to 50 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> inactivation. Strain RT17 (polA12) carried a temperature-sensitive allele of the polA locus and proved to be sensitive to both FUV and NUV inactivation as expected (28; data not shown). We confirmed that  $polA12$  cells are partially Pol<sup>-</sup> (28), since survival was only marginally enhanced when FUV- or NUV-treated cells were plated and incubated at 30°C rather than at 37°C. Both polA mutant alleles led to sensitivity to 50 mM  $H_2O_2$  inactivation (Fig. 3). Again, the survival curves for the polA mutants exhibited an initial decline, followed by a tail. In fact, RT17 exhibited some apparent recovery between the 10- and 40-min sampling points. If the tailing in the survival curve represents depletion of the  $H_2O_2$ , as suggested above (Fig. 2), then readdition of  $H_2O_2$  to a cell suspension should result in a further exponential decline in survival. This proved to be the case when a second portion of 500 mM  $H_2O_2$  (diluted to 50 mM) was added to the RT15 cell suspension after an initial 60 min of incubation. This experiment, and the results involving the glucose-glucose oxidase  $H_2O_2$ -generating system (Fig. 2), supports the hypothesis that  $H_2O_2$  is being removed from the cell suspension by activities of the cells themselves.

NUV and  $H_2O_2$  sensitivity of catalase mutants. Loewen and colleagues have described mutants which affect catalase  $(HP-II)$  and peroxidase  $(HP-I)$  activities in E. coli (21-23). If NUV irradiation of E. coli cells generates  $H_2O_2$ , it would be expected that mutants lacking catalase activity should be sensitive to inactivation by NUV wavelengths. With the three strains developed by Loewen and his colleagues, which carried insertion mutations  $(Tn10)$  in each of the three genes controlling catalase (HP-II; strains UM120 [katE12] and UM122 [katF13]) and peroxidase activity (HP-I; strain



FIG. 2. Survival of an *nur* and an  $nur^+$  strain in a beta-D-glucose oxidase  $H_2O_2$ -generating system designed to generate 1 mmol of  $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$  per min.

UM202 [katG17]), transducing particles (P1 Cm clr-100) were prepared and used to transduce strains RT8 and RT10 to katE katF katG by selecting for tetracycline resistance  $(Tn10)$ . The two parent strains and each of the six transductants were treated with NUV and  $H_2O_2$  (glucose-glucose oxidase  $H_2O_2$ -generating system). The results of the broadspectrum  $\overline{NUV}$  and  $H_2O_2$  inactivation experiments with RT10 and the three  $Tn10$  (kat) transductants are presented in Fig. 4 and 5, respectively. In an  $nur^+$  background, the  $kafF$ insertion mutation led to sensitivity to both broad-spectrum NUV and  $H_2O_2$  inactivation. When RT8 (nur) and its three  $Tn10$  (kat) transductants were tested for sensitivity to broadspectrum NUV and  $H_2O_2$  inactivation, the strains appeared to be equally sensitive to inactivation by  $H_2O_2$ , while RT8 katG was slightly more sensitive to NUV inactivation (Fig. 6) and 7). With the exception of the RT8 katG strain, RT8 and

its derivative transductants were about as sensitive to broadspectrum NUV inactivation as RT10 katF was (compare Fig. 4 and 6).

Transductional analysis testing the hypothesis that nur represents an allele of the *katF* locus. The results of the broad-spectrum NUV and  $H_2O_2$  inactivation experiments suggest that both  $k$ at  $F13$  and nur may represent mutant alleles of the  $k$ at F locus. Previous attempts to map the *nur* allele by transduction were unsuccessful, but mating experiments placed the allele in the 50- to 60-min area of the E. coli linkage map (37). Loewen and Triggs (22) reported that  $\psi sH$ was about 49% cotransducible with  $k \alpha t$  (min 59.2). Therefore, we transduced strain AT713 to  $cysC<sup>+</sup>$  (another gene in the cysteine operon) with P1 Cm clr-100 transducing bacteriophage prepared on strain UM122 ( $k \alpha t \epsilon$ ::Tnl0) and tested for tetracycline resistance (Table 2). Tet<sup>r</sup> proved to be about 30.6% cotransducible with  $cysC^+$ . If nur represents an allele of the  $k$ at  $F$  gene, then *nur* should cotransduce with  $\alpha y s C^+$  at about 30%. We prepared transducing particles on strains RT2 (nur) and RT7h (nur) and transduced AT713 to  $\text{cysC}^+$  in two independent experiments (Table 2). Each  $cysC<sup>+</sup>$  transductant had to be tested for its sensitivity to



FIG. 3. Survival responses of three E. coli strains treated with 50 mM  $H_2O_2$ . In a single experiment involving strain RT15 (polA1), a second portion of  $H_2O_2$  was added following a 60-min incubation.

Expt	Donor strain	Total no. of $\mathit{cysC}^+$ transductants tested	Nonselected marker	No. $(\%)$ of transductants with nonselected marker	$P$ vs UM122
	<b>UM122</b>	147	$Tet^{r}$ (kat $F$ )	45(30.6)	
	RT7h	21	nur	5(23.8)	0.7 > P > 0.5
	RT2	21	nur	4(19.0)	0.3 > P > 0.2
	KL16-99	21 <sup>b</sup>	nur		>0.01

TABLE 2. Results of transducing E. coli AT713 to  $cysC^+$  with phage P1 Cm  $clr$ -100 prepared on four different donors<sup>a</sup>

 $a$  Genetic maps of the markers carried by the strains used (numbers in parentheses for strain AT713 are the positions of the markers [in minutes] on the E. coli linkage map): AT713, lysA22 (61.5)-argA21 (60.5)—katF (58.9)-recA\* (58.2); RT2, lysA22-argA21-nur (katF?)-recA\*; RT7h, lysA22-argA21-nur (katF?)-recA\*;<br>KL16-99, lysA\*-argA\*-nur (katF?)-recA1. Suggested map for KL16-99, wit

 $b$  247 tested previously (37).

NUV inactivation with a single fluence of NUV (864 kJ/m<sup>2</sup>). This NUV fluence would be expected to produce about one cycle of inactivation in an  $nur^+$  strain, while about four cycles of inactivation would be expected for an nur strain. Of 21  $\text{cysC}^+$  transductants tested in this fashion, 5 proved to be nur (23.8%) for transducing particles prepared on strain RT7h. Four of 21 (19.0%) proved to be nur for particles prepared on strain RT2 (Table 2). A  $2 \times 2$  contingency table analysis was done to compare the proportion of  $Tet^{r}(katF)$ cotransductants in experiment 1 (Table 2) and the proportion of nur cotransductants in experiments 2 and 3 (Table 2). Based on this analysis, the proportion of cotransductants in experiments 2 and 3 did not differ significantly (at the 0.05 level) from the proportion of cotransductants observed in experiment 1 (Table 2). The *nur* mutation was originally isolated among  $cysC<sup>+</sup>$  recombinants from a mating between strains AT713 ( $F^-$  and KL16-99 (Hfr PO61 [37]). When transducing particles (P1 Cm clr-100) were prepared on this strain and used to transduce AT713 to  $cysC^+$ , none of 247



FIG. 4. Fluence survival responses of strain RT10 and three kat (insertion mutations) derivatives of this strain.

transductants tested proved to be nur. We concluded from these tranduction and specific mating experiments that nur was located at about min 52 on the E. coli linkage map. It was entirely possible that the original transductants were incorrectly scored. Therefore, the transduction was repeated with KL16-99 as the donor. The resulting  $cysC^+$  transductants were scored with a single fluence of NUV (864 kJ/m<sup>2</sup>) for testing sensitivity to  $NUV$  inactivation (Table 2). Of 21  $cysC<sup>+</sup>$  transductants, none proved to be NUV sensitive (nur, Table 2, experiment 4). This is consistent with previously reported results (37). To test whether this result was simply a matter of chance, a  $2 \times 2$  contingency table analysis was done to compare the proportion of  $Tet^{r}(katF13;$  Table 2,



FIG. 5. Survival responses of strain RT10 and three kat (insertion mutations) derivatives of this strain when suspended in a beta-D-glucose oxidase-generating system designed to generate 1 mmol  $H_2O_2$  per min.



FIG. 6. Fluence survival responses of strain RT8 and three kat (insertion mutations) derivatives of this strain. Note the sensitivity of the katG strain.

experiment 1) cotransductants with bacteriophage prepared on strain UM122 with the proportion of nur cotransductants with bacteriophage prepared on strain KL16-99. Based on this analysis, the probability that the absence of nur cotransductants when selecting for  $cysC^+$  with transducing particles prepared on strain KL16-99 was a matter of chance was less than 0.01. In Fig. 8, the results of <sup>a</sup> complete NUV inactivation experiment are presented for representative transductants from each of the four transduction experiments just described. In three of the experiments (1, 2, and 3), NUV-resistant and NUV-sensitive transductants were obtained (transducing particles prepared on strains RT2, RT7h, and UM122), while in the fourth experiment, only NUV-resistant strains were seen (transducing particles prepared on strain KL16-99).

Visualization of catalase and peroxidase enzyme activity on polyacrylamide gels. If nur is an allele of the  $k$ atF gene, it would be expected that extracts from strains RT7 (nur) and RT8 (nur) would not exhibit the catalase (HP-11) band when stained for catalase activity on polyacrylamide gels (21-23). This expectation was confirmed (Fig. 9, lanes A and B). Note that the extracts from the  $nur^+$  strains RT9 (lane C) and RT10 (lane D) exhibited both HP-1 and HP-11 activities. The pattern of bands seen in extracts of the RT8 (lane G) and RT10 (lane H) transductants with  $\text{Tr}10$  insertions in the katF gene was indistinguishable from the pattern seen with extracts of RT7 and RT8 (lanes A and B). When strain RT8 was transduced to  $katG$ , neither HP-I nor HP-II activity was found (lane I). On the other hand, RT10 transduced to  $k a t G$ did exhibit HP-II activity (lane J). Strain AB1157, which we have found to be NUV sensitive, exhibited little HP-II activity (lane K) (37). Finally, strain KL16-99 exhibited both HP-I and HP-I1 activity, although it was NUV sensitive and is the strain from which the *nur* gene was derived  $(37)$ . Although in previous gels, RT10 katE extracts contained both HP-I and HP-II activities, in this particular experiment



FIG. 7. Survival responses of strain RT8 and three kat (insertion mutations) derivatives when suspended in a beta-D-glucose oxidasegenerating system designed to generate 1 mmol of  $H_2O_2$  per min.

these activities were reduced (lane F). This probably reflects the fact that this extract had been frozen for some time before use in the experiment, while all other extracts had been freshly prepared.

Since the  $k$ atF mutation sensitizes  $E$ . coli cells to inactivation by NUV and  $H_2O_2$ , it was considered possible that HP-I and HP-II activity might be present in different parts of the cell. Cell disruptions were done to determine whether these two activities might be differentially distributed in the cytoplasm and periplasmic space. Although extracts from the periplasmic fraction contained sufficient protein (50  $\mu$ g/well), no detectable HP-I or HP-II activity was found associated with the periplasmic space (data not shown).

# DISCUSSION

Suggestive evidence that  $H_2O_2$  is involved in the mutagenic and inactivating effects of NUV has been present in the literature for some time (1, 26, 42, 43). A possible role for hydrogen peroxide in the mutagenic and inactivating effects of NUV was first suggested by the identification of the photoproduct resulting from the treatment of L-tryptophan with  $\text{NUV}$  as  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (26, 43). It has been demonstrated that



FIG. 8. Fluence survival responses of selected transductants from the four transduction experiments detailed in Table 2.



FIG. 9. Polyacrylamide gel stained for catalase (HP-II; upper band) and peroxidase (HP-I; lower band) enzymatic activity. Each well was loaded with 50  $\mu$ g of crude extract. Extracts were obtained from (A) RT7 (nur), (B) RT8 (nur), (C) RT9 (nur<sup>+</sup>), (D) RT10 (nur<sup>+</sup>), (E) RT8 (katE), (F) RT10 (katE), (G) RT8 (katF), (H) RT10 (katF), (I) RT8 (katG), (J) RT10 (katG), (K) AB1157, and (L) KL16-99.

the tryptophan photoproduct (TP) (presumably  $H_2O_2$ ) sensitizes DNA to the induction of single-strand DNA breaks by NUV, as well as sensitizing cells to NUV inactivation (42). Furthermore, Ananthaswamy and Eisenstark (2) have shown that concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  which inactivate no more than 10 to 20% of bacteriophage particles sensitize both T-even and T-odd bacteriophage to inactivation by NUV as well as enhancing the yield of DNA strand breaks in bacteriophage T7. When E. coli cells were treated simultaneously with a sublethal concentration of  $H_2O_2$  and NUV, Hartman and Eisenstark (15, 16) found synergistic killing, again implicating  $H_2O_2$  in NUV effects.

Using DNA repair-deficient E. coli mutants, Ananthaswamy and Eisenstark (2) concluded that, for exponentially growing cells, the  $polA^+$  and  $recA^+$  functions are important in the repair of  $H_2O_2$ -induced single-strand DNA breaks. Based on work with 25 different E. coli strains carrying various combinations of DNA repair defects, Carlsson and Carpenter (3) concluded that the  $recA^{+}$  gene product was more important than the level of catalase or superoxide dismutase in protecting exponentially growing cells against  $H_2O_2$  inactivation.

If  $H_2O_2$  plays a role in the inactivating and mutagenic effects of NUV and the  $recA<sup>+</sup>$  gene product is important in protecting against these agents, it might be anticipated that SOS functions would be induced by either  $H_2O_2$  or NUV. Using a strain with the lac gene fused to the recA promoter, Turner and Eisenstark (34) have shown that selected NUV wavelengths and broad-spectrum solar UV light do not induce beta-galactosidase in the fusion strain. However, the enzyme was readily induced by FUV in the same fusion strain. In addition, lambda prophage induction and Weigle reactivation were not demonstrable with selected NUV wavelengths or broad-spectrum solar UV. These observations were interpreted to mean that NUV blocks the functioning of the recA protease. The conclusion was that the  $recA<sup>+</sup>$  function is not important in the repair of or protection against NUV damage and, by extrapolation,  $H_2O_2$  in exponentially growing E. coli cells. The evidence just described is ambiguous as far as a possible role for SOS functions in the repair of or protection against NUV wavelengths.

Renewed interest in a role for  $H_2O_2$  in NUV effects developed when it was demonstrated that pretreatment of E. *coli* cells with sublethal concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  resulted in protection against inactivation by lethal concentrations of  $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$  (8) as well as broad-spectrum NUV (33, 39). If  $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$  is an important product resulting from NUV treatment of E.

coli, one might expect that catalase-deficient mutants would be sensitive to NUV inactivation. We have shown that strain RT10 ( $nur^+$ ) carrying an insertion mutation in the *katF* gene was sensitive to inactivation by both broad-spectrum NUV and  $H_2O_2$  (Fig. 4 and 5). When the *katF* insertion mutation was transduced into a strain carrying the nur mutation (RT8), the NUV sensitivity of the recipient to NUV or  $H_2O_2$ inactivation was unaltered (Fig. 6 and 7). These results suggested that *nur* might be a mutant allele of the  $k$ at  $F$  gene. The results of the transduction experiments (Table 2) were consistent with this idea, if it is assumed that strain KL16-99 contains an inversion in which  $k$ at  $F$  (nur) has been displaced toward min 50 away from the  $cysC<sup>+</sup>$  gene (min 59.2). In previous experiments (37), it was found that of 247  $cysC^+$ transductants, none proved to be sensitive to NUV, while 9 were recAl (FUV sensitive). If katF were at min 58.9, as suggested by Loewen et al. (21a), then a substantial fraction of the  $\cos C$ <sup>+</sup> transductants should have been sensitive to broad-spectrum NUV inactivation  $(\sim 30\%)$ . Since strain RT7h is derived ultimately from RT2 (20, 35, 37), the recombinational event giving rise to RT2 (and ultimately the other RT strains carrying the nur allele) from the mating of AT713  $(F^-)$  and KL16-99 (Hfr) must have resulted in a restoration of the inverted segment to its proper orientation (37) (see Table 2 of this paper for recombinant frequencies suggesting a possible inversion). Therefore, when the transducing bacteriophage was prepared on either strain RT2 or RT7h,  $cysC<sup>+</sup>$  transductants of AT713 had a significant probability (20 to 30%) of being cotransduced to nur (katF). Consistent with the hypothesis that *nur* is an allele of  $k$ *atF* is the absence of catalase (HP-1I) activity in extracts of cells designated nur (RT7 and RT8) or katF (RT8 katF and RT10  $katF$ ) as visualized on polyacrylamide gels (Fig. 9). The transduction experiments (Table 2) and mating experiments (37) strongly suggest that KL16-99 has an inverted segment in the area of the genome involving the  $k$ at F gene. This alteration might modify the regulation of the gene in vivo so that protection against NUV inactivation is not afforded but activity of the HP-1I enzyme can be demonstrated in vitro (Fig. 9, lane L).

Another possible explanation for the NUV sensitivity of strain KL16-99 is that this sensitivity is controlled by a second gene unrelated to nur  $(katF)$ . The major difficulty with this hypothesis is that strains RT2 and RT7h were ultimately derived from the mating of KL16-99 (nur) with AT713  $(nur^+)$ . Although the distribution of recombinants from this mating (37) does not exclude absolutely the possibility of <sup>a</sup> second gene controlling NUV sensitivity, the inversion hypothesis requires less complex assumptions than does a second-gene hypothesis.

Loewen et al. (23) have shown that both  $k$ atE and  $k$ atE control the activity of the  $E$ . coli catalase (HP-II). The  $kafG$ gene controls the activity of the peroxidase (HP-I). If both  $k$ atE and  $k$ atE code for subunits of a single enzyme, it seems paradoxical that the  $k$ atE mutation does not sensitize E. coli cells to inactivation by NUV or  $H_2O_2$  (Fig. 4 and 5), while katF results in sensitization. There are at least two possibilities to explain this. (i) The  $k$ at F gene may specify a subunit of the HP-II enzyme concerned with enzyme activity (22), while katE may control a regulatory subunit of the enzyme. Since the experiments described here involved stationaryphase cells, it is possible that HP-II may not be subject to the regulation, which could be specific to exponentially growing cells. (ii) Assuming that the  $k$ at E gene controls a regulatory subunit of HP-II, the mutation in the  $k$ atE gene may prevent activity in vitro (activity gels) while allowing activity in vivo.

It appears that the  $katG$  mutation in an *nur* ( $katF$ ) background sensitizes cell to NUV inactivation, while not appreciably altering sensitivity to  $H_2O_2$  (Fig. 6 and 7). This result might mean that in a  $k \alpha t F^+$  background the HP-I enzyme specified by  $katG^+$  does not play an important role in the elimination of NUV-generated  $H_2O_2$ . When HP-II activity is eliminated by mutations in the  $k$ atF gene, the NUVgenerated H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> may be a substrate for HP-I ( $k \cdot dG^+$ ; Fig. 6 and 7). Thus, the  $katG$  gene product is essential for defense against oxidative damage only when the major defense provided by the  $k$ atF gene product is absent (as in RT8  $k$ atG; Fig. 9, lane I). That RT8 katG can survive NUV or  $H_2O_2$  at all, in spite of being completely catalase deficient, suggests that other genes are involved in defense against oxidative damage in *E. coli.* Christman et al. (4) suggest that at least 30 proteins are induced in response to oxidative damage.

When stationary-phase  $\vec{E}$ . coli cells were treated with 50  $mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$ , the inactivation kinetics were initially exponential for cell populations carrying the *nur* ( $k \cdot dF$ ) mutation (Fig. 1). It appears that the sensitivity of stationary-phase cells to inactivation by  $H_2O_2$  is independent of the recAl or uvrA6 mutation, as was true for inactivation by broadspectrum NUV (35, 37). The initial exponential slope in the inactivation curves for *nur* ( $k$ at*F*) strains was followed by a tail (Fig. 1). One possible explanation for the tailing in these curves is that the enzymatic activity of the cells in suspension breaks down reagent  $H_2O_2$ . Thus, the concentration of  $H_2O_2$  in the suspension decreases and allows the cells to survive. This problem was eliminated by using an  $H_2O_2$ generating system (19). This system ensures a relatively constant concentration of  $H_2O_2$  throughout the experiment. Note that the inactivation kinetics of *nur* ( $k$ at $F$ ) cells subjected to this system were essentially exponential (Fig. 2, 5, and 7). In addition, a second portion of  $H_2O_2$  added to a suspension of cells treated with a single dose of  $H_2O_2$ resulted in the restoration of exponential inactivation kinetics (Fig. 3).

This work demonstrates that *nur* and *katF* are alleles of a gene whose product (HP-II) is essential for protection against oxidative damage encountered during exposure to  $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$  or NUV. These results add support to the general notion that one of the products of NUV treatment of cells is  $H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>$  (31–33). The observations reported here support the general conclusion that the mechanisms which underlie FUV and NUV mutagenesis and lethality are fundamentally different. The effects of FUV are based on direct absorption by DNA, while NUV effects result from the absorption of NUV wavelengths by endogenous photosensitizers (probably porphyrins [38a]) and the formation of oxygen-related radicals (18).

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