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Cloning and Partial Characterization of *katE* Encoding HPII Catalase in *Escherichia coli*.

bу

Pamela Ann Sorby

A Thesis
submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Master of Science

Department of Human Genetics

The University of Manitoba

Winnipeg, Manitoba

1989

CLONING AND PARTIAL CHARACTERIZATION OF KatE ENCODING HPII CATALASE IN Escherichia Coli

BY

PAMELA ANN SORBY

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

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You never said no when it was "for school".

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"If I ever get out of here..."

"Band on the Run"

1.0 Abstract

The Escherichia coli gene katE involved in the synthesis of catalase HPII was cloned in a multistep procedure into a high copy number plasmid pAT153. The plasmid was shown to produce HPII on transformation into UM255 (Kat G Kat E) and UM120 (katE::Tnl0) complementing the katE mutations. In maxicell analysis pAMkatE6 was shown to encode a 93000 dalton protein corresponding to the subunit size of HPII and katE was thus determined to be the structural gene for HPII. The region of DNA containing the gene was prepared for single-stranded sequencing by the construction of subclones of pAMkatE72 fragments inserted into the Bluescript M13 phagemids.

List of Abbreviations

ATP adenosine 5'-triphosphate

bp base pairs

BSA bovine serum albumin

BRL Bethesda Research Labs

dATP 2'-deoxyadenosine 5'-triphosphate

dCDP 2'-deoxycytidine 5'-triphosphate

dGTP 2'-deoxyguanosine 5'-triphosphate

DMSO dimethylsulphoxide

DNA deoxyribonucleic acid

DNase deoxyribonuclease

DTT dithiothreitol

dTTP 2'-deoxythymidine 5'-triphosphate

EDTA ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid

HPI hydroperoxidase I

HPII hydroperoxidase II

IPTG isopropyl β -D-thiogalactoside

kb kilobase pairs

MSH mercaptoethanol

mw molecular weight

NAD(P)H nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (phosphate)

PAGE polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

PEG polyethylene glycol

RNA ribonucleic acid

RNase ribonuclease

SOD superoxide dismutase

List of Abbreviations (continued)

SDS sodium dodecyl sulphate

SSC sodium citrate and NaCl solution

TCA tricarboxylic acid cycle

TE Tris-EDTA

TEMED N,N,N^1,N^1 -tetramethylethylenediamine

Tn transposon

Tris Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane

U units

UV ultraviolet

wt weight

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LITERATURE REVIEW

2. Literature Review

2.1 Oxygen

2.1.1 Introduction

The current conditions on the outer surface of the earth with respect to its elemental composition are to a large extent due to the activities of living organisms. Oxygen as 0_2 was probably missing from the prebiotic atmosphere and appeared after oxygenic photosynthesis evolved. Atmospheric oxygen is a product of life rather than a prerequisite to it. The concentration of oxygen in the early atmosphere would have been initially very low due to competition between the oxygen utilizers and producers. The present concentration of 0_2 in the atmosphere of 20% was probably established only 2.5 billion years ago (Fridovich, 1978).

As organisms evolved during the increasing oxygenation of the atmosphere they acquired the mechanisms for utilization of oxygen and protection from its effects or were forced to remain in environments impenetrable to molecular oxygen. Elemental oxygen is a ubiquitous component of cells and is always provided in the major nutrient water. In the elementary composition of microbial cells oxygen makes up 20% of dry weight. The physiological functions of oxygen within the cell are as a constituent of cellular water and organic materials and as 0_2 utilized as an electron acceptor in respiration of aerobic organims.

2.1.2 Oxygen Toxicity

Relatively high concentrations of oxygen have been known to be toxic to plants, animals and aerobic microorganisms such as $E.\ coli.$ Oxygen toxicity relative to humans in the areas of underwater and space

Figure 2.1 The univalent dismutation of molecular oxygen to water.

The reactions catalyzed by the enzymes responsible for scavenging the toxic oxygen intermediates. (Fridovich, 1978)

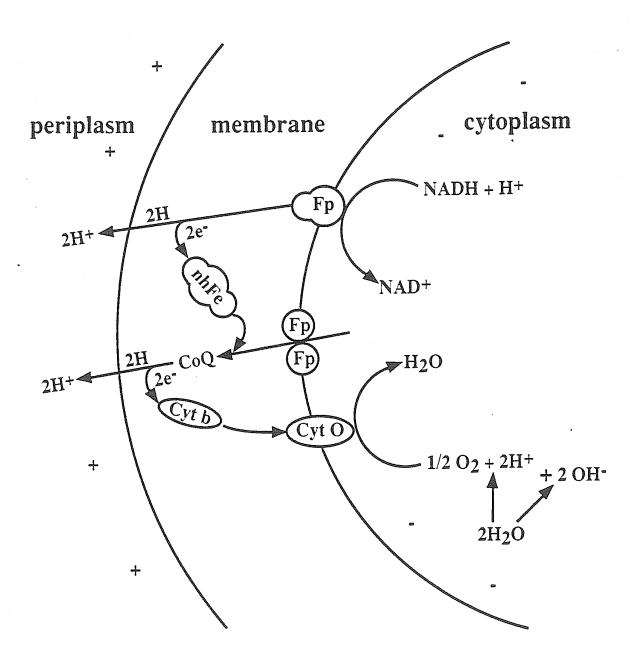
$$0_2$$
 c c c c $^{+2H}$ $^{+}$ $^{+}$ $^{+}$ $^{-}$ $^{-}$ $^{-}$ $^{+}$ $^{+}$ $^{+}$ $^{-}$

$$O_2^- + O_2^- + 2H^+ \longrightarrow H_2O_2 + O_2$$
 (Superoxide Dismutases)

$$H_2O_2 + H_2O_2 \longrightarrow 2H_2O + O_2$$
 (Catalases)

$$H_2O_2 + RH_2 \longrightarrow 2H_2O + R$$
 (Per

Figure 2.2 The *E. coli* electron transport chain. Fp - flavoprotein; nhFe - non-heme iron; CoQ - Coenzyme Q; Cytb - Cytochrome b; CytO - Cytochrome O. (in Biology of Microorganisms, Thomas D. Brock ed., Prentice-Hall Inc. 1984)



activity, cancer treatment, autoimmune disease, aging and ischemia and reperfusion have heightened investigations into the damaging effects of oxygen (reviewed by Halliwell and Gutteridge, 1985; Przyklenk & Kloner, 1989). Molecular oxygen is not toxic because of its own reactivity but because of the highly reactive intermediates formed in the sequential reduction of oxygen to water (Fridovich, 1977). Molecular oxygen in the ground state or most stable state contains two unpaired electrons of parallel spin in two different electron orbitals. The Pauli exclusion principle states that electrons occupying the same orbital must have equal and opposite spin. Complete reduction of oxygen to water requires four electrons but electrons cannot be passed to oxygen from the reducing agent in pairs as they would have antiparallel spin in the electron donor. This criterion restricts oxygen to a univalent reduction with the subsequent production of toxic oxygen species (Fig. 2.1) (Halliwell & Gutteridge, 1985). Formation of toxic oxygen species is largely due to the process of aerobic respiration. In aerobic respiration ATP is generated from the energy released through an oxidation-reduction cycle by transporting electrons through a chain of carrier molecules with fixed orientation in the cell membrane. The components and complexity of electron transport chains vary but are composed of carrier molecules able to undergo reversible oxidation and reduction. In the $E.\ coli$ ETC (Fig. 2.2) NADH acts as the initial donor and \mathbf{O}_2 the terminal electron acceptor. For every four electrons introduced into the ETC one molecule of oxygen is reduced to two molecules of water. The final electron "shuttle" in the E. coli ETC, cytochrome oxidase, appears to bind the partially reduced oxygen intermediates and the presence of toxic oxygen species in free solution

does not originate at this point (Antonini et al. 1970). Another component of the ETC, coenzyme Q, is less efficient than cytochrome oxidase and can "leak" electrons to O_2 while passing the greater portion onto the following molecule (Halliwell & Gutteridge 1985). The result is the presence of the superoxide radical O_2^- , in free solution. Other examples of O_2^- production include oxidative enzymes and flavoprotein hydrogenases and although there are many biochemical sources of O_2^- the major biological sources of O_2^- remain unidentified (Fridovich 1977, Halliwell and Gutteridge 1985).

Another intermediate of oxygen reduction and the one considered most stable is hydrogen peroxide. Hydrogen peroxide can be formed through divalent reduction of 0_2 , and through univalent reduction of 0_2 and dismutation of 0_2^- . Some cellular oxidases produce $\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}_2$ as the result of 0_2 reduction without the production of 0_2^- , such as glycollate oxidase, D-aminoacid oxidase and urate oxidase (Halliwell & Gutteridge, 1985). Hydrogen peroxide is a weak oxidizing agent and is indeed cytotoxic in high concentrations. It can react with thiol groups of proteins causing enzyme inactivation or lipid peroxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids. The greater danger of intracellular $\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}_2$ lies in its ability to give rise to the highly reactive hydroxyl radical.

The hydroxyl radical OH· is the strongest oxidizing agent known. Haber and Weiss concluded that the production of OH· could result from the interaction of ${\rm O_2}^-$ and ${\rm H_2O_2}$ which react readily when catalyzed by reduced metal compounds as in the Fenton reaction. Systems which produce ${\rm O_2}^-$ will also produce ${\rm H_2O_2}$ by dismutation of ${\rm O_2}^-$ and the two compounds will react to give OH·. It is this reaction of ${\rm H_2O_2}$ and ${\rm O_2}^-$ which gives

rise to the damage done to DNA, membrane lipids and other cellular constituents when reduced metal ions are present (Fridovich 1977, Finlay & Linn 1988).

Other sources of external oxidative stresses which cause toxic effects such as γ -radiation, near U.V. radiation, ozone, peroxides and radiometric drugs all act through the formation of or have their damaging effects increased by oxygen reduction intermediates (Imlay & Linn 1988, Halliwell & Gutteridge 1985).

2.1.3 Defence Against Oxygen Damage

Evolutionary adaptation to atmospheric oxygenation resulted in classification of subsets of organisms based on their ability to tolerate oxygen. Facultative anaerobes can grow in the presence or absence of 0_2 . One subgroup can utilize 0_2 as a terminal electron acceptor when it is present or shift to a fermentative mode of energy production when it is not. The other subgroup is exclusively fermentative but insensitive to the presence of 0_2 . Obligate anaerobes obtain energy only through fermentation, and molecular oxygen is not a nutrient but a toxic substance which inhibits growth or can result in cell death. At the opposite end of the physiological spectrum lie the obligate aerobes. These organisms require molecular oxygen for respiration and contain defences against toxic oxygen species.

Toxic oxygen protection occurs at two levels, predamage and postdamage mechanisms. Predamage mechanisms include the superoxide dismutases, peroxidases, and catalases which scavenge toxic oxygen species. Because the greatest danger to the cell is OH· these enzymes act to remove $\rm H_2O_2$ and $\rm O_2^-$ before they can react to form OH· and cause cellular damage.

Figure 2.3 The two-step conversion of ${\rm H_2O_2}$ to water and molecular oxygen carried out in the catalase reaction.

$$H_2O_2 + O = Fe - F - H_2O + O_2 + Fe - E$$
 (Compound II)

(Compound I)

There are three known types of superoxide dismutases which all catalyze the same reaction. Prokaryotic organisms characteristically have the manganese or iron containing SOD (MnSOD or FeSOD) and eukaryotes the SOD containing both copper and zinc (CuZn SOD) as well as MnSOD. SOD catalyzes the dismutation of ${\rm O_2}^-$ to ${\rm H_2O_2}$ and ${\rm O_2}$ (Fig. 2.1).

SOD is present in nearly all aerobes but the absence of SOD in E. $coli\ sodA$ and sodB mutants shows SOD to be nonessential to some aerobically growing organisms (Farr $et\ al.\ 1986$).

Peroxidases (Fig. 2.1) are present in many forms and are important in scavenging not only hydrogen peroxide but a large range of biologically toxic peroxidases (Fridovich, 1977). In some cases organisms which lack catalase can compensate by an increase in peroxidase (Fridovich, 1977).

The catalase reaction (Fig. 2.1) is a dismutation of $\mathrm{H_2O_2}$ to water and molecular oxygen in two steps (Fig. 2.3). The $\mathrm{H_2O_2}$ reacts with the haem group of catalase to form $\mathrm{H_2O}$ and Compound I which reacts with a second $\mathrm{H_2O_2}$ molecule to form $\mathrm{H_2O}$ and molecular oxygen. Some catalases are capable of peroxidase-type reactions where Compound I can react with other organic donors such as alcohols or acids (Halliwell and Gutteridge, 1985). Although most aerobic organisms contain catalase some do not. This and the presence of catalase mutants in *E. coli* (Loewen, 1984) shows that catalase is nonessential for aerobic growth in some organisms.

DNA is believed to be damaged oxidatively by OH· through a Fenton reaction involving DNA bound metal and ${\rm H_2O_2}$ as well as by ${\rm O_2}^-$ in a mechanism unrelated to Fenton chemistry. The postdamage defences against oxygen radical damage in $E.\ coli$ can be shown through mutants defective

in DNA polymerase I, recombination and sugar fragment excision. Mutations in xthA, recA, nfo, polA and lexA all show increased rates of killing by H_2O_2 (Imlay and Linn, 1988).

2.2 Catalases in E. coli

2.2.1 The Proteins

There are two proteins in $E.\ coli$ with catalase activity. Hydroperoxidase I (HPI) is a bifunctional catalase $(H_2O_2:H_2O_2)$ oxidoreductase EC1.11.16) with an associated broad spectrum peroxidase (donor: H_2O_2 oxidoreductase EC1.11.1.7) activity, and hydroperoxidase II (HPII) is a monofunctional catalase (Claiborne, 1978; Claiborne and Fridovich, 1979; Claiborne et al, 1979; Loewen and Switala, 1986). A third protein, KatF protein, is associated with HPII production but in a regulatory not structural fashion (Mulvey et al., 1988).

HPI is composed of four identical subunits of 81,000 daltons with two protoheme IX groups (Claiborne and Fridovich, 1979) and separates into two isozyme forms HPI-A and HPI-B when electrophoresed on native polyacrylamide gels run in Tris-glycine buffer (Loewen et~al., 1985). The enzyme is similar in structure to other purified catalases (Halliwell & Gutteridge, 1985) but is relatively resistant to inhibition by 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole which acts on compound I (Fig. 2.3) in the presence of $\rm H_2O_2$. The enzyme has a pH optimum at 6.8, has an apparent Km for $\rm H_2O_2$ of 3.7 mM at this pH and is heat labile at 70°C (Meir and Yagil, 1985). It has been found that following the synthesis of HPI the active protein is associated with the inner membrane on the periplasmic side (Heimberger and Eisenstark, 1988).

HPII is a hexamer of identical 93,000 dalton subunits with one haem group per unit (Loewen and Switala, 1986). The haem in HPII has been

determined to be an isomer of haem d (Timkovich & Loewen, unpublished). HPII is heat stable at 70°C and unlike HPI is sensitive to inhibition by 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole. The enzyme has two pH optima at pH 6.8 and pH 10.5 with corresponding Km values of 18.2 mM and 10 mM (Meir and Yagil, 1985). HPII has been shown to be an immunologically distinct protein from HPI (Loewen and Triggs, 1984; Claiborne et al., 1979) and to be located cytoplasmically rather than membrane associated (Heimberger and Eisenstark, 1988).

The Kat F protein is 42,000 daltons and is believed to act as a positive regulator in the expression of genes required for protection from cellular stress (Mulvey and Loewen, 1989; Sammartano et al., 1986).

2.2.2 The Genes

The gene affecting HPI synthesis in *E. coli* has been mapped to 89.2 min on the chromosome between *ppc* and *metB* and designated *katG* (Loewen *et al.*, 1985). The gene has been sequenced predicting a 726-amino-acid protein with no homology to other known catalases (Triggs-Raine *et al.*, 1988). The HPII protein is produced by *katE* (Mulvey *et al.*, 1988) which maps to 37.8 min on the *E. coli* chromosome between *pfkB* and *xthA* (Loewen, 1984). The third gene involved in *E. coli* catalase production is *katF* which maps to 59.0 min on the chromosome between *mutS* and *cys* (Loewen and Triggs, 1984). The *katF* gene has been sequenced and shows homology to the sigma subunit of RNA polymerase and the heat shock regulatory protein encoded by *htpR* (Mulvey and Loewen, 1989).

2.2.3 Regulation

Catalase levels in $E.\ coli$ are influenced by growth medium components, growth phase, presence of ${\rm H_2O_2}$ and genetic control (Yosphe-Purer and Henis, 1976; Christman et al., 1985; Loewen et al.,

1985; Richter and Loewen, 1982). The synthesis of HPI and HPII and their levels of activity however are controlled separately (Loewen et al., 1985).

HPI levels increase during logarithmic growth but not into the stationary phase of the culture. HPI levels increase in response to ascorbate and to oxidative stress when $\rm H_2O_2$ is added to the culture (Loewen et al., 1985; Richter and Loewen, 1982). HPI is found to be one of 30 proteins induced during $\rm H_2O_2$ adaptation and overproduced in oxyR mutants (Christman et al., 1985). The oxyR gene product was subsequently found to be a diffusible protein which acts as a positive regulator of katG (Christman et al., 1985) at the transcriptional level (Morgan et al., 1986). Although the presence of glucose in growth medium lowers the levels of catalase (Schellhorn & Hassan, 1988), the involvement of catabolite repression has been refuted (Richter and Loewen, 1982). The role of glucose in lowering catalase levels may be related to the ability of glucose to scavenge OH but another effect of glucose is due to semi-anaerobic growth of cells on glucose with little use of TCA cycle intermediates resulting in lower levels of HPII.

The increase in catalase activity as a culture enters stationary phase is due to the production of HPII (Loewen et al., 1985). HPII is not inducible by ascorbate or $\rm H_2O_2$ (Loewen et al., 1985), and expression is lower under anaerobic as compared to aerobic conditions (Schellhorn & Hassan, 1988). Levels of HPII are not influenced by the activity of electron transport but are 5-10 fold higher during growth on TCA cycle intermediates in mid-log phase (Loewen et al., 1985). Schellhorn and Hassan (1988) have also found using a katE gene fusion product that katE is not part of the oxyR regulon and confirmed that katE is positively regulated by katF agreeing with the findings of

Mulvey et al. (1988).

2.2.4 Role of Catalase in E. coli

E. coli is equipped with a network of inducible responses against cellular stress which are controlled in multiple regulatory pathways. E. coli produces entire sets of proteins when challenged with heat shock (Yamomori & Ura, 1982), glucose starvation (Jenkins et al., 1988) H₂O₂ or oxidative stress (Christman et al., 1988) or redox-cycling agents (Greenberg and Demple, 1989). Subsets of proteins are involved in more than one of these pathways (Christman et al., 1985; Jenkins et al., 1988) and the katG, katE and katF proteins are among them. The hydroxyl radical is responsible for DNA strand scission (Brawn and Fridovich, 1981), initiation of autoxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids (Mead, 1976), and covalently bound protein aggregates or spontaneous fragmentation and proteolytic susceptibility of proteins (Davies et al. 1987). As earlier stated the production of OH is largely dependent on the presence of $\mathrm{O_2}^-$ and $\mathrm{H_2O_2}$ derived from molecular oxygen. Mechanisms that produce $\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}_2$ and its associated cellular damage correlate with those that induce production of or are inhibited by the presence of catalase or whose effects are increased by the lack of catalase (Hassan and Fridovich, 1979; Schellhorn and Hassan, 1988; Mead, 1976; Greenberg and Demple, 1988; Mackey and Seymour, 1987; Christman et al., 1975; Greenberg and Demple, 1989; Heimberger and Eisenstark, 1988). The value of E. coli catalases appears to lie in their ability to remove H2O2 from the cell aiding in the decrease of formation of OH· and in this manner reducing the damaging effects of oxidative stress.

The HPI and HPII catalases have been compared to known catalases (Triggs-Raine, 1987) and found to have some atypical features but do

share these features with yet catalases.

The bifunctional activity, inducible nature and membrane associated location of HPI and the constitutive synthesis and cytoplasmic location of the monofunctional HPII indicate different physiological roles for the two enzymes but the definition of these roles is as yet unknown.

2.3 Purpose

Although katE has been mapped to 37.8 min on the $E.\ coli$ chromosome and was known to affect HPII synthesis, at the outset of this work the gene had neither been isolated nor characterized.

The intention of this work was to isolate and clone *katE*, determine whether it encoded the protein HPII, subclone the gene into small fragments, and sequence the gene. To date the gene has been cloned, partially characterized and subcloned as will be described in the following sections.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

3. Materials and Methods

3.1 Bacterial Strains, Plasmids and Bacteriophage

The bacterial strains used, all derivatives of *Escherichia coli* K-12, are listed in Table 3.1 with their genotype and source.

Table 3.2 lists plasmids and bacteriophage with their relevant characteristics and source.

3.2 Media

3.2.1 LB Medium (Miller, 1972)

10.0 g tryptone

5.0 g yeast extract

5.0 NaCl

in 1.0 litre distilled H₂O.

Solid medium prepared with addition of $10.0~{\rm g}$ agar, supplemented with 0.2% maltose and $10~{\rm mM~MgCl}_2$ for preparation of bacteriophage.

Ampicillin added to 10 $\mu \mathrm{g/ml}$ and tetracycline to 15 $\mu \mathrm{g/ml}$ as required.

For color selection, 50 μl of 2% X-gal and 50 μl of 100 mM IPTG were spread on individual plates.

3.2.2 R-Top Agar (Miller, 1972)

10.0 g tryptone

1.0 g yeast extract

8.0 g NaCl

8.0 g agar

in 1.0 litre H₂O, supplemented after autoclaving with

2 mM CaCl₂

16.6 mM glucose

Table 3.1 Bacterial Strains

Strain	Genotype	Source
HB101	recA, ramC, pro, gal, rpsL, leu, hsdM, TnsdR, endI, lacY	Boyer & Roulland-Dussoix (1969)
NM522	supE, thi, $\Delta(lac-proAB)$, hsd5 $\{F', proAB, lacI^Q, lacZ, \Delta M13\}$	Mead <i>et al</i> . (1985)
JM101	supE, thi, $\Delta(lac\text{-pro}AB)$ [F', traD36, proA+, proB+	Yanisch-Perron et al. (1985)
Q359 MP180	P2 lysogen, hsdR, hsdM ⁺	Elledge and Walker (1985)
UM120 UM122 UM202 UM255	as MP180 but katE::Tn10 as MP180 but katF::Tn10 as MP180 but katG17::Tn10 pro, leu, rpsL, hsdM, hsdR endI, lacY, katG2, katE12::Tn10 recA pro, leu, rpsL, hsdM, hsdR endI, lacY, katG2	Pearson (1972) Loewen et al. (1985) Loewen et al. (1985) Loewen et al. (1985) Mulvey et al. (1988)
	katF13::Tn10, recA	

Table 3.2 Bacterial Plasmids and Bacteriophage

gg & Sherratt (1980) sius (1984) atagene Cloning Systems kb HindIII fragment from
atagene Cloning Systems atagene Cloning Systems atagene Cloning Systems atagene Cloning Systems
atagene Cloning Systems atagene Cloning Systems atagene Cloning Systems
atagene Cloning Systems
atagene Cloning Systems
kb HindIII fragment from
tE6 in pAT153
kb ClaI fragment from
tE6 in pAT153
kb ClaI fragment from
katE2 in pAT153
kb PstI-ClaI fragment from
katE22 in Bluescript KSM13+
cce
schauf <i>et al</i> . (1983)
cb fragment from MP180 in
BL3
1

3.2.3 M9 Minimal Medium (Miller, 1972)

- 0.5 g NaCl
- $6.0 \text{ g Na}_2\text{HPO}_4$
- 1.0 g NH₄Cl
- $3.0 \text{ g KH}_2 PO_4$

in 1.0 litre distilled ${\rm H}_2{\rm O}.$ Solid media prepared with addition of 10.0 g agar.

Supplemented after atuoclaving with 3 $\mu \rm M$ vitamin B1, 1.0 mM $\rm MgSO_4$ and 1.0 ml trace elements.

Trace Elements

- 2.5 g $FeSO_4 \cdot H_2O$
- $2.9 \text{ g} \text{ H}_3 \text{BO}_4$
- 1.2 g $CoSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$
- 0.1 g $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $0.09 \text{ g} \text{ MnCl}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $2.5 \text{ g} \quad \text{Na}_2\text{MoO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $2.1 \text{ g} \quad \text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- 5.0 ml conc. H_2SO_4

in 1.0 liter distilled ${\rm H}_2{\rm O}\,.$

Glucose minimal medium prepared as M9 minimal medium supplemented with 16.7 mM glucose after autoclaving.

3.2.4 K Medium (Rupp et al., 1971)

M9 minimal medium with 1.0% (w/v) casamino acids. Supplemented after autoclaving with 0.3 μ M vitamin B1 and 16.6 mM glucose.

- 3.2.5 Hershey's Salts (Worcel and Burgi, 1974)
 - 5.4 g NaCl
 - 3.0 g KCl
 - 1.1 g NH₄Cl
 - $0.2 \text{ mg MgCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 - 87 mg KH_2PO_4
 - 12.1 g Trizma Base
- in 2.0 litre distilled $\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}$, pH adjusted to 7.4 with HCl. Supplemented after autoclaving with
 - 15 mg $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$
 - $0.2 \text{ mg FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Hershey's medium prepared with addition of 3 mM vitamin B1, 22.2 mM glucose and 0.16 mM amino acids as required, after autoclaving.

3.3 Solutions and Buffers

- 3.3.1 SM Buffer (Miller, 1972)
 - 0.02 M Tris-HCl pH 7.5
 - 0.01 M MgSO₄
 - 0.01% gelatin
 - 0.01 M NaCl

autoclaved.

- 3.3.2 TE Buffer (Maniatis et al., 1982)
 - 10.0 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0
 - 1.0 mM EDTA pH 8.0

autoclaved.

3.3.3 Ethanol

95% ethanol was distilled before use.

3.3.4 Pheno1

All phenol was redistilled and buffered with

- 0.1 M NaCl
- 0.1 M Tris-HCl pH 7.6
- 1.0 mM EDTA

3.3.5 5x Ligation Buffer (BRL)

0.25 M Tris-Cl pH 7.6

50 mM MgCl₂

5 mM ATP

5 mM DTT

25% w/v PEG8000

3.3.6 GTE Buffer (Morelle, 1989)

50 mM glucose

25 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0

10 mM EDTA

3.3.7 STE Buffer

100 mM NaCl

20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5

10 mM EDTA

3.3.8 TBE Buffer (10x)

108 g Trizma base

55 g boric acid

8.5 g EDTA

in 1.0 litre distilled $\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}$.

3.3.9 TAE Buffer (10x)

48.4 g Trizma base

11.4 ml glacial acetic acid

3.72 g EDTA

in 1.0 litre distilled ${\rm H}_2{\rm O}$

3.3.10 Tracking Dye

200 mM EDTA

35% glycerol

25 mg Bromophenol Blue

in 10 ml distilled H_2O .

3.3.11 Denaturing Solution

1.5 M NaCl

0.5 M NaOH

3.3.12 Neutralizing Solution

1.0 M Tris-HCl pH 8.0

1.5 M NaCl

3.3.13 20x SSC

3.0 M NaCl

3.0 M sodium citrate

3.3.14 5x Nick Translation Buffer

- 0.1 mM dCTP
- 0.1 mM dGTP
- 0.1 mM dTTP
- 0.05 mM MgCl₂
- 0.5 mM DTT
- 0.25M Tris-HCl pH 7.6
- $250 \ \mu/\text{ml}$ BSA

in HPLC grade H2O.

- 3.3.15 50x Denhardt's Solution (Maniatis et al., 1982)
 - 10.0 g Ficol1
 - 10.0 g polyvinylpyrrolidone
 - 10.0 g BSA
- in 1.0 litre distilled ${\rm H}_2{\rm O}$.
- 3.3.16 Prehybridization Solution (Maniatis et al., 1982)
 - 6x SSC
 - 0.5% SDS
 - 5x Denhardt's solution
 - 100 mg/ml salmon sperm DNA

Hybridization Solution

As prehybridization solution with addition of 0.01 M EDTA.

3.3.17 BAL 31 Incubation Buffer

- 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0
- 600 mM NaCl
- 12 mM MgCl₂
- 12 mM CaCl₂
- 1 mM EDTA

3.3.18 Cell Extract Sample Buffer

2% SDS

8% glycerol

0.2 M MSH

63 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8

3.4 Bacterial Growth and Storage

Precultures were prepared by inoculating 10 ml LB broth with a loop of glycerol stock culture or from a storage plate culture. Cultures for use were inoculated with 1% of volume of preculture. Liquid cultures were grown at 37°C with aeration, solid cultures at 37°C, inverted.

Cell densities were determined with a Klett-Summerson colorimeter with a blue filter.

Cultures were stored at -20°C in 50% glycerol.

3.5 Preparation of Bacteriophage DNA

Bacteriophage DNA was prepared by the method of Kaslow (Kaslow, 1986) with the following change. 1.0 litre flasks containing infected cells were incubated for a minimum of 8-1/2 hours at 37°C with vigorous shaking rather than 4-1/2 hours.

3.6 Restriction Enzymes and Buffers

Restriction enzymes were obtained from Boehringer Mannheim,

Pharmacia, or BRL. Restriction enzyme buffers used were as supplied by

Boehringer Mannheim and BRL.

Restriction enzyme digestions were carried out at 37°C for a minimum of 1 hour, with the exceptions of SmaI and TaqI which were done at 30°C and 65°C respectively.

3.7 Agarose and Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis of DNA

3.7.1 Agarose Gels

- 0.7% (w/v) agarose gels were prepared in 1x TBE or TAE buffer for separation and identification of DNA fragments as small as $2.0~\rm{kb}$.
- 1.2% (w/v) agarose gels were prepared in 1x TBE or TAE buffer for separation and identification of DNA fragments as small as 200 base pairs.

Tracking dye was added to DNA samples to be electrophoresed to a final concentration of 12%. Gels were run in a BIO-RAD DNA SUB CELL electrophoresis apparatus submerged in 1x TBE or TAE buffer. Gels were run at 80V constant voltage for 4-6 hours or 30V constant voltage for 15-18 hours.

3.7.2 Visualization of DNA on Polyacrylamide Gels

8% polyacrylamide gels were used for separation and identification of DNA fragments as small as 25 base pairs.

20 ml 30% acrylamide

30 ml 1x TBE

Degas

 $20 \mu 1$ TEMED

30 mg ammonium persulphate

The gel was cast between 15x15 cm vertical glass plates. DNA samples containing 12% tracking dye solution were loaded in the buffer-washed wells. Gels were run in a BIO-RAD Protean Dual Slab Cell at 100V constant voltage for four hours in 1x TBE.

3.7.3 Characterization of Gels

Gels were immersed in 1x TBE or TAE buffer containing 0.5 mg/l ethidium bromide for 20 minutes after electrophoresis. Gels were

photographed under indirect UV light source with a Polaroid MP4 Land Camera and a Kodak 22A Wratten filter and Polaroid type 667 film. DNA fragment sizes were determined from the photograph by construction of a standard curve. The standard curve was plotted with the distance travelled by the standard size markers as a function of the natural logarithm (ln) of their size (base pairs). Standard markers used were λ DNA cut with HindIII for larger fragments and pBR322 DNA cut with HaeIII for small fragments.

3.8 Preparation of Plasmid DNA

3.8.1 Large Scale Plasmid DNA Preparation

E. coli containing the required plasmid was grown in 500 ml LB broth containing 50 mg ampicillin at 37°C overnight with aeration. The cells were collected in 250 ml aliquots by centrifugation and washed with 20 ml of GTE buffer. The cells were again collected by centrifugation and resuspended in 7 ml GTE. GTE, 1.0 ml with 4 mg/ml lysozyme was added and the suspension was incubated at room temperature for 5 min. To this 16 ml of 0.2 M NaOH - 1% SDS was added and incubation continued, on ice, for 10 min. To precipitate high molecular weight proteins, genomic DNA, and cellular DNA 12 ml of 7.5 M ammonium acetate was added. After 15 min of incubation on ice the preparation was centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 30 min. The supernatant was transferred to smaller tubes and centrifuged for 3 min at 12,000 rpm. To the clear supernatant 24 ml of isopropanol was added and incubated for 15 min at room temperature. The DNA was collected by centrifugation at 5,000 rpm for 30 min and washed twice with 70% ethanol. The dried pellet was resuspended in 12 ml of H2O and 12 g of CsCl and 0.5 ml of 10 mg/ml ethidium bromide were added. The mixture was centrifuged at 8,000 rpm

for 10 min to remove protein-ethidium bromide complexes. The supernatant was transferred to 16x76 mm polyallomer Quick-Seal (Beckman) ultracentrifuge tubes and carefully balanced. The tubes were placed in an 80Ti rotor and centrifuged at 50,000 rpm for 20 hrs in a Beckman L8-80 ultracentrifuge. The tubes were removed and the lower plasmid band was collected with an 18 gauge needle. The ethidium bromide was extracted with isoamyl alcohol. The clear DNA solution was dialyzed overnight in 2-3 changes of TE buffer.

The desalted solution was precipitated with ethanol, washed and dried. The pellet was resuspended in sterile distilled $\rm H_2O$ and stored at -20°C. DNA concentration was estimated by applying a small sample to an agarose gel along with a standard marker of known concentration and comparing the intensities under UV illumination.

3.8.2 Mini Plasmid DNA Preparation

Small quantities of plasmid DNA were prepared as described by Holmes et al (1981) unchanged, or Morelle (1989) with the following alteration. The mixture was centrifuged for 15 min after addition of 7.5 M ammonium acetate. The supernatant was transferred to a clean tube and the centrifugation was repeated twice more. The DNA was then precipitated by addition of an equal volume of isopropanol.

3.8.3 Quick Screening of Plasmid DNA

A rapid isolation of plasmid DNA was done to compare supercoiled plasmids in order to determine the presence of an insert or deletion. The method consisted of scraping the E.~coli colony from the LB plate with a toothpick and resuspending the cells in 40 μ l STE buffer. 40 μ l of 1:1 phenol/chloroform was added and the tube vortexed for 10 sec then centrifuged for 2 min. Fifteen μ l of the aqueous phase was mixed with 3

 μl of tracking dye and the preparation was applied to an agarose gel for electrophoresis. This preparation did not yield plasmid DNA of quality for restriction enzyme digestion.

3.9 DNA Cloning

3.9.1 Extraction of DNA Fragments from Agarose Gels

The DNA band required was cut from the ethidium bromide stained gel under UV illumination. The DNA was eluted from the agarose as described in the GENECLEAN kit (BIO 101 Inc.). A NaI solution was used to dissolve the agarose. The DNA was attached to a silica matrix, washed, and eluted from the matrix in $\rm H_2O$.

3.9.2 Ligations

Plasmid DNA was digested with the appropriate restriction enzymes and precipitated with ethanol, or the enzymes were heat inactivated at 65°C for 10-20 minutes. Plasmid DNA and isolated insert DNA were mixed at a 1:2 ratio in 1x BRL ligation buffer. One unit of T4 DNA ligase (BRL) was added to each reaction. Ligations were incubated for 2-4 hours at room temperature.

3.9.3 Transformation of E. coli.

A 10 ml mid-log phase culture of *E. coli* grown in LB broth was collected by centrifugation. The cells were washed with 0.1 M CaCl₂ and placed on ice for 20 min. The cells were again collected by centrifugation and resuspended in 0.5 ml 0.1 M CaCl₂. Aliquots of cells, 0.1 ml, were mixed with the DNA to be transformed and placed on ice for 45 min. The cells were placed at 42°C for 1-1/2 min and diluted with 0.3 ml of LB broth. The cells were allowed to recover for 1 hour and plated on selection plates in 0.2 ml aliquots.

3.9.4 Selection of Recombinants

3.9.4.1 pAT153 Recombinants

The vector pAT153 is $3.6~\mathrm{kb}$ in size and has genes conferring resistance to the antibiotics tetracycline and ampicillin. These genes contain unique restriction enzyme sites into which DNA fragments can be inserted, interupting the expression of the gene, resulting in a selection characteristic. Fragments were cloned into the various sites within the antibiotic resistance genes. The resulting UM255 transformants were selected for on LB-ampicillin or LB-tetracycline plates. The colonies were streaked with sterile toothpicks onto replica plates, LB-ampicillin and LB-tetracycline. Recombinants were scored by the inability to grow on both antibiotics and selected colonies were recovered from the replica plate. These colonies were then screened for catalase activity to determine whether the fragment contained the entire katE gene. This was done by applying a drop of $\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}_2$ to the edge of the colony which resulted in the evolution of oxygen bubbles, if catalase was present.

3.9.4.2 pKK232-8 Recombinants

The pKK232-8 vector was used to determine which part of the insert containing katE contained the promoter. This vector contains a gene conferring ampicillin resistance as well as a promoterless CAT gene flanked by a multiple cloning site (Brosius, 1984). Various fragments from katE2 plasmids were cloned into the HindIII site of pKK232-8 in both orientations. The transformants were selected on LB-ampicillin plates and recombinants scored for their ability to grow on increasing concentrations of chloramphenical indicating the presence of the katE promoter.

3.9.4.3 Bluescript M13 Recombinants

The Bluescript M13 phagemids are 3.0 kb and contain a selection gene conferring ampicillin resistance and a lacZ gene, flanked by a multiple cloning site, for chromophore production as a scorable marker for recombinants. Transformants were selected on LB-ampicillin and resulting colonies streaked on LB-ampicillin spread with the chromophore X-Gal and the inducer IPTG. Recombinants remain white in color while nonrecombinants, with the uninterrupted lacZ gene, are blue. Recombinant phagemid DNA was isolated by the method of Morelle (1989) and inserts were cut out with suitable restriction enzymes to verify their identity. Four derivatives of the phagemid were utilized to produce subclones of katE for use in single-stranded dideoxy-chain termination sequencing. Bluescript KS+ and KS- contain the multiple cloning site in the KpnI and SacI orientation and secrete opposite strands in the preparation of single-stranded DNA. Bluescript SK+ and SK- contain the multiple cloning site in the alternate orientation and secrete opposite strands.

3.10 DNA/DNA Hybridization

3.10.1 Southern Blots

Southern blots were prepared as described by Maniatis et al. (1982). DNA samples were electrophoresed, stained and photographed as before. The gels were trimmed to a suitable size and placed in denaturing solution for 1 hr at room temperature. The gel was then placed in neutralizing solution for 1 hr. The gel was placed on a piece of filter paper soaked in 10x SSC which was placed on a glass plate held above a solution of 10x SSC with the ends of the filter paper in the buffer. A piece of nitrocellulose filter, prewetted in 2x SSC, or nylon filter was placed on the gel. This was covered with 2-3 layers of

filter paper of similar size. A stack of paper towels was placed on top of this and weighted to increase efficiency of transfer of buffer through the gel to the towels. The transfer of the DNA from the agarose gel to the filter via capillary action was carried out overnight. The nitrocellulose filters were air dried then baked at 80°C for 2 hrs. Nylon filters were removed from the blotting apparatus, immediately wrapped in Saran Wrap to prevent drying, and exposed to UV light for 3 minutes on a transilluminator to cross-link the DNA to the filter.

3.10.2 Nick Translation

Radioactive labelled DNA probes were prepared by Maniatis et al. (1982). In a final volume of 50 μ l a solution containing 1 μ g of DNA, 1x nick translation buffer, 5-10 units of DNA polymerase, 1 μ l (0.1 μ l/ml) of DNAse I and 5 μ l (1 mCi/ml) of α^{32} P-dATP was incubated at 16°C for 1 hr.

The reaction mixture was loaded on a 5 ml Sephadex G-50 column, prepared in TE buffer (pH 8.0) to separate the labelled DNA from the unincorporated nucleotides. The passage of the radioactive signal through the column was monitored with a Geiger counter as TE buffer (pH 8.0) was applied to the column. When the signal was separated into two peaks, the first peak containing the labelled DNA and the second peak containing the free nucleotides, the first peak was collected in a volume of 1.5 ml and a fraction was assayed for specific activity in a Beckman LS-230 liquid scintillation counter. The labelled DNA was stored at -20°C.

3.10.3 Hybridization

The nitrocellulose Southern blots were first wetted and soaked in 6x SSC for 2 min. While nylon filters were placed directly in 50 ml of prehybridizaiton solution. The filters were prehybridized at 65° C for

2-4 hrs to allow the salmon sperm DNA to bind nonspecific sequences. The prehybridization solution was removed and replaced with 50 ml of hybridization solution. The $\alpha^{3\,2}$ P-labelled DNA was boiled to denature it and a volume containing 6 x 10⁶ cpm was added to the hybridization solution. The hybridization was incubated at 65°C overnight. The filters were removed from the solution and washed with 2x SSC and 0.5% SDS at room temperature for 5 min, 2x SSC and 0.1% SDS at room temperature for 15 min, and 0.1x SSC and 0.5% SDS for 2 hrs at 65°C (repeated). The filters were air dried, wrapped in Saran Wrap and exposed to Kodak x-ray film in a Picker Source One cassette containing one Cronex Quantaill intensifying screen (DuPont) at -70°C for 8-72 hrs.

3.11 BAL 31 Deletion Mutagenesis (Frey et al. 1984)

BAL 31 is an exonuclease with the capacity for degrading double stranded DNA. It can be used to delineate the functional region of a fragment of DNA containing a gene of interest. Exonuclease BAL 31 digestion was done on pAMkatE6 initiating at a unique SalI site.

Ten μ g of pAMkatE6 DNA was digested with SalI in a 40 μ l sample volume. A 3 μ l sample was electrophoresed on an agarose gel to determine complete digestion. The remaining DNA was precipitated by addition of 0.1 volumes of 3M sodium acetate pH 4.8 and 30 μ l isopropanol. The DNA was collected by centrifugation, washed with 80% ethanol and dried.

The DNA pellet was dissolved in 125 μ l BAL 31 incubation buffer and warmed to 30°C before adding the enzyme. Samples of 25 μ l were taken after 0, 2, 5, 10 and 15 minute intervals of enzyme digestion and immediately placed in 5 μ l of 0.2M EDTA, on ice, and 80 μ l of ice cold $\rm H_2O$ was added. Samples were precipitated as before and redissolved in 10 μ l TE buffer.

Aliquots of 5 μ l from time intervals 0 and 15 minutes were electrophoresed on an agarose gel to verify BAL 31 activity. Ligations were carried out as previously described but at 14°C and were diluted with 90 μ l of ligation buffer at 2 hours to prevent intermolecular ligation. The ligations were transformed into UM255 and selected on LB-ampicillin. Colonies were screened for catalase activity by $\rm H_2O_2$ application and catalase negative colonies were recovered for further analysis. Plasmid DNA was prepared by the method of Holmes *et al.* (1981) and restriction enzyme analysis was done to compare the extent of deletion between catalase positive and negative clones.

3.12 Maxicell Identification of Plasmid Encoded Proteins

The proteins produced from the plasmid pAMkatE6 were identified in maxicell extracts as described by Sancar et al. (1979) with modifications. The E. coli strain UM255, containing the plasmid pAMkatE6 or pAT153 was grown to early mid-log phase in K medium with ampicillin. The cells were irradiated in a sterile Petri dish with a Mineralight 115v UV lamp from a distance of 54 cm for 140 sec. This resulted in >99% killing.

The irradiated cells were placed in a sterile 125 ml Erlenmeyer flask and shaken at 37°C for 1 hr. Cycloserine was dissolved at 100 mg/ml in 0.1 M phosphate buffer pH 8.0 and added to the cells at a final concentration of 100 μ g/ml. The cells were incubated at 37°C with shaking overnight. The cells were collected by centrifugation and washed twice with Hershey's salts. The final pellet was resuspended in 5.0 ml Hershey's Medium and 15 μ Ci of ¹⁴C-labelled mixed amino acids (NEN) was added. The culture was incubated at 37°C for 1.5 hrs with shaking. The cells were collected by centrifugation and washed with SM buffer. The

cells were resuspended in 40 μl cell extract sample buffer and placed at $^{-20\,^{\circ}\text{C}}$ for storage.

A 15 μ l aliquot of each sample was mixed with 2 μ l bromophenol blue (0.25%) tracking dye and boiled for 3 min. The samples were loaded on a 0.1% SDS - 8% polyacrylamide gel and electrophoresed at 40 mA for 4 hrs, stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue and destained until suitable resolution of bands resulted. The gel was prepared for fluorography as described by Boulnois and Timmis (1984). After destaining the gel was immersed in DMSO and gently agitated for 30 min. The DMSO was replaced with fresh DMSO to ensure removal of all water from the gel and agitated for another 30 min. The DMSO was then replaced with a solution of 20% PPO (w/v) in DMSO and soaked with agitation for 1 hr. This solution was drained and the gel washed several times with water, very gently, to precipitate the PPO within the gel. The gel was removed from the water and dried onto filter paper. The dried gel was exposed to Kodak X-ray film in a Picker Source One cassette containing two Cronex Quantaill intensifying screens (DuPont) at -70°C for 3 weeks.

3.13 Assay of Catalase Activity

3.13.1 Qualitative Colony Catalase Assay

A drop of 30% H_2O_2 was applied with a high gauge needle to the edge of a bacterial colony. Cells containing catalase evolved oxygen which appeared as bubbles.

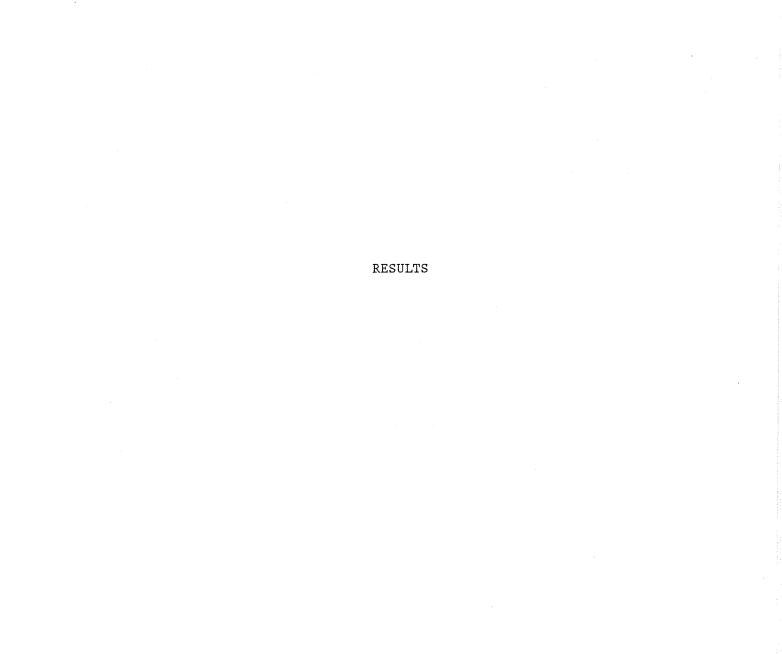
3.13.2 Quantitation of Catalase Activity

Catalase activity was quantitated using cultures in liquid medium by the method of Rorth and Jensen (1967) in a Gilson oxygraph equipped with a Clark electrode. One unit of catalase is that amount which decomposes 1 μ mol of $\rm H_2O_2$ in 1 min at 37°C. Assays were done using a

final concentration of ${\rm H_2O_2}$ in the reaction chamber of 60 mM. Dry cell weight was determined as 100 Klett units representing 0.14 mg/ml dry cell weight.

3.13.3 Visualization of Catalase Activity on Polyacrylamide Gels
Crude extracts were prepared with cells collected by centrifugation
from 250 ml stationary phase cultures. The cells were resuspended in 1
ml of SM and sonicated for four 30 sec cycles incubating the suspension
on ice between cycles. Cell debris was removed by centrifugation.
Aliquots of the cell free extract were mixed with glycerol and
bromophenol blue dye and loaded onto an 8.5% acrylamide non-denaturing
gel. The gels were run at 25 mA until the dye reached the bottom.

The gels were soaked for 45 min in 50 mM potassium phosphate pH 7.0 containing 0.4 mg/ml of diaminobenzidine hydrochloride and 0.05 mg/ml of horseradish peroxide. The gel was rinsed with water and soaked for 2 hrs in a solution of 20 mM $\rm H_2O_2$ in 50 mM potassium phosphate pH 7.6. Catalase bands appeared white on a brown background.



4. Results

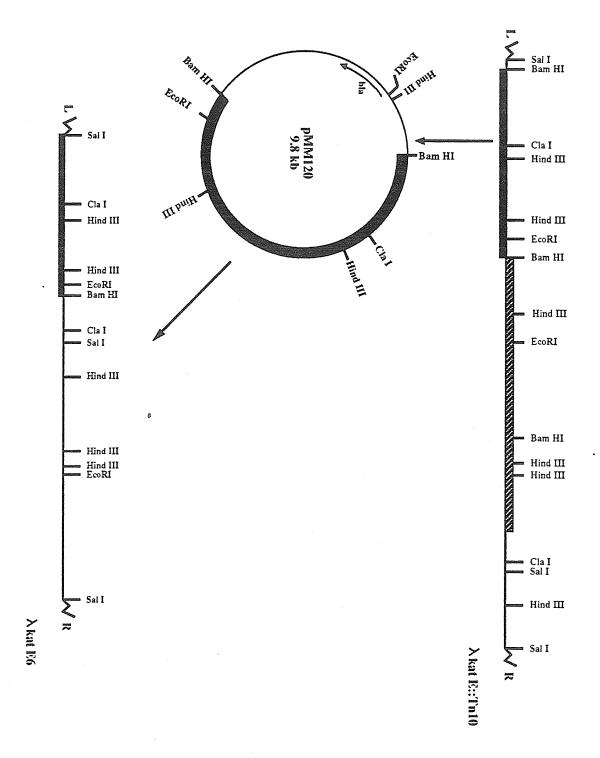
4.1 Cloning of katE

Due to the location of restriction enzyme sites within the gene, initial attempts to clone katE directly from wild-type genomic DNA digested with HindIII, BamHI and EcoRI were unsuccessful. A protocol was designed in which the gene could be isolated through identification of the transposon Tn10 inserted in UM120. The transposon was known to have inserted in the chromosome at 37.8 min resulting in inactivation of katE expression (Loewen, 1984). Genomic DNA from UM120 partially digested with SauIIIA was inserted into $\lambda EMBL3$ to prepare a library. This library was screened with the Tn10 containing plasmid pBT107 (Moyed et~al., 1983). A Tn10 containing phage, $\lambda katE::Tn10$, was isolated and phage DNA prepared. The region of DNA flanking the transposon was isolated and subcloned into pAT153 resulting in pMM120. This plasmid was used to identify $\lambda katE6$, an EMBL3 clone from a wild-type E.~coli genomic library (Fig. 4.1).

4.2 Subcloning of katE

Restriction analysis of λ katE::TnlO revealed that the transposon TnlO in UM120 was inserted near a BamHI site. Because this insertion caused inactivation of katE, it was concluded that the BamHI site lay within the gene. Restriction digests of λ katE6 using enzymes ClaI, PvuII, SalI, EcoRI, HindIII and EcoRV were done individually and in double enzyme digests with BamHI. DNA bands from the single enzyme digests that were seen to be cleaved with BamHI in the double digests were isolated from the agarose gels and cloned into compatible restriction sites of the high copy number vector pAT153. Plasmids were

Figure 4.1 Strategy for the cloning of katE. The UM120 λ clone obtained with pBT107 showing the transposon (hatched area) and the adjacent fragment isolated in pMM120 (solid) which was used to probe the MP180 library to obtain $\lambda katE6$ containing katE.



determined to carry an inserted fragment by scoring transformants for tetracycline sensitivity and observing Rapid plasmid DNA isolations on agarose gels. All plasmids containing inserts were transformed into UM255 to test for complementation of the katEl2::Tnl0. Catalase activity was scored by applying 30% H_2O_2 to transformant colonies.

Two catalase positive clones were identified (Fig. 4.2). The plasmid pAMkatE2 contained a 5.6 kb fragment generated from a partial HindIII digest inserted into the HindIII site of pAT153 to produce pAMkatE6. A 4.0 kb region was common to both pAMkatE2 and pAMkatE6. This region was obtained using the ClaI site in the vector portion of pAMkatE2 and a ClaI site in the insert. The plasmids pAMkatE22 and pAMkatE24 contain the 4.0 kb ClaI fragment in opposite orientations.

4.3 Identification of katE Clones

4.3.1 Complementation by pAMkatE6

Qualitative determination of catalase activity was used to select pAMkatE6. Complementation analysis of pAMkatE6 was subsequently done quantitatively. The plasmid was transformed into MP180 (wild-type), UM120 (katE::Tn10), UM122 (katF::Tn10) and UM202 (katG::Tn10). Cultures of transformed and nontransformed strains were grown to mid-log phase and stationary phase. Cell density was measured to ensure equivalent cell growth in all comparisons.

All transformed strains showed slightly elevated catalase levels in early mid-log phase. In stationary phase MP180 [pAMkatE6] showed catalase levels 25 fold higher than non-transformed MP180, UM120 [pAMkatE6] showed a 94 fold increase and UM202 [pAMkatE6] a 35 fold increase in activity. UM122 [pAMkatE6] showed a slightly lower level of activity (Table 4.1).

Figure 4.2 Isolation of katE plasmids. pAMkatE6 was obtained with a ClaI fragment from λ katE6 and pAMkatE2 with a HindIII fragment generated from a partial digest of λ katE2. The pAMkatE22 plasmids were constructed to contain that portion of DNA common to both pAMkatE6 and pAMkatE2 (solid lines) contained within the boundaries of a ClaI site in the insert and a ClaI site from pAT153.

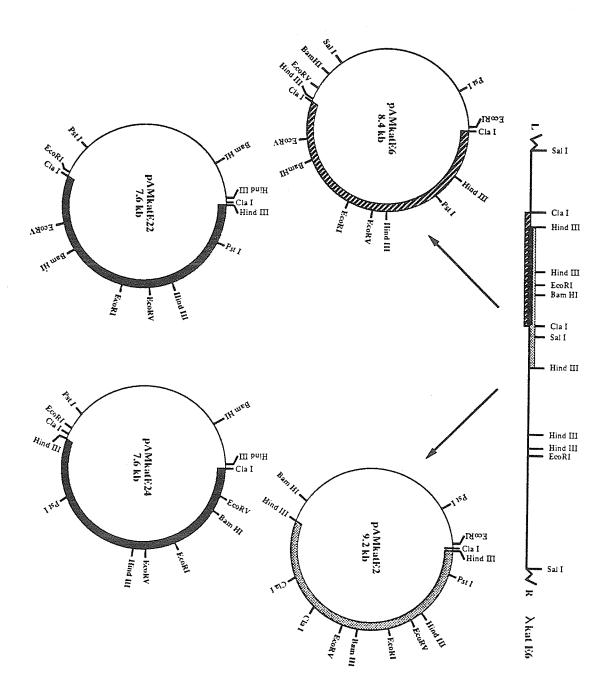


Table 4.1 Catalase Levels

Strain	Catalase (units) mg dry cell weight)	
	Mid-log phase	Stationary Phase
MP180 (wild type)	5.7	58.8
MP180[pAMkatE6]	13.1	1478.0
UM120(katE::Tn10)	8.8	17.3
UM120[pAMkatE6]	11.3	1603.0
UM122(katF::Tn10)	4.3	17.8
UM122[pAMkatE6]	5.3	12.4
UM202(katG::Tn10)	2.0	33.7
UM202[pAMkatE6]	3.9	1060.0

4.3.2 Visualization of HPII

Having transformed pAMkatE6 into MP180 (wild-type), UM120 (katE::Tn10), UM122 (katF:Tn10) and UM202 (katG::Tn10) it was possible to visualize catalase activities following gel electrophoresis of extracts. Cell extracts were prepared from transformed and nontransformed cells at mid-log and stationary phase. The extracts were run on nondenaturing polyacrylamide gels and stained for catalase activity. The gels from mid-log and stationary phase revealed similar patterns of catalase activity except that the samples from mid-log phase showed relatively less expression of HPII. In MP180 [pAMkatE6] the greater portion of activity was due to the upper band, HPII, while the lower doublet, HPI, showed greater amounts in MP180. The HPI doublet was the only catalase present in UM120 but UM120 [pAMkatE6] showed an intense upper HPII band. Extracts of UM122 contained a greater proportion of HPI relative to HPII but UM122 [pAMkatE6] contained approximately equivalent amounts of HPI and HPII, UM202 and UM202 [pAMkatE6] both produced only one source of catalase activity, an intense upper band of HPII (Fig. 4.3).

4.3.3 Maxicell Analysis of pAMkatE6

Proteins encoded by pAMkatE6 were analyzed using the maxicell procedure of Sancar et al. using strain UM255. Maxicell extracts of UM255, UM255 [pAT153] and UM255 [pAMkatE6] were run on SDS-PAGE and labelled protein bands were located by autoradiography giving rise to the autoradiogram shown in Fig. 4.4. No bands are present in the extract of UM255 except for cellular debris at the bottom of the gel. The pattern of proteins in extracts of UM255 [pAT153] was consistent with the pattern of proteins expected from pAT153. The proteins involved in

Figure 4.3 Visualization of catalase activities following electrophoresis on an 8.5% acrylamide non-denaturing gel. Extracts of various strains with (+) and without (-) pAMkatE6, grown to stationary phase.

MP UM UM UM 180 120 122 202 - + - + - + - +

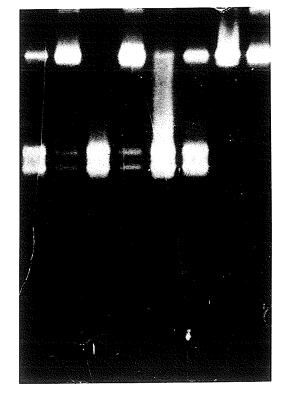
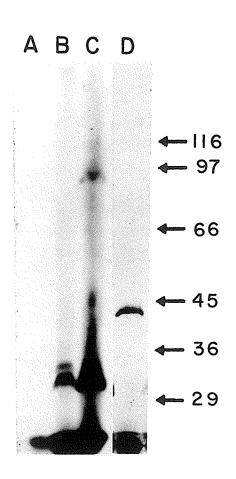


Figure 4.4 Maxicell analysis of plasmid-encoded proteins. Lanes: A, UM255; B, UM255[pAT153]; C, UM255[pAMkatE6]; D, UM258[pMMkatF2]. The numbers along the side indicate the locations of molecular weight standards $(x10^3)$.



ampicillin resistance appear as a doublet at 31,000 and 28,000 daltons and the protein involved in the tetracycline resistance is approximately 37,000 daltons but is produced in small amounts and is very faint in the autoradiogram. The UM255 [pAMkatE6] proteins include the ampicillin resistance doublet and a protein with molecular weight of 93,000 daltons, the size of the HPII subunit.

4.4 Confirmation of Chromosomal Location of Tn10 in katE

The transposon Tn10 was originally utilized to map the chromosomal location of katE (Loewen, 1984), and to construct HPII deficient E. colistrains. The following protocol was used to confirm that the katE clones were from the same region of the chromosome as the Tn10 insertion in UM120 genomic DNA. Genomic DNA from MP180 and UM120 was digested with ClaI and digests were electrophoresed on agarose gels for blotting to nylon filter. The blots were then probed with 32P-labelled pAMkatE6. The patterns obtained are shown in Fig. 4.5. The MP180 genomic DNA shows a fragment hybridized to pAMkatE6 which contains a 4.8 kb ClaI insert obtained from the wild-type library. The hybridization pattern of UM120 shows two bands. These fragment sizes correspond to the Tn10 insertion near the BamHI site in UM120 as described in fig. 4.6 and contain both Tn10 and chromosomal DNA.

4.5 Characterization of HPII Production and Activity

E. coli produces two catalases HPI and HPII which are independently regulated. The HPI protein produced by katG is believed to be regulated by the oxyR regulon (Christman et al., 1985). HPI levels increase gradually during logarithmic growth but do not increase into stationary phase (Loewen et al. 1985). HPII synthesis is affected by katE and katF with katE being the structural gene and katF being required for katE

Figure 4.5 Autoradiogram of the change in hybridization pattern when genomic DNA with or without a transposon Tn10 insertion in katE was digested with ClaI and probed with $\alpha^{3\,2}P$ -labelled pAMkatE6. Lanes: A, MP180 genomic DNA digested with ClaI; B, UM120(katE::Tn10) genomic DNA digested with ClaI. The numbers along the side indicate the sizes in kb of fragments generated by the digestion of λ DNA with HindIII.

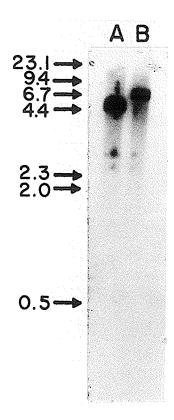
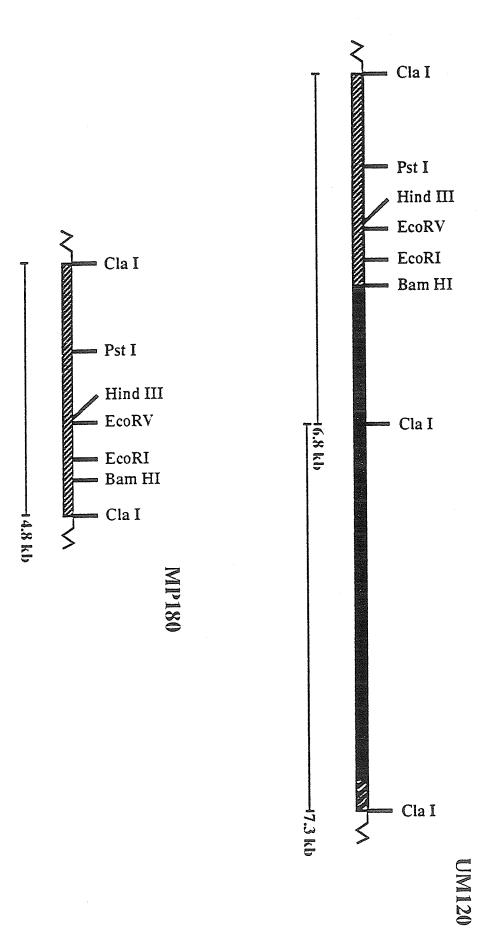


Figure 4.6 Schematic representation of the location of transposon Tn10 in UM120. The solid line indicates the transposon and the hatched segment the genomic DNA. Upper diagram indicates the two fragments generated from UM120 DNA digested with ClaI and the lower diagram the 4.8 kb ClaI fragment that hybridized to pAMkatE6.



expression (Mulvey et al., 1988). HPII levels are lower than HPI levels in mid-log phase but HPII levels increase eight fold in stationary phase (Loewen et al., 1985). The katE containing plasmid pAMkatE6 was transformed into UM255 (KatG-, KatE-) to study the expression of katE when localized on a high copy number plasmid. Cultures of UM255 and UM255 [pAMkatE6] were grown for three hours. At this point any HPII contributed by the cells in the inoculum had effectively been diluted out. These three hour cultures were then used to inoculate either a fresh culture of UM255 or UM255 [pAMkatE6]. The UM255 had a slower growth rate than UM255 [pAMkatE6] but soon reached equivalent cell density. The levels of HPII in the transformed strain were relatively low at early and mid-log phases and increased dramatically in stationary phase with maximum levels being reached at 15-17 hrs of growth (Fig. 4.7). These results indicated that in the high copy number situation although greater amounts of protein are produced the regulation of katE is equivalent to the single copy gene residing on the chromosome.

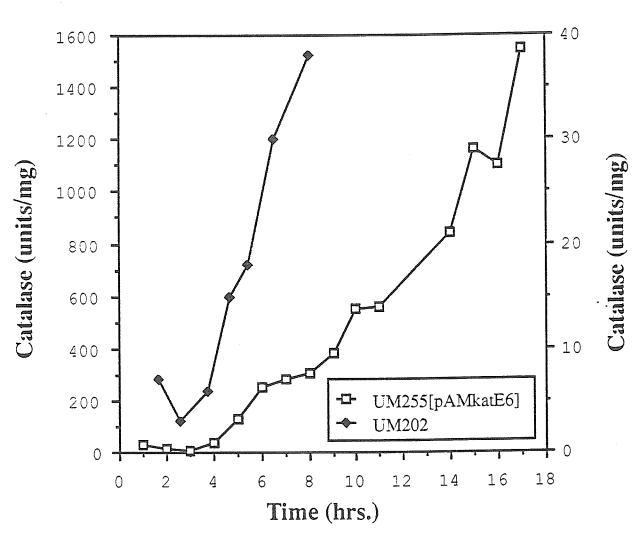
4.6 Definition of the Coding Region of katE

4.6.1 Restriction Enzyme Deletions

The plasmid pAMkatE22 contains the 4.0 kb HindIII-ClaI fragment common to pAMkatE6 and pAMkatE2 and encodes HPII activity. A protein the size of the HPII subunit should require only 2.5 kb of DNA for synthesis and attempts were made to further reduce the size of the insert to identify the katE coding region by deleting portions of pAMkatE6 and pAMkatE22. A NruI site located 850 bp from the ClaI site of the original insert DNA in pAMkatE6 and a NruI site located in the vector resulted in a deletion of 2.1 kb from the plasmid. This deleted plasmid did not complement the katE mutation in UM255. A similar attempt using the BamHI

Figure 4.7 Comparison of HPII catalase levels expressed by a single copy gene in UM202(katG), and by a multicopy gene (UM255[pAMkatE6]). Left axis describes catalase activity from UM255[pAMkatE6] and right axis catalase activity from UM202.

HPII Production



sites in pAMkatE6 caused a deletion of 2.0 kb, approximately 150 bp less than the NruI deletion (Fig. 4.10), and this plasmid also did not complement the katE::Tn10 mutation in UM255.

In order to reduce the size of the insert from the opposite end the only restriction sites yielding a fragment large enough to contain the entire coding region without cutting within that region were PstI and ClaI in pAMkatE22. These sites resulted in a 3.1 kb fragment that was cloned into the Bluescript KS M13-vector using the PstI and ClaI sites. The resulting plasmid complemented the UM255 mutation upon transformation. This HPII encoding plasmid was named pAMkatE72 (Fig. 4.8). The 2.4 kb DraI fragment of this plasmid when cloned into Bluescript M13 did not complement katE mutants.

4.6.2 BAL31 Deletion Mutagenesis

Because the restriction pattern did not allow for a more precise definition of the gene location, the generation of deletions using BAL31 exonuclease was attempted. The only unique restriction site available as a BAL31 initiation point was the SalI site in the vector region of pAMkatE6. Due to the proximity of the SalI site to the origin of replication of the plasmid and the bidirectionality of exonuclease BAL31, only small deletions could be obtained. This was useful in that the few deletions which could be isolated varied only slightly in their length allowing for finer mapping. It was found that deletions which retained the EcoRV site approximately 550 bp into the insert also retained activity. Deletions eliminating the EcoRV site did not exhibit catalase activity. These catalase negative deletions were further characterized and all were found to contain the BamHI site 257 bp from EcoRV site. If the limit of katE required for activity lies near the

EcoRV site and the length of the entire gene is assumed to be approximately 2.5 kb, then the functional portion of katE should be contained in the segment extending between the PstI and EcoRV sites as shown in Fig. 4.8.

4.6.3 Promoter Cloning

The promoter cloning vector pKK232-8 contains six restriction enzyme sites within the multiple cloning region. Small DNA fragments could not be cloned because the orientation of these restriction sites is not compatible with the orientation of restriction sites within any of the katE containing plasmids. However several attempts were made to clone large fragments of pAMkatE2 and pAMkatE72 into pKK232-8. The resulting clones were assayed for promoter activity on increasing concentrations of chloramphenicol. A 3.6 kb HindIII fragment from pAMkatE2 in pKK232-8 allowed transformants to grow on >60 μ g/ml chloramphenicol. The orientation of this fragment indicated a promoter activity directed into the insert towards the two adjacent ClaI sites (Fig. 4.9A). A 1.2 kb BamHI-HindIII fragment (Fig. 4.9B) from pAMkatE72 cloned into pKK232-8 also enabled transformants to grow on $>60 \mu g/ml$ chloramphenicol. This fragment indicated a promoter activity directed from the PstI site into the insert. A third clone constructed from a 1.3 kb BamHI-HindIII of pAMkatE72 (Fig. 4.9C) (part of the 3.6 kb HindIII fragment previously used) indicated a promoter activity directed from the BamHI site in the direction of the EcoRI site. The resulting transformants grew on 40 $\mu g/ml$ chloramphenicol. These conflicting results which indicate promoters oriented in both directions from 3 different sources are most likely due to the large fragment sizes inserted into the vector and may not indicate true promoters.

Figure 4.8 Schmatic representation of pAMkatE72 the smallest resulting plasmid containing the entire katE gene. The solid line indicates the insert.

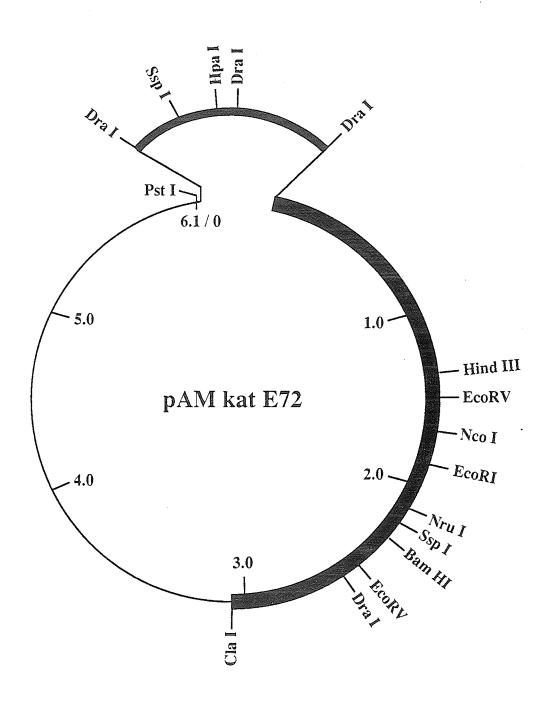
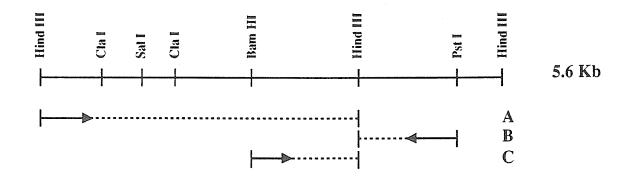
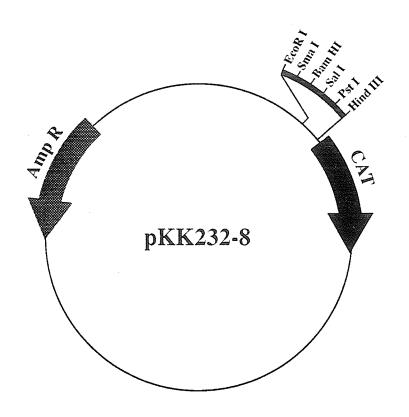


Figure 4.9 Generation of pKK232-8 promoter clones. The pKK232-8 plasmid is represented (lower) showing restriction sites in the multilinker. The inserted fragments are shown (upper) delineated with vertical bars and the direction of promoter activity indicated by arrows.





Consequently the data are inconclusive and the location of the katE promoter remains unknown.

4.7 Subcloning of katE for Sequencing

In order to sequence *katE* the gene had to be subcloned into smaller fragments. The sequencing protocol chosen was that using the Stratagene Bluescript vectors. These phagemids could be utilized as plasmids for the cloning procedure and single-stranded DNA for sequencing recovered through utilization of a helper phage. The fragments isolated for subcloning are shown in Fig. 4.10. Subclones isolated during the course of this work are listed in Table 4.2.

Figure 4.10 Construction of *katE* subclones. The 3.1 kb fragment isolated in pAMkatE72 is shown at the top of the figure. The fragments isolated are shown as bars with their size in bp noted above. The corresponding plasmid identification number given to each fragment is to the right of the bar.

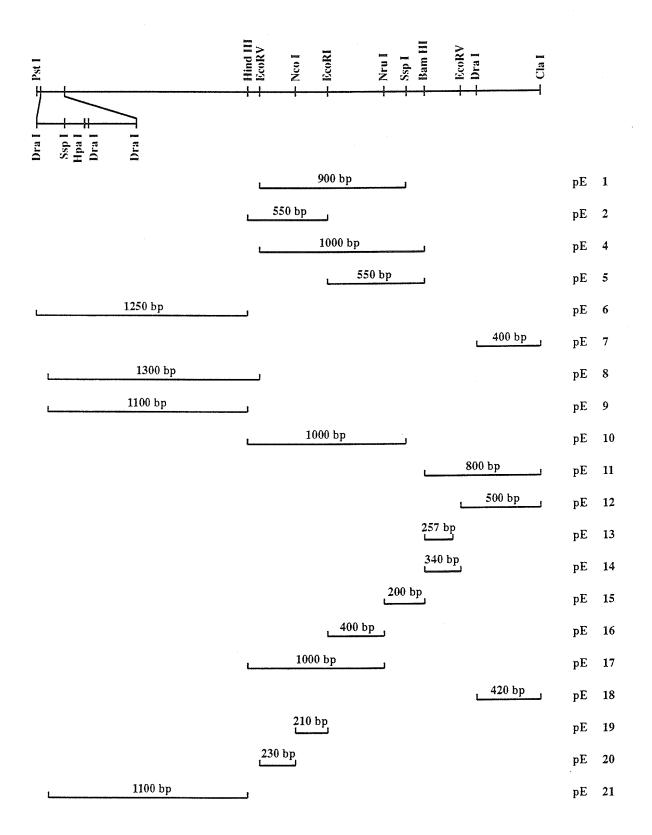


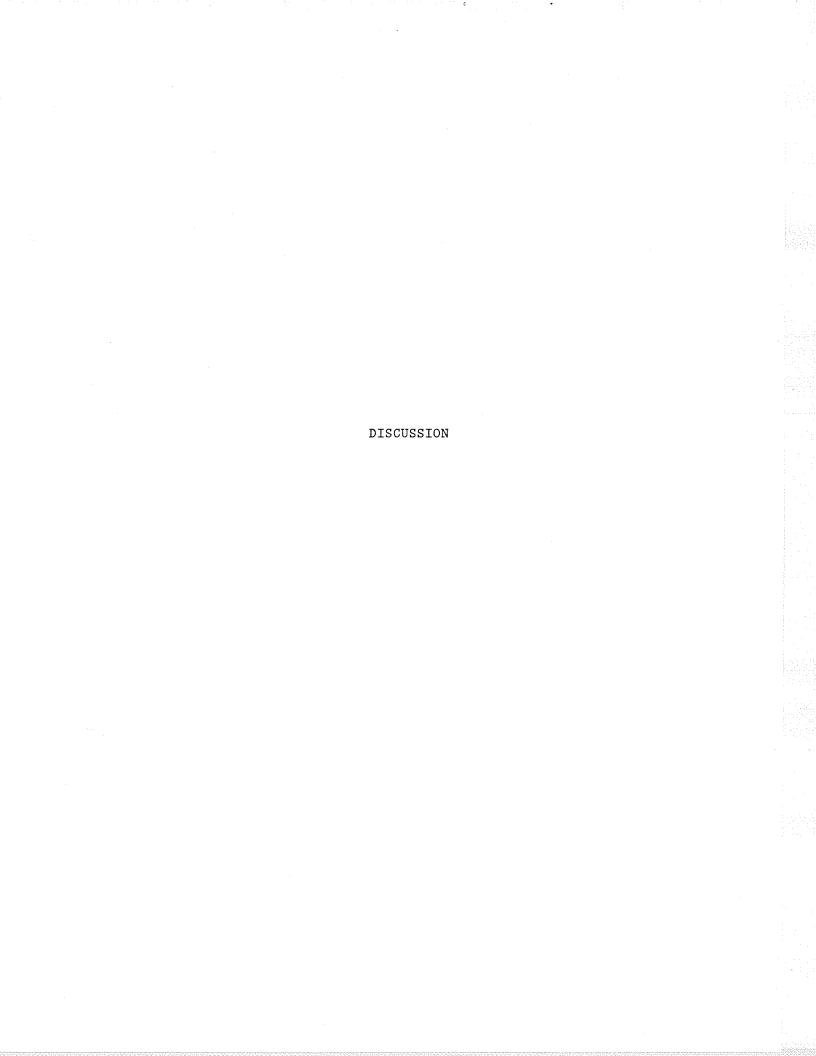
Table 4.2 Subclones of pAMkatE72

pEKS+	pEKS-	pESK+	pESK-		
+	+	+		1	EcoRV-SspI
+	+	+		2	EcoRI-HindIII
+	+	+	+	4	EcoRV-BamHI
+	+	+		5	EcoRI-BamHI
+	+		+	6	PstI-HindIII
+		+	+	7	DraI-ClaI
+		+	+	8	SspI-EcoRV
+	+	+	+	9	SspI-HindIII
+		+	+	10	SspI-HindIII
+	+	+	+	11	BamHI-ClaI
+	+		+	12	EcoRV-ClaI
+	+	+	*	13	EcoRV-BamHI
	+	+	+	14	BamHI-DraI
+				15	NruI-BamHI
+	+	+		16	NruI-EcoRI
	+	+	+	17	NruI-HindIII
	+		+	18	EcoRV-SspI
				19	NcoI-EcoRI
				20	NcoI-EcoRV
				21	DraI-HindIII

^{*}not required

⁺subclone obtained

The subclones isolated were identified by the system pEKS+1 being the EcoRV-SspI fragment, #1, indicated in fig. 4.10 as 900 bp in size inserted into Bluescript M13KS+.



5.0 Discussion

The ability to study the independent induction of HPI or HPII was greatly aided by the construction of transposon insertion catalase mutants (Loewen et al. 1985). These mutants also allowed for mapping of katG, katE, and katF to the positions of 89.2, 37.8 and 59 min respectively on the E. coli chromosome (Loewen, 1984; Loewen and Triggs, 1984; Loewen et al., 1985). The katG gene had been located on a plasmid in the Clarke and Carbon plasmid bank (Loewen et al., 1983), but attempts to clone katE or katF directly from restriction enzyme digested genomic DNA had been unsuccessful. This is because, in the case of katE the restriction enzymes used, with the exception of SalI, all lie within the functional region of the gene. The lack of success in cloning katE on SalI fragments may have arisen for the same reason that the cloning of katF from genomic DNA was unsuccessful, that is, that the DNA fragments created with SalI and some other enzymes did indeed carry the gene but the fragments were too large to be efficiently ligated into pAT153. The existence of the transposon mutants allowed for the development of the isolation procedure utilized (Mulvey et al., 1988). The transposon could be identified in a UM120 (katE::Tn10) library using the plasmid pBT107 (Moyed et al., 1983). This method isolated a region of DNA containing katE. The insertion of the transposon in very close proximity to a BamHI site facilitated the localization of the gene on the 18 kb fragment isolated in λ katE6 (section 4.2). The transposon mutations also reduced the amount of time required to screen for katE positive clones. One transposon mutant, UM255 is catalase negative (katG, katE) and was used to screen clones which could complement

the *katE* mutation indicating successful cloning of the gene. Presence of *katE* in the clones was confirmed by isolation of plasmid DNA, retransformation and complementation of UM255 and high levels of HPII in extracts of transformed cells. The *katE* positive cultures appeared green, a reflection of the overproduction of HPII which is green in color.

Using pAMkatE6 to probe the genomic DNA of UM120 confirmed the presence of the transposon in katE in UM120 and even allowed a definition of its location in the gene.

At the start of this project the individual functions of katF and katE were unknown but it was known that both were required for HPII synthesis (Loewen, 1984; Loewen and Triggs, 1984). Maxicell analysis of proteins expressed from pAMkatE6 indicated that a 93,000 dalton protein was encoded by the plasmid. This was the same as the previously determined size of the HPII subunit. Analysis of proteins encoded by the katF clone, pMMkatF2, in maxicells (Fig. 4.4, Lane D) showed a 42,000 dalton protein which was much too small to be the HPII subunit. From these data the respective functions of katE and katF have now been determined as the structural gene for HPII and some form of positive regulator of katE activity.

Confirmation that pAMkatE6 was producing HPII was shown through visualization of HPI and HPII activities in pAMkatE6 transformed and untransformed strain extracts following separation on acrylamide gels stained for catalase activity. The results show the catalase activity in UM255[pAMkatE6] to be primarily due to HPII production. The plasmid did not complement UM202 (katG) by producing HPI. HPII was produced in equivalent quantities to HPI in transformed UM122 (katF) and this may be due to a

"leakiness" in the katF mutation or simply that the presence of the katE gene in such high copy number may override its reliance on katF for HPII production. The recently deduced function of katF as a sigma factor (Mulvey and Loewen, 1989) involving it in some type of preferential transcription as its role in positive regulation of katE may explain the production of HPII in UM122[pAMkatE6]. HPII may be produced in extremely low levels in the absence of katF function but in high copy number this relatively low expression of katE in UM122[pAMkatE6] is detectable. The results of the UM255[pAMkatE6] time course catalase assay (Fig. 4.7) indicate that HPII is overproduced when katE is present on a multicopy plasmid, at levels 30 fold greater than wild-type, but that the number of copies of the gene has no influence on the normal pattern of induction. HPII production begins to rise in midlog phase and reaches a maximum in stationary phase, usually peaking at 16 hrs incubation.

The DNA fragment contained on pAMkatE22 and pAMkatE24 included the region required for HPII production and various methods were used to locate *katE* more precisely. A 93,000 dalton protein would require approximately 2.5 kb of DNA and portions of the 4.0 kb insert were deleted using various restriction enzymes and BAL31 nuclease. The combination of deletions obtained led to the conclusion that the functional region of *katE* lies within the 2.6 kb between the *DraI* sites at 12 bp and 2.8 kb in fig. 4.8.

Attempts made to isolate the *katE* promoter in the vector pKK232-8 were successful in isolating fragments with promoter activity but inconclusive in defining the *katE* promoter. The promoter is most likely located near the *Pst*I site at the 0 kb end of the insert (fig. 4.9) on

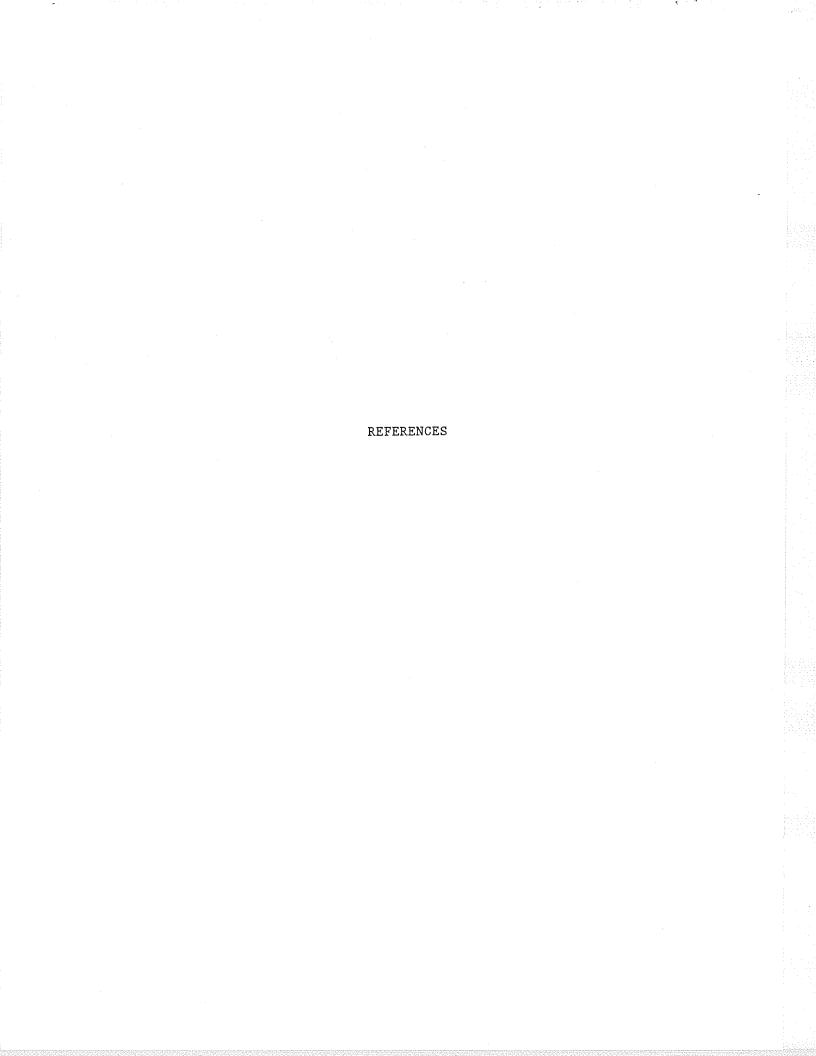
fragment B given recent sequence data indicating an open reading frame extending away from this end (P.C. Loewen, unpublished). The high level of promoter activity from fragment A is probably due to a promoter belonging to an adjacent gene. Isolation of the *katE* promoter on a small fragment will be useful in confirming the role of the Kat F protein as a novel sigma factor and must be continued.

The 3.1 kb fragment contained on pAMkatE72 was used to create small subclones for sequencing of katE. The procedure chosen for sequencing was the dideoxy chain termination method using single-stranded DNA from clones in Bluescript M13 phagemids. This protocol would enable sequencing of each fragment from both directions on each strand. Subclones obtained at the conclusion of this work are listed in table 4.2 and the sequencing of these clones is underway. The only region without suitable restriction sites for subcloning is the 1.1 kb region between the DraI site (194 bp) and the HindIII site. Attempts were made to create subclones of the region using the Stratagene Exo-Mung protocol, a SauIIIA deletion method (Lee and Lee, 1988) and four modifications of the SauIIIA method, but to date no subclones of this region have been obtained.

Loewen et al. (1985) had proposed that the presence of two catalase genes, katG and katE may have resulted from a duplication of the E. coli chromosome during the evolution of the organism. The possibility that this is the case seems slight as the two genes seem to belong to at least two different regulons or systems. The katG gene has been shown to be under the positive control of the oxyR gene product (Christman et al., 1985) and katE under positive control of the katF gene product (Mulvey et al., 1988). The Kat F protein is believed to be a novel sigma

factor with homology to rpoD, the $E.\ coli$ sigma subunit of RNA polymerase, and also shows homology to the heat shock regulatory protein encoded by htpR. These two genes have not been reported to be homologous to Oxy R protein, furthermore katG and katE do not cross-hybridize under stringent conditions (Triggs-Raine, unpublished). Determination of the protein sequence of katE from the DNA sequence and comparison to katG should definitely answer this question. As well, the two catalases are immunologically distinct and vary in most characteristics making such homology unlikely.

It appears that the $E.\ coli$ catalases HPI and HPII have evolved in response to different pressures because of their distinct differences in structure, function, and regulation. The sequence analysis of katE will be a first step in identification and characterization of the catalytic domains and functional regions of HPII and this will allow a comparison of the functional, structural, and regulatory differences between HPI and HPII. In turn this may increase our understanding of the complex mechanisms involved in an organism's adaptation to stresses related to surviving in oxygenated environments.



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