TITLE

GENETIC AND MOLECULAR ANALYSIS OF THE QUINIC ACID UTILIZATION (QUT) GENE CLUSTER IN ASPERGILLUS MIDULANS

by

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ABBREVIATIONS

•

bp	base pairs
BSA	bovine serum albumin
DMSO	dimethyl sulphoxide
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
DNase	deoxyribonuclease
DTT	dithiothreitol
EDTA	ethylenediaminetetra-acetic acid
kb	kilobases (1000x bp)
mRNA	messenger ribonucleic acid
PEG	polyethylene glycol
RNA	ribonucleic acid
RNase	ribonuclease
SDS	sodium dodecyl sulphate
tris	tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane
dNTP	2'-deoxy(N) 5'-triphosphate N=adenosine,
	cytidine, guanosine or thymidine
ddNTP	2',3'-dideoxy(N) 5'-triphosphate N=adenosine,
	cytidine, guanosine or thymidine

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

The mechanisms determining the transient control of gene expression have been very extensively studied in bacteria, and the first system to be comprehensively analysed was the *Lac* operon of *Escherichia coli*, by Jacob & Monod (1961).

They established that the co-ordinate induction of three enzymes concerned with lactose metabolism, the β -galactosidase, galactoside permease and thio-galactoside transacetylase, was directed by a segment of DNA which codes for a single messenger RNA (mRNA) carrying all the necessary genetic information for the synthesis of the three enzymes on the ribosomes. Such a complex mRNA transcript was termed polycistronic, and the complex gene the Lac operon. Furthermore, they revealed that a closely linked region controlled the transcription of this polycistronic mRNA. This region codes for a repressor protein that binds to another region called the operator, close to the start of transcription, thus preventing expression of the Lac operon. The interaction of the inducer, lactose, with the repressor protein results in the repressor no longer being able to bind to the operator. In this case RNA polymerase can interact with the Lac operon at a 5' non-coding region, the promoter region, to intiate synthesis of the polycistronic mRNA.

A third protein involved in the transcription of the *Lac* operon, along with the repressor and the RNA polymerase, is the catabolic activator protein (CAP).

Jacob & Monod showed that the *Lac* operon was repressed when glucose, a more efficient source of carbon than lactose, was present. Glucose is found to repress the concentration of intracellular cyclic AMP, which is required for the activation of CAP (catabolic activator protein), which in turn operates by enhancing the activity of the RNA polymerase.

These observations put forward by Jacob & Monod established the fundamental principles of molecular mechanisms controlling gene expression, which were to form the basis for future models. Subsequent investigations revealed that in bacteria, genes controlling enzymes of catabolic and biosynthetic pathways were frequently found to be organized in operons, similar to the Lac operon. In these, the expression of the polycistronic message appears in most cases to be controlled by a repressor protein, although, less commonly, the control can also be exerted by a positively acting, activator protein, as in the ara (arabinose) operon (Englesberg et al., 1965).

Advances in the understanding of the mechanisms of the regulation of gene expression in lower eukaryotes, have been largely achieved in fungi, where a comprehensive number of genes that are under physiological control have been identified. In the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, examples of such genetic systems that have been more thoroughly analysed include the genes involved in galactose utilization (Douglas & Hawthorn, 1964, 1966; St.John & McDonnel, 1979; Post-Beittenmiller et al., the glucose repressible alcohol dehydrogenase 1984), (Ciriacy, 1979; Denis & Young, 1983), the alkaline and acid phosphatases (Thoh-e et *al.*, 1981) and general

amino-acid control (Jones & Fink, 1983; Lucchini et al, 1984; Penn et al., 1984). Among the filamentous fungi some of the more thoroughly analysed systems of genetic regulation include the genes controlling the derepression of phosphatases in Neurospora crassa, which show remarkable similarities with the equivalent system in yeast (Metzemberg & Chia, 1979) and in Aspergillus nidulans the genes encoding the alcohol and aldehyde dehydrogenases (Pateman et al., 1983), the genes for proline utilization (Arst & MacDonald, 1978) and the amide utilization amdS gene (Hynes et al., 1983).

In contrast to bacteria where the genes coding for the enzymes in a particular metabolic pathway frequently occur organized in operons, related genes in fungi tend to be scattered throughout the genome and have their expression controlled by more than one, unlinked regulatory gene.

However, exceptions to this general situation in fungi have been found, for example close linkage of the three structural genes, *GAL*1, *GAL*7 and *GAL*10 of *S*. *cerevisiae*, which code for the three enzymes converting galactose to glucose-1-phosphate (Douglas & Hawthorn, 1964, 1966) and also the genes involved in proline utilization, *prnA*, *prnB*, *prnC* and *prnD* in *A*. *nidulans* (Arst & MacDonald, 1978).

Another remarkable case of closely linked regulated genes in fungi, is the gene cluster coding for the enzymes catalyzing the first three reactions in the degradation of quinic acid (Figure 1), a product of leaf decay in forests, in at least two filamentous fungi, *Neurospora crassa* (Case & Giles, 1976) and *Aspergillus nidulans*

(Hawkins, Giles & Kinghorn, 1982).

The system has been more extensively investigated in N. crassa, where studies have defined a gene cluster consisting of the three enzyme structural genes, together with a closely linked regulatory region which mediates the coincident expression of the three structural genes to achieve very high levels of enzyme induction (Chaleff, 1974). In this respect the quinic acid utilization (qa) gene cluster in N. crassa appeared to possess striking similarities to the prokaryotic operons, although there was no evidence that the three qa genes were transcribed in a single polycistronic mRNA (Case & Giles, 1975).

Initial interest in this gene cluster developed from work on another system to which it is metabolically related (Figure 1), and which concerns the complex gene determining the enzyme activities for five steps in the constitutive biosynthesis of aromatic amino acids and many other compounds (Giles et al., 1967a). Initial speculation that such closely linked genes in fungi constitute a system for gene expression similar to the prokaryotic operons, was discounted after analyis of the HIS4 genetic region of S. cerevisiae, which encodes for three enzymes involved in steps 2, 3 and 10 of histidine biosynthesis. Bigelis et al. (1977) showed that this region was transcribed to produce a single mRNA corresponding to a multifunctional protein catalyzing all single, three enzyme fuctions. Similarly, the arom complex is now thought to consist of a single gene coding for a single polypeptide, which catalyzes the five enzyme activities for steps two to six in the biosynthetic pathway (Lumsden & Coggins, 1977; Giles, 1978 and Figure 1). Furthermore,

such a complex gene is found not only in N. crassa, but also in a number of related fungi: Ustilago violacea (Berlyn & Giles, 1972), S. cerevisiae (deLeeuw, 1968) and nidulans (Clive Roberts, unpublished results). In E. Α. coli, on the other hand, the five biosynthetic enzymes are coded by five unlinked genes and are readily separated physically and the quinic acid degradative pathway does not exist. A possible explanation for this difference lies in the metabolic competition that exists in these fungi between the biosynthetic and the quinic acid degradative pathways, since both share a common enzymatic step and metabolic intermediates (Figure 1). Such metabolic competition between the two systems may have conferred an advantage for the aggregation and eventually fusion into the arom cluster, thus creating a channeling mechanism for intermediates on the enzyme complex.

An indication of the importance of metabolic channeling comes from the methods used to isolate arom-9 in N. which lack mutants crassa biosynthetic dehydroquinase activity. Because of the high levels of induction of the quinic acid catabolic enzymes and since a lesion in the biosynthetic enzyme would lead to the accumulation of dehydroquinic acid (DHQ), arom-9 mutants would actually be able to grow on quinic acid due to endogenous induction of the degradative dehydroquinase. The procedure used to recover arom-9 mutants was to first screen for catabolic dehydroquinase mutants $(qa2^{-})$, which are easier to isolate since the constitutive levels of the biosynthetic isoenzyme are not high enough to fully support growth quinic enable on acid and thus the identification of mutants in the catabolic function. Only

then was it possible to isolate the biosynthetic *arom-9* mutation in a double mutant strain lacking each of the isoenzymes (Giles *et al.*, 1967b).

The analysis of the *qa* mutant strains generated during the screen for *qa2* mutants revealed quite unexpected results. The first impression was that the mutants identified a system possessing considerable resemblence to the bacterial operons, since not only were the three structural genes clustered, but also their expression was regulated from a closely linked region (Case & Giles, 1975).

However, subsequent genetic and biochemical evidence has shown that although the induction of the three enzymes followed co-incident expression of the three structural genes, these were independently transcribed (Patel et al., 1981). Regulation of expression of the structural genes appeared to be effected by a closely linked control region (Case & Giles, 1975). This region was identified on the basis of a set of pleiotropic, non-inducible mutants (carrying the arom-9 mutation) that mapped in the region. Two distinct classes of mutations identified two discrete, non-overlapping arrays within the regulatory region. These mutations were distinguished by contrasting phenotypes based their ability to relieve an auxotrophic on requirement for aromatic amino acids in a qa2; arom-9 double mutant in heterokaryons grown on quinic acid as group called *ga*1^F (F for source. One fast carbon complementation) mutants were readily complemented, whereas a second group produced very slow complementation, hence called qa1^S. Furthermore, revertants of qa1^S mutant strains, but not $qa1^F$ strains, selected by growth on

quinic acid, were frequently found to express the QA structural genes constitutively. These *qa1^C* strains, carried additional mutations mapping close to the $qa1^{S-}$ mutations (Valone et al., 1971; Partridge et al., 1972). The model developed from these genetic observations was the following: the QA1 locus codes for a positively acting regulatory protein that responds to the presence of the inducer molecule, quinic acid. The two types of mutations $qa1^{S-}$ and $qa1^{F-}$, identify two domains within this positively acting regulatory protein. The first corresponds to a site binding quinic acid and thus producing allosteric changes in the protein enabling it to bind to the promoter regions of the structural genes and initiate high levels of QA mRNA synthesis. The DNA binding region of the QA1 protein, was the domain identified by the $qa1^{\rm F}$ mutations.

Vapnek et al., 1977, reported the physical isolation of the gene cluster in a plasmid vector on the basis of the expression of the N. crassa dehydroquinase gene (QA2) in E. coli, and thus restoring a mutant lesion in the bacterial biosynthetic gene (aroD6) and enabling the selection of transformants by growth in the absence of added aromatic amino acids.

Further analysis of the quinic acid utilization gene cluster and its regulatory mechanisms, in A. nidulans, presents some advantages afforded by this organism. A. ascomycetous fungus which nidulans is an has been extensively exploited for the investigation of the regulatory processes controlling a variety of metabolic processes, particularly in nitrogen (Kinghorn & Pateman,

1977; Cove, 1979) and carbon (McCullough, Payton & Roberts, 1977; Arst, 1981) assimilation. More recently, the organism has also proved a good tool for the analysis of such cellular processes as mitosis and nuclear movements (Oakley & Morris, 1980; Morris et al., 1982; and Bergen et al., 1984) and development and cell differentiation (Clutterbuck, 1977; Champe et al., 1981; Timberlake et al., 1983).

A. nidulans offers a main advantage over other filamentous fungi in the availability of a powerful system of genetic analysis both through sexual and parasexual processes. Other advantages conferred by this system include, fast growth rates, a colonial growth habit, uninucleate conidiospores and haploid and diploid growth phases (Pontecorvo *et al.*, 1953). A. nidulans has also become an important organism in research in general metabolism, since it is considered a good analogue for many filamentous fungi of industrial importance used in the production of organic acids and anti-biotics (Smith & Pateman, 1977).

Preliminary analysis of the quinic acid utilization system in A. nidulans by Hawkins, Giles & Kinghorn (1982), revealed a very similar situation with the ga gene cluster in N. crassa. In their work, quinic acid non-utilizing (qut) mutants were isolated and characterized phenotypically. The outcome was the identification of three of the four possible classes of mutants characterized in N. crassa, namely mutants lacking the dehydrogenase (qutB) and dehydratase (qutC) activities and another group in which all three enzyme activities were absent (qutA). These, by analogy with the model proposed

for Neurospora, were interpreted in the same way; that is to identify a gene coding for a positive regulator. No mutants deficient in dehydroquinase activity were isolated. The qutA,B and C mutant genes were shown to be tightly linked and the *qutA* mutants would complement structural mutants, hence proving they had retained their potential enzyme activities for at least two of the structural genes. On the basis of this evidence, it was postulated that QUTA codes for a regulatory protein that controls the synthesis of the three enzymes with a positive mode of action. The qutA mutants therefore fail to induce the structural genes.

Biochemical studies done on the wild-type have demonstrated further analogies between the QA system in Neuropora and its QUT equivalent in Aspergillus. Dehydroquinase enzyme from A. nidulans is functionally and structurally very similar to its counterpart in N. crassa. It is a heat-stable protein, retaining 98% of its activity after incubation at 71°C for 30 minutes. Likewise, it has the same native molecular weight and sub-unit structure as the enzyme from N. crassa, that is a molecular weight of approximately 200,000, composed of some 10 sub-units. The A. nidulans enzyme was also shown to exhibit a strong immunological cross-reactivity with anti-body raised against the N. crassa enzyme, suggesting a strong amino-acid sequence homology.

AIMS OF THE PROJECT

The general thrust of the project is to further analyse the regulation of the expression of the *QUT* gene

cluster in A. nidulans.

The initial aims were the isolation of dehydroquinase mutants, so that mutations representative of each of the structural genes were available and also to test the predicted linkage to the cluster. Furthermore, because the regulation of particular functions in fungi seem to generally involve two or more regulatory proteins it was reasonable to consider the possibility that this could also be the case for the QUT gene cluster in A. nidulans. Hence, more mutants in regulatory functions were desirable to test this possibility. Aspergillus has an advantage in opportunity to construct both heterokaryons the and diploid strains, the latter not being available in N. crassa. Diploid strains have a major advantage over heterokaryons in that the allele ratios in the cell for given gene can be controlled and therefore anv the mRNA transcription and protein activity analysis of quantified, and genetic interactions accurately assessed in heterozygous diploid strains. This advantage, it was felt should enable а more detailed and accurate examination of the system in vivo, both at the genetic and molecular levels, than in Neurospora.

Further insights into the mechanism regulating expression of the QUT genes was expected from a study of the sequences flanking the coding regions, with particular emphasis on the promoter regions. This study was prompted by the idea that if the regulatory protein(s) bind to these regions, sequence analysis might reveal features reflecting such interactions.

<u>FIGURE 1</u> Diagram of the reactions in the quinic acid catabolic (inducible) and polyaromatic synthetic (constitutive) pathways, indicating the metabolic relationships.



CHAPTER 2 . MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Genetics and Biochemistry of Aspergillus nidulans

1. Strains

The strains of A. nidulans (Eidam Winter) all derive from the Glasgow stock (Pontecorvo et al.,1953). The strains R21 (pabaA1 yA2) and R153 (wA3;pyroA4), constructed from the translocation free strains of Käfer (1965), were used as standard "wild-type" strains and also for the isolation of mutants. Quinic acid non-utilizing mutant strains qutA4, qutA7, qutA8, qutB42 and qutC1 were isolated in R21 (Hawkins et al, 1982). Strain R56 (pabaA1; wA3; ornB7 facB101 riboB2 gal7) was used for meiotic mapping of the qut gene cluster.

Strains were cultured on complete medium slants for medium term storage and held on silica gel (Roberts, 1969) for long term storage. Stocks were kept at 4 ^oC.

2. Media

(i) Minimal medium

The defined minimal medium (MM) used throughout this work is basically that of Pontecorvo *et al.* (1953), modified by Roberts (1963). This is prepared as a 10X solution of stock salts (see below) to which 1.0M MgSO₄ is added to give a final concentration of 10mM.

10X Stock salts solution

Substance	<u>Final amount per litre</u>
NaNO3	6.0g
KCl	0.52g
KH2PO4	1.52g
Trace elements solutions	1.0 ml

Trace elements solution

Substance	Concentration in stock
	solution (g/l)
FeS04.7H20	1.00
ZnS04.7H20	8.80
CuSO4.5H2O	0.40
MnSO4.4H20	0.15
$Na_2B_40_7.10H_20$	0.10
(NH4)6M07024	0.05

Trace elements were added to distilled water, and undissolved crystals brought into solution by the addition of conc. HCl (2ml) directly onto the crystals, and the solution made to the final volume by the addition of deionised water.

(ii) Culture media

Minimal media (MM) plus MgSO₄ for plates was solidified with 1.5% (w/v) agar. Minimal media for liquid culture contained the wetting agent Tween 80, diluted 10^{-5} (v/v), and sterile MgSO₄ solution was added to a final concentration of 10mM after autoclaving the medium.

The nutritional supplements for auxotrophic strains were those described previously (Armitt et al, 1976), and were added as required before autoclaving the media:

Supplement	Stock solution Amount adde		
	(mg/ml)	(m1/1)	
p-Aminobenzoic acid (<i>paba</i>)	1.0	1.0	
Pyridoxin.HCl (pyro)	0.5	1.0	
Ornithine (<i>orn</i>)	2.0	1.0	
Riboflavin (<i>ribo)</i>	2.5	1.0	
The mutant allele <i>fac</i> B101	(Apirion,1965)	≡ <i>acu</i> B101, was	
tested by the inability of	facB strains to	grow on acetate	

as sole carbon source.

Malt extract agar (MEA) is a complex medium consisting of:

Substance	<u>Composition (g/l)</u>
Malt extract	20
Bacto-peptone	1
Agar	15

MEA was used when fast growth and good conidiation of strains was required. It was generally supplemented with p-aminobenzoic acid and pyridoxin.

All media were sterilized by autoclaving at 151b pressure for 15 minutes.

(iii) Carbon sources

Carbon sources were added aseptically to sterile media as follows:

Carbon source	Final concentration
Glucose (solid medium)	40 mM
Glucose (liquid medium)	10 mM
Quinic acid (Growth media)	1% (w/v)
Quinic acid (Induction media)	0.1% (w/v)
Protocatechuic acid (PCA)	1% (w/v)
Acetate	100mM

Quinic acid and PCA were prepared in 10% stock solutions (in distilled H_2O), brought to pH6.5 with NaOH and sterilized by filtration through a 0.45μ m membrane filter (Whatman). 1M glucose and 2M acetate (pH6.5 with NaOH) stock solutions, were sterilized by autoclaving at 101b for 10 min.

(iv) Incubation temperature

All cultures were grown at 37°C unless otherwise stated.

3. Preparation of suspensions of conidiospores

Dilute suspensions of conidiospores were spread on the surface of MEA plates at such a concentration to produce confluent growth and good conidiation. Each plate was then flooded with approximately 20 ml of sterile "Tween-Saline", a solution of 0.08% (w/v) NaCl plus 0.025% (v/v) of the wetting agent Tween 80.

The conidia were harvested by drawing a sterile wire across the surface of the plate. The suspensions were collected in sterile 25 ml disposable universal bottles and vigourously shaken on a "Whirlimixer" to disrupt conidial chains. The suspensions were then washed by repeated centrifugation in neutral phosphate buffer (20mM

 KH_2PO_4 ; 50mM Na_2HPO_4 ; 50mM NaCl; 0.4mM $MgSO_4.7H_2O$; final pH7.2), resuspended in 10ml of the same buffer and stored at 4°C. The conidiospores retain good viability for at least 4 weeks.

4. Mutagenesis and Filtration Enrichment

Suspensions of recently harvested conidiospores in neutral phosphate buffer at a concentration of 10^8 spores ml⁻¹, were treated with ultra-violet light (UV). A suspension of conidiospores in a petri dish was exposed to UV light at a dose rate of 0.5J m⁻² for 2.5 min on a rotating platform to ensure uniform illumination. Sufficient exposure was given to produce approximately 50% killing.

The filtration enrichment technique used was based on the method of Woodward *et al.*, (1954). The UV irradiated conidiospores were immediately innoculated into liquid growth medium with quinic acid as carbon source. After incubation for 10 hrs at 30° C, the suspension was filtered through three double layers of sterile cotton gauze to remove growing mycelium and the filtrate incubated for a further 8 hrs. when it was filtered again. This procedure was repeated three times at two hour intervals at which point no further mycelial growth was observed.

The final suspension was stored at 4° C, the viable count determined by plating aliquots on MEA. Surviving conidiospores were poured in glucose MM agar plates to yield 30 - 50 colonies per dish and the colonies screened by replica plating to identify the quinic acid non-utilizing mutants.

5. Standard techniques for genetic analysis

The techniques used were basically those described by Pontecorvo *et al.*, (1953).

Sexual crosses were set up between haploid strains carrying complementary nutritional markers. Dense suspensions of conidiospores of the two strains were mixed on the surface of thick MM plates and "dug" into the medium with a sterile wire-loop. The plates were then sealed with adhesive tape and incubated at 30°C for about 3 weeks.

Fruiting bodies (cleistothecia) were picked from mature crosses and rolled across the surface of 4% (w/v) hard agar plates to remove contaminating mycelia and conidiospores. Individual cleistothecia were then crushed in 1 ml of neutral phosphate buffer, and a sample of the resultant ascospore suspension streaked on MEA to identify hybrid cleistothecia by the presence of recombinant conidial colours. Suitable dilutions of ascospore suspensions from hybrid cleistothecia were plated to produce separate colonies, and the progeny tested on appropriate media for the segregation of markers.

Heterokaryons were synthesized by mixing conidia of two strains carrying complementary nutritional and colour markers on MEA plates and incubated overnight. Small blocks of agar containing mycelium were then transferred to thick MM plates containing no added nutritional supplements and on incubation heterokaryons could be identified after 3 to 4 days as rapidly growing sectors. These heterokaryons were then subcultured on fresh MM plates by repeated transfer to agar blocks containing

mycelium.

Heterozygous diploid strains were selected by plating suspensions of conidiospores harvested from heterokaryons in MM (Roper, 1952) and replated for single cell isolation on the same medium. The diploid strains were verified by plating on MEA containing benomyl (0.7 mg/ml) which produces greatly enhanced mitotic segregation (Hastie, 1970).

6. Preparation of cell-free extracts for enzyme assays

Mycelium was grown in liquid culture using 2 litre with vertical Erlenmeyer flasks baffles, formed by indenting the walls of the flask, and treated with water repellent silicone film (Armitt et al., 1976). Each flask contained 250ml liquid MM and was innoculated with a suspension of conidiospores to yield 10^6 spores ml⁻¹. Cultures were grown with glucose as carbon source for 16 hours at 30°C on a gyratory shaker. Mycelium was harvested aseptically by filtration through Whatman No1 filters, washed with salts medium and resuspended in growth medium with either glucose (non-induced culture) or quinic acid (induced culture) as carbon source, and incubated for a further 4 hours. It was then harvested by filtration, washed thoroughly on the filter with buffer (0.1M potassium phosphate, pH7.2; 10mM EDTA; 1mM DTT) and stored at -18°C wrapped in aluminium foil.

A thin pad of frozen mycelium (about 2g) was immersed in liquid nitrogen in a pre-cooled mortar and ground to a fine powder with a cold pestle. The excess liquid nitrogen

was decanted and the frozen powdered mycelium resuspended in 1ml extraction buffer (0.1M potassium phosphate,pH7.2; 10 mMEDTA; $1 \, \text{mM}$ DTT; PMSF -phenylmethylsulphonyl $1 \, \text{mM}$ fluoride-). After thawing, the mycelium was extracted by gently shaking the slurry in a polypropylene tube, on ice for 1 hour, after which time cell debris was removed by centrifugation for 15 minutes in an Eppendorf microfuge in a cold-room. The supernatant was decanted, stored on ice and the enzymes assayed within six hours of extraction. A sample of the supernatant was heated at 71°C for 10 minutes to denature biosynthetic dehydroquinase activity (Kinghorn & Hawkins, 1982). The heated sample was cooled on ice and recentrifuged to pellet denatured proteins

7. Enzyme assays

Each of the three enzymes was assayed in a Unicam (Cambridge) SP1800 recording spectrophotometer at 37° C in 1ml reaction mixtures, taking 5 and 10μ l samples of the cell-free extracts.

(i) Quinate dehydrogenase (enzyme 1) was assayed by
following the reduction of NAD at 340 nm in a reaction
mixture containing 10mM Tris.HCl (pH8.6); 1mM quinic acid;
2.5mM NAD.

(ii) Catabolic dehydroquinase (enzyme 2) was assayed by monotoring the increase in absorbance at 240nm in a reaction mixture containing 10mM Tris.HCl (pH7.2); 1 mM solution (see source of EDTA; 5µ1 dehydroquinate materials). The volume of dehydroquinate solution added gives an absorbance at 220nm of 0.2 before addition of cell-free extract. Thermolabile biosynthetic

dehydroquinase had been inactivated by heating (see above).

(iii) 3-Dehydroshikimate dehydratase (enzyme 3) was assayed by measuring the increase in absorbance at 290nm in a reaction mixture containing 0.1M Tris.HCl (pH7.5);2.5mM MgCl₂ and 5 μ l dehydroshikimate solution. The latter was freshly prepared enzymically from dehydroquinate (5 μ l, A220nm 0.2) using purified A. *nidulans* catabolic dehydroquinase (Hawkins et al, 1982).

8. Protein estimations

The concentration of soluble protein was assayed in each cell-free extract by the method of Lowry et al (1951). Calibration curves were constructed using bovine serum albumin standards each time protein estimations were performed.

9. Source of materials

All reagents were of analar or greater purity unless otherwise indicated. Dehydroquinate and *A. nidulans* catabolic dehydroquinase were supplied by Dr.A Hawkins (Hawkins et al, 1982). Quinic acid and PCA (Procatechuic acid) were supplied by Sigma. Agar was from Davis "New Zealand" source.

B. Recombinant DNA Techniques for Aspergillus nidulans

1. Bacterial strains, plasmids and bacteriophage

(i) Strains of Escherichia coli C600 (Appleyard, 1954) supE, tonA, thr-1, leuB6, thia1, lacY-1 ED8910 (Loenen & Brammar, 1980) recB21, recC22, hsdR, supE44, metB, lacY-1 galK2, galT22 Q359 (Karn et al., 1980) supE44, tonA, hsdR, P2 lysogen BHB2688 (Hohn & Murray, 1977; Hohn, 1979) N205, $recA^-$ (λimm^{434} , C1^{ts}, b2, red⁻, Eam, Sam)/ λ BHB2690 (Hohn & Murray, 1977; Hohn, 1979) N205, $recA^{-}(\lambda imm^{434}, C1^{ts}, Dam, Sam)/\lambda$ SK3430 (Kushner et al., 1977) leuC, aroD6, thia⁻, sbcB15, hsd4 JA221 (Clarke & Carbon, 1978) hsdR, mK⁺, trpE5D, leuB6, recA⁻, lacY JM101 (Messing et al., 1981) Δ (lac-pro), supE44, thi1.F'traD36, proAB, lacI⁹, Z Δ M15

Strains <u>C600</u>, <u>ED8910</u>, <u>Q359</u>, <u>BHB2688</u> and <u>BHB2690</u> were used for the construction and assay of the *A. nidulans* genomic library in λ -phage DB286 (Brammar, 1982). Strains <u>SK3430</u> and <u>JA221</u> were used for harbouring recombinant DNA plasmids. <u>JM101</u> was used for propagation of recombinant M13 phage for DNA sequencing. Reisolation of bacterial strains for new cultures was done by inoculation from

single isolated colonies. Cultures were generally incubated at 37°C.

(ii) Plasmids

Plasmid pBR322 (Bolivar et al.,1977 a,b) was used in subcloning DNA fragments from recombinant λ DNA. Plasmids pVK57 and pVK88 (Kushner et al.,1977) and pMSK366 and pMSK375 (Schweizer et al., 1981) containing DNA fragments from the N. crassa QA gene cluster were generously supplied by Prof. N. H. Giles and co-workers.

(iii) Bacteriophages

The λ replacement vector DB286 (Brammar,1982) was used for the construction of the *A. nidulans* genomic library. M13 sequencing vector M13mp18 and mp19 (Messing and Vieira, 1982) were used in "shotgun" cloning of DNA fragments for M13 sequencing.

2. Media

(i) Luria Broth

Substance	Amount per litre
Difco Bacto Tryptone	10g
Difco Bacto Yeast Extract	5g
NaCl	5g

Luria agar plates were prepared by solidifying liquid media with 15g Difco Bacto agar per litre. Luria broth and agar were used generally for bacterial cultures.

Antibiotics were added to selective media as follows:

<u>Antibiotic</u>	Sto	ck solution	Final concentration		
		(mg/ml)	$(\mu g/ml)$		
Ampicillin (so	dium salt)	25	50		
Chloramphenico	1	34	10		
Tetracycline.H	Cl	12.5	15		

Ampicillin was prepared in water, chloramphenicol in ethanol and tetracycline in water/ethanol (50% v/v). Solutions were sterilized by filtration (0.45 μ m Whatman) and added to molten agar media cooled to 55°C.

(ii) Trypticase Peptone (BBL) Agar

BBL agar was used for phage growth and assays.

Substance	Amount	t per li	tre		
Trypticase Peptone	1	l0g			
NaCl		5g			
MgS04.7H20		5g			
Media was solidified v	with 15g/l of	f Difco	Agar.	Soft	agar
overlays were prepared	with 6g/l of	f agar,	and su	pplem	ented
with 10mM MgSO4.					

(iii) Glucose MM Agar

This medium was used to maintain E. coli strain

<u>JM101</u>.

Substance	Amount p	per	<u>100ml</u>
Difco Agar	1.	. 5g	
M9 salts (see below)	10	ml	
0.2% B ₁ (Thiamine)	0.1	ml	
10mM CaCl ₂ /100mM MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	1	ml	
20% glucose	2	ml	

M9 Salts

Substance	Amount per litre
Na ₂ HPO ₄	60g
KH ₂ PO ₄	30g
NaCl	5g
NH4C1	10g

3. Phenol extraction and ethanol precipitation of DNA

Equal volumes of phenol reagent (phenol, 100g; chloroform, 100ml; isoamyl alcohol, 4ml; 8-hydroxyquinoline, 0.1g) saturated with 10mM Tris-HCl,pH7.5 were added for the extraction of proteins from nucleic acid solutions.

DNA solutions were concentrated by precipitating the DNA with two volumes of ethanol after the addition of 0.1 volume of 2M NaAc,pH5.6. The solution was mixed and chilled for 10 minutes in a methanol/dry ice bath for 10 minutes or overnight at -18° C. DNA precipitates were pelleted by centrifugation at 18,000xg for 10 minutes, rinsed in cold 70% (v/v) ethanol, dried under vacuum and resuspended in appropriate volumes of sterile distiled water (DW) or TE buffer (10mM Tris.HCl,ph7.5; 1mM EDTA)

4.Gel Electrophoresis

Horizontal agarose gels (0.8% agarose (w/v)) were prepared and run in electrophoresis buffer (40mM Tris; 5mM NaAcetate; 2mM EDTA; pH8.0 with glacial HAc) containing ethidium bromide at 0.5μ g/ml (Aaij and Borst, 1972)

Molecular weight marker DNA standards were provided

by HindIII digestion of λ DNA (λ xHindIII) or Sau3A digestion of pBR322 (pBR322xSau3A). DNA samples were mixed with 0.1X volume electrophoresis loading buffer (0.25% bromophenol blue, 15% Ficoll400(w/v)), and electrophoresis continued until the bromophenol blue dye travelled to within the last 1/3 of the gel.

DNA binding ethidium bromide in agarose gels was visualized using a short wave lengh ultra-violet transilluminator (Ultra-violet Products Inc, California, USA) and photographed using a Polaroid MP-3 land camera and Polaroid 4X5 Type-55 or Type-57 films.

5. Preparations of A. nidulans genomic DNA

A. nidulans genomic DNA was prepared from freshly grown mycelia of strain R153, washed in water, rapidly frozen in liquid N_2 and powdered in a mortar and pestel under liquid N_2 (see above). The powdered fragments of mycelium were gently resuspended (at 20 ml g^{-1}) in TE ; 4% Sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS); and 25% (w/v)(w/v) sucrose, for 15 minutes at room temperature and then the solution extracted with phenol. The solvents were separated by centrifugation at 15,000g for 20 minutes, the aqueous supernatant was collected, made 1 molar with potassium acetate and the resulting precipitate removed by centrifugation at 15,000g for 10 minutes. The supernatant was re-extracted twice with phenol reagent. Nucleic acids were precipitated with ethanol, disolved in TE buffer and the DNA further purified by centrifugation at 110,000xg for 2 5⁰C, pellet contaminating hours, at to carbohydrates.
Gel electrophoresis of the DNA prepared by this procedure showed a major population of molecules greater than 50Kb in size with very little low molecular weight DNA or RNA contamination.

6. A. nidulans RNA preparation

A. nidulans RNA was prepared by John Clements as previously described (Clements & Roberts, 1985).

• • • • •

7.Plasmid DNA preparations

(i) Small scale plasmid DNA preparation

This follows a modification of the method of Birnboim & Doly, (1979).

Overnight cultures of the plasmid carrying E. coli strain were grown in Luria broth plus the appropriate antibiotic. A 1.5 ml sample in an Eppendorf tube was centrifuged for 1 minute and the medium removed by aspiration. The bacterial pellet was resuspended in 100μ l a lysis solution (50mM glucose; 10mM EDTA; of 25 mMTris-HCl,ph8.0; 4mg/ml of freshly added lysozyme) and left at room temperature for 5 minutes, when 200μ l of a freshly prepared, ice cold solution of 0.2N NaOH, 1%SDS (w/v) was added. The solutions were mixed by inverting the tube several times and held on ice for 5 minutes; then 150μ l of 3M potassium acetate (pH4.8 with glacial acetic acid) was added and again the mixed solution left for 10 minutes on ice, when it was centrifuged for 5 minutes, in a precooled microfuge in a 4° C cold room. The supernatant was transferred to a new Eppendorf tube, phenol extracted and

the DNA precipitated with ethanol at room temperature for 2 minutes. The sample was resuspended in 50μ l TE buffer containing 20μ g/ml of DNase-free RNase.

(ii) Large scale plasmid DNA preparation

This was essentially a scaled up version of the same method of Birnboim & Doly, (1979), with an additional purification step by CsCl gradient centrifugation.

Two 400ml volumes of Luria broth (plus the appropriate antibiotic) were innoculated with 1ml of an overnight culture of the E. coli strain carrying the required plasmid and incubated with shaking, overnight. The cells were pelleted by centrifugation at 4,200g, for 5 minutes at 4° C, resuspended in 40ml of ice-cold lysis buffer and held on ice for 5 minutes. A volume of 80ml of ice-cold alkaline/SDS was added, mixed and the preparation held on ice for a further 5 minutes. To this solution 60ml of ice-cold 3M potassium acetate, pH4.8 was added and mixed to precipitate the chromosomal DNA and proteins. The precipitate was removed by centrifugation at 6,000g for 10 minutes at 4^oC, and the supernatant passed through polyallomer wool to separate the solution from remaining cell debris and the precipitate.Nucleic acids were precipitated by addition of a 0.5 volume of propano-2-ol followed by centrifugation at 4,200g for 10 minutes at 4° C. The pellet was rinsed with cold 70% ethanol, dried under vacuum and dissolved in 10ml TE buffer, containing $10\mu g/ml$ DNase free RNase. The volume was adjusted gravimetically to 20ml with TE, and 4ml of a 5mg/ml ethidium bromide solution added together with 23.76g of AR

grade CsCl, to give a final density of ρ =1.392-1.394. This solution was divided between two Beckman polyallomer "Quickseal" tubes and centrifuged at 15°C at 110,000g for 40 hours in a 50Ti rotor or at 270,000g, 15°C overnight in a 75Ti rotor. The plasmid band was removed, and ethidium bromide removed by repeated extractions with butan-2-ol saturated with 10mM Tris-HCl, pH7.5. Salts were removed by dialysis overnight with several changes of TE buffer, and plasmid DNA ethanol precipitated and redissolved in appropriate volumes of water or TE buffer.

The concentration and quality of the plasmid preparation were determined by optical density at 260nm, where an OD of 1 corresponds to approximately 50μ g/ml of DNA. Purity of DNA preparation was estimated from ratio of measurements OD_{260}/OD_{280} . If the preparation is pure, the ratio should be $\simeq 1.8$ (Maniatis, 1982).

8. Large scale preparation of M13 bacteriophage DNA

An overnight culture in Luria broth of the host *E*. coli strain <u>JM101</u> was diluted by adding 1 drop (0.05ml) to 20ml of fresh broth and then grown to mid-exponential phase ($0D_{550}=0.2$ to 0.3) to provide a host cell culture.

Serial dilutions of the M13 phage (in 10mM potassium phosphate,pH7.2; 10mM MgSO₄; 0.005% gelatin) were added to 3ml of softened 0.6% BBL agar containing 0.2ml of the host cell culture, 25μ l BCIG (25mg/ml in dimethyl formamide) and 25μ l IPTG (25mg/ml in water) and poured onto BBL agar plates. The plates were incubated overnight at 37° C.

A well separated blue plaque was picked with a toothpick and used to inoculate 20ml of the host cell

culture. This was incubated for 5-8 hours at $37^{\circ}C$ with shaking. The cells were pelleted and the supernatant used to infect a 1 litre of host cells in exponential phase $(A_{550}=0.5)$ and grown with shaking at $37^{\circ}C$.

After 1.5 hours, 1ml of a 250mg/ml chloramphenicol solution was added to arrest the newly synthesized M13 DNA in its double-stranded form and incubation continued for a further 60 minutes. The cells were pelleted, and the RF DNA harvested by the large scale plasmid preparation method described above.

9. Digestion of DNA with restriction endonucleases

DNA samples were routinely incubated with 2 to 5-fold excess of restriction enzymes (manufacturer's definitions) to ensure total digestion of DNA. Typical reaction mixtures (20μ l total volume) consisted of 1μ g DNA, appropriate restriction enzyme buffer and 1mMDTT. Incubation was for 1 hour at 37° C.

When further manipulation with the DNA was required, one phenol extraction and one ethanol precipitation was carried out.

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Restriction enzymes' buffers

EcoRI

100mM Tris-HCl.pH7.5

7mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>

50mM NaCl

7mM 2-Mercaptoethanol
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15mM Tris-HCl,pH8.0 6mM MgCl₂ 15mM KCl

"Core" (all other enzymes) 50mM Tris-HCl,pH8.0 10mM MgCl₂ 50mM NaCl

10. Recovery of DNA fragments from agarose gels

DNA was electroeluted onto Whatman DE81 DEAE-cellulose paper and recovered by a modification of the method of Dretzen *et al.*, (1981).

DE81 paper was presoaked in 2.5M NaCl for 15 minutes and rinsed three times in DW. After separating DNA gel electrophoresis (using Seakem* HGT molecules by bands visualized under agarose), DNA were а long wave-lengh UV source and a slice of gel containing the band to be purified, excised. This slice was then wrapped with the DE81 paper and inserted into a slot of equivalent size in an unused part of the gel. Electrophoresis was resumed for 20 to 30 minutes, at 100 volts until the DNA was bound to the paper. The DE81 paper was rinsed in water and blotted dry on Whatman 3MM paper. Excess paper was removed, and the strip with bound DNA placed in an Eppendorf tube. After addition of 450μ l of a high salt buffer (1M NaCl, 50mM Tris-HCl, pH7.5, 1mM EDTA, pH7.5), the paper was shredded by dragging the tube on an Eppendorf rack and incubated at 37°C for 1 hour.

The DNA solution was recovered by inverting the tube,

making a small hole at the bottom with a red hot needle, and centrifuging the solution for 1 minute through the hole into a second Eppendorf tube. The DNA solution in the new tube was then centrifuged for 10 minutes to pellet traces of DE81 paper. The solution was transferred to a DNA ethanol new tube and phenol extracted, the precipitated and usually resuspended in 25μ l TE buffer. The concentration of DNA was estimated by running $1\mu l$ of the solution on a test gel against DNA size markers of known concentration.

<u>11. Construction of an A. nidulans genomic library in</u> <u>a λ -phage vector</u>

This A. nidulans genomic library was constructed by Dr.A.Hawkins. Only a brief description of the procedure is therefore given here.

The DNA "arms" of the λ -replacement vector DB286 were prepared by conventional methods (Maniatis *et al.*, 1982) following digestion with endonucleases *Bam*HI and *Sal*1. *Aspergillus nidulans* genomic DNA, partially digested with restriction enzyme *Sau*3A, was isolated in the size range 10-15Kb by sucrose gradient centrifugation (Maniatis *et al.*, 1982) and ligated with the λ DB286 DNA in the molar ratio of 3 chromosomal : 1 λ DNA. Ligation reaction mixtures containing 0.5µg DNA were packed *in vitro* using packaging extracts prepared by the method of Scalenghe *et al.*, (1981) which typically produce 1.5-2.5 x 10⁸ p.f.u. µg⁻¹ with λ -CI857 DNA.

The final preparation was found to contain 95% recombinant phage particles identified by their spi-

phenotype when titrated on an E. coli P2 lysogen Q359.

<u>12. Identification and purification of positive</u> recombinant λ -phage

This part of the work was done in collaboration with Dr. A. Hawkins. The method used was a modification of that of Benton and Davis, (1977).

(i) Transfer of λ -Phage DNA onto nitrocellulose filters

A phage suspension containing 4×10^3 p.f.u., was mixed with 0.2ml of a <u>ED8910</u> overnight culture in 10mM MgSO₄ and left to incubate at room temperature for 15 minutes. 3ml of BBL soft layer agar added and the total mixture poured onto BBL plates. These were incubated overnight inverted at 37° C.

The plates were then held at 4°C for at least 1 hour to harden the agar. A circular nitrocellulose filter (88mm diameter, Schleicher & Schüll BA 85/20) was placed on each agar plate. After 5 minutes at 4°C, the filter was marked relative to the plates by making a hole through the filter into the agar with a needle and then removed and placed on a damp pad (Whatman No1, 90mm diameter filter paper) wetted with 0.5M NaOH for 15 minutes. This step was followed by a transfer to a pad wetted with 1M Tris-HCl,pH7.5 for 2 minutes. This step was repeated once again, after which the nitrocellulose filter was transferred to damp pad wetted with 1M Tris-HCl,pH7.5; 1.5M NaCl, for 15 minutes. The filters were blotted onto 3MM paper, let to dry at room temperature and then baked

at 80°C for 2 hours.

(ii) Screening for recombinant λ -hybrids

Filters were washed in 5X Denhardts solution at 65° C for 4 hours. The α^{-32} P labelled DNA probe (see below) was boiled for 5 minutes to denature the DNA, and added to petri dish containing 5X Denhardts solution and 6X SSC at 65° C. After addition of filters, the petri dish was sealed and placed in a plastic lunch box in a 65° C oven, overnight.

Filters were then washed rapidly in succession 6-7 times until radiation in the washes was at background levels, in 2X SSC, 0.1% SDS (solution degased) at 65° C. After a further 15 minute incubation at 65° C, the filters washed once again, blotted onto 3MM paper, let to dry at room temperature and put on X-ray film with an intensifying screen, at -70° C for 2 days (see below).

Positively hybridizing recombinant plaques were picked and resuspended in 1.0ml of phage buffer (6mM Tris-HCl; 10mM MgSO₄.7H₂O, 0.005% gelatin,pH7.5), treated with 10μ l of chloroform to kill the bacterial cells, serially diluted, and the same procedure repeated several times until only positively hybridizing plaques were observed on a single plate.

DNA from these positively hybridizing plaques was prepared following the method of Yamamoto *et al.*, (1970).

5X Denhardts solution

Substance	Amount per litre
20X SSC	300ml
Bovine Serum Albumin	1g
Polyvinylpyrrolidone	1g
Ficoll 400	1g

20X SSC - 3M NaCl; 0.3M NaCitrate, pH7.0

13. Construction of hybrid plasmids

Fragments of A. nidulans DNA were amplified using plasmid vectors in E. coli strains

(i) Ligation of DNA into plasmid vectors

 $1\mu g$ of vector DNA was subjected to a 10-fold over digestion with the appropriate endonuclease(s) in a buffer containing 0.15 units of calf intestinal phosphatase (Worthington Biochemical Corporation). DNA was recovered by one phenol extraction followed by an ethanol precipitation, and disolved 1n 100 μ l sterile H₂O (final concentration 10ng/ μ l).

DNA ligations were done using a 10X ligase buffer giving a final, concentration of 50mM Tris-HCl,pH7.5; 10mM MgCl₂; 1mM ATP; 20ng of the prepared vector DNA, samples of \varkappa , 1 or 2-fold molar excess of purified *A. nidulans* DNA fragment and one unit (Manufacturer's definitions) of T4 DNA ligase in a final volume of 10µl. Vector DNA alone was also tested to monitor the effectiveness of the phosphatase treatment. Ligation reactions were all incubated at 15°C for 12 or 72 hours depending on the

quality of the ends generated by the restriction endonucleases (cohesive or blunt ends respectively)

(ii) Transformation of E. coli strains

Strains of *E. coli* were transformed with plasmid DNA using a modified version of the method of Kushner (1978).

The host bacterial strain was grown overnight in Luria broth, diluted 1/100 in the same medium and incubated with vigorous aeration until reaching an OD_{550} of 0.2 in logarithmic growth.

1.5ml samples of cells in Eppendorf tubes were pelleted by centrifugation for 10 seconds in a MSE Microcentaur bench centrifuge. The cells were resuspended in 500µl 0.1M MOPS (3-[N-Morpholino] propanesulphonic acid) solution,pH7.0 containing 10mM RbCl, pelleted by centrifugation for 10 seconds, resuspended in 500µl 0.1M MOPS solution,pH6.5 containing 10mM RbCl and 50mM CaCl₂ and held on ice for 90 minutes.The cells were again pelleted and resuspended in 150µl of the same buffer solution, to which the DNA ligation mixture (see above) plus 3µl of DMSO (Dimethyl Sulphoxide) were added. After at least 30 minutes incubation on ice, cells were heat shocked for 30 seconds at 55°C and then transferred immediately to an ice-water bath for 2 minutes.

The chilled cells were plated directly by spreading on Luria agar plates containing appropriate antibiotics to select transformed cells. Plates were incubated overnight to yield transformant colonies.

14. 32P-labelling of DNA fragments

The method used to label DNA probes was essentially that of Jeffreys *et al.*, (1980).

A sample of 50 to 100ng of DNA were added to the following reaction mixture:

2.5µl 10X nick-translation buffer (500mM Tris-HCl,pH7.5;

50mM MgCl₂;100mM 2-mercaptoethanol)

 2μ l each of 50 μ M dGTP, dATP and dTTP

1µl 8ng/ml DNase I (freshly diluted from a 1mg/ml stock in 10mM Tris-HCl,pH7.5)

1.5µl α -³²P dCTP (10µCi/µl \simeq 300 Ci/mMol) 1.5µl of *E. coli* DNA Polymerase I (5 units) H₂O to 25µl

Ater incubation for 60 minutes at 15°C, the reaction was stopped by addition of 25μ l of 0.5% SDS; 12.5mM EDTA; 10mM Tris-HCl,pH7.5. The solution was phenol extracted and the phenol reextracted by addition of 50μ l of 10mM Tris-HCl, pH7.5 and the aqueous phases combined. 100μ l of high molecular weight Salmon Sperm DNA (see below) was added as carrier and the DNA precipitated with ethanol and rinced with 70% ethanol. Due to the high concentration of DNA (mostly carrier) no chilling or centrifugation was necessary. The DNA precipitate was then redissolved in 200µ1 Tris-HCl, pH7.5 ethanol of and a second precipitation, 70% ethanol wash repeated as above. The final DNA precipitate was redissolved in 500μ l of 10mM Tris-HCl,pH7.5.

High molecular weight Salmon sperm DNA was prepared as follows: 200mg of Salmon sperm DNA were dissolved in

200ml of 10mM Tris-HCl,pH7.5 overnight at 4^oC. The DNA solution was then phenol extracted, ethanol precipitated, dried under vacuum and redissolved in 70ml of 10mM Tris-HCl,pH7.5. The concentration of DNA was calculated from the optical density at 260nm.

15. Southern blot filter hybridization

(i) Transfering of DNA onto nitrocellulose filters

DNA was bound to nitrocellulose as described by Maniatis *et al.*, (1982)

The DNA samples were separated by electrophoresis and unused areas of the gel were removed. DNA was denatured by immersing the gel in 1.5M NaCl; 0.5M NaOH for 1 hour at room temperature with gentle shaking. This step was repeated with an equal volume of 1M Tris-HCl,pH8.0; 1.5M NaCl, to neutralize the gel. The gel was then inverted and laid on top of a glass plate, which had been wrapped with 3MM paper soaked with 10X SSC, taking care to avoid trapping air bubbles between the gel and the plate. The plate itself lay on top of a perspex block inside a tray filled with 10X SSC, such that the plate was 2 to 3 cm above the surface of the liquid. The nitrocellulose filter and two pieces of 3MM paper cut to a size slightly greater than that of the gel were soaked in 2X SSC. The nitrocellulose filter followed by the two sheets of 3MM paper were laid on top of the gel, again removing any air bubbles by rolling a glass rod over the surface. A stack of paper towels was placed above the 3MM paper, covered with a glass plate compressed with a 1kg weight. Transfer of DNA continued for 12 to 18 hours replacing the stack of

paper towels at intervals.

The position of loading slots in the gel were marked on the filter with a ball point pen, and the filter was then washed in 6X SSC, blotted dry on 3MM paper and heated for 4 hours at 80°C to 'bake' the single stranded DNA onto the filter.

(ii) Hybridization with ³²P labelled DNA probe

The conditions used were those commonly practised in our department (Jeffreys et al., 1980).

The filters were cut into convenient strips and pre-hybridized with gentle agitation at 65°C in hybridyzation boxes made of perspex, as follows:

-one wash in 3X SSC for 30 minutes
-one wash in 1X Denhardts for 30 minutes
-one wash in 1X Filter Hybridization mixture (FHM)
for one hour
-one wash in 1X FHM plus 9% Dextran Sulphate or
alternatively 6% PEG (Polyethylene Glycol - Sigma,

grade8000)

The final hybridization solution contained the³²P-labelled DNA which had been denatured by heating to 100° C for 5 minutes prior to addition to the hybridization solution. Hybridization occurred overnight. Dextran Sulphate (Wahl *et al.*, 1979)) or PEG (Renz & Kurz, 1984)) are known to promote the kinetics of hybridization and therefore were used when the filters contained *A. nidulans* genomic DNA.

Unbound labelled DNA was removed from the filters by washing in repeated changes of the filter hybridization solution (15 minutes at 65°C each time) until no

detectable ³²P could be measured in the wash solution. The stringency of hybridization and the wash solutions was always 1X SSC, 0.1% SDS. Filters were rinsed in 3X SSC, and dried at room temperature.

(iii) Autoradiography

The nitrocellulose filter strips were assembled into their original order, mounted on 3MM paper, covered with "cling" film and placed in a cassette against X-ray film. If autoradiography required prolonged periods of exposure, an intensifying screen was used, and left at -70° C. Exposure times varied from 12 hours to 10 days.

Autoradiographies were done using Kodak X-ray film (35X40 or 13X18 cm X-Omat RP). The film was developed by immersion in developer (Kodak DX80) for 3-5 minutes followed by a rinse in water (containing a trace of acetic acid) and then 3-5 minute immersion in fixer (Kodak FX40 plus HX-40 Hardener). Films were rinsed in water, and dried at room temperature or in a 37°C hot room.

(iv) Stock solutions

All solutions were degased under vacuum before use.

10g Bovine serum albumin (Sigma Fraction V) 10g Polyvinylpyrrolidone 10g Ficoll400 Up to 500ml with 3X SSC

1X Filter Hybridization Mixture:

1X Denhardts
50µg/ml alkali denatured Salmon sperm DNA
0.1% SDS
1X SSC.

Alkali denatured Salmon Sperm DNA (10mg/ml):

1g of Salmon sperm DNA (Sigma, Type III) was added to 500ml of DW containing 20ml of 0.5M EDTA. The DNA was dissolved by heating the solution to 100°C, followed by the addition of 15ml of 10M NaOH and incubation for further 20 minutes to denature the DNA. The solution was cooled on ice, then 20 ml of 1M Tris-HCl,pH7.5 added and pH adjusted to 7-8 with concentrated HCl, added in small volumes and with rapid mixing. The denatured DNA solution was phenol extracted, precipitated with I.M.S. (Industrial Methylated Spirit) and rinsed with 70% ethanol. The DNA initially dissolved in 50ml of water, and the was concentration determined from the optical density at 260nm and adjusted to a final conmcentration of 10mg/ml.

16. Northern blot hybridizations

Northern blot hybridizations were carried out by John Clements in our laboratory, as described by Thomas (1980)

<u>17. Determination of the DNA sequence by the</u> <u>dideoxyribonucleotide chain termination method</u>

(i) Sonication of plasmid DNA

The procedures followed were based on the methods of

Deninger, (1983). These produce randomly sheared DNA fragments, which are end repaired to generate 'blunt'-ended fragments for ligation into the SmaI site of the M13 vector DNA.

A 200µl solution of plasmid DNA $(0.25\mu g/\mu l)$ was exposed to ultrasonic vibration using a probe sonicator (1-71 MSE-Measuring & Scientific Equipment Ltd, London, England). The sample was treated at an amplitude of $5\mu m$ for three 5 second exposures, removing a $60\mu l$ sample after each exposure (Deninger, 1983). This procedure generated three samples sonicated for 5 seconds, 10 seconds and 15 seconds respectively.

DNA was recovered following phenol extraction by ethanol precipitation and small aliquots from each sample run on agarose gel to test for efficacy of sonication. The10 and 15 seconds samples were pooled because majority of DNA molecules appeared in the desired 1.2 to 0.6Kb size range (see Chapter 7).

(ii) End-repair of Sonicated DNA and Size-selection

The sonicated DNA was end-repaired by incubation overnight at 15° C in the following reaction mixture: DNA (in H₂O) 20µl 10x ligase mix 3µl TM buffer 3µl Sequence chase mix 2µl DNA Polymerase I 2µl (large fragment, Klenow enzyme) (=10 units)

Following end repair of the sonicated DNA, the sample was separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and molecules

in the range 600-900 bp (estimated by DNA size markers generated by digesting pBR322 with Sau3A) recovered by the use of DE81 paper. An aliquot of the resulting solution was examined by gel electrophoresis to check the efficiency of recovery of the DNA.

Reagent solutions <u>10X Ligase mixture:</u> 100mM Tris-HCl,pH7.5; 100mM MgCl₂; 100mM DTT <u>TM Buffer:</u> 100mM Tris-HCl,pH7.5; 100mMMgCl₂ <u>Sequence chase mixture:</u> 0.25mM each of dNTP in TM buffer

(iii) Preparation of M13 vector DNA

 2μ g of M13mp18 or mp19 RF DNA were cleaved at the desired cloning site by a restriction endonuclease(s) (for blunt ended substrates the enzyme used was *Sma*I) and the products treated with calf intestinal phosphatase as described above (section 13 (i)). M13 DNA was extracted once with phenol, precipitated twice with ethanol and dissolved in 200µl of water (10ng/µl).

(iv) Ligation of sonicated DNA into M13 vector DNA

The following six ligation reaction mixes were prepared:

	Reaction mixtures				es		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Size selected DNA	1	2	4	-		-	
M13 vector DNA	2	2	2	-	2	2	
RF M13 DNA ($1ng/\mu l$)	-	-	-	1	-	-	
10mM ATP	1	1	1	1	1	1	
10X Ligase buffer	1	1	1	1	1.	1	
10mM DTT	1	1	1	1	1	1	
DW	З	2	-	5	4	5	
T4-DNA ligase (400 units/µl)	1	1	1	1	1	-	

All volumes are in μ l. All samples were incubated for 3 days at 15°C and stored at -20°C until required.

Reaction 4 gives a measure of the efficiency of transformation, whereas samples 5 and 6 monitor the efficiency of the cleavage of vector DNA and of the phosphatase treatment.

(v) Ligation of specific DNA restriction fragments into M13 vector DNA

Ligation of specific DNA fragments was done by the same procedure used for ligation of fragments into plasmid DNA (Section 13(i)). M13 recombinant phage generated in this manner were used for directional DNA sequencing from known restriction sites.

(vi) Transformation of recombinant M13 phage into theE. coli strain <u>JM101</u>

Transformations were carried out by a modification of the method of Kushner (1978) and described above for recombinant plasmid transformation (Section 13(ii)) .

Transformed cells were added to 200μ l of an overnight culture of <u>JM101</u>, containing 25μ l of 25mg/ml BCIG (in dimethyl formamide) and $25 \ \mu$ l of 25mg/ml IPTG (in H₂O). These cells were then mixed with 3ml of BBL soft agar before plating out BBL agar plates and incubated overnight.

<u>BCIG</u>: 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl- β -D-galactopyranoside <u>IPTG</u>: Isopropyl- β -D-galactopyranoside

(vii) Preparation of recombinant M13 DNA sequencing templates

Phage particles from colourless "plaques" (see chapter 7) were transferred with a toothpick and diluted into 1ml of phage buffer. An 100μ l alliquot was then used to infect 1.5ml of a <u>JM101</u> culture in logarithmic growth phase at $0D_{550} = 0.2$ in a test tube. A total of 24 recombinant M13 phage DNA preparations were usually made on each occasion.

The cultures were incubated with vigorous shaking for 5 to 6 hours. Cultures were transfered to Eppendorf tubes and the cells pelleted by 5 minutes centrifugation. 1ml of the supernatant containing M13 phage was then transferred to a new Eppendorf tube. Phage particles were precipitated by addition of 0.2ml of a PEG solution (10% PEG8000; 2.5M NaCl), incubated at 15°C for 15 minutes and pelleted by centrifugation for 10 minutes. The supernatant was removed by aspiration and remaining traces of PEG removed by spinning tube briefly for a second time and aspiration of remaining PEG solution.

The recombinant phage pellet was resuspended in 100μ l of a solution consisting of 1.1M NaAc,pH7.0 followed by a

phenol extraction (80 μ l phenol). The DNA solution was re extracted with 65 μ l of chloroform (chloroform/isoamyl alchol, 49:1.v/v) and the final DNA solution was ethanol precipitated with 250 μ l ethanol, rinsed with 70% ethanol, dried under vacuum and dissolved in 30 μ l DW.

(viii) Screening M13 clones for recombinant sequences Recombinant M13 phage generated from the sonicated DNA fragments, were screened for identification of those carrying DNA fragments that were desired for sequencing. After the PEG precipitation step described above, the M13 phagepellet was disolved in 100μ l TE buffer and 1μ l of this phage suspension was mixed with 1μ l of a solution containing 3M NaCl; 0.2M NaOH; 0.1% SDS; trace bromophenol blue. Samples were spotted onto gridded nitrocellulose filter (Schleicher Schüll). After 15 minutes, the filters were washed in 3X SSC, blotted dry and baked at 80° C for 3 hours.

Filter hybridization with specific $\alpha^{-32}P$ labelled DNA fragment followed the procedures described above (Section 15(ii)). After autoradiography, positively hybridizing recombinant M13 phage clones were identified and new DNA prepared from them as described above.

(ix) Preparation and recovery of sequence specific 17-mer synthetic oligonucleotide primers

Specific oligonucleotides for primer extension DNA sequencing reactions were synthesized by Mr. J. Keyte, of the Department of Biochemistry in this University, following the method of Mathes *et al.*,(1984).

The oligonucleotides were provided as a unpurified

mixture of oligomers in the range 17mer, 16mer, 15mer, etc. The specific 17mer oligonucleotides required for sequencing reactions were recovered by the following procedure:

A 20% acrylamide/urea; 1X TBE(see section xi) gel was produced in a gel mould consisting of two siliconized plates. 2μ l of formamide dye was added to a 2μ l aliquot from the oligonucleotide solution (total volume of 10μ l), boiled for 2 minutes and the 4μ l sample loaded and run in the gel for 4 hours, until the bromophenol blue indicator dye had run to within 5cm of the bottom of the gel. This should place the 17-mer near the middle of the gel. One plate was removed and cling film spread over the exposed surface of the gel. The plate and the gel were then turned over, the second plate removed and a second sheet of film placed over the other surface of the gel.

The 17-mer oligonucleotide was observed using a fluorescent sheet (indicator tlc plate) and its position marked with a felt tip pen on the surface of the film. Bands were cut out conservatively, and the gel slice placed in an Eppendorf tube with 100μ l of water, and left at room temperature overnight. The 17-mer oligonucleotide was purified by passing through a G-25 sephadex column (Maniatis *et al.*, 1982).

(x) M13 recombinant sequencing

Sequencing of M13 recombinant clones was based on the methods of Sanger *et al.*, (1977) for M13 dideoxyribonucleotide chain termination using α -³⁵S dATP. Quantities quoted are for 15 sequencing templates which are a confortable number to process at any one time.

Reactions were performed in 1.5ml Eppendorf tubes and all centrifugations were done in an Eppendorf bench centrifuge.

To ensure that the cloned template DNAs were fully dissolved, they were incubated at 60° C for 10 minutes prior to the annealing reaction.

Each clone was annealed to the 17-mer universal primer by taking 5µl of clone DNA plus 5µl of primer mix (7.2µl of 2µg/ml 17-mer universal primer; 64µl H₂O; 8µl TM buffer).

Alternatively, a 17-mer synthetic oligonucleotide was also used for primer extension sequencing, using only 0.1μ l of solution (see above), keeping the same buffer conditions.

Mixed DNA/primer samples were incubated at 60° C for 30 minutes, briefly centrifuged and incubated for a further 30 minutes. The annealed mixture can be held at room temperature until the start of the sequencing reactions. For each clone 4 tubes were prepared containing 1µl of annealed mixture plus 1µl of either a "T", "C", "G" or "A" NTP mixtures.

NTP mixtures for sequencing reactions

	"T"	"C"	"G"	"A"
0.5mM dTTP	12.5	250	250	250
0.5mM dGTP	250	12.5	250	250
0.5mM dCTP	250	250	12.5	250
10mM ddTTP	25	-	-	-
10mM ddCTP	-	4	-	-
10mM ddGTP	-	-	8	-
10mM ddATP	-	-	-	0.5
TE buffer	500	500	500	250

(TE buffer = 10mM Tris-HCl,pH8.0; 0.1mM EDTA).

All volumes are μ l. The deoxyNTPs and dideoxyNTPs were prepared in this TE buffer.

To each reaction tube in turn was added 1μ l of freshly prepared "Klenow mix" (57 μ l H₂O; 3.5 μ l Klenow Polymerase; 5μ l α -³⁵S-dATP). The solutions were mixed gently and then incubated at 37°C for 20 minutes. This was followed by addition of 1μ l of sequence chase mixture to each reaction and a further 20 minutes incubation at 37°C. At this point the reaction mixtures can be prepared for loading onto a sequencing gel by addition of 2μ l of formamide dye (stock solution containing 10ml deionised formamide; 10mg xylene cyanole FF; 10mg bromophenol blue; 0.2ml 0.5M EDTA,pH8.0). Substrates were occasionally stored for several days at -20° C without detriment, provided the formamide dye had not been added.

(xi) Sequencing gels

The standard reagents used, sufficient to prepare one gradient gel are given below:

	<u>0.5X TBE</u>	2.5X (1.5X) TBE
Acrylamide	5.13g	1.14g
Bisacrylamide	0.27g	0.06g
Urea	45.00g	10.00g
Sucrose	-	1.00g
10X TBE	4.5ml	5ml (6ml)
DW final volume	90m1	20ml

<u>10X TBE</u>: 1M Tris-Borate,pH8.3; 20mM EDTA). Figure given in parenthesis refers to mixture used for extension (6 hour) runs.

Preparation and running of 50 X 32 cm 6% (w/v) polyacrylamide gradient gels were as follows:

The solutions were dissolved with stirring and moderate heating, and filtered through two 9cm diameter Whatman Ashless filters using a Buchner funnel and vacuum line. The solutions were degassed before addition of:

	<u>0.5X</u>	<u>2.5X (1.5X)</u>
10% APS	O.7ml	0.175ml
TEMED (prior to pouring)	48µ1	12µl

APS: Ammonium persulphate

TEMED: N,N,N',N'-tetramethylethylenediamine

The gradient gels were poured as follows: using a 80ml large syringe, 8ml of the 0.5XTBE solution were drawn, followed by 12ml of the 2.5XTBE solution. The mixture was then poured down one side of the glass plates, carefully avoiding air bubbles, and allowing to settle at the bottom. This mixture was topped up by addition of 80ml of the 0.5XTBE solution, which is poured downn each side

of the gel mould, to keep the gradient even. The glass plates were then laid horizontally, the tooth comb inserted and the gel firmly clamped with "bulldog" clips.

A "sharks" tooth comb was used which enabled 15 X 4 samples to be comfortably run on a single gel. The sequencing reaction mixtures were heated in a boiling water bath for 3 minutes, in order to denature the DNA molecules before loading the gel. After electrophoresis for 3 hours (six hours for extension runs) at 1.4-1.7 Kv the gels were fixed in a 10% methanol, 10% acetic acid solution for 15 minutes and then dried using a Bio-rad gel drier. Gels were autoradiographed at room temperature for 2-4 days.

18. Computing

Various computing facilities were used in the course of this work. The dot-matrix was prepared using a DNA manipulation package written in Fortran 77 by Dr. Z. Nugent and run on the University facilities including a Cyber 73 (Control Data Corporation) mainframe computer and Calcomp 936 graphics plotter. Alignment of sequences was also performed on the Cyber 73 using a basic programme written by Dr. C. Boyd.

M13 clone sequences were aligned against reference sequences and each other using a version of the Staden (1980) programme modified to run on a Digital PDP 11/44 minicomputer.

Finally this thesis was compiled using a word processing package in a Apricot MS-DOS microcomputer.

19. Source of materials

BETHESDA RESEARCH LABORATORIES INC. Rockville, Maryland, USA:

All restriction enzymes and deoxyribonucleoside triphosphates

SIGMA London, England:

Lysozyme, Dextran sulphate (sodium salt), Dithiothreitol (DTT), Ficoll 400, Salmon Sperm DNA (sodium salt), Bovine Serum Albumin, Dimethyldichlorosilane, Isopropyl- β -D-galactopyranoside (IPTG), Ampicillin (sodium salt), Chloramp[henicol and N,N,N',N'-tetramethyl ethylenediamine (TEMED)

WORTHINGTON BIOCHEMICAL CORPORATIONA, Freehold, New Jersey, USA:

DNA Polymerase I (large fragment, Klenow enzyme), Calf Intestinal Phosphatase and Dideoxyribonucleoside Triphosphates.

NEW ENGLAND BIOLABS, Beverly, Massachusetts, USA: T4-DNA Ligase

FISONS, Loughborough, England: Polyvinylpyrrolidine and Phenol (AR)

UNISCIENCES LTD., London, England:

Acrylamide

ALDRICH CO LTD, Gillingham, England:

Dimethylsulphoxide

F.M.C. CORPORATION, Rockland, Maine, USA:

Agarose

GLAXO LABORATORIES:

Streptomycin sulphate

RADIOCHEMICAL CENTRE, Amersham, England:

E. coli DNA Polymerase I (for nick translations) and all radionucleotides

BACHEM Inc, Torrance, California, USA:

 $5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-\beta-D-galactopyranoside$ (X-Gal or BCIG)

The universal 17mer primer (Duckworth *et al.*, 1981) used for M13 sequencing was kindly provided by Dr. J. Almond (Department of Microbiology, Leicester).

All other chemicals were of analytical grade.

20. Containment and Safety

All experiments undertaken in the work described in this thesis were conducted with reference to the Genetic Manipulation Advisory Groups guidelines on safety and containment conditions for such work. All procedures fall with the category of Good Microbiological Practice.

CHAPTER 3 . THE ISOLATION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF FURTHER QUINIC ACID NON-UTILIZING (qut) MUTANTS

The expression of fungal genes that are under physiological control, is generally found to be mediated by the function of several distinct regulatory genes and their protein products (Chapter 1).

The limited number of mutants available in the quinic acid utilization gene cluster in Aspergillus nidulans (Hawkins et al., 1982), required the isolation of further quinic acid non-utilizing (qut) mutants to fully investigate the number of gene functions specific to the formation of the enzymes metabolizing quinic acid to protocatechuic acid (PCA). Two particular types of mutant were required to test the initial model proposed for regulation of the qut gene cluster in A. nidulans (Chapter 1) by analogy with the ga gene cluster in Neurospora crassa (Case & Giles, 1975). The first are mutants deficient in dehydroquinase, required to test linkage of the gene coding for this enzyme to the qut gene cluster. The second are additional pleiotropic non-inducible mutants which lack all three enzyme activities. Hawkins et al. (1982) isolated three such mutants (gutA4, gutA7 and qutA8) and postulated that these identify a positively acting gene QUTA, comparable to the QA1 gene of N. crassa (Case & Giles, 1975). Additional mutants were required to investigate the possibility that the same types of regulatory mutants occur in Aspergillus such as the qa1S and ga1F mutant alleles described in Neurospora (Case & Giles, 1975). Furthermore, it was necessary to establish

the number of regulatory genes operating in the *qut* gene cluster by genetic analysis of the non-inducible mutants.

1. Mutagenesis and isolation of qut mutants

Treatment with ultra-violet light was chosen as a convenient method to generate a variety of mutagenic lesions in the genome of A. nidulans. The dose rate was adjusted to produce approximately 50% killing and the filtration method (Chapter 2) used to enrich the proportion of *gut* mutants amongst the surviving conidiospores. Basically, the principle of this technique is remove germinating conidiospores capable to of utilizing quinic acid as sole carbon source, by filtration through cotton gauze, thus enriching the suspension for conidiospores not able to utilize quinic acid.

A suspension of conidiospores of strain R153 treated with UV light was innoculated in liquid MM with quinic acid as carbon source, incubated at 30°C and filtered at intervals over a period of 42 hours. The viable count was reduced from $\simeq 10^6$ ml⁻¹ to 10^3 ml⁻¹ when aliquots were plated on MEA plus glucose to produce about 30 colonies per plate. Two such mutation and filtration experiments were performed, and =2000 colonies screened by replica plating to MM agar plates with either quinic acid (test) or glucose (control) as carbon source. A total of 35 potential *qut* mutants isolated from the was two experiments, gut101 to gut121, and gut 201 to gut214 respectively. The mutants were then tested for growth on MM agar containing PCA as carbon source in order to define those with metabolic lesions between quinic acid and this

compound, and seven such new *qut* mutants were recovered. The remaining mutants unable to utilize both quinic acid or PCA are presumed to have lesions in the pathway from PCA to the tricarboxylic acid cycle (Ornston, 1971)). The seven mutants isolated that did not grow on quinic acid but grew normally on PCA and glucose were *qut113*, *qut118*, *qut119*, *qut203*, *qut204*, *qut208* and *qut214*, and were retained for further analysis.

2. Identification of enzyme lesions in the new qut mutants

Quinic acid non-utilizing mutants (qut^{-}) can be ascribed specific enzyme lesions by assays measuring the activities of the three enzymes : quinate dehydrogenase(enzyme 1); dehydroguinase (enzyme 2) and dehydroquinate dehydratase (enzyme 3). Table 1 shows typical enzyme activities found after induction of a wild-type (qut^+) strain. When the strain R153 is grown on glucose, very low or non-detectable enzyme levels are observed, indicating that the formation of the three enzymes is not constitutive. However, transfer of mycelium grown on glucose to an induction medium containing quinic acid produces high levels of each of the enzyme activities, which are comparable to those found in mycelium grown on quinic acid. When glucose grown mycelium is transferred to an induction medium containing quinic acid (0.1% v/v) in the presence of glucose (10 mM), enzyme induction does not occur (Table 1), indicating catabolite repression by glucose and the preferential utilization of glucose for growth from the mixture.

In order to test the new mutants for enzyme deficiencies, each was grown on glucose medium and the mycelium transferred to quinic acid induction medium. Table 2 shows the results of enzyme assays carried out on the new qut mutants. As controls, representative mutants with known specific enzyme lesions (Hawkins et al., 1982) were also tested. These were qutB42 lacking quinate dehydrogenase (enzyme 1) and qutC1 lacking dehydroguinate dehydratase (enzyme 3), and qutA4 and qutA8 which lack all activities (pleiotropic, three enzyme non-inducible mutants). Mutant qutA7 (Hawkins et al., 1982) shows poor growth on all carbon sources including glucose, and therefore was not used for further analysis.

The enzyme assays done on these six new mutants reveal the following:

(i) One mutant strain, *qut*214, is non-inducible, like *qut*A4 and *qut*A8.

(ii) Another mutant, *qut*208, lacks dehydroquinase activity (enzyme 2).

(iii) Two mutants, qut203 and qut204, lack significant activities of the dehydrogenase enzyme(1), like qutB42.

(iv) Two mutants, gut113 and gut119 lack dehydratase activity(3), like gutC1.

The remaining mutant, qut118, raised initial interest in that it showed reduced activity for all three enzymes after induction. At first it was thought possible that the mutant might be defective in the uptake of quinic acid, since such a leaky phenotype could identify permease mutants. Genes coding for permeases have been identified in fungi, for example the *ureA* gene of *A. nidulans*

(Kinghorn & Pateman, 1977) and the *gal2* gene of *S*. *cerevisiae* (Douglas & Hawthorn, 1964, 1966). However, subsequent genetic tests carried out by Dr. A. Hawkins, revealed that *qut118* was in fact a leaky *qutC* mutant, since it did not complement the *qutC1* mutant allele.

Mutant strain *qut*208 was interpreted to contain a mutant allele of the gene coding for the quinate dehydroquinase (2), and is therefore designated *qut*E208; the wild-type allele is thus *QUTE*. This strain was used for the linkage studies described below, and further complementation analysis (see Chapter 4).

Mutant strain *qut214* was used for complementation analysis against the known non-inducible mutant strains.

3. Carbon catabolite repression of the QUT gene

It is shown in the previous section that induction of the three enzymes for quinic acid utilization are subject to catabolite repression by glucose.

Further analysis into this aspect of metabolic regulation was done by Dr. Susan Grant. Figure 2 shows the effects on enzyme induction of increasing concentrations of four carbon sources added to growth media containing quinic acid. These results reveal that glucose and sucrose strongly repress induction of the three enzymes. The effects of glycerol and acetate are less marked.

4. Close linkage of qutE208 to the qut gene cluster

The initial work by Hawkins et al. (1982) did not include analysis of a mutant strain deficient in catabolic dehydroquinate hydrolase (dehydroquinase (2)) activity. Acquisition of the mutant qutE208, deficient in this enzyme activity, enables a test of the hypothesis that QUTE falls within the qut gene cluster. First, it was necessary to establish that qutE208 phenotype identified a single mutant gene. In a cross of qutE208 to the wild-type strain R21, approximately one half of the progeny tested (84 of 158 =53%) were not able to utilize quinic acid for growth, demonstrating that qutE208 segregates as a single gene mutation.

To test for linkage of the qutE208 allele to the qutgene cluster, the mutant strain was crossed to three of the previously characterized, closely linked qut^- mutants qutA4, qutA8 and qutB42 (Hawkins *et al.*, 1982). The results of these crosses are given as the frequency of wild-type recombinant progeny estimated as the fraction of ascospores from a single hybrid cleistosthecia growing on quinic acid selective medium (Table 3). These results clearly demonstrate tight linkage of qutE208 to these mutants, and that the *QUTE* gene therefore also lies within the cluster.

5. Location of the *QUT* gene cluster in linkage group <u>VIII</u>

The *qut* gene cluster has been allocated to linkage group VIII (Hawkins *et al.*, 1982) upon the basis of

mitotic segregation (Pontecorvo & Käfer, 1958). To map the qut locus on this linkage group, the strategy adopted was to cross a qutA8 (pyroA4) strain with the mapping strain R56, pabaA1; wA3; ornB7 facB1 riboB2 gal7 (Clutterbuck & Cove, 1976), to locate the region of the chromosome within which the qut gene cluster lies. A portion of the genetic map of A. nidulans linkage group VIII is shown in Figure 3

The original qutA8 strain was isolated by Dr. M. Hynes (Hawkins *et al.*, 1982) and carries auxotrophic requirements for biotin (bi^-) and NH4⁺ (cnx^-). In order to utilize this qut mutation for mapping purposes, it was necessary to remove these two undesired auxotrophic markers by crossing the original qutA8 strain of Hynes to standard strains R21 and R153 and isolating qutA8 progeny with the R21 and R153 markers. The recombinant strains were also required for the construction of heterozygous diploids, as described in the next chapter.

Analysis of progeny from a cross between the mapping strain R56 and *qutA8* in the R153 background revealed linkage of *qutA8* only to *orn*B7 (RF=12.5%) and to none of the other markers tested (data not shown)

Subsequent meiotic analysis carried out by Hayley Whittington determined the precise orientation of the *qut* locus in relation to the *orn*B7 marker.

A strain carrying the qutE208 allele, which is closely linked to the qutA8 allele (see above) was crossed to a strain G191 (Balance *et al.*, 1983), which carries the fwA1 (fawn coloured spores) marker mapping 25 units from the *orn*B7 marker on linkage group VIII (Figure 3). The recombination frequency between the qutE208 and fwA1alleles, was 11.5%. This result shows that the qut cluster

is located between the ORNB and the FWA genes (Figure 3), since the sum of the recombination frequencies between the qut cluster alleles and the ornB7 and fwA1 alleles is 24%, and is in good agreement with the published map distance of 25 units between ornB7 and fwA1 (Clutterbuck & Cove, 1977).

6. Discussion

Progress in the analysis of the quinic acid utilization (qut) gene cluster in A. nidulans, required the isolation of more qut^- mutants.

The filtration enrichment experiment, yielded one particular mutant that was sought, namely the qutE208strain lacking the dehydroquinase (2) activity. Crosses of this strain to other qut^- mutants established linkage of the QUTE gene to the cluster, as the initial model suggests, and in agreement with the QA gene cluster data in N. crassa (Chapter 1). This result is important in that it predicts the possibility of isolating the three structural genes and the regulatory locus coding for the activator protein, as a contiguous sequence of DNA (see Chapters 5 and 6).

Mapping of the *qut* gene cluster between the *orn*B and *fwA* gene loci provides some progress in formal genetic analysis and confirms the location of the gene cluster in linkage group VIII by Hawkins *et al.* (1982). Absence of a closely linked (\approx 1 to 2 map units) marker to the *qut* locus, means that fine structure mapping of the various *QUT* genes is not possible by conventional genetic methods, since the recombination frequencies to *orn*B or *fwA* would

be too large for accuracy.

Induction by quinic acid of the three enzymes specific to the quinic acid metabolism is severely decreased when alternative carbon sources such as glucose or sucrose are present in the medium and to a lesser extent in the presence of glycerol or acetate. This result is expected in the case of the metabolism of alternative carbon sources.

Preferential carbon utilization is now a well established phenomenon in fungi, but its precise molecular mechanisms of action are far less well understood than in prokaryotes. In E. coli for instance, cyclic AMP levels, which are depressed by glucose and other carbon sources, regulate the activation а variety of of glucose repressible functions. In fungi cAMP appears to be involved in а wide variety of apparently unrelated functions, but does not seem to regulate expression of carbon catabolite repressible genes (Pall, 1981).

Bayley & Arst (1975) investigated the mechanisms of carbon catabolite repression in *A. nidulans* and they provided an argument for the existence of wide domain, negatively acting regulatory genes, *CRE* which are concerned in preventing induction of many particular catabolitic enzymes when alternative carbon sources such as glucose are available. However, the exact mechanisms by which these genes operate have remained unresolved.
<u>TABLE 1</u> QUT enzyme specific activities in a wild-type strain

Enzyme specific activities of the wild-type strain of A. nidulans R153, grown in liquid culture on a variety of carbon sources. Enzymes are: dehydrogenase (1), dehydroquinase (2) and dehydratase (3). Mycelium was grown on glucose (10mM) for 16 hours, or quinic acid (1% w/v) for 20 hours. Glucose grown mycelium was washed aseptically on the filter and the pad transferred to the carbon sources indicated for further 4 hour incubation. Concentration of glucose was 10mM, and quinic acid was 0.1% (w/v). Units of specific activity are: 1. dehydrogenase - μ mol product min⁻¹ mg⁻¹; 2. dehydroguinase - A_{240} min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ (1 unit is ΔA_{240} of 0.1 min⁻¹ at 37°C); 3. dehydratase - μ mol product min⁻¹ mg⁻¹.

<u>TABLE 2</u> Enzyme specific activities in the new quinic acid non-utilizing *qut* mutants.

The mutant strains qutA4, qutA8, qutB42 and qutC1 are included as representative examples of mutant strains, previously identified to carry QUT gene lesions. Activities of dehydrogenase (1), dehydroquinase (2) and dehydratase (3) were assayed following enzyme induction, as in above, and are presented as the ratio to the wild-type control strain, R153, which was included in each experiment.

TABLE 1

medium	mycelium to	Enzyme 1	specific 2	activities 3
Glucose	Glucose	0	0	0 -
Glucose	Glucose+ Quinic acid	0,19	0,8	0,06
Glucose	Quinic acid	0,95	3,11	0,43
Quinic acid	•	0,83	2,77	0,11

TABLE 2

Relative Enzyme Activities

	Strains	1	2	З
Control	qut ⁺	1	1	1
Kaawa Mutant	gut A4	0,22	0	0
	gut A8	0,09	0,07	0
Strains	gut B42	0,14	0,84	1,08
	gut C1	1,58	1,08	0,23
	<i>qut</i> 113	1,04	0,6	0
New Mutant	gut 118	0,41	0,36	0,58
Straina	<i>qut</i> 119	0,73	1,01	0
Strams	qut 203	0	0,20	0,50
	gut 2 04	0,10	0,81	1,30
	qut 208	0,71	0	1,04
	gut 214	0	0	0

<u>TABLE 3</u> Observed frequencies of wild-type recombinant progeny in meiotic crosses between the *qutE208* mutant strain and representative mutants from the *qut* gene cluster.

utE208×qutA4 3,9×10 ⁴ utE208×qutA8 3,9×10 ⁴ utE208×qutA8 5,2×10 ³ rutE208×qutB42 1,4×10 ⁴	sed quinic acid 58	requency 0,15%
utE208×qutA4 3,9×10 ⁴ 1utE208×qutA8 5,2×10 ³ 1,4×10 ⁴	58	0,15%
rutE208×qutA8 5,2×10 ³ qutE208×qutB42 1,4×10 ⁴		
<i>jut</i> E208× <i>qut</i> B42 1,4×10 ⁴	14	0,27%
	28	0,20%
· .		
		·

TABLE 3

FIGURE 2 Carbon catabolite repression of enzyme induction by quinic acid in A. nidulans.

Mycelium grown on glucose (10mM) for 16 hours, was transferred to a medium containing 0.1% (w/v) quinic acid plus the carbon sources indicated for a further 4 hour incubation, when mycelia was harvested for enzyme assays. Values are given as percentage of dehydroquinase activity observed in mycelium from a sample transferred to quinic acid in the absence of any added alternative carbon sources.



FIGURE 3 Location of the *qut* gene cluster in linkage group VIII.

The figures refer to distances in map units.

FIGURE 3



CHAPTER 4 . GENETIC AND BIOCHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF THE EXPRESSION OF THE QUT GENE CLUSTER

The analysis of the non-inducible qut^- mutants in A. nidulans was undertaken in order to establish two major points: (1) the number of genes which are identified by this mutant phenotype and involved in the regulation of the expression of the QUT enzyme structural genes; and (2) whether in Aspergillus one would also find the two types of non-inducible mutant found in Neurospora: $qa1^F$ and $qa1^S$ (Case & Giles, 1975 and Chapter 1).

This chapter describes the analysis of three non-inducible *qut* mutants in *A. nidulans* when combined in heterokaryons or, principally, in heterozygous diploid strains. The three mutant alleles were separated into two complementation groups on the basis of growth tests on quinic acid and this result confirmed by measuring enzyme induction in diploid strains.

These results have led to the construction of a new model for the regulation of the QUT gene cluster in A. nidulans.

1. Complementation analysis of the qut mutant strain

Four qut^- alleles, qutA4, qutA8, qut214 and qutB42, each combined into the R21 and R153 strains were used for the construction of heterokaryons and diploid strains. The non-inducible mutant strain qutA7 (Hawkins *et al.*, 1982) was not used as it was found to grow very poorly on all media and therefore was not amenable to analysis. The work

with the *qut214* mutant strain was done by Dr. Susan Grant and Michael Stout.

The mutants qutA4, qutA8 and qut214 are non-inducible and were initially thought to be alleles identifying a single genetic regulatory function in the expression of the QUT enzyme structural genes. The qutB42 mutant strain which lacks dehydroquinase (1) activitywas used as a representative mutant allele of an enzyme structural gene.

Heterokaryons and diploid strains were constructed by conventional methods (Chapter 2). Basically, the heterokaryons were synthesized by mixing conidiospores from carrying complementary nutritional two strains requirements, and selecting for growth on MM plates with glucose as carbon source and no added supplements. Diploid strains were selected from the corresponding heterokaryons by plating uninucleated conidiospores in MM. The strains are prototrophic and produce wild-type green conidiospores as the result of complementation between the component yellow $(yA^-; wA^+)$ and white $(y^+; wA^-)$ mutant genomes in the heterozygous diploids $(yA^{-}/yA^{+}; wA^{-}/wA^{+})$. Properties of the qut mutant alleles in heterokaryons or in diploid strains were deduced in growth tests on MM with quinic acid as sole carbon source. The same medium with glucose as carbon source served as a control.

The different heterokaryon construction in all cases yielded growth on glucose media identical to that of the wild-type control.

The results for the heterokaryons tested for growth on quinic acid are shown in Table 4a. Combination of strains containing the same *qut* mutation yielded

diminished or no growth, which is expected of the mutant phenotype. Combinations of different mutant strains in reciprocal arrangement in all cases yielded identical results. The heterokaryon between the wild-type and the mutant strain *qutB42* grew normally on quinic acid demonstrating that mutant allele qutB42 is fully recessive to wild-type, as is expected for such an enzyme structural loss mutation. On the other hand each of gene the heterokaryons between wild-type and the non-inducible mutants qutA4, qutA8 and qut214 did not grow on quinic acid, indicating dominance of these mutant alleles over wild-type. Similarly the mutants combined one-with-another produced heterokaryons unable to grow on quinic acid.

The rather striking result found for the non-inducible mutants combined in heterokaryons, suggested that further analysis by investigation of the corresponding set of diploid strains (Table 4b). In contrast, the growth responses of the various heterozygous diploid strains revealed a different range of genetic relationships. All diploid strains grew normally on glucose with the wild phenotype. All of the homozygous mutant diploid strains showed typical poor growth or no growth on quinic acid, expected from the phenotypes of the component mutant strain.

There was good agreement for the results of reciprocal pairs of heterozygous diploid strains and analysis of the growth responses of the strains on quinic acid reveals the following points:

(i) When the qutB42 mutant (lacking dehydrogenase(1) activity) is combined with the wild-type qutB⁺ allele,

growth on quinic acid is fully restored, indicating that the mutant allele is fully recessive, as expected of a structural gene loss mutation.

(ii) Similarly the *qut*A8 allele is fully recessive to the wild-type allele.

(iii) The qutA4 mutation is partially dominant over the wild-type allele, since the qutA4/qut⁺ heterozygous diploid gives intermediate growth response to quinic acid, between that of the wild-type control and the qutA4/qutA4 homozygous diploid.

(iv) The qut214 mutation is almost fully dominant over the wild-type since in the growth tests, the response to quinic acid of the qut214/qut⁺ diploid is only marginally above that of the qut214/qut214 homozygote.

(v) Combination of qutA4/qutA8 yields a heterozygous diploid strain that shows ability to grow on quinic acid to a lesser extent than the wild-type, but nevertheless far better than that of each of the homozygous mutant diploids (qutA4/qutA4 or qutA8/qutA8) and equally as well as the heterozygous $qutA4/qut^+$ strain. Taken together, these results show that qutA4 and qutA8 mutant genomes complement in heterozygous diploids, indicating that each mutation affects different gene functions, and that at least two regulatory genes control expression of the QUTstructural genes. Therefore, the qutA8 allele is now renamed qutD8 to identify a second regulatory gene QUTD, an addition to QUTA.

Complementation analysis by growth tests with the qut214 strain, shows that this allele is fully dominant over the wild-type allele, and it is thus impossible to allocate it to a complementation group. However qut214

shares with *qutA4* the characteristic of dominance. Moreover, enzyme assays (done by Michael Stout) of heterozygous diploids in which *qut214* is combined with *qutA4* and *qutD8* exhibits similar properties to those of *qutA4* (see below). No enzyme induction is detectable when *qut214* is combined with *qutA4*, but when *qut214* is combined with the *qutD8* mutant, significant, albeit reduced levels when compared with the measurements from the *qutA4/qutD8* construct, can be measured. These observations together strongly suggest that *qut214* is an allele of the *QUTA* gene.

2. Analysis of enzyme induction in heterozygous diploid strains

The specific activities of each of the three enzymes for the initial steps in the metabolism of quinic acid were measured in glucose grown non-induced and quinic acid induced mycelium of the diploid strains described above. The procedures followed are described in Chapter 2.

No significant levels of enzyme activities are detected in non-inducible mycelium from the diploids. The observed levels of enzyme induction (Table 5) show the following:

(i) The homozygous *qutB42* diploid strain totally lacks dehydrogenase(1) activity but forms normal levels of the other two enzymes. The non-inducible *qutA4* and *qutD8* homozygous diploids each lack all three enzymes. These results are those expected for homozygous mutant diploid strains from the properties of the haploid mutant strains.

(ii) Data for all reciprocal pairs of heterozygous

diploids are in good agreement, the only major descrepancy being the dehydrogenase(1) activity in the *qutA4/qutB42* diploid strains.

(iii) The mutant *qutB42* which lacks dehydrogenase(1) activity and is recessive to the wild-type in growth of heterozygous diploid strains on quinic acid (Table 4b) shows gene dosage in respect to enzyme activity, producing some 60-70% of the wild-type dehydrogenase activity in the heterozygote.

(iv) The mutant qutD8, which lacks all three enzyme activities and is fully recessive to the wild-type qutD⁺ allele in heterozygotes growth tests, is also fully recessive with respect to enzyme induction, which is the wild-type level. Furthermore, the *qutD8* mutant allele fully complements in trans the qutB42 dehydrogenase mutant levels and the of activity the enzyme in gutB⁺gutD8/gutB42gutD⁺ heterozygous diploid show no difference from these in the $qutB42/qutB^+$ diploid.

(v) By contrast, the second non-inducible mutant, qutA4 which is semi-dominant in respect to the wild-type in growth tests, exhibits a similar phenotype in producing levels of enzyme activity that are some 60% of those of the wild-type control. When combined with the gutB42 levels of enzyme induction mutant, the show some variation, perhaps depending on the haploid strain used in the construction of the heterozygotes. To investigate this possibility, the two new reciprocal diploid strains were constructed from the original haploid strains and the levels of enzyme induction again measured. The results (Table 5a), show consistency with the original values obtained, again showing in one heterozygous diploid strain

that induction of the dehydrogenase enzyme(1) appears to suffer a further reduction in activity as compared to the $qutA4qutB^+/qutA^+qutB^+$ diploid. However, when other recombinant haploid strains are used to construct equivalent diploid combinations, there is no detectable variation in activity between dehydrogenase $qutA4qutB^+/qutA^+qutB42$ and $qutAqutB42/qutA^+qutB^+$. It is thus possible that this difference may be due to modifying genes segregating in the crosses done in the construction of the haploid strains.

(vi) Finally, complementation of the qutA4 and qutD8 mutant genomes in trans is comfirmed by the levels of enzyme activity found for all three enzymes. Thus, the $qutA4qutD^+/qutA^+qutD8$ diploid shows the same response to induction by quinic acid as the $qutA4/qut^+$ diploid strain, whereas no enzyme induction was observed in either of the qutA4 or qutD8 homozygous diploids. This result comfirms that the qutA4 and qutD8 mutations define two separate regulatory functions, and therefore at least two regulatory genes control expression of the structural genes.

3. A new model for the regulation of the quinic acid utilization qut gene cluster in A. nidulans

The properties of the heterozygous diploid strains, and particularly analysis of the data generated by assaying the three enzyme activities induced by growth in the presence of quinic acid suggests a series of points concerning the characteristics of the products of the genes identified by the *qut* mutant alleles.

(i) The qutB42 allele has all the characteristics of a recessive loss mutation, rendering the haploid strain silent for dehydrogenase activity. In the qutB42/qut⁺ heterozygous diploid a reduction to some 60% of wild-type enzyme level is a typical gene dosage response, and the normal growth of the diploid on quinic acid shows that this amount of enzyme is not limiting growth.

(ii) The pleiotropic qutD8 mutant allele is deficient in the induction of all three enzyme activities, and is fully recessive to the wild-type allele both in terms of growth and enzyme induction. This suggests that the qutD8 mutation results in the loss of function of a gene product normally required for enzyme induction and confers a non-inducible phenotype on the *qutD8* haploid strain and homozygous diploid strains. Several observations the suggest that a single functional copy of the $qutD^+$ allele is able to support full enzyme induction in heterozygous diploid strains, and therefore that the concentration of the QUTD gene product is not rate limiting for enzyme induction.

First, all three enzymes are fully induced in $qutD8/qutD^+$ heterozygous diploid strains. Second, dehydrogenase (1) activity measured for qutB42 $qutD^+/qutB^+$ qutD8 shows no reduction in level compared to that of the qutB42 $qutD^+/qutB^+$ $qutD^+$ diploid. Similarly, in the $qutA^+$ qutD8/qutA4 $qutD^+$ double mutant heterozygote, in which one might expect a two-fold gene-dosage effect, there is no detectable difference in the levels of enzyme induction when compared to the qutA4 $qutD^+/qutA4$ $qutD^+/qutA^+$ $qutD^+$ diploid.

The observation that qutD8 is fully recessive and therefore that the product of the wild-type QUTD gene is

not rate limiting, indicates that this gene codes for a positively acting, activator protein.

(iii) In contrast to qutD8, the qutA4 allele exhibits semi-dominance over the wild-type allele, as expressed by both reduced growth and enzyme induction. A possible interpretation therefore is that the product of the QUTA gene is rate limiting and that the qutA4 allele codes for an altered protein which no longer recognizes the inducer quinic acid. Thus, QUTA could code for a negatively acting, repressor protein.

Based on these interpretations of the rôles of the products of the two regulatory genes *QUTA* and *QUTD*, the model for the regulation of expression of the three *QUT* structural genes has been revised. Figure 4 shows a schematic representation of this new basic model, and is explained as follows:

In the absence of the inducer, quinic acid, the product of the *QUTA* gene, which is constitutively transcribed, binds to the promoter regions of the *QUTD* positive regulatory gene and possibly also to the promoter regions of the three structural genes, *QUTB*, *QUTE* and *QUTC*. As a consequence, gene expression is repressed, and no mRNA is transcribed from these genes.

In the presence of quinic acid, induction requires the recognition and binding of quinic acid by the QUTA repressor protein causing it to dissociate from the promoter regions of QUTD and of the structural genes. The QUTD gene is then strongly transcribed, and the activator protein binds to the promoter regions of the enzyme structural genes to promote high levels of mRNA transcription.

Upon the depletion of quinic acid from the medium, the QUTD gene and also the structural genes, would not be transcribed due to repression by the QUTA gene. In this event, expression of the enzyme structural genes would cease.

4. Discussion

The discovery from the analysis of heterozygous diploid strains that two genes control the expression of the QUT structural genes in A. nidulans, has led to a significant revision of the model which was initially proposed (Hawkins et al., 1982). This model was closely similar to that for the qa system in Neurospora crassa, where one single gene, coding for a positively acting protein was thought to effect control over the structural genes (Case & Giles, 1975 and Chapter 1).

The discovery that two regulatory genes could be identified by complementation was made possible by the diploid stage in the life cycle of A. nidulans, a feature that not available in is Neurospora. Heterokaryon formation in Aspergillus is unstable, requiring constant selection for prototrophic growth to maintain a low proportion of heterokaryotic hyphal-tip cells against segregation of homokaryotic hyphae (Clutterbuck and Roper, 1966). Thus the ratio of component nuclei in the bulk of the heterokaryon is subject to wide fluctuations, making analysis of data from this material unreliable. In diploid strains however, the 1:1 allele ratio is precisely thus providing accurate quantitative defined, data. Comparision of the results for the complementation growth

tests done in the heterokaryons and in the heterozygous diploid strains clearly demonstrates this point.

More recently, Huiet (1984) has shown in N. crassa by the analysis of transcription products and by sequencing the N. crassa QA1 locus DNA, that the $qa1^S$ and the $qa1^F$ alleles identify two separate genes. This is in contrast to the original interpretation of one gene coding for two distinct domains in an activator protein (Case & Giles, 1975). The revised model proposed in *Neurospora* is remarkably similar to the new version of the model in Aspergillus. It postulates that the $QA1^S$ gene (= QUTA) codes for a repressor proten which inhibits expression of the $QA1^F$ gene (=QUTD). In the presence of quinic acid, the repressor protein coded by the QA1^S gene dissociates from the 5' control region of the QA1^F gene, allowing high level expression of the activator protein, which in turn promotes expression of the QA structural genes and enzyme synthesis.

Several observations in N. crassa arising from the analysis of transcription of the $QA1^S$ and $QA1^F$ regulatory genes, exhibit remarkable similarities to the proposals based upon analysis of the biochemical data from the heterozygous diploids in A. nidulans. Patel et al. (1981) and Giles et al. (1985) have shown that expression of $QA1^F$ requires the presence of the inducer, and that low level constitutive expression increases some 50-fold upon growth in the presence of quinic acid. Furthermore, it has also been shown (Giles et al., 1985) that the $QA1^F$ gene product is not rate limiting upon induction, as suggested by the data for enzyme induction in the $qutD8/qut^+$; qutD8/qutA4 and qutD8/qutB42 diploid strains (see above). The data in

Neurospora is based on an experiment in which a plasmid carrying the $QA1^F$ gene deleted of its 5' control region, was used to transform a $qa1^F$ deletion mutant. The results of this transformation experiment showed that some of the transformed strains had regained the ability to grow on quinic acid, presumably due to a fusion of the coding sequence of the $QA1^F$ gene to an unrelated promoter. Transcrption studies showed that the $QA1^F$ gene was no longer under quinic acid control, and titration of specific mRNA showed that the gene was poorly expressed even in the presence of quinic acid. Nevertheless, expression of the three structural genes achieved levels of mRNA transcription comparable to those in the wild-type strain.

The $QA1^{S}$ gene in N. crassa, apparently equivalent to the QUTA gene of A. nidulans, has a low level of constitutive expression (Patel et al., 1981). It is autogeneously regulated since growth in the presence of quinic acid causes a 2 to 3-fold increase in $QA1^{S}$ mRNA. It has been postulated that the expected increase in the concentration of repressor protein induced by quinic acid, reflects a requirement for titration of the synthesis of the activator protein, coded by the $QA1^{F}$ gene, in order to respond to the depletion of quinic acid (Giles et al., 1985).

In Aspergillus partial dominance of the qutA4 allele over the wild-type indicates competition between mutant and wild-type gene products and suggests that the QUTAproduct is rate limiting for enzyme induction. Hence, it appears that the protein coded by the QUTA gene, and also that of its putative counterpart in N. crassa, the $QA1^S$,

has a rôle in determining the fine tuning of the control of the expression of the QUT cluster structural genes.

There is some evidence from the biochemical data in Aspergillus that an interaction between the QUTA and QUTD gene products may also occur. It has been shown that the product of the QUTDdoes concentration not limit induction; There is no detectable difference in the induction levels measured from the *qutA4/qutD8* and qutA4/qutD⁺ heterozygous diploids, although one might expect a further reduction in enzyme activity in the first diploid compared to the second as a consequence of the presence of the two mutant alleles. This observation appears to exclude the interpretation that the QUTA protein represses only expression of the QUTD gene. This follows, since if the QUTA protein only exerted its function by repressing expression of the QUTD gene, and since the product of the QUTD gene is not rate-limiting, there should still be enough activator protein to give wild-type levels of induction in the gutA4/gutD8 heterozygous diploid. However, as noted above, this is not the case and enzyme induction is reduced to some 60% of fully induced levels in both diploid strains. Therefore, if the product of the qutA4 mutant allele, is interpreted as producing a super-repressor no longer sensitive to . quinic acid, it must also be exerting its effect directly upon the transcription of the structural genes rather than on QUTD alone.

It is possible that the effect of the QUTA repressor protein reflects an interaction between the two regulatory proteins not on DNA, in which the QUTA protein inactivates the QUTD protein, preventing it from binding to the enzyme

structural genes and thus promoting their expression. Alternatively, the repressor protein coded by the *QUTA* gene may bind directly to the 5' control regions of the structural genes, hence directly repressing their expression, until quinic acid causes it to dissiciate from these regions

There are very striking homologies between the mechanisms of regulation of expression of the quinic acid utilization gene cluster in A. nidulans and N. crassa, to those of the GAL system in Saccharomyces cerevisiae (see chapter 1). Two regulatory genes, GAL4 and GAL80 control five genes coding the expression of for galactose inducible functions, involved in the uptake and metabolism of galactose (Douglas & Hawthorne, 1966; Hopper & Rowe, 1978; Matsumoto et al., 1978; and St.John & Davis, 1981). The initial model proposed by Douglas & Hawthorne (1966) analogous to the simplest version model for the is regulation of the QUT cluster. Hence, GAL80 gene which is constitutively expressed, codes for a repressor protein that binds to the 5' control region of the GAL4 gene, inhibiting its expression. However, in the presence of the inducer, galactose, the GAL80 repressor protein dissociates from the GAL4 gene allowing for the initiation of transcription. The product of the GAL4 gene in turn binds to the 5' control regions of the structural genes to promote transcription of the mRNAs. Hemce, the GAL80 and GAL4 genes seem to perform the same rôles as the QUTA and QUTD genes respectively.

Matsumoto *et al.* (1978) and Laughon & Gestland (1982) however, found that the expression of the activator gene, *GAL4* was constitutive, and that therefore it was not under

the control of the *GAL*80 gene. One possible model then, was that the repressor protein coded by the *GAL*80 gene effected its rôle by binding to the activator protein which is coded by the *GAL*4 gene, inactivating it rather than preventing its expression at the level of mRNA transcription. More recent evidence however (Johnston & Hopper, ,1982; Hashimoto *et al.*, 1983; and Nogi *et al.*, 1984) seems to indicate that perhaps the antagonistic effects of the *GAL*80 protein derive from it directly binding to the DNA sequences in the structural genes, preventing the initiation of transcription.

Furthermore, the most common mode of action for regulatory proteins, both repressor and activator, in the lower organisms appears to be by direct binding to the DNA sequence just upstream from the start of mRNA transcription. Hence, a similar mode of action is proposed for the *QUTA* repressor protein.

The model for the regulation of expression of the cluster quinic acid utilization (QUT) gene makes predictions that are amenable to experimental test. For example, a mutation abolishing the production of the putative repressor protein might be expected to lead to the constitutive production of enzyme activities in the absence of quinic acid. However, attempts to recover mutants of this class by selection of revertants capable of growth on quinic acid in the mutant strains qutA4 and qutA214 have failed to yield any quinic acid utilizing strains which are constitutive for enzyme formation. This is in sharp contrast to the situation in N. crassa, where qa1^{S-} mutants frequently revert to yield constitutive strains (Valone et al., 1971; Partridge et al., 1972).

This observation indicates that there might be significant differences in the nature and modes of action of the QUTA and $QA1^{S}$ proteins.

A possible alternative model therefore, is one in which qutA4 is interpreted not as mutant allele coding for a functionally active superrepressor protein that is not sensitive to the inducer quinic acid, but as a mutation that has lost the ability to regulate expression of the QUT enzyme structural genes, in response to quinic acid. In this case, the QUTA gene could be interpreted as coding for a co-activator required, together with the QUTDactivator protein for the full expression of the enzyme structural genes. Moreover, the QUTA co-activator would seem to be rate limiting in induction, in contrast to the QUTD product and in a $qutA^-$ heterozygous diploid the reduction in the levels of QUTA protein, would lead to a reduction in induction of gene expression, having as a consequence the observed gene dosage effects.

The model can be put to test by measuring mRNA transcription in certain heterozygous diploid strains containing particular regulatory and structural gene mutants, for example *qutA4/qut*⁺ and *qutA4/qutD8*. This approach, not available is *Neurospora*, would enable one to measure interaction between the products of *trans*-acting genes by quantifying both mRNA transcription and enzyme specific activities. Hence, it should be possible to test whether the *qutA4* product directly represses transcription of the structural genes, by measuring their mRNA levels.

Secondly, the model proposes that the two regulatory proteins bind to common DNA sequences in the 5' control regions of the structural genes. Determination of the DNA

sequence of the *qut* gene cluster and an analysis of the promoter regions seeking putative sites for the binding of the regulatory proteins, become important strategies in testing the model.

The following chapters describe the procedures followed for the physical isolation of the *QUT* gene cluster and sequencing of the *QUTE* enzyme structural gene. <u>TABLE 4</u> Growth of heterokaryons and heterozygous diploid strains on quinic acid.

The extent of growth on quinic acid MM agar was scored visually on a scale from 0 (no growth) to 5 (normal growth) in comparision to the wild-type combination (qut^+/qut^+) . All heterokaryons and diploid strains grow normally on glucose MM agar.

TABLE 4

a) heterokaryons **R21**

		qut+	qutA4	qutA8	qutB42	gut214	Ì
	qut+	5	0	1	4	0	
D152	gutA4	2	0	1	. 1	0	
n 155	qutA8	2	0	1	2	0	
	gutB42	4	0	2	1	0	

b) DIPLOID STRAINS

		qut+	gutA4 ·	qutA8	gutB42	<i>qut</i> 214
	qut+	5	З	5	5	1
R153	gutA4	3	0	3	3	0
	qut A8	5	3	0	5	1
	gutB42	5	3	5	0	1

<u>TABLE 5</u> Enzyme activities in diploid strains relative to the wild-type (qut^+/qut^+) diploid strain.

Specific activities of the enzymes in each of the diploid strains induced by growth in the presence of quinic acid are shown relative to the activity of each of the three enzymes found in the wild-type (qut^+/qut^+) diploid strain. For each set of enzyme assays (horizontal rows), а wild-type diploid strain was included as a reference (right hand side block in the table). Mycelium was grown on glucose (10mM) for 16 hours, washed aseptically and a filtered pad transferred to 0.1% (w/v) quinic acid for a further 4 hour incubation. Units of specific activity are: dehydrogenase - μ mol product min⁻¹ mg⁻¹; 1. 2. dehydroquinase - A_{240} min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ (1 unit is ΔA_{240} of 0.1 min^{-1} at 37°C); 3. dehydratase - μ mol product min^{-1} mg⁻¹. (a) indicates that diploid strains were reconstructed from the same haploid strains. (b) indicate that diploid strains were constructed from newly isolated haploid strains (see text in Chapter 4)

T,	ABLE	5 L						·					Enz	y me	specific
													acti	vities	in
	J	jut ⁺		6	utA4		-	7 <i>4</i> tD8			gut B.	42	qut ⁺ /	qut ^t c	ontrols
	-	2	m	-	2	m	-	5	m	-	2	m	-	2	m
qut ⁺	-	-	~	0,58	0,63	0,58	1,08	1,11	1,0	0'6	1,35	76'0	0,70	З,0	0,45
gutA4	0,6	0,76	0,88	0	0	0	0,66	0,69	0,79	0,75	6'0	0,88	96'0	2,47	E7,0
									-	(a) 0,60	0,71	1,11	0,55	2,67	0,27
										(b) 0,65	0,77	0,94	0,20	3,00	0,36
<i>qut</i> D8	1,02	0,95	0,87	0,63	0,70	0,86	0	0	0	0,6	1,34	1,32	1,27	3,99	0,84
gut B42	0,77	1,26	1,02	0,36	0,67	.0,84	0,75	1,25	1,10	0	06'0	0,94	1,51	3,45	0,86
			<u> </u>	a) 0,27	0,60	1,09							0,55	2,67	0,27
			E	b) 0,65	0,53	0,58							0,20	3,00	0,36

FIGURE 4 Model for the regulation of expression of the QUT gene cluster of A. nidulans.

This diagram represents a revision of the model. It is proposed that the QUTA gene codes for a repressor protein that binds to the 5' control region of the QUTD and possibly of, QUTE, QUTC and QUTB genes, preventing their expression. Upon induction, the repressor protein interacts with quinic acid, which induces an allosteric change in the QUTA protein eliminating its ability to prevent transcription of the activator gene QUTD and the structural genes. Transcription of QUTD produces an activator protein which, either on its own or by binding QUTA protein and quinic acid, stimulates transcription of the QUT enzyme structural genes, leading to enzyme induction. See the text for more detailed discussion and alternative interpretations of the model.



CHAPTER 5. ISOLATION AND PHYSICAL CHARACTERIZATION OF THE QUT ENZYME STRUCTURAL GENES

The new model proposed for the regulation of the qut gene cluster in A. nidulans makes predictions that are amenable to experimental test. One such prediction is that the two regulatory proteins, coded by the QUTA and QUTD genes, interact with one another at the 5' non-coding control regions of the structural genes, to regulate the expression of these genes. Ultimately one would seek to test this proposition using in vitro systems. A more immediate aim however, is to study gene expression by qualitative and quantitative analysis of mRNA transcription of haploid strains and particularly from a set of diploids heterozygous for regulatory and structural mutant alleles. These studies genes require the availability of the DNA sequences from the various QUT as hybridization probes to detect genes to use the specific mRNA populations. The physical isolation of the QUT gene cluster was undertaken for these reasons.

1. Isolation of a λ recombinant phage containing the QUT genes from a phage λ genomic library.

Hawkins et al. (1982) found that dehydroquinase purified from A. nidulans reacted strongly with rabbit anti-serum raised against the equivalent enzyme from N. crassa, thus showing that the two enzymes possess similar amino acid sequences. This observation suggests that strong DNA homology might also be found between the two

genes.

The plasmid pVK57 (Kushner *et al.*, 1977) contains a *N. crassa* DNA fragment from the *qa* gene cluster (Figure 5), including the whole of the *N. crassa QA2* gene, which codes for the catabolic dehydroquinase (= *QUTE* gene in *A. nidulans*). The 3.5 Kb *Hind*III fragment was isolated from pVK57, radioactively labelled with α^{-32} P-dCTP and used as a probe in an hybridization experiment against *Aspergillus* genomic DNA digested with *Hind*III, *Bam*HI or *Eco*RI, and transferred to nitrocellulose filters. The results of this experiment are shown in Figure 6 and demonstrate that *N. crassa* DNA sequences from the *QA2* gene hybridizes in each case to a single band in *A. nidulans* genomic DNA and thus could be used for the identification and isolation of the *A. nidulans qut* gene cluster.

The same 3.5 HindIII fragment of N. crassa DNA from pVK57 was then used to screen an A. nidulans genomic library constructed in the phage λ replacement vector DB286 (Brammar, 1982). One positive hybridization signal was found corresponding to a single plaque. Phage growth from this area was picked, replated and retested through six cycles of purification, until all plaques were observed to give strong positive signals. This recombinant phage was isolated and named λ Q1.

A restriction map (Figure 7a) of the DNA prepared from λ Q1 was generated using the five restriction enzymes *Hind*III, *Bam*HI, *Eco*RI, *Bgl*II and *Xba*I, and λ Q1 was found to contain an *A. nidulans* DNA insert of 13.2 Kb. Since only one recombinant phage had been isolated and to guard against the possibility that λ Q1 may have undergone rearrangement during the cloning procedures, a second

screen of the library was done, using as hybridization probe the 3.2 Kb BamHI fragment from λ Q1 which was found to cross hybridize to the 3.5 Kb HindIII fragment in pVK57 (This result is not shown since it is confirmed by results presented below and data presented in Figure 9). A second recombinant phage was isolated, called λ02. The restriction map of the 8.9 Kb of A. nidulans insert in this new phage clone (Figure 7a), shows that it falls wholly within the cloned fragment in $\lambda Q1$ and that there are no differences in the restriction patterns.

In order to further verify that $\lambda Q1$ did not possess any major DNA rearrangements, a Southern blot hybridization was carried out using as DNA probe the whole of $\lambda Q1$ DNA against *Aspergillus* genomic DNA digested with the same five restriction enzymes as above. The results (Figure 8) show that the restriction patterns exhibited in the autoradiograph are consistant with those found in $\lambda Q1$, thus proving that the cloned *Aspergillus* DNA had the same sequence organization in genomic DNA.

2. Identification of the A. nidulans QUT enzyme structural genes in genomic and λQ1 DNA.

In order to identify the QUT genes in A. nidulans genomic and cloned DNA, the equivalent genes from N. crassa were used as hybridization probes.

A. nidulans genomic DNA was digested with HindIII, BamHI, EcoRI, BglII and XbaII and then tested by Southern blot hybridization using the N. crassa heterologous probes. The fragments were purified from plasmids pVK57 or pVK88, according to the established restriction maps

(Schweizer et al., 1981) shown in Figure 5. Each of the fragments is largely contained within the structural genes for *N.crassa* dehydrogenase ($QA3 \equiv QUTB$), dehydroquinase ($QA2 \equiv QUTE$) or dehydratase ($QA4 \equiv QUTC$). The results of these hybridization experiments are presented in Figure 7b. The approximate location of each of the three putative QUT structural genes is indicated, based on a comparision of the size of the bands on the genomic Southern blots and the the restriction map of λ Q1.

Confirmation of the localization of DNA sequences within $\lambda Q1$ that show homology with the N. crassa QA genes was obtained from hybridization studies against the cloned DNA. In these, $\lambda Q1$ DNA was digested with each of the five listed restriction enzymes singly and in all possible pairwise combinations, the products separated by gel electrophoresis and bound to nitrocellulose filters which were hybridized to the same *Neurospora* probes used for the genomic Southern blot hybridizations. The results (Figure 9) show that all three structural genes appear to fall within the 3.2 Kb *Bam*HI fragment in $\lambda Q1$, confirming the results indicated in Figure 7.

3. Verification of the isolation of the QUTE gene: complementation by transformation of dehydroquinase deficient strains of A. nidulans and E. coli

Kushner et al. (1977) have shown that the catabolic dehydroquinase (QA2) gene from N. crassa can replace the enzyme deficiency ("complement") of an aroD6 biosynthetic dehydroquinase mutation of Escherichia coli, enabling growth of the bacterial mutant strain on minimal medium in

the absence of added aromatic amino acids. It was therefore of interest to discover whether the cloned A. *nidulans* catabolic dehydroquinase QUTE gene would also express in E. coli and complement the aroD6 mutation, and thus confirm the isolation of the functional QUTE gene.

For this purpose, the 6.5 Kb HindIII fragment from λ Q1, which contains all of the QUT structural genes, was subcloned into the HindIII site of pBR322 (work done in collaboration with Peter Estribeiro). This plasmid was called pEH1 (see Figure 13, in Chapter 7). The plasmid was used in transformation experiments using the aroD6 mutant strain SK3430 of *E. coli* (Kushner *et al.*, 1977) and transformants were selected by growth on complete medium containing ampicillin. Colonies were then replica plated onto minimal medium without aromatic supplements and the plates incubated at 30°C and 37°C.

Slow growth representing weak enzyme formation was observed only on the plates at 30^oC after incubation for 4 to 6 days. This result will be fully discussed below.

In collaboration with Hayley Whittington, protoplasts of the *qut*E208 mutant strain of *A. nidulans* which lacks catabolic dehydroquinase (Chapter 3) were transformed using plasmid pEH1 and following a protocol developed by Ballance *et al.* (1983). Several transformed strains were recovered (at a rate of 7 recombinants / μ g of plasmid DNA / 10⁶ viable protoplasts), by their growth on quinic acid as sole carbon source. No colonies were observed on the control plates where no DNA had been added to the protoplasts, indicating that *qut*E208 is a stable mutant strain (reversion rate less than 10⁻⁹). Furthermore, subsequent Southern blot hybridizations of genomic DNA
from the transformed strains revealed the presence of vector pBR322 sequences in $^{1}/_{3}$ of the strains tested. This result shows that pEH1 had integrated into the genome, and that the wild-type $qutE^{+}$ allele it carries was capable of repairing the functional lesion in the qutE208 mutant strain.

4. Identification of the dehydroquinase gene (QUTE) mRNA

The model proposed for the regulation of the expression the quinic acid utilization (qut) structural genes implies that regulation operates at the level of transcription. Proof of this was provided from work done in collaboration with John Clements using the technique of Northern blot hybridization. In this, total cellular RNA was separated by electrophoresis on denaturing gel, and transferred to a nitrocellulose filter. This was then tested by hybridization, using as DNA probe the 1.1 Kb EcoRI-BglII fragment from pEH1 (Figure 13, Chapter 7), which contains the *QUTE* gene. The result of this experiment is presented in Figure 10, and it clearly shows that specific QUTE mRNA was readly detected in RNA isolated from quinic acid grown mycelium, whereas in glucose grown mycelium no hybridization was detected. The size of the QUTE mRNA is estimated to be ~0.8Kb. These results show that regulation of expression of the QUTE gene, and by inference QUTB and QUTC structural genes, is at the transcriptional level and that no constitutive mRNA production could be detected from the glucose grown mycelium, even after prolonged exposure of the

autoradiograph to the filters.

5. Discussion

The isolation of DNA sequences from in A. nidulans containing the QUT enzyme structural genes was made possible by DNA sequence homology between the Aspergillus and Neurospora genes. Two hybrid λ -phage clones were isolated in two separate screening experiments. Since on each occasion the library plated corresponded to about 10 genomes' equivalent one would have expected to find a similar number of copies of QUT sequences. However, only one λ -recombinant was isolated on each occasion, and it under QUT cluster is thus appears that the gene represented in the library. The reason for this is not known.

The three structural QUT genes have been physically mapped in the cloned DNA by hybridization, using as probes DNA fragments largely within the coding sequences of the *Neurospora QA* genes. The *Aspergillus* genes are contained within a 3.2 Kb BamHI fragment, whereas in *N. crassa* the QA enzyme structural genes are defined within a 5.4 Kb fragment (Figure 5). The relative orientation of the equivalent enzyme structural genes in the two organisms however, is identical: QUTB - QUTC - QUTE in A. nidulans and QA3 - QA4 - QA2 in *N. crassa*, that is the sequence: enzymes (1), (3) and (2) (see Figures 5 and 7).

Analysis of transcription of the QA gene cluter in N. crassa has revealed that two additional presumptive structural genes, not previously identified by mutations, are also induced by growth with quinic acid (Patel *et al.*,

1981). These genes are called QAX and QAY, and it has been postulated that they may code for two additional functions : a permease involved in quinic acid uptake and an enzyme for the conversion of chlorogenic acid to quinic acid Preliminary DNA hybridization (Giles et al, 1985). experiments, yet to be repeated suggest that these two gene identify DNA sequences in Aspergillus probably in genes controlling equivalent functions, that are not only adjacent to the characterized QUT genes, but also appear in the same relative orientation (Figures 5 and 7). The qut gene cluster in A. nidulans appears therefore to possess a remarkably similar organization compared to that of N. crassa.

The plasmid pEH1, which contains the 6.5 Kb HindIII fragment from $\lambda Q1$ and the putative QUTE gene, weakly restores growth at 30°C, of an E. coli aroD6 mutant, lacking the biosynthetic dehydroquinase activity. However, complementation is observed at 37°C. This is in no contrast to a similar experiment in N. crassa using QA2 gene, which readly complements the aroD6 lesion at 37°C and was the procedure used for the isolation of the QA gene cluster (Kushner et al., 1977). Unsuccessful attemps by Hawkins, Kinghorn & Giles (umpublished work) to isolate the QUT cluster in Aspergillus by the same procedure, are now explicable since selection was done at 37°C, at which temperature no complementation is observed. The expression of the Neurospora QA2 gene in E. coli probably reflects the presence in the 5' non-coding region of the canonical sequence for the E. coli ribosome binding site (Shine & Dalgrano, 1975). The weak complementation exhibited by the A. nidulans gene, suggests that this sequence may not

present in the *QUTE* gene. This speculation was later proved to be correct by analysis of the DNA sequence (Chapter 7).

Complementation of the *qut*E208 lesion of *Aspergillus* by the pEH1 plasmid provides good evidence that the functional *QUTE* gene has been cloned, and is expressed upon transformation and integration into the genome.

Finally, it has been shown that the QUTE gene is under transcriptional control in A. nidulans. The size of the mRNA identified by Northern blot hybridization appears to be around 0.8 Kb, which is marginally less than that of the mRNA in N. crassa, where multiple QA2 gene transcripts are found in a range 1.0 to 1.2 Kb (Patel *et al.*, 1981). However, the experiment was done with total cellular RNA, and the data is still very preliminary. Determination of the start and termination positions of transcription is therefore necessary for a precise assessment the nature of the QUTE mRNA.

It has shown that the *QUTE* gene is strongly transcribed upon induction, reaching levels comparable to those of the highly expressed phosphoglycerate kinase gene (*PGK*) and several orders of magnitude greater than the *AROM* complex gene (John Clements, PhD Thesis).

<u>FIGURE 5</u> Genetic and physical organization of the N. crassa quinic acid (QA) gene cluster.

Solid bars represent DNA fragments used as probes in Southern blot hybridization experiments described in this chapter. References: pVK57 (Kushner *et al.*, 1977); pVK88 and pMSK375 (Schweizer *et al.*, 1981); pMSK366 (Hiuet, 1984).



P=PstIS=SalIH=Hind IIIE=EcoRISm=SmalX=XhoIB= BamHIXba=XbaI

1Kb

FIGURE 5

FIGURE 6 Southern blot hybridization of the 3.5 Kb HindIII W. crassa DNA fragment from pVK57 to A. nidulans genomic DNA.

Restriction enzymes used to digest *A. nidulans* DNA are indicated above the tracks in which the digests were loaded for electrophoresis. The figures record the positions of standard size markers.



FIGURE 7

7a. Restriction map of the two recombinant phage: λ Q1 and λ Q2. 7b. Identification of sequences in *A. nidulans* genomic DNA hybridizing with the *N. crassa* structural genes and approximate location in cloned DNA of the putative genes *QUTB*(1), *QUTE*(2) and *QUTC*(3) in *A. nidulans*.

7a. The lines represent *A. nidulans* DNA and the boxes phage vector arms. The positions of restriction enzyme sites are indicated.

7b. The five tracks on each autoradiograph represent A. nidulans genomic DNA digested with the restriction enzymes indicated, the products separated by electrophoresis and transferred to nitrocellulose filters. The three genes from N. crassa used as hybridization probes are the fragments indicated in Figure 5 as follows: QA3, 1Kb SalI-PstI fragment

QA4, 0.5 Kb HindIII fragment

QA2, 0.6 Kb Smal-BamHI fragment



<u>FIGURE 8</u> Identification of sequence organization in A. nidulans genomic DNA and the cloned fragment $\lambda Q1$

The five tracks on each autoradiograph represent A. nidulans genomic DNA digested with the restriction enzymes indicated, the products separated by electrophoresis and transferred to nitrocellulose filters. The filters were then probed with $\alpha^{-32}P$ dCTP labelled λ Q1. Bands giving fainter signals are indicated by the arrows.



<u>FIGURE 9</u> Identification of the location of three QUT enzyme structural genes in the cloned λ Q1 fragment.

DNA was digested with each of the five restriction enzymes listed and in all pair wise combination (listed below), and the products separated by electrophoresis. The upper panel shows a photograph of the gel and the various fragments obtained.

The restriction products were transferred to nitrocellulose filters which were hybridized with probes of the equivalent genes from N. crassa (see Figures 5 and 7b) and the resulting autoradiograph are shown in the lower panels. The positions of standard size markers are indicated by by the figure and arrows.

Tracks refer to λQ1 DNA digested as follows: 1.Hind; 2.HindIII-BamHI; 3.HindIII-EcoRI; 4.HindIII-BglII; 5.HindIII-XbaI; 6.BamHI; 7.BamHI-EcoRI; 8.BamHI-BglII; 9.BamHI-XbaI; 10.EcoRI; 11.EcoRI-BglII; 12.EcoRI-XbaI; 13.BglII; 14.BglII-XbaI; 15.XbaI.



FIGURE 10 Identification of dehydroquinase (qutE) mRNA in A. nidulans.

Northern blot analysis of total RNA isolated from induced (I) and non-induced (NI) mycelium of the wild-type strain R153 of *A. nidulans*. The DNA probe was the 1.1 Kb *BglII-EcoRI* fragment containing the *QUTE* gene. The size was determined in comparision with standard markers.



CHAPTER 6. LOCATION OF THE TWO CONTROL GENES IN GENOMIC DNA AND ISOLATION OF QUTD IN THE RECOMBINANT LAMBDA PHAGE $\lambda Q1$

The successful cloning and physical mapping of the A. nidulans QUT structural genes was facilitated by the DNA sequence homology with the equivalent QA genes of N. crassa and suggested that the same strategy might be followed for the isolation and identification of the regulatory genes, QUTA and QUTD. These two genes exhibit characteristics in common with the QA1^S and QA1^F genes of N. crassa, suggesting the possibility that they have common modes of action and therefore are the equivalent genes in the two organisms. If this is true, then the two pairs of genes may also be expected to possess DNA sequence homology and thus the identification of QUTA and QUTD may be possible by DNA hybridization, using the N. crassa genes as probes.

<u>1. Hybridization of N. crassa QA1^S and QA1^F sequences</u> to Aspergillus genomic DNA.

To test whether the N. crassa DNA sequences from the two control genes hybridized Aspergillus DNA, genomic DNA was digested with the same five restriction enzymes previously used (Figure 7) and the products transferred to nitrocellulose filters after separation by gel electrophoresis. The Neurospora DNA probes originated from plasmids pMSK366 (Huiet, 1984) and pMSK375 (Schweizer et al., 1981), which carry N. crassa $QA1^S$ and $QA1^F$ genes

respectively (Figure 5). In the initial hybridization experiment with the QA1^S gene, the entire insert from pMSK366 (4.9 Kb in length) was used, consisting almost entirely of unique QA1^S sequences (Figure 11, left hand panel). The plasmid pMSK375 contains a 5.4 Kb BamH1 insert, which in addition to the $QA1^F$ gene also includes a N. crassa tRNA^{leu} (Huiet et al., 1984). In Neurospora, fragments containing this tRNA gene, hybridize to several sequences in the genome giving a smear of bands in the Southern blots Huiet, genomic (Layne personnal communication). It was therefore necessary to generate a DNA probe free of this tRNA gene. This was achieved by further excising the N. crassa DNA insert of pMSK375 to isolate the 2.1 BamHI-XbaI fragment (Figure 11, right hand panel).

The results of hybridization, done at the standard conditions of stringency (see Chapter 2), to Aspergillus genomic DNA, indicate that both of the N. crassa genes exhibit homology to a number of Aspergillus genomic DNA sequences. However, in the case of $QA1^S$, when the 4.9 Kb EcoRI fragment from the plasmid pMSK366 is further restricted, and the 2.0 Kb XhoI-SalI fragment is purified and used as an hybridization probe against an identical set of filters, a set of single bands was observed to hybridize in genomic DNA (Figure 11, centre panel).

2. Testing $\lambda Q1$ for sequence homology with the QA1^S and QA1^F genes

Experiments done to test whether the two Neurospora control genes hybridized to the cloned DNA from

Aspergillus, showed that $\lambda Q1$ contained sequences homologous to $QA1^{F}$ but not $QA1^{S}$.

In the case of the $QA1^S$ gene, the size of the bands appearing in the genomic Southern blot probed with the 2.0 kb *XhoI-SalI* fragment from pMSK366, which is contained within the $QA1^S$ gene, are:

HindIII	2.7 and 1.2 Kb	
BamHI	14.0 Kb	
EcoRI	8.6 Kb	
BglII	7.5 Kb	
Xbal	14.0 Kb	

None of these band sizes have any equivalents in the cloned $\lambda Q1$ DNA restriction map, implying that the Aspergillus sequence identified by the 2.0 Kb XhoI-SalI N.crassa probe was not contained within the cloned A. nidulans DNA. To confirm this result, a filter with bound λ Q1 DNA which had been cleaved with the five restriction listed above, singly and in all pairwise enzymes combinations, was tested with the same 2.0 kb N. crassa probe. No hybridization was detected even after prolonged exposure of the X-ray film to the filters, in contrast to the strong hybridization signals generated in the genomic DNA hybridizations. To exclude the possibility that some of the bands appearing in the autoradiograph in which the whole of the 4.9 EcoRI insert of the plasmid pMSK366 was used as a probe, could correspond to $\lambda Q1$ sequences, the same experiment was repeated using this larger fragment as hybridization probe. The result of this experiment was still clearly negative, demonstrating that there is no

homology between the DNA sequences of the N. crassa $QA1^S$ gene and the $\lambda Q1$ clone of A. nidulans.

However, in the case of the $QA1^{\rm F}$ gene, the 2.1 Kb BamHI-XbaI fragment from pMSK375, which is wholly within the coding region of the $QA1^{\rm F}$ gene), strongly hybridizes to $\lambda Q1$ DNA. It identifies a region immediately to the right of the sequence that, in preliminary experiments, appears to show homology to the N. crassa QAY gene, thus mapping the QUTD gene within the 1.7 EcoRI fragment (Figure 12).

3. Strategies for cloning the QUTA gene

Genetic analysis of the pleiotropic non-inducible mutant gutA4 (Hawkins et al., 1982; Chapter 3), have shown that the QUTA gene is closely linked to QUTD and the three enzyme structural genes QUTB, QUTE and QUTC. Moreover, the QA1^S gene of N. crassa is postulated to be equivalent to the QUTA gene of A. nidulans. If this is correct, then the two genes should show sequence homology. The observation that a small 2.0 Kb DNA fragment from within the QA1^S gene of N. crassa strongly hybridizes to a unique fragment of A. nidulans genomic DNA sUggests a strategy to isolate this fragment and thus the QUTA gene. Since the gene is not present in the genomic clone $\lambda Q1$ it must of necessity lie, either to the "left" or to the "right" of the $\lambda Q1$ region at a distance defined by the close linkage of QUTA to the QUT locus. One should thus be able to recover the QUTA gene from a genomic DNA library by "chromosome walking" using fragments from the left and right ends of $\lambda Q1$ as probes to extend the cloned regions in both

directions.

The terminal fragments used as hybridization probes for this exercise were the 2.4 Kb BamHI fragment (left hand) and the 1.1 Kb HindIII-BamHI fragment (right hand) from $\lambda Q1$. These fragments were isolated and subcloned into pBR322 to generate plasmids pAJS1 and pAJS2 respectively (Figure 12). DNA prepared from these two plasmids was digested with the appropriate endonucleases to produce substantial quantities of the two DNA probes, which were used to screen the same λ -phage genomic library from which $\lambda Q1$ and $\lambda Q2$ recombinant phage were isolated. In three attempts, on each occasion screening 10 A. nidulans genome equivalents, no plaques were recovered that gave consistent hybridization signals in subsequent cycles of purification.

An alternative route was then attempted using the N. crassa 2.0 Kb XhoI-SalI DNA fragment from pMSK366, which identifies a unique band in A. nidulans genomic DNA upon hybridization, as a probe to screen the library. Five putative positive phage were initially isolated, but again no consistent hybridization signals were observed in subsequent cycles of purification, indicating that these phage did not contain DNA homologous to the $QA1^S$ gene.

These probes are currently being used in Newcastle to attempt to isolate the QUTA gene from newly constructed libraries of A. nidulans genomic DNA in phage- λ .

4. Discussion

The identification of a region within the cloned $\lambda Q1$ DNA sequence of *A. nidulans* that strongly hybridizes to the positivly acting regulatory gene of *N. crassa*, $QA1^{\rm F}$,

is postulated to correspond to the QUTD gene locus. Confirmation of this proposal, will eventually be obtained from transformation experiments testing complementation of a $qutD^-$ functional lesion, by expression of the putative cloned QUTD gene carried in this fragment. Additional evidence, would also be supplied by analysis of the sequence of this putative gene compared with that of the N. crassa QA1^F gene.

The DNA sequence identified in Southern blots of A. nidulans genomic DNA probed with the $QA1^{S}$ gene of N. crassa are not contained within the cloned λ Q1 DNA. Hence, the minimal distance between the putative QUTD gene, and QUTA, which are genetically closely linked, is at least 4.0 Kb, which is the distance between QUTD and the nearest end (at the right hand) of the cloned fragment in λ Q1. This observation stands in contrast to the otherwise compact organization of the other QUT genes (Chapter 5 and Figure 7). In N. crassa the physical distance between the two regulatory genes is only 0.3 Kb.

Comparision of the organization of the quinic acid gene clusters in the genomes of A. nidulans and N. crassa provides both striking similarities and differences. The structural genes, including the two genes QAX and QAY whose function have not been characterized, and their hybridization equivalents in Aspergillus, appear to occur in the same order: \equiv QAX, QUTE, QUTC, QUTB and \equiv QAY in Aspergillus; QAX, QA2, QA4, QA3 and QAY in Neurospora. The QUTD and QUTA genes, on the other hand, do not appear to follow the same relative order (Figures 5 and 7). This difference in the organization is that in Neurospora the two control genes QA1^S, QA1^F lie very close to QAY and in

that order (Figure 5), whereas in Aspergillus QUTD (\equiv QA1^F) appears at the other distal end in relation to the structural genes, and the QUTA gene at a much greater distance (at least 4 Kb) than in *N. crassa*. This suggests that major alterations in the regulation of expression of the structural genes may have occurred in the evolution of the two filamentous fungi from their primordial ancestor.

Several observations now seem to point in this direction. For example, attempts to isolate constitutive mutants in the QUTA gene have been unsuccessful (Chapter 4), in striking contrast to the situation in N. crassa where $qa1^{S-}$ mutants spontaneously revert to constitutivity (Valone et al., 1971; L. Huiet, personnal communication). This may be interpretated that the Neurospora QA1^S protein possesse a domain, which when disrupted by mutations in corresponding genetic region(s), readly confers the constitutivity to the mutant strain. In fact, Giles et al. (1985) report that in the $qa1^{C}$ mutants sequenced so far, the mutations conferring constitutivity all fall within the amino (NH_2-) terminal region of the repressor protein. Giles and co-workers further discussed the idea that by analogy to mutations in certain prokaryotic repressor genes, for example the laci gene (Miller & Reznikoff, 1978), and to mutants in gal80 in Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Nogi & Fukasawa, 1984), the two types of mutations detected in the QA1^S gene, could define two domains in the protein: one the inducer binding domain, at the Cterminal, and identified by the $qa1^{S-}$ mutations, and the second for the repressor target domain, in the NH_2 terminal, and identified by the $qa1^{C}$ mutations.

The lack of success in the isolation of constitutive

mutants in A. nidulans, has been discussed (Chapter 4) and may indicate that the QUTA protein plays a more complex rôle than that of the $QA1^S$ protein in Neurospora, where the inactivation of the repressor protein does not affect the ability of the mutant strain achieve enzyme induction and thus utilize quinic acid as carbon source.

Both the $QA1^{S}$ and $QA1^{F}$ genes of N. crassa show homology to several sequences within the Aspergillus genome, giving signals corresponding to strong hybridizations in genomic Southern blot analysis. However, when the QA1^S DNA probe is reduced to just its 3' end which is thought to code for the inducer-binding domain, only one sequence in Aspergillus is recognized. An attractive interpretation is that the 5' end, which may code for the DNA binding domain (Giles et al., 1985), has significant DNA sequence homology to several regions of the A. nidulans genome, and is thus identifying various genes coding for DNA binding proteins in Aspergillus. Reports on the structure and organization of fungal DNA binding proteins are scarce at this time. However, Laughon & Gestland (1984) reported that the NH2- terminal region of the activator protein encoded by the GAL4 gene, contains an amino acid sequence which resembles the two-helix DNA-binding domain found in some prokaryotic repressor and activator proteins. The DNA probes from the $QA1^{S}$ and $QA1^{F}$ genes that gave multiple bands in the Aspergillus genomic Southern blot hybridizations were both from the NH2- terminal ends of the coding sequence of these two Neurospora genes, and suggests that they may identify sequences coding potential DNA binding domains that are common to proteins coded by different regulatory

genes.

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FIGURE 11 Identification on A. nidulans genomic DNA of sequences showing homology to the N. crassa control genes, $QA1^{S}$ and $QA1^{F}$.

The physical organization of the N. crassa regulatory region is shown in the top panel and the extent of the DNA probes used indicated.

A. nidulans genomic DNA was digested with the five restriction enzymes used previously (Figure 7), the products separated by electrophoresis, transferred to nitrocellulose filters and tested by hybridization with the probes described above.

DNA fragments identified in the resulting autoradiograph are shown together with estimated sizes determined against known standard markers.



FIGURE 12 Identification of the QUTD gene in λ Q1.

The upper panel indicates the restriction map of λ Q1. The λ Q1 DNA was digested with the five restriction enzymes indicated singly and in all pairwise combinations, separated by electrophoresis, transferred to nitrocellulose filters and hybridized with $\alpha^{-32}P$ -dCTP labelled 2.1 Kb BamHI-XbaI fragment from within the QA1^F gene of N. crassa (Figure 11). The positions of standard size markers are indicated by the figure with arrows.

Order of digests is: 1.HindIII; 2.HindIII-BamHI; 3.HindIII-EcoRI; 4.HindIII-BglII; 5.HindIII-XbaI; 6.BamHI; 7.BamHI-EcoRI; 8.BamHI-BglII; 9.BamHI-XbaI; 10.EcoRI; 11.EcoRI-BglII; 12.EcoRI-XbaI; 13.BglII; 14.BglII-XbaI; 15.XbaI.

The two end fragments from the cloned DNA to be used for the chromosome "walk" are also indicated (pAJS1 and pAJS2).





CHAPTER 7. SEQUENCING OF THE QUT ENZYMES STRUCTURAL GENES: ANALYSIS OF THE CATABOLIC DEHYDROQUINASE GENE QUTE

The model proposed for the regulation of the expression of the QUT genes coding for the enzymes catabolizing quinic acid to PCA, postulates that the two regulatory proteins exert their activity upon the DNA, by interacting with a region 5'-upstream of the start of transcription of each of the genes. An analysis of the DNA sequences of these promoter regions, might be expected to in common not only amongst the QUT reveal features structural genes but also with those of other fungal genes under similar physiological controls (Chapter 1). Such common sequence motifs in the promoter regions would give an indication of those regions recognized by the regulatory proteins, and also of the interaction with RNA polymerase II to initiate transcription.

Furthermore, there is some evidence that the regulation of expression of the QUT genes by the product of the QUTA gene in A. nidulans and the QA genes by the $QA1^{S}$ protein in N. crassa may operate differently (Chapters 4 and 6). If this view is correct, one may expect to find extensive DNA sequence homology in the coding sequences between the QUT and QA structural genes, since they code for equivalent enzymes, but less so in the promoter regions, as a reflection of the different modes of regulation.

The plasmid pEH1, contains a 6.5 Kb fragment of A. nidulans DNA from λ Q1 which includes the three enzyme structural genes (Chapter 5). Inspection of the

restriction map of this insert reveals a wealth of strategically well placed endonuclease restriction sites, small, but well defined enabling the isolation of fragments in the range 1.1 to 0.5 Kb for subcloning into M13 phage sequencing vectors (Figure 13). Thus, directional sequencing was chosen as the quickest method for determining the DNA sequence of the three genes.

1. Directional sequencing

Each sequencing reaction permitted some 300 to 400 bases to be read from each end of the restriction fragments by using sequencing gels subjected to electrophoresis for 3 or 6 hours. To extend these sequences, the same DNA templates were used in conjunction with an internal specific primer, consisting of а synthetic 17-mer oligonucleotide designed to anneal to a sequence proximal to the point where reading of the initial sequencing gels had ended ("primer extension"). It was expected that this technique applied to small sized fragments would yield sequence data which would reveal overlap of complementary sequences read from opposite ends of each strand of the fragment.

Twelve 17-mer synthetic oligonucleotide primers were used. However, only six enabled primer extensions of the previously determined sequence. A common observation in the unsuccessful sequencing reactions, was the excessive number of bands appearing in the sequencing tracks. This might be due to annealing of the synthetic primer at several sites, causing the initiation of DNA synthesis at several different positions on the DNA template, and thus

the production of a series of staggered overlapping oligonucleotides. Charles *et al.* (in press) experienced similar difficulties in determining the DNA sequence of the *arom* gene complex of *A. nidulans*. Since this strategy has been successfully used for sequencing procaryotic genes, one possible explanation is that related sequences occur in the *Aspergillus* cloned fragments which are sufficiently homologous to some of the synthetic primers to permit their annealing to the DNA templates at more than one site.

Fragment E (=1.1 Kb BgIII-EcoRI, Figure 13), which hybridizes to the QA2 gene (=QUTE) of N. crassa, was sequenced from the EcoRI site to a total lengh of 492 bases (which includes the use of an internal synthetic primer). The data reveal DNA sequence homology to the 3' end of the Neurospora QA2 gene (Giles et al., 1985), thus indicating that the QUTE gene is transcribed left to right, that is in the direction from the BgIII to the EcoRI sites (Figure 13).

2. Random fragment sequencing

The difficulties encountered with the use of internal synthetic primers required a change of strategy and DNA sequence was determined from randomly generated fragments. For this purpose, the plasmid pEH1 was treated with ultrasonic vibration to introduce multiple breaks at random in the circular molecule. The DNA fragments were separated by electrophoresis and those in the size range 800 to 1000 bp isolated. These fragments were incubated with the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase plus all four

dNTPs, to repair single stranded ends, and ligated into the SmaI site of the phage vector M13mp19. The ligation products were then used to transform strain JM101 of E. A total of 357 colourless "plaques" on X-GAL coli. indicator plates (revealing disruption of the function of B-Galactosidase gene by insertion of the foreign the fragments) were recovered (Chapter 2). These M13 phage recombinants were then screened to identify those carrying DNA sequences containing the A. nidulans QUT genes, using two restriction fragments as probes: the 3.5 and 1.5 Kb BamHI fragment from plasmid pEH1 (Figure 13). To identify those phage carrying DNA sequences coding for the QUTE gene, the same 357 phages were screened by hybridization with the 1.1 Kb BglII-EcoRI fragment (Figure 13). The results of these tests revealed that 101 phages contained DNA sequences from the two BamHI restriction fragments, of which 31 specifically hybridized to the 1.1 Kb BglII-EcoRI The remaining 70 recombinant phages, which fragment. contain fragments from the QUTB and QUTC genes, are currently being sequenced by Dr. A. Hawkins in the Department of Genetics, University of Newcastle.

DNA was prepared from the 31 phages, containing fragments of the QUTE gene and used as templates in sequencing reactions. Of these templates, 8 did not give readable sequence. In 11 it was not possible to align the sequence with those previously obtained from fragment E (see above), and these phage are thought to contain Aspergillus sequences of fragment E with the QUTE gene sequences at the opposite end of the universal primer site. The remaining 12 templates yielded sequences overlapping with one another and some with the fragment E

sequence, to give a total lengh of 2186 of unique sequence (Figure 13). It is noticeable that several of these 12 fragments are clustered around the *Eco*RI site (Figure 13). A possible explanation is that this region is especially sensitive to breakage by ultra-sonic vibration, therefore generating fragments that are represented more frequently than expected from strictly random shearing of the plasmid as discussed by Deninger (1983).

3. Analysis of the QUTE gene DNA sequence.

a) Analysis of the coding sequence

Inspection of Figure 13, shows that both strands were only sequenced for regions containing the QUTE gene. Confirmation of the sequence determined over these single stranded regions was obtained by Dr. A. Hawkins in Newcastle, using specific internal primers in sequencing reactions extending the sequence determined from clone 43 (Figure 13). The entire sequence of both strands of fragment E has thus been determined.

The 2186 base sequence of DNA determined from the A. nidulans contains an open reading frame of 462 bases (Figure 14), which include the sequence that had been previously identified as having homology with the 3' end of the QA2 gene (see above). The calculated molecular weight of a protein of the derived amino acid sequence is approximately 18,000. This is in good agreement with the observed MW for the deydroquinase subunit (18-20,000; Hawkins *et al.*, 1982 and Chapter 1).

Comparative analysis of the Aspergillus and

Neurospora sequence data using a dot-matrix computer programme (White et al., 1984) (Figure 15) shows that there are regions of considerable homology with both the 5' and the 3' end of the Neurospora QA2 gene (Giles et al., 1985). However, the dot-matrix also suggests that some evolutionary rearrangements have occurred between these two genes, in that the QA2 gene appears to contain an additional DNA sequence at approximately the centre of its reading frame. This is illustrated in Figure 16 which shows alignment of the QUTE and the QA2 gene DNA sequences in regions which exhibit homology. Hence, the Neurospora QA2 gene contains a 75 bp sequence, coding for 25 amino acids, which is absent from the QUTE gene of Aspergillus. This observation indicates that this sequence was either deleted from the QUTE gene or that the QA2 gene has gained this insertion. The latter hypothesis is preferred, since it is easier to envisage that an insertion would be less likely to disrupt the sequence encoding for an active enzyme. At the 5' end of the two genes, the QA2 gene contains six additional nucleotides, corresponding to two amino acids, adjacent to the methionine (ATG) start codon. The QUTE gene is in turn 21 bp longer at its 3' end than the equivalent gene from N. crassa; that is an extra 7 amino acids. In total the coding region of the QUTE gene contains 459 bases (153 amino acids), 60 bases (20 amino acids) less than the N. crassa QA2 gene. A summary of the sequence rearrangements between the polypeptides coded by the two genes is schematically presented in Figure 17.

Considering the regions in the coding sequence which show homology (Figure 16), the 5' region has 60% DNA homology and the 3' region 65%. In the derived

polypeptides, conservation is 63% and 65% respectively (Figure 14, the underlined residues). An interesting feature in the 5' coding region of the two genes is that there is a block of 13 nucleotides which show total homology, but which are out of frame (Figure 16). This sequence is located between positions 73 and 85 in the *QUTE* gene, and positions 72 and 84 in the *QA2* gene. The introduction of a cytosine base at position 72 in the *QUTE* gene sequence induces the frameshift, but the initial reading frame is restored by the inclusion of a thymine at position 85 in the *QA2* gene sequence.

The distribution of codon usage in the QUTE gene (Figure 18) does not show preferential codon usage, in contrast to the QA genes of N. crassa, which show bias against those codons containing an adenine (A) in third position (Rutledge, 1984). However, the small size of the derived polypeptide (183 residues), makes it difficult to draw at any firm conclusion on this point. Codon usage is normally thought to play a rôle in modulating the efficiency of translation of the mRNAs at the ribosomes. In the yeast S. cerevisiae codon bias is found to be more extreme in genes that are constitutively expressed at high levels than in those expressed at low levels (Bennetzen & Hall, 1982). In some highly expressed genes 96% of the amino acid residues are encoded by only a select 25 of the 61 possible coding triplets, and these preferred codons correspond anti-codons to the of the most common isoacceptor tRNA species in the cell.
b) Analysis of the 5' and 3' flanking sequences

The analysis of the QUTE gene non-coding flanking sequences reveals some interesting features (Figure 14). sequence found around the start codon (first The methionine) in the translated sequence shows agreement with the sequence proposed by Kozac (1981) for the initiation of translation by eukaryotic (mainly mammalian) ribosomes and the consensus sequence from several filamentous fungi genes (Figure 19).

QUTE:	A	С	A	<u>A</u>	T	G	G
Filamentous fungi:	A	С	A	<u>A</u>	Т	G	Т _G
Kozac sequence:	A _G	N	N	<u>A</u>	т	G	G

A TATA sequence is found at position 232, 84 bp upstream from the start of translation (Figure 14). A second sequence TAAATAA, is found at position 260, 68bp upstream from the start of translation. However, this second sequence appears downstream of the two CAAG sequences found in this promoter region. This is in opposition to the situation in yeast, where this TATA sequence is found upstream of the CAAG sequences (Sentenac & Hall, 1982), and is apparently required for the proper positioning of RNA Polymerase II (McKnight & Kingsbury, 1982). On balance the first TATA sequence (232), therefore appears the most likely to have significance in the QUTE promoter. In higher eukaryotes, a "TATA" box is typically found about 30 bp upstream of the site of initiation of transcription, but in the yeast S. cerevisiae the sequence is found at variable distances from the transcription

start sites (Sentenac & Hall, 1982).

A number of yeast genes that encode abundant mRNAs, seem to have their transcription start sites at or near the sequence CAAG and a pyrimidine rich block is usually found upstream of the CAAG sequence. This sequence seems to be involved in specifying trancriptional initiation or capping of mRNAs (McKnight & Kingsbury, 1982). A GAAG sequence is found at the start of transcription of the glucoamylase gene of Aspergillus niger (Boel et al., 1984) and the TRPC gene of A. nidulans (Mullaney et al., 1985) but not in any of the N. crassa QA genes (Alton et al., 1982; Rutledge, 1984).

Two such CAAG sequences appear in the promoter region of the QUTE gene at positions 239 and 252. However, since site(s) determined, the initiation is yet to be speculation on the importance of these sequences has to be treated with caution. Both sequences are very near the "TATA" box, which putative to devalue their seems potential importance. However, the sequence just upstream from the first CAAG sequence, starting at position 199, is 73% T/C rich (30 of 41 nucleotides).

More importantly however, are two sequences at around positions 168 and 190. The sequence centered at nucleotide 168 contains the "CAAT" box (Breathnach & Chambon, 1981). sequence has been recognized This in many higher eukaryotes has being important for the binding of the RNA Polymerase II to the DNA, and is usually located 70 to 80 start of bp upstream from the transcription. The Aspergillus QUTE gene strikingly shows almost complete sequence homology to the canonical sequence postulated for mammalian genes (Benoist et al., 1980):

QUTE: GGGCAATCT Mammalian genes: GGPyCAATCT

Downstream from this "CAAT" box, there is a sequence centered at position 190, which shows a perfect dyad of symmetry. Such sequences, are generally recognized in both eukaryotes and prokaryotes, as candidate sequences for the binding of proteins to DNA. The possible rôle of this sequence in the regulation of expression of the *QUTE* gene is discussed below.

The 3' non-coding flanking sequences that are transcribed by RNA Polymerase II in eukaryotes, have been less well characterized than the 5' non-coding regions. A sequence commonly found the termination near of transcription of yeast genes TATGT <...> TTT (Zaret & Sherman, 1982), is also found in the 3' non-coding region of the QUTE gene (Figure 14). Another sequence, AATAAA followed by several T/G rich blocks of sequence, is typically found near the sites of polyadenylation in eukaryotic genes (Proudfoot & Brownlee, 1976; Birnstiel et al., 1985) finds a near consensus sequence around position 945 in the QUTE gene. However, until the end of the QUTE aene mRNA transcripts are determined. these interpretations are purely hypothetical.

4. Discussion

The DNA sequence of the QUTE gene coding for the catabolic dehydroquinase from A. nidulans has been determined and analysed. DNA sequence homology with the equivalent gene from N. crassa, QA2, has been found as

expected from the DNA hybridization experiments described in Chapter 5. However, the two genes exhibit evolutionary rearrangements in their internal structure. Hence, the QA2 gene possesses 75 extra nucleotides at approximately the middle of the gene, whereas the Aspergillus QUTE gene is 21 bp longer at the 3' end. The two regions that show good DNA sequence homology probably include the sequences encoding the amino acids in the catalytic sites of the dehydroquinase enzyme, and which therefore have been conserved. However, the discovery that the two genes code for structurally different polypeptides, may provide an explanation for why the N. crassa QA2 gene does not complement the A. nidulans qutE208 deficiency (Hayley Whittington, unpublished results), which however is efficiently transformed by the QUTE gene (Chapter 5). The enzyme is multimeric in both organisms (Hawkins et al., 1982; Chapter 1) consisting of an aggregate of 10-12 monomers of approximately 20,000 molecular weight. The lack of complementation of the *qut*E208 lesion by the Neurospora gene may be due to inactivation of a functional polymeric protein, due to competition from defective, and structurally heterologous, Aspergillus polypeptides. This negative result is in contrast with other genes in filamentous fungi, in which functionally homologous genes to sufficiently similar in structure are allow heterologous expression. For example, the N. crassa PYR4 gene complements an A. nidulans pyrG mutation (Balance et 1983) and conversely the A. nidulans ARGB gene al.. complements a N. crassa arg-12 mutation (Berse et al., 1983).

The N. crassa QA2 gene 5' non-coding flanking

sequence, contains a sequence, 11 bp upstream of the initiation of translation codon (ATG) which shows homology to the bacterial canonical sequence for the 3' end of the 16S ribosomal RNA (Alton *et al.*, 1982). This sequence is absent from the *QUTE* promoter region, and this may explain why by contrast, the *Neurospora QA2* gene is more highly expressed in *E. coli* (Chapter 5), possibly due to a proper alignment of the *QA2* transcript on the *E. coli* ribosomes.

The sequence CCACC, which is suggested (Sargan *et al.*, 1982) to function as ribosome binding site for eukaryotes, is absent from the *QUTE* gene, in common with the situation found with the *QA* genes (Rutledge, 1984).

The QUTE promoter region however, is more typically eukaryotic than in the QA genes. The Neurospora genes lack the consensus sequences usually described as most of important regulatory rôles in orientating playing transcription, namely the "TATA" and "CAAT" boxes (Alton et al., 1982; Rutledge, 1984). By contrast, other genes from filamentous ascomycetes (N. crassa NADP-specific ADP/ATP carrier protein: Arends & Sebald, 1984; A. niger glucoamylase: Boel et al., 1984; A. nidulans SPO C1-C gene: Mullaney et al., 1985) have one or both of these sequences. None of the promoter regions of these genes has been subjected to functional analysis, but since these promoter motifs are also found in yeast and in the higher eukaryotes, one assumes that they also play a vital rôle in the filamentous fungi.

The most important feature of the analysis of the 5' control region of the *QUTE* gene for the theme of this thesis however, was the discovery of a dyad of symmetry, approximately 120 nucleotides 5' to the start of

translation. Such sequences are usually interpreted as possible sites in the DNA that are recognized by proteins binding to DNA.

Studies of the sensitivity of the N. crassa QA genes to digestion in vitro by DNase I (Giles et al., 1985), reveal that under inducing conditions, hypersensitive sites are found in the promoter regions of these genes, and that these sites fall within or very near to dyads of symmetry which also exhibit considerable sequence homology to one another. Furthermore, if the same studies are carried out in $qa1^F$ mutants (activator deficient), these nuclease sites are no longer sensitive to DNase I activity. Giles and his co-workers conclude that these sequences were recognized by the activator protein, coded by the $QA1^{F}$ gene, which caused a relaxation of the chromatin, normally allowing RNA polymerase to attach to the coding DNA strand, and thus conferring sensitivity to attack by DNase I.

Giniger et al. (1985) studying the rôle of the GAL4 activator protein in regulating expression of the GAL1 and structural genes, showed that this regulatory GAL10 protein binds to four sites in the upstream sequence to activate transcription of the two genes. The sequence of these sites each display 2-fold rotational symmetry. synthetic However when а single near-consensus oligonucleotide was installed in front of the CYC1 gene, brought the CYC1 gene under galactose-dependent it transcription.

The dyad of symmetry found 120 bp upstream from the translation start codon (ATG), shows considerable homology not only to the N. crassa QA genes consensus sequence, but

also to the GAL gene consensus sequence in S. cerevisiae (Figure 20). Surprisingly, the degree of homology is the same betwen the QUTE sequence and the N. crassa sequence, and with the GAL sequences. Furthermore, the conserved nucleotides appear to be the same in the three organisms. The significance of these evolutionary conserved nucleotides is difficult to assess. Could it be that DNA binding activator proteins recognize similar DNA sequences? The observation that the $QA1^F$ gene of N. crassa hybridizes to several different sequences in genomic DNA from Aspergillus may provide argument in this an direction. If this suggestion is correct, then a given activator protein would require additional interaction to provide specificity for particular genes would require the interaction of an additional co-activator. In the QUT system of A. nidulans, this funtion could possibly be played by the inducer quinic acid interacting with the QUTD activator protein or the QUTA protein, which would be responsible for guiding the activator protein, coded by the QUTD gene, to the promoter regions of the QUT structural genes.

Inspection of the 5' non-coding region of the QUTE gene has only revealed one such dyad of symmetry. In N. crassa the QA genes can contain one or more such sequences (Giles et al., 1985). The yeast GAL1 and GAL10 genes are closely linked, and are transcribed divergently sharing a common 5' non-coding regulatory sequence. Four very tightly linked sequences showing dyads of symmetry are found in this region (Giniger et al., 1985). When each of these sequences is placed singly upstream of the GAL1 gene, levels of transcription are reduced several fold.

However, if a consensus sequence oligonucleotide is substituted, transcription regains the wild-type level. It was thus concluded that the presence of these separate sequences was required as a mechanism for of regulation, to permit titration of transcription when levels of activator protein become depleted. In the light of these reports, it is possible that the other QUT structural genes may also contain multiple putative sites for binding of the QUTD activator protein. This will be assessed by determining the DNA sequence of their 5' control regions, a project which was started during the work for this thesis, and is now being completed by Dr. A. Hawkins in Newcastle.

Some 22 bp upstream from the centre of the rotational symmetry of the dyad, one finds a "CAAT" box exhibiting in its flanking nucleotides remarkably good homology with the canonical sequence for higher eukaryotes (Benoist et al., 1980). Such sequences are commonly recognized as being involved in the attachment of RNA polymerase II to the DNA. If this is the rôle of this sequence in the upstream control region of the QUTE gene, then one observes that it is strategically located, just prior to the putative binding site for the QUTD activator protein. Hence, in the absence of the activator protein, the dyad would form a "hairpin loop" thus preventing the RNA Polymerase II from proceeding along the DNA to start transcription. However in the presence of the activator, the tertiary structure of the DNA chromatin at this locus would be relaxed, allowing the movement of the RNA polymerase.

Interestingly, the 5' control regions of the QUTE and QA2 genes do not show evolutionary conservation. Whether

this divergence indicates major differences in the regulation of transcription, specific to either each of the microorganisms in general or the quinic acid utilization cluster in particular, is not known. FIGURE 13 Strategy for sequencing the QUTE gene of A. nidulans.

The restriction map of pEH1, which contains the 6.5 Kb HindIII fragment of $\lambda Q1$, is shown. Below this map, (a) shows M13 for the fragments subcloned into phage directional sequencing and (b) shows the length of sequence determined in fragment E and adjacent fragment B and Eco. The sites of the specific internal primers used indicated (*). The extent and direction of DNA are sequence determined from the randomly generated fragments of fragment E are shown (c) and the numbers identify the particular sub-clones used.

Determination of the second strand was done by the use of internal specific primers in the sequencing reactions using clone 43 as DNA template (d).

Restriction enzymes are:

- H : HindIII
- B : BamHI
- E : EcoRI
- Bg : BglII
- X : Xbal
- . ---



FIGURE 14 DNA sequence of the QUTE gene of A. nidulans including the 5' and 3' non-coding, flanking sequences.

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The amino acid residues indicated by underlining are identical with those in *N. crassa*. Nucleotides shown in the box (around position 520) indicate position where the additional 75 nucleotides of the QA2 gene are to be found.

FIGURE 14

<u>FIGURE 15</u> DNA sequence comparision between the coding sequences of the QUTE gene of A. nidulans and the QA2 gene of H. crassa.

Computer program was set to record a minimal match of 9 homologous nucleotides in a window of 12 (White *et al.*, 1984).



<u>FIGURE 16</u> Alignment of the coding sequences of the QUTE gene of A. nidulans and the QA2 gene of **H**. crassa.

The sequences are aligned in a way to maximize the homology. Stars (*) indicate identical bases and dashed lines (---), regions of the sequence non-existing from the two equivalent genes

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FIGURE 16

	10	20	30	40	50	60
QUTE	ATGG ***	AAAAATCAAT **	CCTCCTCATC	AATGGCCCGA	ACCTCAACCT	CTTGGGCACC
Q A 2	ATGGCGTCCC	CCCGTCACAT	TCTCCTCATC	AATGGCCCCA	ATCTCAACCT	CCTCGGCACC
	10	20	30	40	50	60
QUTE	70	80	90	100	110	120
	CGCGAACCGC	ACATCTACGG	CTCAACCACG	CTCTCCGACG	TCGAAGAATC	CTCCAAAGGT
	** ** ** *	* *	* * **	*** ***	* ** ** *	**** * *
QA2	CGGGAGCCCC	AATCTACGGC	TCAATCAACC	CTCCATGACA	TTGAGCAAGC	CTCCCAGACT
	70	80	90	100	110	120
QUTE	130 CACGCAGCTT * ** * *	140 CGCTCGGCGC **** **	150 CTCCCTGCAA ** *	160 ACATTTCAGT ** ** ****		180 AGGTGCCATT *** *****
QA2	CTGGCGTCCT	CGCTAGGTCT	TCGTCTTACA	ACCTTCCAGT	CCAACCATGA	AGGAGCCATC
	130	140	150	160	170	180
QUTE	190 GTTGACCGAA * ***** *	200 TCCATGCCGC *****	210 TCGCGGG **	220	230	240
QA2	ATCGACCGTA	TCCATCAAGC	AGCGGGGATTC	GTCCCGTCTC	CACCGTCACC	GTCGCCGTCA
	190	200	210	220	230	240
QUTE	250	260	270	280	290 AACACCGA **	300 CGCGATCATC ** *****
QA2	AGTGCCGCAA	CCACGACGGA	GGCAGGATTG	GGTCCCGGAG	ACAAAGTGTC	GGCCATCATC
	250	260	270	280	290	300
QUTE	310 ATCAACCCCG	320 GTGCATATAC * ** *****	330 ACACACCTCT *****	340 GTCGCTATTC * * ** *	350 GGGATGCCCT * ** ** **	360 GTTAGGAGTT * **
QA2	ATTAACCCCG	GCGCTTATAC	GCACACGAGT	ATAGGCATCC	GCGACGCGCT	TCTGGGGACA
	310	320	330	340	350	360
QUTE	370 GAGATTCCCT ** **** *	380 TCATCGAACT * **** *	390 CCATGTGAGC *****	400 AATGTCCATG ***** ****	410 CACGAGAGCC * *****	420 GTTCAGACAT
QA2	GGAATTCCGT	TTGTCGAGGT	TCATGTGTCG	AATGTGCATG	CGCGAGAGGC	GTTCAGACAT
	370	380	390	400	410	420
QUTE	430	440	450	460	470	480
	CACAGTTACT	TTAGCGACAA	AGCGTCAGGC	ATCATTGTGG	GACTGGGTGT	GTATGGGTAC
	** ******	* ** *****	*** *	***** *	* ** *	** *****
QA2	CATAGTTACT	TGAGTGACAA	GGCGGTGGCA	GTCATTTGCG	GTTTGCGGCC	GTTTGGGTAT
	430	440	450	460	470	480
QUTE	490 AAGGTCGCAG * * **	500 TGGAGCATGT **** * *	510 TGCGTTGAAC	520 TTCAAGCCTC	530 TGGAGAAAAA	540 GGCTGCTCTT
QA2	AGTGCTGCGC 490	TGGACTTTCT 500	TGGGAGACAC 510	ATGAAGTTTT 520	GA530	540
QUTE	550 TAA					

QUTE TAA

---QA2

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<u>FIGURE 17</u> Schematic representation of the amino acid sequence organization of the QUTE gene of A. nidulans and the QA2 gene of H. crassa.

Arrows indicate extremities of homologous sequence and numbers amino acid residues.



FIGURE 18 Codon usage in the QUTE gene of A. nidulans.

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FIGURE 18

Amino acid	Codon	Frequency	Amino acid	Codon	Frequency
PHE	ບບບ ບບດ	2/5 (40%) 3/5 (60%)	ALA	GCU GCC	5/16 (31%) 4/16 (25%)
LEU	UUA UUG	1/15 (7%) 2/15 (13%)		GCG	3/16 (19%)
	CUU CUC CUA	1/15 (7%) 7/15 (47%) - (0%)	HIS	CAU CAC	6/10 (60%) 4/10 (40%)
	CUG	4/15 (27%)	GLN	CAA CAG	1/2 (50%) 1/2 (50%)
ILE	AUU AUC AUA	4/13 (31%) 9/13 (69%) - (0%)	ASN	AAU AAC	2/8 (25%) 6/8 (75%)
MET	AUG	1/1 (100%)	LYS	AAA AAG	4/7 (57%) 3/7 (43%)
VAL	GUU GUC GUA GUG	3/9 (33%) 2/9 (22%) - (0%) 4/9 (45%)	ASP	GAU GAC	1/4 (25%) 3/4 (75%)
TYR	UAU UAC	2/5 (40%) 3/5 (60%)	GLU	GAA GAG	6/11 (55%) 5/11 (45%)
SER	UCU	1/13 (8%)	CYS	UGU UGC	- (0%) - (0%)
	UCA UCG	4/13 (31%) 1/13 (8%)	TRP	UGG	- (0%)
	AGU AGC	1/13 (8%) 2/13 (14%)	ARG	CGU CGC CGA	- (0%) 2/6 (33%) 2/6 (33%)
PRO	CCU CCC CCA CCG	1/6 (17%) 2/6 (33%) - (0%) 3/6 (50%)		CGG AGA AGG	1/6 (17%) 1/6 (17%) - (0%)
THR	ACU ACC ACA ACG	- (0%) 4/7 (57%) 2/7 (29%) 1/7 (14%)	GLY	GGU GGC GGA GGG	4/13 (31%) 5/13 (38%) 2/13 (15%) 2/13 (16%)

FIGURE 19 Analysis of the flanking sequences surrounding the first methionine (ATG) in the coding sequences of a selection of genes from filamentous fungi.

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FIGURE 19

Α.	nidu	lans	G	UTE:	CACA	ATG	GAA	
				ADH:	AAGG	ATG	TCT	
				PGK:	AACA	ATG	TCT	
			ſ	RPC:	GATC	ATG	GCA	
Α.	awam	ori	glucoamy	lase:	AGCA	ATG	TCG	
Ν.	cras	sa		QA2:	CACA	ATG	GCG	
				QA3:	CACC	ATG	TCG	
				QA4:	CGCC	ATG	CCG	
			ATP,	ADP:	CACA	ATG	GCG	
			proteoli	pid:	AAAA	ATG	GCC	
				AM:	CAAA	ATG	TCT	
			histone	e H3:	CACA	ATG	GCC	
			**	H4:	CAAA	ATG	ACT	
			7	RP1:	CACA	ATG	TCG	
							m	
CON	ISENS	US SEQUEN	CE	:	CACA	ATG	CG	
							0	
KO	ZAC S	EQUENCE		:	NANN	ATG	GNN	
REI	FEREN	ICES:		: .	Tai	4 .	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
PGF	(: JO	onn Clemen	ts, PND TI	nesis, -	, Leic	ceste	er University	
AUI	7: MC	Knight et	al., 198:		(in	prepa	ration)	
<i>ראו</i>		ullaney e	t al., 190	22 100/	A			
GIU		iylase: Bo	el et al.,	, 190'	1			
UA2	2: AI	ton et al	1002					
QA.): AL	LOM et al	., 1302					
3 111	ם העות מתגות	lilleuge, i	504 S Cobald	109	4			
Dre	-+ool	inid. Vie	brock of	, 190.	1082			
AM	v_{in}	naird & E	incham 1	37.1	1902			
Uid	tone		dt of al	198'	2			
Hid	stone	HA: Woul	dt et al.	198	ך ב			
TP		chechtman	& Vanofel	γ 150. Ιεντ 10	- 983			
1 1 1	1. 0		G IGHOLDI	-11 1.				
Koz	zac	sequence :K	ozac,	1980				
		-						

FIGURE 20 Nucleotide conservation (*) of sequences showing a dyad of symmetry in the *GAL* system of *S. cerevisiae*, the *QUTE* gene of *A. nidulans* and the *QA* gene cluster of \mathbf{W} . crassa.

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References:

QA : Giles *et al.*, 1985 *GAL* : Giniger *et al.*, 1985

FIGURE 20

Consensus	S. (cere	evisi	ae	:	CGGAC **	GAC- **	AGTCC **	TCCG **
Synthetic		T			:	CGGAA	GACT	-CTCC * *	TCCG **
			C	UTE	:	-GGCA **	GAGC *	GTTCT	GCC- **
				QA2	:	-GGG1 **	CAATC	GCTTA	TCC **
Conser	nsus	Ν.	cras	sa	:	-GGAI	'AA	TTA	TCC-

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CHAPTER 8 . DISCUSSION

The work presented in this thesis has been concerned with the analysis of the regulation of expression of the QUT gene cluster, which mediates the first three steps in the catabolism of quinic acid in the filamentous fungus Aspergillus nidulans.

Analysis of quinic acid non-utilizing (qut) mutants has confirmed that all three enzyme structural genes are tightly linked. A mutant strain (qutE208) deficient for catabolic dehydroquinase has been isolated, and subsequent recombination analysis, established that the QUTE gene is also part of the cluster. Furthermore, the gene cluster has now been mapped about 12.5 map units, equidistant between the ORNB and FWA genes, confirming its location on chromosome VIII.

Analysis of three pleiotropic, non-inducible qut mutants, has shown on the basis of growth tests of heterozygous diploid strains and enzyme assays that at least two genes, called QUTA and QUTD, regulate expression of the structural genes. One mutant, qutD8 is fully recessive to wild-type and does not exhibit gene dosage effects upon enzyme induction when combined in a number of different heterozygous diploid strains containing the wild-type QUTD allele. It is therefore deduced that the product coded by the QUTD gene is not rate-limiting in enzyme induction and is abundantly synthesized. It is concluded that qutD8 is a loss-mutation affecting a function essential for enzyme induction, and that the QUTD

product is an activator protein necessary for expression of the QUT enzyme structural genes.

In contrast, the second class of non-inducible mutants, qutA identify a gene coding for a regulatory protein that has a more complex function in enzyme induction. One mutant allele, gutA4 is partially dominant to wild-type and a second mutant qut214, most probably also a qutA mutation, is almost fully dominant. The qutA4 mutation exhibits gene dosage effects observed as reduced enzyme induction in heterozygous diploid strains and is epistatic to the expression of the QUTD wild-type allele. One possibility is that the qutA4 mutation codes for an altered but functionally active protein insensitive to and thus acting quinic acid as an irreversible this case, the QUTA superrepressor. In gene can be interpreted to code for a negatively acting repressor protein, which in the absence of the inducer quinic acid binds to the 5' control region of the QUTD gene and possibly also to the promoter regions of the three enzyme structural genes, to prevent their expression. It is predicted that the QUTA is transcribed gene constitutively.

An alternative interpretation is that qutA4 and qut214 are deficient in a function that is also necessary for enzyme induction. In this case, the QUTA gene can be interpreted to code for a complex regulatory protein which upon binding quinic acid undergoes conformational change such that it becomes a co-activator necessary to the function of the QUTD activator protein. The interaction between the QUTA protein-quinic acid complex and the QUTD activator protein is assumed to occur on the promoter

regions of the QUT enzyme structural genes. Thus, the qutA4 and qut214 mutant phenotype, could be interpreted as identifying mutant alleles deficient in binding quinic acid or binding to the QUTD activator protein or both functions. Hence, the gene dosage effects observed with the qutA4 heterozygous diploids may be due to the QUTA gene product being rate-limiting for induction of the three structural gene enzymes. In this situation, the QUTD activator protein, which is not rate-limiting, provides the coarse control of enzyme synthesis, whereas the QUTA protein determines the fine control modulating expression of the QUT enzyme structural genes.

Several observations now seem to indicate that the QUTA gene may in fact function as a co-activator for the function of the QUTD protein. The ga1^S mutant alleles of N. crassa (thought to code for superrepressor proteins that are insensitive to quinic acid) readily yield revertants selected by growth on quinic acid many of which are constitutive for enzyme formation. These constitutive strains prove to be double mutants, containing a new mutation in addition to the original $qa1^{S}$ mutation (Valone et al., 1971; Partridge et al., 1972). Genetic analysis, confirmed by DNA sequencing, of qa1^C constitutive mutants of N. crassa, have revealed that in contrast to the original qa1^S mutations, the new mutations conferring this phenotype map in a discrete region within the 5' coding region of the QA1^S gene thus inactivating the NH2terminal end, and presumed DNA binding domain of the QA1^S repressor protein (Giles et al., 1985). These observations are consistent with the QA1^S gene coding for a repressor protein. In contrast, although both the gutA4 and gut214

strains yield revertants for growth on quinic acid, neither has generated a constitutive strain amongst \approx 500 revertants tested (Dr S. Grant, personal communication). This observation suggests that the QUTA gene product is indispensable and thus required for the expression of the three QUT enzyme structural genes.

Hybridization of the two N. crassa control genes, QA1^S (using the 4.9 Kb EcoRI fragment which contains the whole gene) and QA1^F (using the 2.1 Kb BamHI-XbaI fragment from within the 5' coding sequence), to A. nidulans genomic DNA identifies in both cases homology with several different regions of the Aspergillus genome. It is possible that these signals reflect sequences coding for DNA binding proteins. In the case of the N. crassa activator gene, QA1^F, the sequence conservation found with the dyads of symmetry in the QUTE gene in Aspergillus (Chapter 7), the QA genes in Neurospora (Giles et al., 1985) and the GAL genes in Saccharomyces (Giniger et al., 1985), supports this idea. In the case of the qut system of A. nidulans, the QUTD activator protein would thus require the QUTA co-activator to confer specificity for the promoter regions of the QUT structural genes. This could be the function of the QUTA protein which, either directs the QUTD activator protein to specific QUT enzyme structural gene promoters or stabilizes their interaction at these promoters

The different interpretations of the model are amenable to test by analysis of mRNA synthesis in haploid and heterozygous diploid strains. If the QUTA product functions as a repressor protein, the prediction is that the QUTA gene would be transcribed constitutively and the

QUTD gene inducible. In the case of the QA system of Neurospora, transcription of the $QA1^F$ (activator) gene is not detected in $qa1^S$ (repressor) mutants (Patel *et al.*, 1981). However, in the galactose utilization (GAL) system of *S. cerevisiae* regulation by the GAL80 repressor protein of the GAL4 activator protein is at the post-translational level (Matsumoto *et al.*, 1981; Laughon & Gestland, 1982). If on the other hand, the QUTA product operates solely as a co-activator, then one may expect the QUTA gene.

The discovery that in *Aspergillus* at least two genes regulate the expression of the *QUT* structural genes, falls within the general pattern of genetic regulation found in other fungal systems. In most of the systems studied, several genes appear to be required for the efficient control of expression, where a network of regulatory events is observed (Chapter 1).

Analysis of the 5' and 3' non-coding regions flanking the QUTE gene reveals the presence of the majority of the sequence motifs considered to play an important rôle in directing RNA polymerase II onto the DNA and in modulating the rate of mRNA synthesis in eukaryotes in general and Chapter 7). Thus, one finds (Figure 21; at approximately 150 bp upstream of the start of translation codon (ATG), a CAAT box (Benoist et al., 1980), which is thought to be important for the binding of the RNA polymerase to the DNA. A sequence showing a near perfect dyad of symmetry is found 11 bp downstream of this CAAT this sequence exhibits considerable nucleotide box:

conservation with sequences postulated to be important for binding of certain activator proteins in fungi. A TATA box is found some 82 bp upstream of the first ATG codon; this sequence is suggested to be important in regulating the rate of RNA synthesis by RNA polymerase II in yeast and higher eukaryotes (McKnight & Kingsbury, 1982). Good homology of the nucleotides flanking the first methionine coding sequence is found with the proposed in the consensus sequence for eukaryotes (Kozac, 1981); this sequence is said to confer recognition by the ribosomes of which ATG is to initiate translation on mRNA. As for the 3' non-coding, flanking region, one finds the sequence TAGT<...>TTT, which is commonly found near the termination of transcription of yeast genes (Zater & Sherman, 1982) and 16 bp in the 3' direction the sequence AAATGAA followed by T/G rich blocks, showing near perfect agreement with the consensus sequence typically found near the sites of polyadenylation in eukaryotic genes (Proudfoot & Brownlee, 1976; Birnstiel et al., 1985)). Hence, the QUT system of A. nidulans appears to be a good model for the analysis of the mechanisms operating in the control of transcription in eukaryotes, namely protein interaction on the DNA and the control signals in the promoter sequences.

Several goals may be identified for the future development of the project. It is necessary to clone the QUTA gene in addition to the QUTD gene. In the case of the QUTD gene, it is necessary to subclone the λ Q1 DNA sequence which hybridizes with the QA1^F gene of N. crassa (Figure 12) and test for transformation of qutD mutant

strains of Aspergillus to prove functional expression and verify the cloning of the entire gene. Identification of the QUTA gene requires the use of the terminal end fragments from the cloned DNA as probes to isolate sequences flanking the cloned genes, and verification of the QUTA gene will again require transformation of qutA mutants of Aspergillus, to test the for functional expression of the putative genes. As the gutA mutants are expected to be partially dominant over the wild-type in heterozygous diploids, efficient expression of the wild-type function in the transformed strains can be somewhat reduced. However, transformation experiments resulting in multiple insertions of the wild-type gene should over come this problem by over production of the QUTA protein.

The long term goal is the use of the proteins encoded by the *QUTA* and *QUTD* regulatory genes, for *in vitro* studies of how and where the proteins interact with one another and with the DNA. Such experiments should elucidate the importance of sequences such as the dyad of symmetry found in the 5' control region of the *QUTE* gene (Figure 21), in the regulation of the expression of the genes controlling the catabolism of quinic acid in *A. nidulans*.

FIGURE 21 Physical organization of the quinic acid utilization (qut) gene cluster of A. nidulans.

Broken blocks indicate the boundaries of genes which are not yet determined precisely.

Restriction enzymes used were as follows:

- H : HindIII
- B : BamHI
- E : EcoRI
- Bl : BglII
- X : Xbal



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GENETIC AND MOLECULAR ANALYSIS OF THE QUINIC ACID

UTILIZATION (QUT) GENE CLUSTER IN ASPERGILLUS WIDULAWS

by

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ABSTRACT

The first three steps in the utilization of quinic acid in Aspergillus nidulans are catalyzed by highly inducible enzymes encoded by a gene cluster containing three enzyme structural genes and two trans-acting regulatory genes. The gene cluster has been mapped meiotically between the ORNB and FWA genes in linkage group VIII.

The regulatory gene QUTD codes for an activator protein, whose function seems to depend upon interaction with the product of the QUTA gene. The QUTA protein thus has a complex rôle, acting both in repression of gene expression in the absence of the inducer quinic acid and in mediating the rôle of the QUTD activator protein, upon induction.

To test models for the regulation of expression of the QUT enzyme structural genes, the gene cluster has been physically isolated from an A. nidulans genomic DNA library in an λ phage replacement vector, using DNA fragments from the equivalent genes in Neurospora crassa as heterologous hybridization probes. An unique 13.2 Kb DNA sequence from A. nidulans was thus isolated and the three structural genes mapped within a 3.5 Kb BamHI fragment. An adjacent region of the cloned DNA shows hybridization to the N. crassa activator gene, QA1^F, thus possibly identifying the QUTD gene. No hybridization could be detected with the N. crassa repressor gene, QA1^S, which was initially suggested to be equivalent to the QUTA gene of A. nidulans. Evidence against the hypothesis that the QUTA gene encodes a protein with only properties of a repressor is discussed.

The QUTE gene which codes for dehydroquinase has been sequenced. Major rearrangements in the coding sequence are found in comparison with the equivalent gene of *Neurospora*. Analysis of the promoter region of QUTE reveals that it contains a CAAT sequence exhibiting perfect homology with the consensus sequence for eukaryotes, and in close proximity 5' to a sequence showing a dyad of symmetry. The dyad exhibits homology to sequences in other fungal genes identified as binding activator proteins. The importance of these two promoter elements in the control of the expression of the QUTE gene is discussed.