Disruptions of Two Apparent rho-Independent Transcription Terminator Structures do not help in Enhancing the Expression of aceK in E. coli

Su Ji Lee¹ and Taeowan Chung*

Department of Biochemistry and ¹College of Pharmacy, Yeungnam University, Geongsan 712-749, Korea (Received February 8, 1995)

Abstract: Two apparent rho-independent transcription terminator structures within the coding sequence of aceK have been destroyed to access their roles in the differential expression between aceA and aceK in the glyoxylate bypass operon of $\it E.~coli.$ The effect of mutations on the expression of aceK was evaluated in two different ways: one by maxicell labeling and the other by $\it lacZ$ fusion gene construction. The maxicell labeling experiment with the mutant operon clones has failed, like that of the wild type operon clone, to visibly show isocitrate dehrogenase (IDH) kinase/phosphatase, the product of aceK, on the autoradiogram of a protein gel. When the same mutations were introduced into an $\it aceK::lacZ$ fusion gene to quantitatively evaluate the mutational effect, the activity of $\it β$ -galactosidase in neither of the mutant versions of the fusion gene was elevated significantly enough to explain the degree of polarity observed in this region. Thus, we conclude that neither of these intragenic, apparent rho-independent transcription terminator structures, which have long been suspected as a major determinant in the downregulation of $\it aceK$, really act as a premature transcriptional terminator.

Key words: fusion gene, glyoxylate operon, isocitrate dehydrogenase, rho independent terminator, site-directed mutagenesis.

The enzymes of the glyoxylate bypass cycle allow Escherichia coli to grow on acetate by preventing the net loss of the acetate carbons as carbon dioxide in the Krebs cycle (Kornberg, 1966; Kornberg and Madsen, 1957). The enzymes unique to this cycle, isocitrate lyase, malate synthase, are induced during growth on acetate and are repressed if any preferred carbon source, such as glucose, is simultaneously present. Once induced, the flow of isocitrate through the glyoxylate bypass is regulated, in part, by the phosphorylation of isocitrate dehydrogenase (IDH), the Krebs cycle enzyme which competes with the isocitrate lyase (Holms et al., 1971; Garnak et al., 1979a, 1979b). The phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of IDH are catalyzed by IDH kinase/ phosphatase which is a bifunctional enzyme. The genes for the metabolic and regulatory enzymes of this pathway reside in the same operon, whichmaps at 91 min on the Escherichia coli chromosome (Brice and Kornberg, 1968; Chung et al., 1988; LaPorte and Chung, 1985; Maloy and Nunn, 1982). Isocitrate lyase and malate synthase are encoded by aceA and aceB, respectively, while IDH kinase/phosphatase is encoded by

S1 nuclease mapping has indicated that this operon employs a single promoter during growth on acetate (Chung et al., 1988). Although these genes are expressed from the unique operon promoter, the intracellular level of isocitrate lyase is more than 100-fold higher than that of IDH kinase/phosphatase. This is a striking example of differential expression within an operon, which is not uncommon in Escherichia coli. The polarity in the glyoxylate bypass operon was originally demonstrated when the specific activities of isocitrate lyase and IDH kinase/phosphatase in crude extracts were compared with those of the purified enzymes. Later it was confirmed by labeling the protein products expressed from an operon clone in the maxicells (Chung et al., 1988). The nucleotide sequence of aceK and its flanking region, including the intergenic sequence between aceA and aceK, has been determined (Klumpp et al., 1988). Several REP (repetitive extragenic palindromic) sequences have been found both in the intergenic region and in the coding sequence of aceK. They have been suggested as playing important roles in the differential expression between the two genes (Klumpp et al., 1988).

a single gene, aceK. The organization of this operon is aceBAK, with aceB being the most proximal gene to the promoter.

^{*}To whom correspondence should be addressed. Tel: 82-53-810-2383, Fax: 82-53-813-4465.

However, in the previous report, we showed that one of the intergenic REP sequences, which encompasses much of the intergenic region, plays only a small role in the downregulation of aceK (Chung et al., 1993). Thus, in this study, we focused on the role of two apparent rho-independent transcription terminators, both of which reside in the coding sequence of aceK, in the differential expression between aceA and aceK of the glyoxylate bypass operon.

Materials and Methods

Enzymes and chemicals

Restriction enzymes and various DNA modifying enzymes were obtained from KOSKO. The kit for site-directed mutagenesis was the product of Boehringer Mannheim (U-DNA Mutagenesis Kit). [35S]-methionine was purchased from Amersham and all other chemicals were the products of Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, USA).

Recombinant DNA methods

Except where indicated, routine manipulations of plasmid DNA were accomplished using standard techniques as described by Maniatis *et al.* (1982).

Site-directed mutagenesis

The method described by Kunkel (1985) was adopted for site-directed mutagenesis. The Sphl/Hindlll fragment of aceK was subcloned into the M13mp18 vector. Uracil-containing single strand DNA was prepared from E. coli RZ 1032 (dut, ung, thi, relA, spoT1/F' lysA), which was previously infected with the recombinant phage containing the aceK insert. This template DNA was then annealed to the mutageneic oligonucleotides. Both of the 48mer oligonucleotides used had PstI restriction endonuclease sites, and their sequences were:

5' AACCGACAGTACACGGAGTTCTGCAGCGTCTCCGCAATCTCGAAGCGC 3'
5' CCGTCTGGTGGATCGGCAGCCTGCAGCCCAATGTGCCGGAAGGTGTGA 3'

where the underlined bases represent the *PstI* sites. The top one was used for mutagenesis of region I and the bottom one for region II shown in Fig. 1. Following extension and ligation steps, *E. coli* JM101 (supE, thi, $\Delta(lac\sim proAB)/F'traD36$, proAB, $lacI^{q}Z\Delta15$) was transformed with the ligation mixture. RF DNAs were isolated from the resulting individual plaques by the alkaline lysis method and desirable clones were identified by *PstI* digesion.

Maxicell labeling

The maxicell technique was used to specifically label

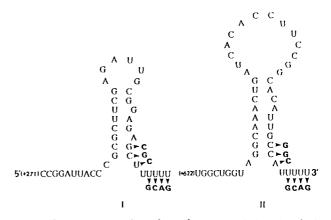


Fig. 1. Two apparent rho-independent transcription terminator structures residing in the coding sequence of aceK. The base substitutions upon mutagenesis are shown by the arrow heads.

proteins produced from recombinant plasmids. The method employed was similar to that described by Sancar et al. (1979) with the following minor modifications. The strain used for this experiment, MM294 Δ , was recA but was not uvrA. Light activated repair of the chromosome was avoided by covering the cultures with aluminum foil following ultraviolet irradiation. In addition, cells surviving the irradiation were killed by the addition of D-cycloserine to 200 μ g/ml two hours after the irradiation. Samples were subjected to SDS gel electrophoresis as described by Laemmli (1970). Molecular weight standards were myosin (205,000), Molecular weight standards were myosin (205,000), bovine serum albumin (66,000), ovalbumin (45,000) and carbonic anhydrase (29,000).

Measurement of enzyme activities

 β -galactosidase was assayed at 37° C using permeabilized cells as described by Miller (1972). The activity of β -lactamase was determined by the method of O'Callghan *et al.* (1968) using cephalosporin as the substrate. The reaction was monitored by observing the decrease in absorbance at 252 nm.

Results and Discussion

To clarify the roles of the two potential rho-independent transcription terminator structures which reside around 300 bp and 650 bp downstream from the start codon of aceK, site-directed mutagenesis was employed. The effect of mutations on the expression of aceK was then evaluated in two different ways; one by maxicell labeling procedure and the other by fusion gene constructions.

Construction of mutant versions of operon clone

The palindromic sequences which can form secondary structures when transcribed have been suggested as playing important roles in differential expression in many bacterial operons either by interfering with the translation of downstream genes or by selectively stabilizing the mRNA segment upstream from these elements (Newbury et al., 1987). Several such secondary structures have been found within the coding sequence of aceK, including the two shown in Fig. 1, as well as in the intergenic region between aceA and aceK (Klumpp et al., 1988). Those residing in the intergenic region, however, do not seem to contribute significantly to the polarity in expression between the two genes, since deletion of one of the biggest repetitive extragenic palindromic (REP) sequences, which includes most of the intergenic region, has failed to enhance the expression of aceK (Chung et al., 1993). Thus, in this study, we focused on the two intragenic palindromic sequences within aceK, which are located around 300 bp and 650 bp downstream from the start codon of aceK. We had good reasons to suspect these two structures as major determinants for the downregulation of aceK. First of all, as shown in Fig. 1, both of the sequences reveal characteristics of the rho-independent transcription terminator: a GC rich stem-loop followed by a string of uracil. Another reason for suspecting them was the fact that the 3'ends of the major species of the glyoxylate operon message have been mapped in these regions (Chung, 1995). To clarify their roles, the two

potential terminator structures were destroyed by sitedirected mutagenesis. Specifically, for each structure, two bases at the end of the stem and the immediate following thymidine residues were replaced with the sequence shown in the Experimental part. Each of the mutageneic oligonucleotides used in this replacement harbored a Pstl site. Since no Pstl site existed in the wild type sequence used for mutagenesis, the deliberate introduction of this restriction enzyme site made the identification procedure of the mutants easier. Mutagenesis was performed onto two different kinds of aceK insert in the M13 vector. One of the aceK inserts was derived from pCL8, which retains the full length operon clone on pBR322. Only one of the two target regions was mutagenized at a time to make independent mutants for region I and II. Acquiring a new PstI site was the criteria for successful mutagenesis in either case. For the positive clones, final confirmation was made through nucletide sequencing by the Sanger dideoxy method. The mutant versions of the insert were then moved back to the parent plasmid pCL8 by replacing the SphI/HindIII fragment of pCL8 with those of the mutated inserts from the M13 vector (Fig. 2). The desirable clones were identified again by digestion with PstI and designated as pLC7 and pLC8 for the mutant in region I and II, respectively. As shown in Fig. 3, in contrast to a single band from the wild type clone pCL 8, which comes from the single site of PstI in the pBR 322 vector, both of the mutants produced an extra

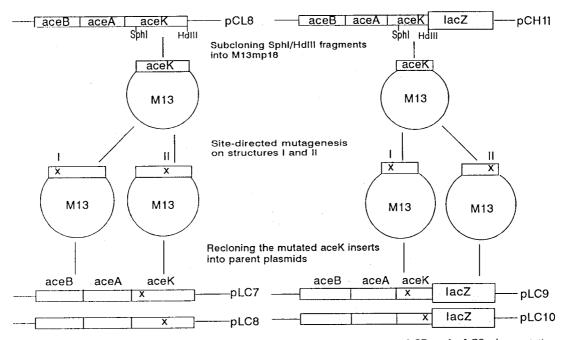


Fig. 2. Strategy for evaluating the effect of disruptions of the structures I and II. Using pLC7 and pLC8, the mutational effect was evaluated by maxicell labeling procedure and the pLC9 and pLC10 were used to quantitatively measure the mutational effect by determining β -galactosidase activity.

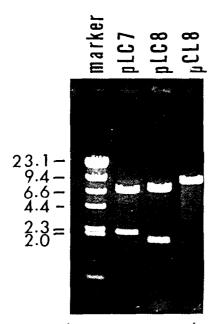


Fig. 3. Construction of two mutant versions of operon clone, pLC7 and pLC8. The sequences I and II were site-directed mutagenized independently on a SphI/HindIII aceK fragment in M13 and the mutated aceK inserts were moved back to the parent clone pCL8 to produce pLC7 and pLC8. To confirm the mutagenesis and recloning, pLC7 (mutant in the structure I), pLC8 (mutant in the structure II) and the wild type clone pCL8 were digested with PstI and fractionated on a 1% agarose gel.

band. The sizes of the bands well agreed with the generations of new PstI sites at region I and II, thus confirming both the mutagenesis and the subcloning. These mutant versions of the operon clone were then used, as described below, to visibly compare the expression level of aceK with that from the wild type.

Protein products expressed from the mutant operon clones

To visibly observe the effect of disruption of the potential tamscription terminators, only the plasmid-born proteins were labeled with ³⁵S-methionine using the maxicell procedure. When the mutant operon clones, pLC7 and pLC8, were expressed from maxicells and the labeled proteins were fractionated and visualized by autoradiography, the isocitrate dehydrogenase kinase/phosphatase, which has a molecular weight of 66 kDa, was not visible from either clone (Fig. 4). The pattern of expression of the three operon genes was identical to that of the wild type. Thus, at least judged from the levels of the proteins on the gel, neither of the structures seems to work as a premature transcriptional terminator.

Quantitative measurement of the effect of mutations

Although the maxicell labeling procedure described above was successful in demonstrating at large that

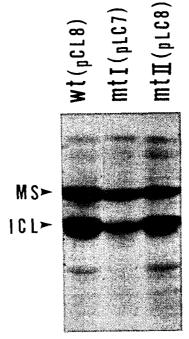


Fig. 4. Protein products expressed from maxicells harboring pLC 7, pLC8 and the wild type clone pCL8. Cells harboring the plasmids were irradiated with UV and the proteins expressed from the surviving plasmids were labeled with [35S]-methionine. MS: malate synthase (the product of aceB); ICL: isocitrate lyase (the product of aceA).

the two palindromic sequences within aceK do not play a major role in differential expression, it didn't allow measurement of a subtle change of aceK expression, if any, from the mutants. Thus a different approach was employed to quantitatively measure mutational effects. For this purpose, mutagenesis was carried out onto another version of the aceK fragment in the M13 vector. The insert also came as a SphI/HindIII fragment, but it was derived from pCH11, which was one of the aceK::lacZ fusion genes produced previously (Chung et al., 1993). Since the reporter gene lacZ used here had no transcriptional or translational initiation signals of its own, the expression of lacZ was totally dependent on the upstream gene segment, in this case, on the aceK part. This particular fusion gene had the fusion point at 763 bp downstream from the start codon of aceK, which means that both of the target secondary structures survived in the truncated aceK part of the fusion gene. Therefore, pCH11 was a suitable fusion gene for quantitative evaluation of the effect of mutations of region I and II. After mutagenesis was normally carried out onto the SphI/HindIII insert derived from pCH11, the recombinant M13 plasmids were isolated and digested with PstI to screen mutants. Here again, the final confirmation for the mutagenesis was by nucleotide sequencing. The mutant aceK fragments from the M13 vector were then used to substitute for

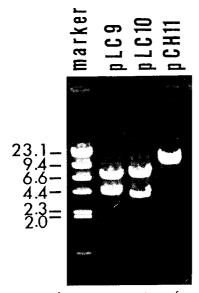


Fig. 5. Construction of two mutant versions of an aceK::lacZ fusion gene plasmid. An aceK insert originally derived from an aceK::lacZ fusion plasmid pCH11 was employed for site-directed mutagenesis of the structures I and II. The mutated aceK inserts were then transferred to the parent plasmid pCH11 to produce pLC9 and pLC10. pLC9 (mutant in the structure I, pLC10 (mutant in the structure II) and the wild type fusion plasmid pCH11 were digested with PstI.

the corresponding wild type sequence in pCH11 (Fig. 2). Restriction digestion analysis to confirm the constructions of these mutant vesions of this aceK::lacZ fusion plasmid is shown in Fig. 5. The wild type fusion gene gave a single band upon Pstl digestion, while the desirable clone with mutation in region I or II produced two fragments with appropriate sizes. Two of them were selected and designated pLC9 and pLC10, of which the former has the mutation in sequence I and the latter in sequence II. These mutant fusion gene plasmids were separately introduced into a β -galactosidase-deficient E. coli strain JM101 and the expression of the fusion genes was induced by growing the cultures in the presence of 2% sodium acetate. Relative β-galactosidase activities expressed from these fusion genes are shown in Table 1. For compensation of the plasmid copy number, the activity of β -lactamase was determined for each culture and used to correct the relative activity of β -galactosidase. Although disruption of structure II resulted in a two-fold increase in the expression of aceK, it was still far from being comparable to that of aceA. Therefore, we conclude that the two apparent rho-independent transcription terminators within the coding sequence of aceK do not act as true terminators in vivo. We previously suggested that the major glyoxylate operon RNAs be produced either by premature transcription termination or posttranscriptional trimming back by exonucleases. The failure to enhance the ex-

Table 1. Effect of disruptions of the apparent terminator structures I and II on the expression of aceK from lacZ fusion genes

Plasmid	Relevant genotype	Relative β-galactosidase activity
pCH13	aceA::lacZ	100
pCH11	aceK::lacZ	0.7
pLC9	aceK ^{ml} ::lacZ	0.2
pLC10	aceK ^{mll} ::lacZ	1.5

The superscripts mI and mII indicate that the aceK parts of these fusion genes have mutations in the structure I and II, respectively.

pression of aceK here after rendering the structures inactive to act as rho-independent terminators thus enhances the possibility of their role as barriers to the action of the putative exonucleases. However, we do not preclude their possible role as rho-dependent terminators either, because the mutations introduced here didn't disrupt the whole secondary structures per se. Rather the mutations rendered the structures inactive as rho-independent terminators. Thus, further studies will be needed to determine whether the differential expression still occurs in the *E. coli* strains defective in rho function.

Acknowledgement

We are grateful to Jin Hyung Lee for her devoted contribution in sequencing. We also thank Dr. D. H. Nam and the members of his laboratory at Yeungnam University for helpful discussions. This work was supported by a Genetic Engineering Research Grant (1993) and by a Yeungnam University Research Fund (1994).

References

Brice, C. G. and Komberg, H. L. (1968) *J. Bacteriol.* **96**, 2185.

Chung, T., Klumpp, D. J. and LaPorte, D. C. (1988) *J. Bacteriol.* **170**, 386.

Chung, T., Resnik, E., Stueland, C. and LaPorte, D. C. (1993) J. Bacteriol. 175, 4572.

Chung, T. (1995) Mol. Cells 5(2), 140.

Gamak, M. and Reeves, H. C. (1979a) Science 203, 11.

Gamak, M. and Reeves, H. C. (1979b) J. Biol. Chem. **254**, 7915.

Holms, W. H. and Bennett, P. M. (1971) J. Gen. Microbiol. 65. 57.

Klumpp, D. J., Plank, D. W., Bowdin, L. J., Stueland, C. S., Chung, T. and LaPorte, D. C. (1988) J. Bacteriol. 170, 2763.

Komberg, H. L. (1966) Biochem. J. 99, 1.

Kornberg, H. L. and Madsen, N. B. (1957) *Biochim. Biophys.* Acta **24**, 651.

- Kunkel, T. A. (1985) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* USA **82**, 488. Laemmli, U. K. (1970) *Nature* **227**, 680.
- LaPorte, D. C. and Chung, T. (1985) J. Biol. Chem. 260, 15291.
- Malloy, S. R. and Nunn, W. D. (1982) J. Bacteriol. 149, 173.Maniatis, T., Fritsch, E. F. and Sambrook, J. (1982) MolecularCloning, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold SpringHarbor, NY.
- Miller, J. H. (1972) Experiments in Molecular Genetics, Cold
- Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, NY.

 Newbury, S. F., Smith, N. H., Robinson, E. C., Hiles, I. D. and Higgins, C. F. (1987) *Cell* 48, 297.
- O'Callaghn, C. H., Muggleton, P. W. and Ross, G. W. (1968) in Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotheraphy (G. Hobby, ed.) p. 57, American Soc. of Microbiology.
- Sancar, A., Hack, A. M. and Rupp, W. D. (1979) *J. Bacteriol.* **137**, 692.