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Substrate induction and glucose repression of maltose utilization by *Streptomyces coelicolor* A3(2) is controlled by *malR*, a member of the *lacl-galR* family of regulatory genes

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Summary

malR of Streptomyces coelicolor A3(2) encodes a homologue of the Lacl/GalR family of repressor proteins, and is divergently transcribed from the malEFG gene cluster, which encodes components of an ATPdependent transport system that is required for maltose utilization. Transcription of malE was induced by maltose and repressed by glucose. Disruption or deletion of malR resulted in constitutive, glucoseinsensitive malE transcription at a level markedly above that observed in the parental malR+ strain, and overproduction of MalR prevented growth on maltose as carbon source. Consequently, MalR plays a crucial role in both substrate induction and glucose repression of maltose utilization. malR is expressed from a single promoter with transcription initiating at the first G of the predicted GTG translation start codon.

Introduction

Members of the genus *Streptomyces* are Gram-positive, mycelial soil bacteria with a high genomic G+C content, and undergo a complex process of morphological development that normally results in sporulation (Chater and Losick, 1996). They also produce a wide variety of secondary metabolites, many of which are used as antibiotics in human medicine and agriculture (Miyadoh, 1993).

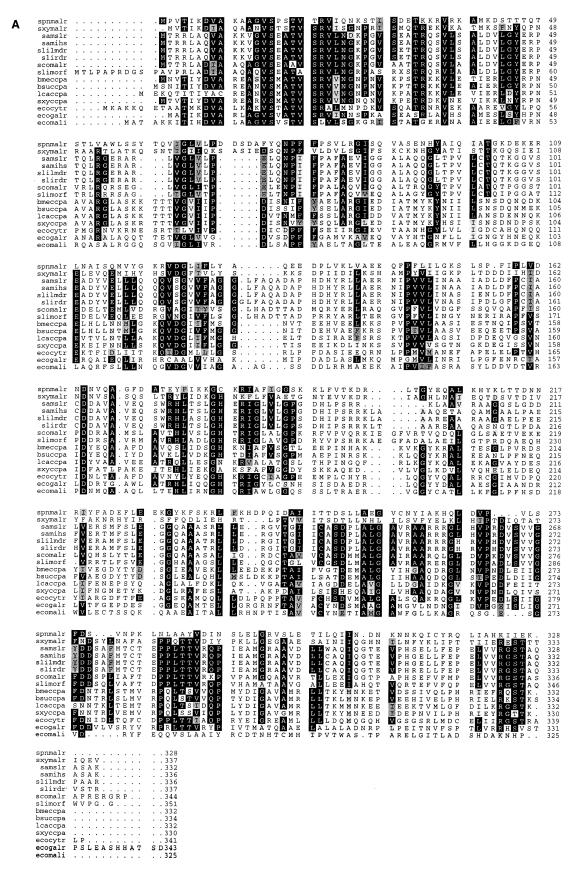
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Streptomycetes are saprophytes, obtaining nutrients and energy by solubilizing organic material in the soil through the production of extracellular hydrolytic enzymes that include amylases, xylanases, cellulases and proteases (McCarthy and Williams, 1992). Alpha-amylase genes (aml) have been cloned from a variety of streptomycetes, and the regulation of α -amylase production has been studied in Streptomyces limosus (Long et al., 1987; Virolle et al., 1988), Streptomyces venezuelae (Virolle and Bibb, 1988), Streptomyces thermoviolaceus (Bahri and Ward, 1990), Streptomyces hygroscopicus (Graefe et al., 1986) and Streptomyces kanamyceticus (Flores et al., 1993). Transcription of at least some of these genes is induced by starch-derived di- and oligosaccharides, such as maltose and maltotriose, and aml genes probably belong to the maltose regulons of most, if not all, streptomycetes. While induction of aml transcription in S. venezuelae is repressed by glucose, it is not repressed by this sugar in S. limosus (Virolle et al., 1988) and S. thermoviolaceus (Bahri and Ward, 1990); in both of the latter strains, mannitol acts as a repressing carbon source. However, when cloned in Streptomyces coelicolor A3(2) or in Streptomyces lividans, aml of S. limosus adopts the regulatory characteristics of its surrogate host, with induction of aml transcription being repressed by glucose and not by mannitol (Virolle et al., 1988).

The mechanism of glucose repression in streptomycetes is not understood. While phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP)dependent fructose phosphotransferase systems occur in some streptomycetes (Titgemeyer et al., 1995), attempts to identify PEP-dependent glucose phosphotransferase systems in several Streptomyces species have failed (Sabater et al., 1972; Novotná and Hostálek, 1985). This, and the absence of fluctuations in cAMP levels with changes in carbon source in *S. coelicolor* (Hodgson, 1980) and in S. venezuelae (Chatterjee and Vining, 1982), suggest that the mechanism of glucose repression is markedly different from that in Escherichia coli (Postma et al., 1993; 1996). In other Gram-positive bacteria with genomic DNA of lower G+C content, such as Bacillus subtilis, Bacillus megaterium and Staphylococcus xylosus, CcpA, a homologue of the LacI-GaIR family of regulatory proteins, acts

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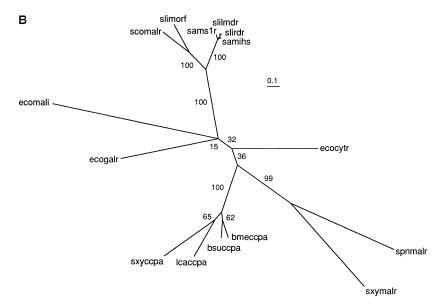


Fig. 1. A. Alignment of the amino acid sequences of a selection of MaIR homologues: spnmalr, MaIR of Sta. pneumoniae (swissprot Q08511); sxymalr, MaIR of Sta. xylosus (PIR S44187); samihs, product of the left direct repeat of AUD6 of S. ambofaciens (PIR S33360); sams1r, product of the right direct repeat of AUD6 of S. ambofaciens (PIR S33361); slilmdr, products of the left and middle direct repeats of AUD1 of S. lividans (PIR S21351/2); slirdr, product of the right direct repeat of AUD1 of S. lividans (PIR S21353); scomalr, MaIR of S. coelicolor (this study; EMBL Accession no. Y07706); slimorf, product of ORF-SI of S. limosus (this study; EMBL Accession no. Y08304); bmeccpa, CcpA of B. megaterium (EMBL L26052); bsuccpa, CcpA of B. subtilis (EMBL Accession no. M85182); Icaccpa, CcpA of L. casei (GenBank Accession no. M85182); sxyccpa, CcpA of Sta. xylosus (EMBL Accession no. X95439); ecocytr, CytR of E. coli (SWISSPROT P06964); ecogalr, GalR of E. coli (SWISSPROT P03024); ecomali, Mall of E. coli (SWISSPROT P18811). B. Phylogenetic tree of the sequences aligned in (A). The number of supporting bootstrap replicates (out of 100) is shown for each internal branch.

as a pleiotropic effector of glucose repression (Hueck and Hillen, 1995; Henkin, 1996; Egeter and Brückner, 1996). In S. coelicolor, the most genetically characterized streptomycete, inactivation of an ATP-dependent glucose kinase encoded by glkA results in the inability to utilize glucose and in a pleiotropic loss of glucose repression (Hodgson, 1982; Seno and Chater, 1983; Kwakman and Postma, 1994), but has no effect on glucose transport (Hodgson, 1982). Moreover, replacement of GlkA with an unrelated glucose kinase from Zymomonas mobilis, or with a normally cryptic glucose kinase of S. coelicolor, conferred glucose utilization, but not glucose repression (Angell et al., 1994). Thus, glkA plays a key regulatory role in mediating glucose repression in S. coelicolor, and its homologue in Sta. xylosus appears to have a similar function (Wagner et al., 1995).

Earlier studies of the aml genes of S. limosus (Long et al., 1987) and S. venezuelae (Virolle et al., 1988) identified the 3' end of a gene located immediately upstream of aml in both strains that appeared to encode a member of the Lacl-GalR family of regulatory proteins. In this study we report the sequence of this upstream gene from S. limosus, and its use to isolate and characterize a homologue from S. coelicolor, malR, that is required for both substrate induction and glucose repression of maltose utilization.

Results

Isolation and sequence analysis of members of the lacl-galR family of regulatory genes from S. limosus and S. coelicolor

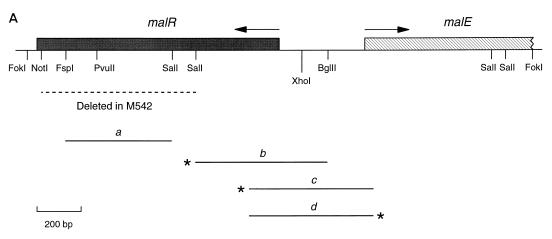
Sequence analysis of the *aml* genes of *S. limosus* and *S.* venezuelae revealed the 3' end of an upstream open reading frame (ORF) whose predicted product showed significant amino acid sequence identity to the LacI-GaIR family of regulatory proteins. The sequence (EMBL, Accession no. Y08304) of a 2.3 kb region upstream of aml of S. limosus was determined and revealed a complete ORF (ORF-SI) that would encode a protein of 351 amino acids (39 kDa) with a significant degree of sequence identity to members of the LacI-GaIR family (e.g. 29% and 30% amino acid sequence identity to LacI and GaIR, respectively; Fig. 1A). Upstream of ORF-SI lies the 3' end of an ORF (aglA) whose predicted product is a homologue (57% identity over 330 amino acids) of an α -glucosidase from the actinomycete Thermomonospora curvata (EMBL, Accession no. U17917). aglA and ORF-SI are co-transcribed (J. White, unpublished results) and apparently translationally coupled, with the TGA stop codon of aglA overlapping the ATG start codon of ORF-SI.

As S. limosus is not a genetically well-characterized and

manipulable strain, further attempts to analyse the role of ORF-SI were carried out by isolating and studying its homologue in S. coelicolor. To obtain the ORF-SI homologue of S. coelicolor, a 32-fold degenerate oligonucleotide corresponding to the C-terminal segment of the helixturn-helix motif of ORF-SI (see below) was used to screen the ordered S. coelicolor cosmid library (Redenbach et al., 1996) by colony hybridization. DNA was isolated from 16 positive clones, digested with BamHI and SaII, and subjected to Southern analysis using the 1300 bp AatIII fragment (EMBL, Accession no. Y08304) containing most of ORF-SI and part of agIA as probe. One cosmid (10B7) gave a strong hybridization signal, which was subsequently localized to a 13 kb BamHI fragment. This fragment was

cloned in the *Bam*HI site of pBR329, yielding pIJ2564. Double-strand sequencing of this plasmid using the oligonucleotide used to probe the ordered cosmid library revealed a close homologue of ORF-*SI*. Sequencing of appropriate subcloned fragments from pIJ2564 revealed an ORF (*malR*) that would encode a protein of 344 aa (39 kDa). The cosmid maps at approx. 11 o'clock, on *Asel* fragment C, of the combined physical and genetic map of the *S. coelicolor* chromosome (Redenbach *et al.*, 1996).

A restriction map of the 2.2 kb *Fok*l fragment containing *malR* is shown in Fig. 2A. Upstream of and in the opposite orientation to *malR* lies a gene (*malE*) encoding a homologue of the maltose-binding protein found in other bacteria (Duplay *et al.*, 1984; Puyet and Espinosa, 1993).



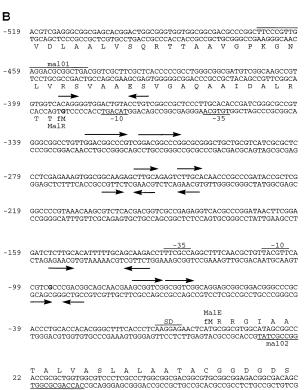


Fig. 2. A. Restriction map of *malR* and the 5' region of *malE* of *S. coelicolor*. Arrows indicate the direction of transcription. a, *FspI-Sal* I fragment (477 bp) used for Southern hybridization and creation of the *malR* insertion mutant M541; b, *SalI-Bg/II* fragment (564 bp) used for Southern hybridization, and S1 nuclease mapping and *in vitro* transcription analysis of *malR* transcripts; c and d, PCR fragments (549 bp) used for S1 nuclease mapping and *in vitro* transcription assays of *malR* and *malE* transcripts, respectively. Asterisks indicate ³²P-labelled ends. The extent of the in-frame deletion in *malR* is shown as a dotted line below the restriction map.

B. Nucleotide sequence of the intergenic region between *malR* and *malE*. The deduced amino acid sequences of MalR and MalE are shown below and above the nucleotide sequence, respectively. The *malR* transcription start site is shown in bold at position –392; putative –35 and –10 regions and a *malE* Shine–Dalgarno sequence (SD), presumably involved in ribosome binding, are indicated by lines above the nucleotide sequence. Direct and inverted repeats are indicated by arrows. The sequences of the oligonucleotides mal01 and mal02 used in the PCR and for sequencing are underlined.

Disruption of malE prevented the utilization of maltose as carbon source (G. P. van Wezel, J. White, M. J. Bibb and P. O. Postma, submitted). The sequence of the malRmalE intergenic region and the predicted translation start sites for malR and malE are shown in Fig. 2B.

Relationship of MalR to other members of the Lacl-GalR family

In addition to ORF-SI, the complete nucleotide sequences of five other streptomycete homologues of malR are available. Three occur as part of the amplifiable element AUD1 of S. lividans (Piendl et al., 1994), where they appear to play a role in DNA amplification (Volff et al., 1996), and two occur as part of the amplifiable element AUD6 of Streptomyces ambofaciens (Aubert et al., 1993); pairwise comparisons between the products of the six ORFs reveal 92-100% amino acid sequence identity (two of the homologues in AUD1 are identical). MaIR and the product of ORF-SI show a higher level of similarity to each other (63% identity) than to the products of the S. ambofaciens and S. lividans ORFs (53-55% identity). An alignment of the Streptomyces MalR homologues with members of the Lacl-GalR family of proteins from other bacteria is shown in Fig. 1A, and a phylogenetic tree is shown in Fig. 1B. The Streptomyces homologues all group closely together, with MaIR and the product of ORF-SI forming a separate branch from the S. lividans and S. ambofaciens homologues. Both the protein sequence comparison and the phylogenetic tree indicate that MaIR and the product of ORF-SI are not significantly more similar to specific regulatory proteins for maltose utilization (e.g. MaIR from Streptococcus pneumoniae (Puyet et al., 1993) and Sta. xylosus (Egeter and Brückner, 1995), and Mall from E. coli (Reidl et al., 1989)) than they are to the pleiotropic regulatory proteins CcpA (from B. subtilis (Henkin et al., 1991), B. megaterium (Hueck et al., 1994), Sta. xylosus (Egeter and Brückner, 1996) and Lactobacillus casei (GenBank, Accession no. U28137), and CytR (from E. coli; Valentin-Hansen et al., 1986). A feature shared by all members of this family of repressor proteins is a well-conserved N-terminally located helix-turn-helix motif responsible for DNA binding (Weickert and Adhya, 1992); such a motif is also present in the products of malR (Fig. 1A, scomalr, amino acid residues 5-24) and ORF-SI (Fig. 1A, slimorf, amino acid residues 16 - 35).

The malR transcript lacks an untranslated leader sequence

To determine the transcription start site of malR, RNA was isolated from S. coelicolor M145 grown in liquid minimal medium (SMM) containing glucose as carbon source and

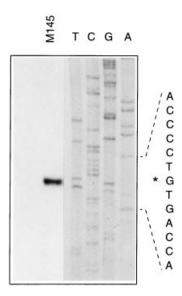


Fig. 3. Determination of the transcription start site of malk TCGA. malR nucleotide sequence ladder. M145, RNA-protected fragment derived from RNA isolated from M145 grown in SMM containing glucose as carbon source; the asterisk indicates the most probable transcription start site, and coincides with the first G of the predicted translation start codon GTG.

subjected to S1 mapping. A single transcription start site was located corresponding to the first G of the predicted GTG translation start codon (Fig. 3). Thus, the malR transcript appears to lack a conventional ribosome-binding site, a property shown by several other streptomycete mRNAs (Janssen, 1993; Strohl, 1992). In vitro transcription assays using S. coelicolor RNA polymerase with a 564 bp Sall-Bg/II fragment and a 549 bp polymerase chain reaction (PCR) product (Fig. 2A; fragments b and c, respectively), each containing the malR promoter region as templates, gave the expected run-off transcripts of ≈330 nucleotides (nt) and 120 nt, respectively. The transcriptional start site of malR is preceded by sequences (Fig. 2B, 5'-TGTGCA-17 bp-TACAGT-3') that are similar to the proposed consensus sequence (5'-TTGACN-16-18 bp-TAGAPuT-3'; Strohl, 1992) for promoters recognized by the major RNA polymerase holoenzyme of Streptomyces.

S1 nuclease protection studies using RNA isolated from M145 grown in SMM containing glucose revealed malR transcripts throughout growth, but with maximal levels during mid- and late-exponential phases (Fig. 4).

Inactivation of malR causes constitutive, enhanced and glucose-insensitive transcription of malE

To determine the function of malR and its possible role in the regulation of *malE*, an in-frame deletion was made that removed the C-terminal two-thirds of the malR-coding region (corresponding to amino acid residues 112-341

time after inoculation (h)

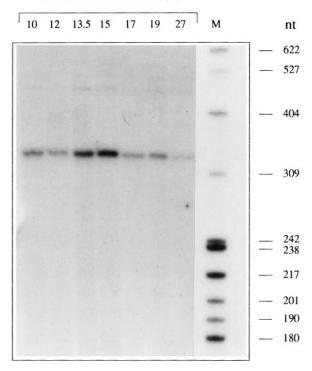


Fig. 4. Transcription of *malR* during growth in SMM containing glucose as carbon source. M, 32 P-end-labelled *HpaII*-digested pBR322 size markers; nt, nucleotides. The culture entered stationary phase after \approx 22 h.

out of 344). Such a mutation should not have a polar effect on the expression of genes 3' of malR. S. coelicolor J1501 was transformed with single-stranded DNA derived from plJ2591 (Fig. 5), which carries tsr conferring thiostrepton-resistance (Thio^R). One Thio^R isolate, which had probably arisen by single cross-over integration of plJ2591 into the malR region of the chromosome, was subjected to three rounds of sporulation on non-selective SFM agar plates to allow a second cross-over to occur, resulting in loss of tsr. DNA was isolated from 40 Thio^S colonies, digested with Not1 and analysed in two Southern blots. In the first hybridization, using the 564 bp Sall-Bg/II fragment corresponding to the N-terminal part of malR as probe (Fig. 2A, fragment b), the 2.2kb Not1 fragment containing malR should have been 700 bp smaller in the deletion mutant, while in the second hybridization, using the 477 bp FspI-SaII probe (Fig. 2A, fragment a) recognizing the part of malR that should have been deleted, no hybridization signal was expected in the mutant. One of the Thio^S clones (M542) gave the correct patterns. A second malR mutant (M541) was made by integrating plJ2587 containing the 477 bp Fspl-SalI fragment internal to malR (Fig. 2A, fragment a) in the chromosome of M145; disruption of malR was confirmed by Southern analysis.

In agreement with data obtained for other *S. coelicolor* strains (Hodgson, 1980), maltose proved to be a poor carbon source for *S. coelicolor* M145 and J1501, giving growth rates and final biomass accumulations that were consistently lower than those obtained with glucose (data for M145 are shown in Fig. 6A). In contrast, the growth rates of the *malR* mutants M541 and M542 on maltose were comparable to those for glucose-grown cultures and significantly higher than the congenic *malR*⁺ parental strains (data for M542 are shown in Fig. 6B). Furthermore, the final biomass accumulation of M541 and M542 grown on maltose approached that obtained with glucose (Fig. 6B), indicating an increased ability to use maltose as carbon source.

To assess whether this might reflect derepression of malEFG and elevated levels of maltose uptake, transcription of malE in M145 and in M542 was analysed by S1 nuclease protection assays using RNA isolated from liquid minimal medium (NMMP) cultures containing maltose, glucose or a combination of maltose and glucose (earlier studies had shown that transcription of malE was barely detectable when mannitol was used as a non-repressing carbon source, but markedly induced on addition of maltose (G. P. van Wezel, J. White, M. J. Bibb and P. O. Postma, submitted)). In M145, transcription of malE was strongly induced by maltose, and this induction was completely repressed when glucose was present as an additional carbon source (Fig. 7). However, in M542 transcription of malE was constitutive and occurred at levels much greater than the induced level in M145. Moreover, transcription of malE was no longer repressed by

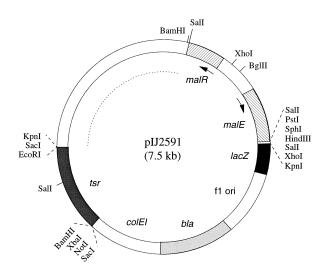


Fig. 5. Restriction map of pIJ2591. CoIE1 and f1 ori, origins of replication; *bla*, ampicillin-resistance gene; *tsr*, thiostrepton-resistance gene; *lacZ*, segment containing the *lacZ* promoter and encoding the α fragment of β-galactosidase. The dotted line denotes sequences located 3′ of *malR*, and arrows indicate the direction of transcription.

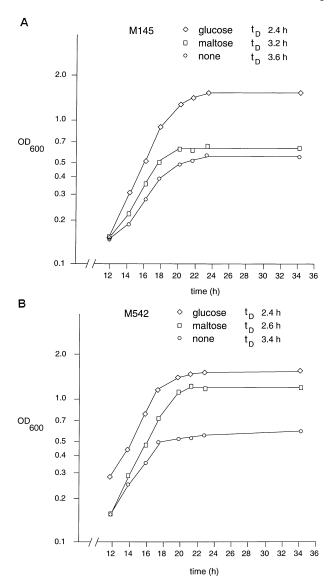


Fig. 6. Growth of S. coelicolor M145 (malR+) (A) and S. coelicolor M542 ($\Delta malR$) (B) in the liquid minimal medium SMM containing 0.1% (w/v) casamino acids supplemented with 1% (w/v) glucose. maltose or no additional carbon source. $t_{\,\mathrm{D}},$ doubling time.

glucose, indicating a role for MalR in both substrate induction and catabolite repression of maltose utilization. Similar results were obtained with M541.

To confirm that the enhanced ability of M542 to utilize maltose was due solely to deletion of malR, the 2.2kb FokI fragment containing the malR-coding region and promoter (Fig. 2A) was cloned in the conjugative vector pSET152 yielding pIJ2593, which was subsequently integrated at the chromosomal øC31-attachment site, resulting in M543. The growth rate and biomass accumulation of M543 in SMM containing maltose were essentially the same as those of M145, confirming restoration of the wild-type phenotype.

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Inactivation of malR represses agarase production

Expression of the agarase gene (dagA) of S. coelicolor is subject to carbon catabolite repression (Hodgson, 1980; Bibb et al., 1987; Kwakman and Postma, 1994), and dagA transcription is strongly repressed by glucose (Servín-González et al., 1994; Angell et al., 1994). Agarase production by M145, the glkA mutant J1915, and the malR mutants M541 and M542, was readily detected on MM plates containing agar as sole carbon source (Fig. 8; upper left plate); as expected, agarase production by all except J1915 was effectively repressed by glucose (Fig. 8; upper right plate). Unexpectedly, while agarase production by M145 and J1915 was readily detected on plates containing 1% (w/v) maltose, agarase production by M541 and M542 was undetectable (Fig. 8; bottom left plate). This apparent repression of agarase activity in the malR mutants might reflect higher levels of intracellular glucose which could arise from elevated levels of maltose uptake upon the observed derepression of malEFG (Fig. 7). Agarase production in glucose-grown agar cultures of M543 was restored, confirming that repression did indeed result from inactivation of malR.

Overexpression of malR prevents maltose utilization

The 2.2 kb Fok I fragment containing malR was cloned in the multicopy vector plJ486 (c. 50-100 copies per genome), yielding plJ2592. Introduction of plJ2592 into M145 prevented growth in liquid minimal medium (NMMP lacking casamino acids) containing maltose as sole carbon source, presumably because of overexpression of

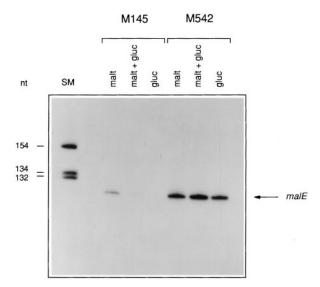


Fig. 7. Transcription of malE in SMM-grown cultures of M145 and M542, using maltose (malt), maltose plus glucose (malt+gluc) or glucose (gluc) as carbon sources. SM, ³²P-end-labelled HpaII-digested pBR322 size markers; nt, nucleotides.

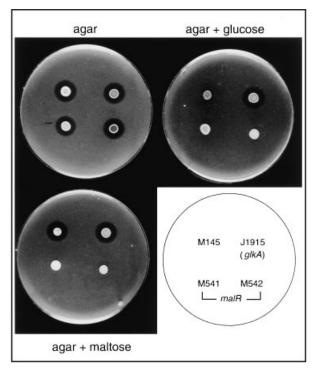


Fig. 8. Effect of carbon source on agarase production by M145, J1915 (M145 *glkA*), and the *malR* mutants M541 and M542. A volume of 4 μ l of a titred spore preparation of each of the four strains was spotted on MM plates, and agarase activity detected as zones of clearing of the agar.

malR and enhanced repression of malE. No growth inhibition was detected when glucose, glycerol, mannitol, arabinose or galactose were used as carbon sources.

Identification of MaIR using antibodies raised against CcpA from B. megaterium

As MalR and CcpA from B. megaterium are 30% identical (Fig. 1A), we assessed whether antibodies raised against CcpA would cross-react with MalR. S30 supernatants derived from total-protein extracts prepared from 36 h TSB-grown cultures of S. coelicolor were analysed by Western blotting using antibodies raised against CcpA of B. megaterium (Küster et al., 1996). Two proteins of approx. 55 kDa and 43 kDa were detected in extracts from M145; bands of a similar mobility were noted in extracts of S. coelicolor DSM 40233 by Küster et al. (1996). The 43 kDa band is approx. the same size as that predicted for MaIR (39kDa). It was not observed in extracts from the malR deletion mutant M542, but reappeared in an extract from M542 containing plJ2592 at a level several times higher than in M145. We therefore believe that the 43 kDa protein is MalR. The 55 kDa protein (≈500 amino acids) is significantly larger than any known member of the LacI-GalR family of proteins.

Discussion

Members of the <code>lacl-galR</code> family of regulatory genes were identified in <code>S. limosus</code> (ORF-<code>Sl</code>) and <code>S. coelicolor</code> (<code>malR</code>), located upstream of <code>aml</code> (encoding an α -amylase; Long <code>et al., 1987</code>) and <code>malE</code> (probably encoding a maltose-binding protein; G. P. van Wezel, J. White, M. J. Bibb and P. O. Postma, submitted), respectively. The degree of similarity of the two gene products (63% amino acid sequence identity) is consistent with the notion that they are functionally homologous proteins. As attempts at phage-mediated disruption of ORF-<code>Sl</code> in <code>S. limosus</code> failed (J. White, unpublished results), we focussed on its homologue from the genetically more amenable <code>S. coelicolor</code>.

Transcription of malE (and probably of malFG, both of which appear to be required for maltose uptake; G. P. van Wezel, J. White, M. J. Bibb and P. O. Postma, submitted) was induced by maltose in S. coelicolor M145 (G. P. van Wezel, J. White, M. J. Bibb and P. O. Postma, submitted; this study), but was constitutive in the malR mutants M541 and M542. Presumably, in the wild-type strain, maltose or a maltose metabolite binds to MalR and prevents it from repressing transcription initiation at the malE promoter. Disruption or deletion of malR also relieved glucose repression of malE transcription. Thus, MaIR is required for both substrate induction and glucose repression of malE expression. While S. coelicolor grows poorly on maltose as sole carbon source (Hodgson, 1982; G. P. van Wezel, J. White, M. J. Bibb and P. O. Postma, submitted), the malR mutants grew much better than the parental strain, perhaps because of elevated levels of maltose uptake. Consistent with this, the level of malE transcription in the malR mutant M542 far exceeded the induced level observed in M145 on all carbon sources tested. Furthermore, in contrast to M145, agarase production by the malR mutants was repressed by maltose, perhaps reflecting higher levels of intracellular glucose, a potential consequence of improved maltose uptake. While compatible with its role as a repressor, the ability of 50-100 copies of malR (in the form of plJ2592) to prevent growth of S. coelicolor M145 on maltose is surprising. This may reflect the ability of enhanced levels of MalR to completely repress malE transcription, preventing inducer uptake.

Notwithstanding the ability of antibodies raised against CcpA of *B. megaterium* to cross-react with MalR, disruption of *malR* had no apparent pleiotropic effect on carbon source utilization, and we have no evidence to suggest that MalR is a functional homologue of CcpA. Homologues of MalR occur in *Sta. pneumoniae* (Puyet *et al.*, 1993) and in *Sta. xylosus* (Egeter and Brückner, 1995). While MalR of *S. coelicolor* and *Sta. pneumoniae* acts to repress maltosaccharide and maltose utilization, respectively, inactivation of *malR* in *Sta. xylosus* reduces the level of maltose

transport and utilization. The role that these latter two homologues play in glucose repression of maltosaccharide and maltose catabolism in their respective hosts was not reported.

The ability of *malR* to mediate both substrate induction and catabolite repression of malE transcription resembles the role of the phylogenetically unrelated GyIR, the repressor of the glycerol operon gylCABX of S. coelicolor (Hindle and Smith, 1994). The level of gylCABX transcription in gyIR null mutants is markedly increased in both uninduced and glucose-grown cultures, and the presence of gylR on a multicopy plasmid prevents glycerol utilization (F. Amini, M. S. B. Paget and C. P. Smith, personal communication). Whether the dual roles that GyIR and MaIR play in the regulation of catabolic pathways in S. coelicolor is a common occurrence in streptomycetes remains to be determined.

The existence of a regulatory protein that mediates both substrate induction and glucose repression of malE transcription predicts the existence of cis-acting sequences that are required for both aspects of regulation. Direct and inverted repeats that might fulfil such a function occur 5' and 3' of the malE promoter (Fig. 2B). The 5' direct repeat CTTGCA and the inverted repeat 5'-TCTTGC-11bp-GCAAGA-3', which occurs just upstream of the putative −35 region of *malE*, are also found in the promoter region of aml of S. limosus. The direct repeat appears to play a role in the induction of aml transcription by maltose, and deletion of the inverted repeat resulted in constitutive expression that was insensitive to glucose repression (Virolle and Gagnat, 1994). Consequently, this inverted repeat is a probable binding site for MalR. Direct repeats that show no sequence similarity to the direct and inverted repeats present in the malE promoter region are also required for both substrate induction and glucose repression of a chitinase gene (chi63) of Streptomyces plicatus (Delić et al., 1992), again consistent with the notion of a single regulatory protein with dual functions in chitinase gene regulation.

The role of a repressor in both induction and glucose repression of malE transcription could be readily explained if glucose repression was mediated by inducer exclusion, i.e. if glucose, directly or indirectly, prevented the uptake of maltose. Interestingly, glucose repression of lactose utilization during growth of E. coli on both sugars appears to be totally attributable to inducer exclusion and to the level of active LacI, the repressor of the lac operon, with cAMP and CRP (cyclic AMP receptor protein) playing no role (Inada et al., 1996). Although there is no evidence either for or against the role of inducer exclusion in regulating malE expression, constitutive expression of aml of S. limosus in S. lividans, achieved by cloning the gene on a high-copy-number plasmid, was still subject to glucose repression (Virolle and Bibb, 1988), i.e. under conditions where aml transcription was inducer independent, glucose

repression was still operative. If applicable to the closely related S. coelicolor, and to other genes in the maltose regulon, this suggests that inducer exclusion does not play a major role in glucose repression of malE transcription (similar conclusions were drawn for glucose repression of dagA expression in S. coelicolor (Servín-González et al., 1994)). How else might glucose repression of malE transcription be mediated in a MalR-dependent manner? There is evidence in Bacillus species that glucose-6-phosphate acts as an anti-inducer of XyIR, the repressor of the xylose-utilization operon, both in vivo and in vitro, by competing with xylose for binding to XylR (Scheler and Hillen, 1993; Dahl et al., 1995); although inactivation of xyIR reduces glucose repression only about twofold in B. megaterium (Schmiedel and Hillen, 1996), much less than the apparent effect of deleting malR on glucose repression of malE transcription (Fig. 7), it is possible that a similar mechanism operates in S. coelicolor. Alternatively, perhaps an unidentified pleiotropic regulatory protein responsible for glucose repression, and functionally analagous to CcpA, requires the presence of MalR to bind to the malE promoter region. Finally, as the glucose kinase gene (glkA) of S. coelicolor plays a pleiotropic role in carbon catabolite repression, and because GlkA is required for glucose repression of the aml genes of S. limosus and S. venezuelae when cloned in S. coelicolor (Virolle and Bibb, 1988; Virolle et al., 1988), glucose repression of malE may be mediated by MalR through interaction with, or modification by, GlkA.

malR is transcribed constitutively during growth of S. coelicolor in liquid culture, with transcript levels peaking during mid- to late-exponential phase. The transcription start site of the malR promoter coincides with the first G of the predicted GTG translational start codon, and thus the malR transcript lacks a conventional untranslated leader sequence and ribosome-binding site, consistent with the absence of a purine-rich Shine-Dalgarno sequence complementary to the 3' end of the 16S RNA upstream of the *malR*-coding region. Although several streptomycete mRNAs lack untranslated leader sequences (Janssen, 1993; Strohl, 1992), the malR transcript appears to be only the second example of a leaderless mRNA involved in primary metabolism, the other being that derived from the histidase gene of Streptomyces griseus (Wu et al., 1995).

Experimental procedures

Bacterial strains, culture conditions, plasmids and phages

E. coli K-12 strains JM101 and JM109 (Messing et al., 1981), and ET12567 mini-F'Km (MacNeil et al., 1992; M. J. Bibb, unpublished) were used for routine subcloning and for the preparation of single-stranded DNA, respectively, and were grown and transformed by standard procedures (Sambrook et al., 1989); transformants were selected with carbenicillin at a final concentration of 200 μg ml⁻¹. Luria (L) broth containing $50\,\mu g\,ml^{-1}$ kanamycin was used to grow ET12567 mini-F'Km to isolate single-stranded DNA using M13KO7 as helper phage (Sambrook et al., 1989). S. coelicolor A3(2) strains used were M145 (Hopwood et al., 1985), J1501 (Chater et al., 1982) and J1915 (Kelemen et al., 1995). Protoplast preparation and transformation were as described by Hopwood et al. (1985). SFM medium (mannitol, 20 g l⁻¹; soya flour, $20\,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}$; agar, $20\,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{l}^{-1}$, dissolved in tap water and autoclaved twice) is a modified version of that reported by Hobbs et al. (1989) and was used to make spore suspensions. Liquid minimal medium (NMMP; Hopwood et al., 1985) containing 1% (w/v) glucose, mannitol, maltose or maltose plus glucose, and unless otherwise stated 0.05% (w/v) casamino acids, or SMM (Strauch et al., 1992) containing 0.1% (w/v) casamino acids and 1% (w/v) glucose or maltose, were used to assess carbon-source utilization and for RNA isolation. MM plates (Hopwood et al., 1985) were used to assess agarase production, which was detected as zones of clearing of the agar. TSB (Oxoid Tryptone-Soya broth powder; 30 g l⁻¹) was used to grow S. coelicolor strains for Western analysis.

pUC18 (Yanisch-Perron *et al.*, 1985), pBluescript-II SK+ (Stratagene), and pSET152 (Bierman *et al.*, 1992) were used for cloning experiments. pIJ486 (Ward *et al.*, 1986) was used as a high-copy-number vector (≈50−100 copies per chromosome; T. Kieser, personal communication) in *S. coelicolor*. The 2.2kb *Fok*I fragment (Fig. 2A) containing *malR* and part of *malE* of *S. coelicolor* was cloned in pUC18, pIJ486 and pSET152, resulting in pIJ2588, pIJ2592, and pIJ2593, respectively. Standard procedures were used to isolate plasmid DNA from *E. coli* (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989), and to isolate plasmid and total DNA from *S. coelicolor* (Hopwood *et al.*, 1985).

plJ2564 was made by cloning a 13kb BamHI fragment containing malR from cosmid 10B7 in pBR329 (Covarrubias and Bolivar, 1982). plJ2587, which was used to make the malR disruption mutant M541, is a pUC18 derivative containing the internal 477 bp Fspl-Sal1 fragment of malR (Fig. 2A, fragment a) and tsr. plJ2591 (Fig. 5), which was used to make the malR deletion mutant M542, is a pBluescript-II SK+ derivative containing tsr and a 3.5 kb segment from which the internal Sall-Notl region of malR (Fig. 2A) had been deleted. Double- and single-stranded DNAs derived from pIJ2587 and pIJ2591, respectively, were used to transform protoplasts of S. coelicolor M145 and J1501, respectively, and integrants selected with a final concentration of $50\,\mu g\,ml^{-1}$ Thio. Southern analyses were performed to confirm the mutations present in M541 and M542 using the appropriate 32P-labelled probes (Sambrook et al., 1989) and previously described hybridization conditions (van Wezel et al., 1991).

DNA sequence analysis

The nucleotide sequence of *malR* was determined using the Promega TaqTrack and Pharmacia T7 sequencing kits and double-stranded DNA templates derived by subcloning DNA fragments from pIJ2588 and pIJ2564 in pUC18. For ORF-*SI* and *agIA*, sonicated fragments of the 2.2 kb *EcoRI*-*BcI*I

chromosomal segment containing the genes (Virolle and Bibb, 1988) were cloned in the *Smal* site of M13mp18, and nucleotide sequences determined using single-stranded DNA templates and the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I (Sanger *et al.*, 1977). Synthetic oligonucleotides were used to close gaps in the sequences. The sequences of *S. coelicolor malR* (Accession no. Y07706) and *S. limosus* ORF-*SI* with part of *aglA* (Accession no. Y08304) were deposited in the EMBL nucleotide sequence database.

Nuclease S1 protection assays

RNA was purified as described by Hopwood et al. (1985), except that DNase I treatment was used in addition to salt precipitation to eliminate DNA from the nucleic acid preparations. For each nuclease S1 protection assay, approx. 0.02 pmol (≈10⁴ Cerenkov counts min⁻¹) of labelled probe was hybridized to 20 µg of RNA in Na-TCA buffer (Murray, 1986) at 45°C overnight after denaturation at 65°C for 15 min. All subsequent steps were carried out as described previously (Strauch et al., 1991), using an excess of probe. All of the nuclease S1 protection experiments were carried out at least twice using RNA isolated from independent cultures, and the results presented were shown to be reproducible. The probes used are shown in Fig. 2A. The 564 bp Sall-Bg/II fragment of pIJ2588 (Fig. 2A, probe b), 32P-endlabelled at the Sall site, and the 549 bp polymerase chain reaction (PCR) product (Fig. 2A, probe c) made using oligonucleotides mal02 and $^{32}\text{P-end-labelled}$ mal01 (Fig. 2B), were used for mapping malR transcripts. The same PCR product, but made using unlabelled mal01 and 32P-end-labelled mal02, was used for determining the level of malE transcripts. PCRs contained 1× PCR buffer (Boehringer Mannhein), 0.2 mM of each dNTP, 25-50 pmol of each primer, 10 ng of plJ2564, 5U Taq polymerase (Boehringer Mannhein) and 5% (v/v) glycerol in a total volume of $100 \,\mu$ l. Samples were subjected to 30 cycles of 60 s at 94°C, 60 s at 54°C and 60 s at 72°C.

In vitro transcription analysis

RNA polymerase was isolated from cultures in the transition phase between exponential growth and stationary phase, as described previously (Buttner and Brown, 1985). *In vitro* runoff transcription experiments were performed as described by Buttner *et al.* (1987) using the 564 bp *Sal1–Bgl1*I fragment and the 549 bp PCR product (Fig. 2A, fragments b and c) as templates. Products were analysed on denaturing 6% (w/v) polyacrylamide gels using ³²P-end-labelled *Hpal1* fragments of pBR322 as size markers.

Western blots

Western analyses were conducted as described by Vijgenboom *et al.* (1994) using a 1:1000 dilution of antibodies raised against CcpA of *B. megaterium*.

Amino acid sequence analysis

The program clustalw (Thompson et al., 1994) at the SEQNET facility (Daresbury Laboratory, Cheshire, UK) was

used to align the sequences, calculate distances using the Kimura correction, and construct the tree by the neighbourjoining method (Saitou and Nei, 1987) with 100 bootstrap replicates. TreeView (R. D. M. Page, University of Glasgow) was used to display the tree.

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