

The 17-Gene Ethanolamine (*eut*) Operon of *Salmonella typhimurium* Encodes Five Homologues of Carboxysome Shell Proteins

ERIC KOFOID, CHAD RAPPLEYE,† IGOR STOJILJKOVIC,‡ AND JOHN ROTH*

Department of Biology, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112

Received 7 April 1999/Accepted 18 June 1999

The *eut* operon of *Salmonella typhimurium* encodes proteins involved in the cobalamin-dependent degradation of ethanolamine. Previous genetic analysis revealed six *eut* genes that are needed for aerobic use of ethanolamine; one (*eutR*), encodes a positive regulator which mediates induction of the operon by vitamin B₁₂ plus ethanolamine. The DNA sequence of the *eut* operon included 17 genes, suggesting a more complex pathway than that revealed genetically. We have correlated an open reading frame in the sequence with each of the previously identified genes. Nonpolar insertion and deletion mutations made with the Tn10-derived transposable element T-POP showed that at least 10 of the 11 previously undetected *eut* genes have no Eut phenotype under the conditions tested. Of the dispensable *eut* genes, five encode apparent homologues of proteins that serve (in other organisms) as shell proteins of the carboxysome. This bacterial organelle, found in photosynthetic and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria, may contribute to CO₂ fixation by concentrating CO₂ and excluding oxygen. The presence of these homologues in the *eut* operon of *Salmonella* suggests that CO₂ fixation may be a feature of ethanolamine catabolism in *Salmonella*.

Under aerobic conditions, *Salmonella typhimurium* can use ethanolamine as a sole source of carbon, nitrogen, and energy (44, 47). However, this growth depends on exogenous cobalamin, a required cofactor that *Salmonella* cannot synthesize in the presence of oxygen. Under anaerobic conditions, vitamin B₁₂ is made, but *Salmonella* cannot use ethanolamine as a carbon or energy source, even with the alternative electron acceptor nitrate or fumarate. Recently this paradox has been resolved by the finding that the anaerobic electron acceptor tetrathionate allows *Salmonella* to use endogenous B₁₂ to support anaerobic degradation of ethanolamine as a sole source of nitrogen, carbon, and energy (12). Anaerobic use of ethanolamine may be important to *Salmonella*, since this carbon source is a constituent of an abundant class of lipids which would be provided to anaerobic gut inhabitants as part of the host's dietary intake.

The initial genetic analysis of the *eut* operon was done with mutants defective in aerobic degradation of ethanolamine on medium including cobalamin. A large set of mutations were sorted into six complementation groups (*eutABCDEF*) and ordered by deletion mapping (44, 45). More recent genetic tests have identified a seventh complementation group, *eutT* (54, 67).

The standard reactions in ethanolamine utilization are diagrammed in Fig. 1, with proposed roles for several Eut proteins. One previously identified gene, *eutR*, encodes a positive regulatory protein which mediates induction of the operon by ethanolamine plus cobalamin (46, 53). Two genes (*eutBC*) encode subunits of the cobalamin-dependent ethanolamine ammonia lyase (27, 45), which converts ethanolamine to acetal-

dehyde and ammonia (13, 50). The *eutE* gene encodes the second enzyme in the pathway, acetaldehyde dehydrogenase, which forms acetyl-coenzyme A (CoA) (45). As expected, bacteria with mutations in this gene can use ethanolamine as a source of nitrogen but not carbon [a Eut(N⁺ C⁻) phenotype]. The EutT enzyme appears to be an adenosyl transferase, converting CNB₁₂ to AdoB₁₂, and the EutA protein appears to protect the lyase (EutBC) from inhibition by CNB₁₂ (54). We propose below that the *eutG* gene encodes an alcohol dehydrogenase. No function has been assigned to the *eutD* gene, whose mutants have a Eut(N⁺ C⁻) phenotype.

We report here the complete DNA sequence of the *eut* operon and adjacent regions, including about 7 kb of new sequence and several corrections of previously reported data. Previously sequenced parts of the operon include the *eutB* and *eutC* genes (27) and a nonoverlapping 8-kb fragment (60). Surprisingly, the operon includes 17 open reading frames, suggesting that 11 *eut* genes escaped detection by the initial genetic analysis. Here we correlate the genetic and physical maps of the operon and analyze available information on the function of each of the 17 genes. Using insertions of a new transposon (T-POP) and derived deletion mutations, we provide evidence that at least 10 of the 11 extra genes are not needed for aerobic ethanolamine metabolism. Five of the extra *eut* genes encode homologues of three families of proteins that serve in other prokaryotes as shell proteins of the carboxysome, an organelle which stimulates CO₂ fixation and has been suggested to concentrate CO₂ (3, 25, 29, 57). We propose that a similar organelle forms in *Salmonella* and supports catabolism of ethanolamine by a route that involves CO₂ fixation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains. All strains used in this study are derivatives of *S. typhimurium*; in view of the large number of strains used, strain numbers are listed only in data tables and in the text. Isolation of all *zfa* insertions (near the *eut* operon) and all *eut* mutations with allele numbers below 205 was described previously (44–46). Transposon Tn10dTc is a transposition-defective derivative of transposon Tn10 (68). The T-POP transposon, derived from Tn10dTc, directs tetracycline-inducible promoters into genes adjacent to its insertion site (42).

* Corresponding author. Mailing address: Department of Biology, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT 84112. Phone: (801) 581-6517. Fax: (801) 585-6207. E-mail: Roth@bioscience.utah.edu.

† Present address: Department of Biology, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093.

‡ Present address: Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Emory University, Atlanta, GA 30322.

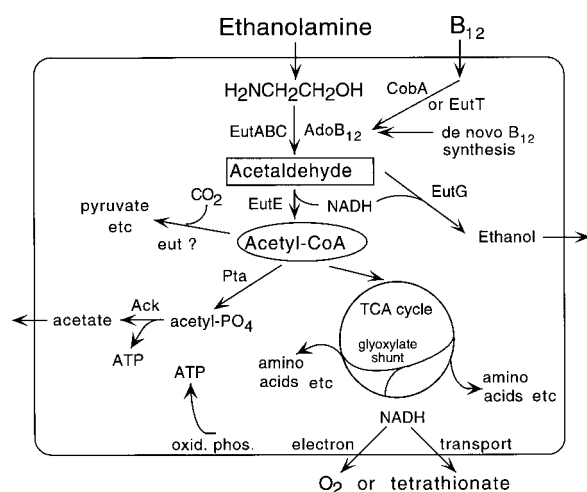


FIG. 1. Suggested pathway for metabolism of ethanolamine. Gene assignments are based on direct assays (EutBCE and CobA), on mutant phenotypes (EutA, EutT, Ack, Pta, and glyoxylate shunt), or on sequence similarity (EutG). The homologues of carboxysome shell proteins suggest the possibility of CO₂ fixation, which has not been demonstrated. In the diagram, the outer boundary is the cell membrane; the role of carboxysomes in this pathway is unknown.

MudA and MudJ elements are transposition-defective derivatives of phage Mu (15, 16). MudP and MudQ (MudP22 elements) have the ends of phage Mu but include a chloramphenicol resistance determinant and a P22 prophage that cannot excise when induced but packages a limited region of the chromosome adjacent to the MudP or -Q insertion site (70). Strains carrying MudP or MudQ insertions near the *eut* operon were induced in order to obtain template DNA for sequencing the *eut* operon.

Media, chemicals, and enzymes. The rich medium was Luria-Bertani broth. The carbon-free minimal medium was NCE (5), and the carbon- and nitrogen-free minimal medium was NCN (43). Ethanolamine hydrochloride (3) at 0.4% was used as a carbon source in the last two media. MacConkey agar base (Difco) was used as a colorimetric indicator of acid production and was prepared according to the manufacturer's specifications.

When used, antibiotics were present at the following concentrations: ampicillin, 50 μ g/ml; tetracycline, 20 μ g/ml (selection) or 2 μ g/ml (T-POP transcription); chlortetracycline, 10 μ g/ml (T-POP transcription); kanamycin, 50 μ g/ml; and chloramphenicol, 20 μ g/ml. Chlortetracycline was activated by autoclaving it with the medium. The chromogenic β -galactosidase substrate X-Gal (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl- β -D-galactoside; Diagnostic Chemicals) was used at a final concentration of 0.01%. Cyanocobalamin (CN-B₁₂; Sigma) was used at a final concentration of 200 nM.

Crystalline bovine serum, Ficoll (type 400), and cresol red were from Sigma. Premixed deoxynucleoside triphosphates were from Pharmacia. Isotopically labelled nucleotides (³²P and ³³P) were from Dupont, New England Nuclear. Hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) was from Aldrich. Taq polymerase was purchased from Promega, TaqStart antibody was from Clontech, and proteinase K was from Gibco-BRL.

Genetic techniques. Transduction crosses were mediated by the high-frequency generalized transducing phage P22 HT105/1 *int*-201 (51). Transductants were freed of phage by streaking them on green indicator plates (17). Cells were cross-streaked with the P22 clear plaque mutant H5 to verify phage sensitivity.

Selecting insertions of T-POP in the *eut* operon. The T-POP derivative of transposon Tn10 directs tetracycline-induced promoters out of each end (42). In this cross, the donor (TT18797) carried the T-POP insertion on an *Escherichia coli* F' plasmid; the lack of homology prevents recombination between the transduced T-POP region and the recipient chromosome. For some crosses, the recipient (TT17428) carried a standard Tn10 transposase (plasmid pZT380); in other cases, the recipient (TT17437) expressed a mutant form of IS10 transposase (plasmid pNK2881) that allows transposition with relaxed target site specificity (4). Selected tetracycline-resistant clones inherited T-POP by transposition into random sites in the chromosome. A large collection (>10,000) of random-insertion clones were pooled to create the T-POP pool.

Transducing phage prepared on the T-POP pool were used to transduce a recipient that carried a *eutR::MudJ* insertion; the *lacZ* gene of this recipient is not expressed, since it lacks the EutR protein required for operon induction. Clones were sought which formed red (Lac⁺) colonies on MacConkey agar-lactose-tetracycline plates (due to the T-POP promoter) and white colonies without tetracycline (when the T-POP promoter is repressed).

Making deletion mutations by using insertions of T-POP. Phenotypically Eut⁻ insertion mutants were subjected to selection for aerobic growth on ethanolamine plus vitamin B₁₂. Some surviving clones carried a deletion that removed the inserted material and extended into adjacent regions of the *eut* operon that are not essential to the Eut⁺ phenotype. Four different in-frame Eut⁺ deletions that lie between the promoter and the *eutR* gene were isolated; each was made from a different parental *eut* insertion.

Preparation of chromosomal DNA. Crude template DNA for rapid PCR mapping was prepared by resuspending a 50- μ l cell pellet of an overnight culture in Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer, holding it at 95°C for 3 min, spinning out cell debris, and using the supernatant directly. These preparations lost template efficiency with repeated freezing and thawing or storage on ice and were unsatisfactory for sequencing.

Chromosomal DNA preparations for sequencing were prepared as suggested by Knut Jahreis (personal communication). A fresh overnight cell culture (1.5 ml) was centrifuged and resuspended in 567 μ l of TE buffer (10 mM Tris, pH 8.3, 1 mM EDTA). Sodium dodecylsulfate (15 μ l of a 20% solution) and proteinase K (3 μ l of a 20-mg/ml solution) were added, and the suspension was incubated for 1 h at 37°C. NaCl (100 μ l of a 5 M solution) was then added with gentle but complete mixing. CTAB was then added (80 μ l of a solution of 41 mg of NaCl and 100 mg of CTAB in 1 ml of H₂O) with gentle mixing. After 10 min at 65°C, the mixture was extracted with 1 volume of CIA (chloroform-isoamyl alcohol [24:1]). The aqueous phase was saved and drawn repeatedly through a 22-gauge syringe needle to fragment the DNA. The preparation was then extracted twice with phenol-CIA (1:1), and the final aqueous phase was extracted with 1 volume of 1-butanol. DNA was precipitated by addition of 1 volume of isopropanol and was recovered by centrifugation. The pellet was washed once with 70% ethanol, placed under vacuum until nearly (but not completely) dry, resuspended in 100 μ l of H₂O, and stored at -20°C.

PCR methods. (i) Standard amplification techniques. All PCRs were done in glass capillaries with an AirCycler thermal cycler (Idaho Technology). The buffers and conditions were as described in protocols provided by the company, with the following modifications: cresol red was used as the indicator dye, and magnesium was used at 1, 2, or 3 mM. Products for sequencing were purified with Wizard PCR purification kits (Promega). The two methods described below were used to amplify unknown sequence adjacent to a single known region.

(ii) Semirandom amplification. At sufficiently low stringency, a primer will often misprime close enough to its correct binding site that amplification of the intervening DNA will occur with a single primer (P1). The most stringent conditions of magnesium and annealing temperature which still allow one or a small number of misprimed bands to form are determined. These bands are excised and used as templates in a reamplification reaction at high stringency, using P1 with a nested primer oriented in the same direction (P2) at a 1:100 molar ratio of P1 to P2. P1 will continue to initiate at the unknown end, but P2 will dominate priming at the known end, leading to amplification of a fragment differing in size from the original product by the distance between the ends of P1 and P2. This difference is diagnostic of a product derived from the known region. The technique generates template which can be sequenced from either end by using P1 or P2.

(iii) Nested amplification. The second method uses one primer in known sequence (K primer) and an ambiguous N primer, which is designed to misprime at nearby sites. The amplified region is between the known K primer and all of the sites at which the N primer acts. This method is sensitive to initial template complexity. It works well on DNA extracted from MudP22 heads or on large PCR products.

The four N primers had the sequence ACTTCTCAACAACTCAGGACGA ACA(N)₁₀XCAGC, where X is replaced by G, A, T, or C, yielding primers NG, NA, NT, and NC. The reamplification primer (P primer) is identical in sequence to the common portion of the initial oligonucleotide preceding the run of 10 ambiguous bases in the N primers.

Four initial primer extensions were done with NX primers at extremely low stringency (annealing temperature of 40°C). Wizard PCR columns were used to remove the primers and most of the large template DNA, which binds irreversibly to the columns. Extension times were less than 1 min, so most products are short enough to be easily eluted.

The extensions were then used as templates in standard amplification reactions containing a known primer and the shorter P primer, which recognizes the outside end of all NX-primed products. Reamplification with a nested known primer can be used to identify correctly anchored fragments. Optimally, amplification with a nested known primer and the P primer yielded a series of products separated by an average of 256 bases. The unknown ends of all products can be sequenced with the P primer.

Sequencing the *eut* operon and identifying insertion sites. Sequencing templates were PCR-amplified genomic regions between genetically mapped Tn10 and Mud insertions or between one such insertion and previously determined *eut* sequence. The approximate positions of insertions were judged by the size of the fragment; the precise position was determined by sequencing the junctions between the element and adjacent chromosomal sequence. To amplify regions resistant to PCR, MudP22-packaged DNA was sequenced directly; this DNA was obtained from phage particles released after inducing one of the MudP or MudQ lysogens (TT14884, TT15254, or TT15632). MudP and MudQ elements are described above.

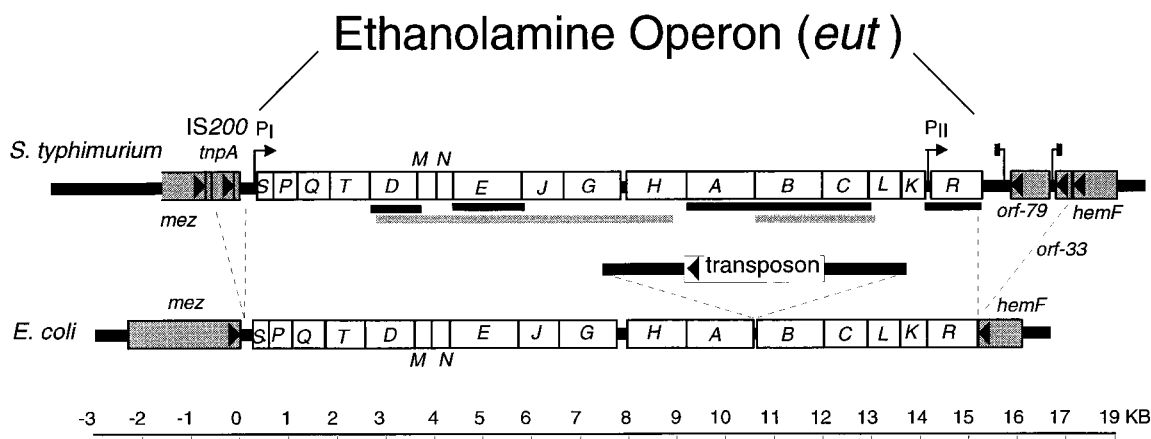


FIG. 2. Diagram of the *eut* operon sequence. The genes underlined in black were discovered by genetic characterization of mutants defective for aerobic use of ethanolamine. The regions underlined in gray were sequenced previously (27, 60). The transposon shown in the *E. coli* sequence was found in one isolate of *E. coli* (8) but not in another (69).

Sequencing was done according to the method of Sanger et al (49) with variations described in manganese reagent Sequenase or ThermoSequenase kits (Amersham Life Science) and in protocols for dye-terminator sequencing (Applied Biosystems). The latter was carried out at the University of Utah Health Sciences DNA Sequencing Facility, headed by Margaret Robertson. Primers were synthesized by Robert Schackmann at the University of Utah Health Sciences DNA/Peptide Synthesis Facility.

Nucleotide sequence accession number. The sequence described here has GenBank accession no. AF093749.

RESULTS

Catabolism of ethanolamine. A current view of ethanolamine catabolism is diagrammed in Fig. 1. This scheme is consistent with previous genetic analyses and includes some of the gene assignments proposed here. Acetyl-CoA is formed by the sequential activity of the vitamin B₁₂-dependent lyase and the dehydrogenase whose genes were identified genetically (*eutBC* and *eutE*). Acetyl-CoA can be converted to acetyl phosphate and excreted as acetate, yielding one molecule of ATP; these reactions (Pta and Ack functions) are required for aerobic growth on ethanolamine (28). Acetyl-CoA can enter the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle and provide both a carbon and an energy source by respiration of oxygen. Under anaerobic conditions, tetrathionate can be used as an alternative electron acceptor, but other alternative acceptors, including nitrate and fumarate, do not support anaerobic growth on ethanolamine (12). The TCA cycle is thought to be essential, since mutants blocked in the glyoxalate shunt fail to use ethanolamine (12). If NADH generated by the TCA cycle exceeds that which can be removed by respiration, acetaldehyde may serve as an electron sink by being reduced to ethanol (Fig. 1). The energy yield from ethanolamine by these pathways might be expected to exceed that provided by acetate, because ethanolamine can enter cells by diffusion and be converted to acetyl-CoA by a dehydratase with no energetic cost. In contrast, acetate must be transported and converted to acetyl-CoA at the cost of at least one ATP.

Since the vitamin B₁₂ cofactor of ethanolamine ammonia lyase is only made anaerobically, we suspect that under natural conditions a major use of ethanolamine may occur in the absence of oxygen. In the absence of any electron acceptor, conversion of ethanolamine to excreted acetate, catalyzed by the Pta and Ack activities, provides a source of energy (ATP) but not of carbon; this use of ethanolamine is detected as a stimulation of anaerobic growth on dilute casamino acids (12).

When tetrathionate is provided as the alternative electron acceptor, ethanolamine can serve anaerobically as a nitrogen, carbon, and energy source, using endogenous vitamin B₁₂. Anaerobic growth on ethanolamine (or propanediol) with tetrathionate as an electron acceptor are the only conditions known to us under which vitamin B₁₂ synthesis is required for growth of wild-type cells. We propose that many of the extra *Eut* enzymes may be involved in CO₂ fixation. This fixation may be required because so much carbon is lost as excreted acetate and ethanol (Fig. 1).

Sequence of the *eut* operon. The *eut* operon sequence was completed and is diagrammed in Fig. 2. The portions determined previously are indicated (27, 60). The operon includes 17 genes. This was surprising, because only six genes were identified genetically (*eutD*, *-E*, *-A*, *-B*, *-C*, and *-R*). Features of the sequence are listed in Table 1, and selected alignments with other genes are given in Table 2. A copy of the transposable element IS200 was found upstream of the *eut* operon. Nucleotides are numbered with respect to the first base to the right of this IS200 copy (Fig. 2). Sequence downstream of *eut* structural genes includes a probable transcription terminator and the nearby *hemF* gene. The sequence of the homologous region from *E. coli* is indicated for comparison and will be described later.

By investigating the function of each of the 11 extra genes, we hoped to gain a better understanding of ethanolamine metabolism. A series of *eut* mutations were characterized to demonstrate the mutant phenotype of each gene and to correlate the genetic and physical maps of the region. The mutant phenotypes explain why so many genes were missed in the initial genetic analysis of aerobic *Eut*⁻ mutants.

Correlating the genetic and physical maps of the *eut* operon. The physical locations of many genetically mapped insertions, deletions, and point mutations were determined from the sizes of PCR fragments or by sequencing. Table 3 lists the positions of insertion mutations. Correlation of these sites with the sites of genetically mapped deletion endpoints validates the genetic map (44) and supports the gene assignments listed below.

Deletion mutations (Table 4) were made from insertion mutations in two ways. Four deletion mutants (*eutPQTD*, *eutDM*, *eutJG*, and *eutGH*) were selected, each as a spontaneous *Eut*⁺ derivative of a different *eut*::T-POP insertion; all four deletions are in frame and should not cause a polar effect on expression of downstream genes. Additional deletions were

TABLE 1. Features of the *eut* locus sequence

Name ^a	Gene organization ^b				Codons ^c				Protein			Comment
	Start	Stop	Sense	Overlap	GC	3d.GC	CAI	χ^2	Length (aa)	MW	pI	
<i>'maeB</i>	-1221	-766	→	-	0.55	0.60	0.292	0.817	>151	>1,610	6.9	One of two malic enzymes
<i>IS200</i>	-721	0	→									<i>IS200</i> element; copy V
<i>trpA</i>	-578	-120	→	-	0.46	0.56	0.250	0.572	152	17,958	10.1	<i>IS200</i> transposase (Tnp)
<i>orf'</i>	1	57	←	-	0.58	0.79	0.192	1.926	19	1,907	7.5	<i>atsB</i> -like fragment
<i>eutS</i>	361	696	→	-	0.51	0.54	0.291	1.128	111	11,673	5.7	Carboxysome structural protein?
<i>eutP</i>	709	1188	→	+	0.52	0.54	0.243	0.645	159	17,726	5.9	Unknown function; ATP binding motif
<i>eutQ</i>	1166	1855	→	+	0.57	0.68	0.398	1.691	229	24,992	4.7	Unknown function
<i>eutT</i>	1852	2655	→	+	0.59	0.68	0.298	1.155	267	30,239	6.4	Cobalamin adenosyl transferase
<i>eutD</i>	2652	3668	→	-	0.62	0.68	0.336	1.373	338	36,266	7.5	Resembles substrate domain of Pta
<i>eutM</i>	3709	3999	→	-	0.60	0.67	0.411	2.002	96	9,843	6.5	Carboxysome structural protein?
<i>eutN</i>	4099	4398	→	-	0.57	0.65	0.315	2.094	99	10,351	5.1	Carboxysome structural protein?
<i>eutE</i>	4410	5813	→	-	0.60	0.69	0.354	1.360	467	49,259	6.9	Aldehyde oxidoreductase
<i>eutJ</i>	5824	6663	→	+	0.61	0.72	0.342	1.105	279	30,018	4.9	Possible chaperonin
<i>eutG</i>	6653	7828	→	-	0.57	0.71	0.320	1.429	391	40,570	7.2	Alcohol dehydrogenase
<i>eutH</i>	7948	9195	→	+	0.57	0.73	0.361	1.489	372	39,053	5.8	Membrane protein
<i>eutA</i>	9192	10595	→	-	0.61	0.71	0.297	0.899	467	49,527	5.0	Possible chaperonin
<i>eutB</i>	10607	11968	→	+	0.57	0.73	0.425	1.265	453	49,449	4.7	ET/NH ₄ ^d subunit
<i>eutC</i>	11987	12883	→	-	0.61	0.70	0.364	1.475	298	32,137	5.9	ET/NH ₄ subunit
<i>eutL</i>	12893	13552	→	-	0.60	0.64	0.320	0.841	219	22,696	4.5	Carboxysome structural protein?
<i>eutK</i>	13565	14059	→	-	0.60	0.61	0.289	1.092	164	17,421	7.5	Carboxysome structural protein?
<i>P_R</i>	14078		→									Constitutive internal promoter
<i>eutR</i>	14107	15159	→	-	0.54	0.61	0.280	0.815	350	40,055	7.2	AraC family positive regulator
<i>term</i>	15677		→									Probable terminator
<i>orf79</i>	15828	16619	←	-	0.53	0.54	0.297	0.382	263	30,021	4.8	Unknown
<i>term</i>	16673		←									Probable terminator
<i>orf33</i>	16751	17077	←	-	0.43	0.45	0.201	0.788	109	12,020	8.4	Unknown
<i>hemF</i>	17098	17997	←	-	0.57	0.65	0.353	1.213	299	34,430	6.4	Coproporphyrinogen oxidase
	18000	18869	←	-	0.51	0.54	0.310	0.555	289	31,659	11.0	<i>N</i> -acetylmuramylalanine amidase

^a Component of the *eut* operon. The vertical line indicates the elements included in the *eut* operon.

^b The column headed "sense" gives the transcriptional direction, with right-facing arrows indicating counterclockwise on the standard *Salmonella* map; "overlap" indicates whether or not (+ and -, respectively) the stop codon overlaps the initiation codon of the next gene, implying potential translational coupling or interference (40a). Start and stop codon positions are in nucleotides numbered from the end of *IS200*.

^c GC, fractional G+C content of the gene; 3d.GC, G+C content of codon third positions; CAI, codon adaptation index of Sharp and Li (52a); χ^2 , measure of codon usage bias (55a).

^d ET/NH₄, ethanolamine ammonia lyase.

made by recombination between *eut*::T-POP insertions in the same orientation; these constructed deletions have a T-POP element at the deletion join point which allows induced expression of genes distal to the deletion (see below). Point mutations initially classified by complementation tests and genetic mapping were later sequenced to provide a cross-reference between the genetic and physical maps (Table 5).

Use of T-POP insertions to define gene functions. The transposable element T-POP was derived from transposon Tn10dTc (42). Weak tetracycline-inducible transcripts emerge from both ends of the parent transposon Tn10dTc (63). Stronger regulated outward transcription is seen for the derived T-POP element because internal transcription terminators have been deleted. When no tetracycline is provided, a T-POP insertion has a strong polar effect on expression of distal genes in an operon, allowing detection of insertions that prevent expression of genes required for a Eut⁺ phenotype. Tetracycline induces expression of downstream genes and, in effect, abolishes the polarity effect of the insertion. In the presence of tetracycline, a T-POP insertion is defective only for the gene in which it inserts. Genes with no mutant phenotype can be identified because their T-POP insertions cause a Eut⁻ phenotype (by a polar effect on distal *eut* genes) that is corrected by addition of tetracycline. This correction is not seen if the target gene is essential to a Eut⁺ phenotype.

The *eutS*, *-P*, *-Q*, *-T*, *-D*, *-M*, *-J*, *-G*, *-H*, *-L*, and *-K* genes are not essential for aerobic ethanolamine degradation. Available

insertions of T-POP in many genes (*eutSPDMJGJK*) cause a Eut⁻ phenotype that is corrected by addition of tetracycline (Table 6). In some cases the correction is incomplete, suggesting that the T-POP promoters may not be sufficiently strong to provide a wild-type Eut⁺ phenotype; this is frequently true for insertions in orientation B, which directs the weaker *tetR* promoter downstream. Alternatively, the target gene may encode a protein that makes a minor contribution but is not essential to ethanolamine degradation. The phenotypes scored (Table 6) were aerobic use of ethanolamine as a sole carbon and energy source (tested on minimal ethanolamine-vitamin B₁₂ plates), and acid production on MacConkey medium containing ethanolamine and vitamin B₁₂.

In-frame spontaneous deletions and constructed deletions with a T-POP insertion at the join point showed phenotypes that helped determine the importance of *eut* genes (Table 7). In-frame deletions should have no polarity effect, and the constructed deletions with T-POP at the junction point have a polarity effect that is corrected by addition of tetracycline. Note that strains lacking the lyase (EutBC) protein show very slight growth on ethanolamine as long as they express the *eutE* gene. This peculiarity reflects a minor secondary route for degradation of ethanolamine that is currently under investigation (see Discussion).

These results confirm the earlier genetic studies showing that the *eutABCE* and *-R* genes are needed for the aerobic Eut⁺ phenotype; all other *eut* genes tested have no aerobic

TABLE 2. Key alignments of Eut proteins

Target	Similar protein(s) found	Organism	P(N) ^a
EutS	PduB (organelle structural?)	<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	0.10
EutP	None		
EutQ	None		
EutT	None		
EutD	Pta (phosphate acetyltransferase)	<i>Paracoccus denitrificans</i>	2.0e-85
EutM	PduA (organelle structural?)	<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	1.1e-37
	CcmK (carboxysome structural)	<i>Synechocystis</i> sp. strain PCC6803	7.6e-31
	EutK	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	5.3e-22
EutN	CcmL (carboxysome structural)	<i>Synechococcus</i>	3.3e-19
EutE	SucD (succinate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase)	<i>Clostridium kluveri</i>	2.0e-36
EutJ	FtsA (cell division)	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	6.1e-07
	DnaK (heat shock chaperonin)	<i>Synechocystis</i> sp. strain PCC6803	2.2e-05
EutG	FucO (lactaldehyde reductase on propanediol oxidoreductase)	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	6.7e-66
EutH	YxeR (unknown)	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	2.2e-105
	MTCY04C12.24c (ABC sulphate transporter?)	<i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>	0.064
EutA	FtsA (cell division)	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	0.25
	DnaK (heat shock chaperonin)	<i>Thermomicrobium roseum</i>	0.73
EutB	EutB (ethanolamine ammonia lyase large subunit)	<i>Rhodococcus erythropolis</i>	1.5e-140
EutC	EutB (ethanolamine ammonia lyase small subunit)	<i>Rhodococcus erythropolis</i>	7.6e-26
EutL	PduB (organelle structural?)	<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	1.4e-07
EutK	EutM	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	4.4e-22
	PduA (organelle structural?)	<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	4.0e-21
	CcmK (carboxysome structural)	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. strain PCC7942	2.1e-17
EutR	OxoS (putative regulatory protein)	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	9.4e-18
	TheR (probable regulatory protein)	<i>Rhodococcus</i> NI86/21	5.0e-14
	XylS (transcriptional activator of XylDLEGF operon)	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	1.9e-12
	TmbS (positive regulator of <i>tmb</i> -meta operon)	<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	9.4e-12
	HrpB (positive regulation of hypersensitive response)	<i>Burkholderia solanacearum</i>	7.7e-09
	CbdS (positive regulator of <i>cbd</i> operon)	<i>Pseudomonas</i> sp. strain pBAH1	9.2e-09
	HrpXv (positive regulator of <i>hrp</i> cluster)	<i>Xanthomonas campestris</i>	1.6e-06
	PocR (positive regulator of <i>pdu</i> operon)	<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	0.084

^a This score, given by the BLAST program, is the probability that the observed resemblance between entire sequences could occur by chance. For those alignments with high P(N) scores, the relationship is based on shared motifs discussed in the text.

mutant phenotype. No appropriate insertions or deletions were available for testing the phenotype of a *eutN* defect, but since mutations in this gene were not detected in the original genetic analysis, we presume that *eutN*, like the other extra genes, has no aerobic phenotype. The *eutD* gene was initially identified by mutations with a Eut⁻ phenotype, but multigene deletions that remove the *eutD* gene are phenotypically Eut⁺; this suggests that the phenotype of EutD point mutations was due to polar effects on other genes. This will be discussed later.

Homologues of carboxysome proteins. Five genes (*eutS*, *-M*, *-N*, *-L*, and *K*) encode small proteins similar to the shell proteins of the carboxysome, an organelle found in photosynthetic and sulfur-oxidizing bacteria (57). These genes also resemble the *pduA* and *-B* genes of in the *Salmonella pdu* operon, which encode enzymes needed for vitamin B₁₂-dependent degradation of propanediol (10, 11, 18, 47). The *eutM* and *-N* genes were identified previously, and their sequence similarity to carboxysome proteins was noted (60); these genes were originally designated *cchA* and *cchB* and have been renamed, since it is now clear that they are part of the ethanolamine (*eut*) operon.

The EutN protein is very similar to the CcmL protein of *Synechococcus* (Fig. 3). The EutM, EutK, and PduA proteins are clearly homologous to the CcmK protein of *Synechococcus*. The longer EutL, EutS, and PduB proteins are clearly similar to each other and are less obviously related to the others; their distant similarity to the CcmK family (EutMK and PduA) was inferred from a shared multiple-alignment profile (24). The C-terminal portions of the EutL, EutS, and PduB proteins are most similar to that of the PduA protein. Sequence features

that the three proteins share with PduA are indicated in Fig. 3; these were identified with the profile program of the Genetics Computer Group sequence analysis software package.

The *eutP* and *eutQ* genes. The predicted EutP and EutQ proteins do not resemble others in current databases. Neither gene has a Eut⁻ mutant phenotype when mutants are tested aerobically in an otherwise-wild-type background.

The EutP protein has an ATP-GTP binding motif of the P-loop class (Prosite motif PS00017). In addition, a second motif found in EutP was shared with a subset of the proteins containing the first motif. The extended motif is not represented in the Prosite database. Proteins sharing the entire motif either were components of ABC transporters, contributed to antibiotic resistance, or supported bacteriocin pumping, suggesting a transport function.

The *eutT* gene. Point mutations in the *eutT* gene were included in the original set of Eut mutations but appeared to owe their phenotype to polarity on distal genes. This is supported by the fact that all are nonsense mutations (Table 5). This interpretation is consistent with the observation that the most upstream *eutT* point mutations cause a Eut(N⁻ C⁻) phenotype and distal mutations allow the use of ethanolamine as a nitrogen source [Eut(N⁺ C⁻)] (Table 5); this might reflect position-dependent variation in polarity effects. More support for this possibility came from the finding that *rho* polarity suppressors corrected the Eut(C⁻) phenotype of *eutT* nonsense mutations (67) and that in-frame *eutT* deletions have no Eut phenotype (see above).

Recently, it was found that lack of EutT function causes a Eut⁻ phenotype in a *cobA* mutant strain (54) which lacks the

TABLE 3. Positions of *eut* insertion mutations

Locus ^a	Genotype ^b	Strain	Gene position ^c	Operon position ^d
<i>tkiB</i>	<i>zfa-3649::Tn10</i>	TT13441	~1330	~-5640
<i>tnpA</i>	<i>zfa-3646::Tn10</i> (A)	TT13438	10	-566
	<i>zfa-3645::Tn10</i>	TT11568	~340	~-240
<i>tnpA/eutS</i>	<i>zfa-3644::Tn10</i>	TT11567		~60
<i>eutS</i>	<i>eut-334::TPOP</i> (A)	TT20356	43	403
<i>eutP</i>	<i>eut-171::Mu dJ</i> (B)	TT13752	21	730
	<i>eut-272::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19099	~140	~850
	<i>eut-273::TPOP</i> (B)	TT19100	~140	~850
	<i>eut-274::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19101	~240	~950
	<i>eut-275::TPOP</i> (B)	TT19102	~240	~950
	<i>eut-267::TPOP</i> (A)	TT18814	259	968
	<i>eut-276::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19103	~340	~1050
<i>eutQ</i>	<i>eut-18::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10271	304	1470
<i>eutT</i>	<i>eut-11::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10647	156	2008
	<i>eut-17::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10653	703	2555
	<i>eut-184::Mu dA</i> (A)	TT13764	733	2585
<i>eutD</i>	<i>eut-277::TPOP</i> (B)	TT19104	~200	~2850
	<i>eut-172::Mu dJ</i> (A)	TT13753	409	3061
<i>eutD/eutM</i>	<i>eut-168::Mu dJ</i> (A)	TT13750		3701
<i>eutM</i>	<i>eut-278::TPOP</i> (B)	TT19105	~140	~3850
	<i>eut-271::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19098	~190	~3900
<i>eutN/eutE</i>	<i>eut-6::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10642		4407
<i>eutE</i>	<i>eut-24::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10660	~50	~4460
	<i>eut-12::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10648	~100	~4510
	<i>eut-10::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10646	~450	~4860
	<i>eut-163::Mu dJ</i>	TT13745	~700	~5110
	<i>eut-279::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19106	~940	~5350
	<i>eut-181::Mu dJ</i> (B)	TT13762	~1020	~5430
<i>eutJ</i>	<i>eut-269::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19096	~280	~6100
<i>eutG</i>	<i>eut-3::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10639	~480	~7130
	<i>eut-178::Mu dJ</i>	TT13759	~590	~7240
	<i>eut-4::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10640	~780	~7430
	<i>eut-26::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10662	~960	~7610
	<i>eut-270::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19097	976	7628
	<i>eut-173::Mu dJ</i> (B)	TT13754	~1040	~7690
	<i>eut-20::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10656	~1080	~7730
	<i>eutG/eutH</i>	<i>eut-160::Mu dJ</i> (B)	TT13742	
	<i>eut-154::Mu dJ</i> (B)	TT13737		~7890
<i>eutH</i>	<i>eut-9::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10645	~80	~8030
	<i>eut-203::Mu dJ</i> (B)	TT13778	~140	~8090
	<i>eut-25::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10661	508	8456
	<i>eut-21::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10657	~680	~8630
	<i>eut-22::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10658	~680	~8630
	<i>eut-192::Mu dJ</i> (B)	TT13769	~1130	~9080
<i>eutA</i>	<i>eut-208::Tn10dTc</i> (B)	TT10644	~5	~9200
	<i>eut-176::Mu dJ</i> (A)	TT13757	~350	~9540
	<i>eut-1::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10637	~690	~9880
	<i>eut-183::Mu dJ</i> (B)	TT13763	~690	~9880
	<i>eut-280::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19107	~960	~10150
<i>eutB</i>	<i>eut-5::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10641	~10	~10610
	<i>eut-8::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10644	~710	~11310
	<i>eut-281::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19108	~940	~11550
	<i>eut-282::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19109	~1040	~11650
<i>eutC</i>	<i>eut-2::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10638	48	12035
	<i>eut-283::TPOP</i> (B)	TT19110	~460	~12450
<i>eutL</i>	<i>eut-284::TPOP</i> (A)	TT19111	~60	~12950
	<i>eut-15::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10651	64	12957
	<i>eut-23::Mu dA</i> (B)	TT10659	73	12966

Continued on following page

TABLE 3—Continued

Locus ^a	Genotype ^b	Strain	Gene position ^c	Operon position ^d
	<i>eut-177::Mu dA (B)</i>	TT13758	108	13001
	<i>eut-34::Mu dA (B)</i>	TT10670	117	13010
<i>eutK</i>	<i>eut-268::TPOP (A)</i>	TT18828	~340	~13900
	<i>eut-285::TPOP (B)</i>	TT19112	~340	~13900
	<i>eut-286::TPOP (A)</i>	TT19113	~390	~13950
<i>eutR</i>	<i>eut-156::Mu dJ (B)</i>	TT13738	28	14135
	<i>eut-205::Tn10</i>	TT13893	862	14969
<i>eut</i> trailer	<i>eut-38::Mu dA (B)</i>	TT10674		15364
Outside <i>eut</i> operon	<i>zfa-3648::Tn10</i>	TT13440		15930

^a Insertions with two gene designations (X/Y) are in the interval between the indicated genes.

^b "(B)" after a Mu-derived element indicates that the *eut* operon was fused to the *lac* operon of the element; "(A)" indicates the opposite orientation. An "(A)" after a Tn10-derived element indicates that tetracycline-regulated expression of downstream *eut* genes is from the *tetA* promoter of the T-POP element; "(B)" implies the opposite orientation. For both Mu- and Tn10-derived elements, no symbol means that the orientation was not determined.

^c Nucleotide position within the affected gene. ~, positions were determined by sizing PCR fragments and are approximate; other positions were exactly determined by sequencing.

^d Distances are from the proximal end of the IS200 insertion at the left end of the operon (Fig. 1).

general cobalamin adenosyl transferase (26, 61, 62). The *eutT* gene appears to encode a second cobalamin adenosyl transferase, which converts CNB₁₂ to AdoB₁₂ (the lyase cofactor) (54). The *pdu* operon of *Salmonella* also appears to encode an adenosyl transferase (*pduG*) (1, 9, 66) which is very similar in sequence to a demonstrated adenosyl transferase (OrfZ) in the diol dehydratase operon of *Citrobacter* (22, 52). Surprisingly, the amino acid sequence of the EutT protein shows no similarity to that of the CobA adenosyl transferase (20, 23, 61) or to that of the adenosyl transferase PduG/OrfZ associated with diol dehydratase operons in *Salmonella* and *Citrobacter* (9, 52). Thus, it appears that three extremely different enzymes are

able to catalyze adenylation of cobalamin—EutT, CobA, and PduG/OrfZ.

The *eutD* gene. Some point mutations in the *eutD* gene have a Eut(N⁻ C⁻) phenotype, and others are Eut(N⁺ C⁻) (44, 45). Point mutations in this gene constituted a clear complementation group in the original genetic tests; they complemented mutants in all other genes and did not cause a measurable decrease in the level of ethanolamine ammonia lyase or acetaldehyde dehydrogenase, encoded by distal genes (45). These point mutations were assigned to an open reading frame by correlating map positions with the physical locations of insertion sites determined by PCR; their location was confirmed by

TABLE 4. Deletions

Deletion	Nucleotides ^a	Gene(s)	Strain	Source
Del913	(-)566 ...	All of <i>eut-cysA</i>	TT14526	Tn10 × Tn10
Del1955	(-)566–15930	All of <i>eut</i>	TT20606	Tn10 × Tn10
Del763	730 ...	<i>eutS171-cysA</i>	TT11734	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del744	1470 ...	<i>eutQ18-cysA</i>	TT11715	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del739	2008 ...	<i>eutT11-cysA</i>	TT11710	Mu dA × mu dA
Del743	2555 ...	<i>eutT17-cysA</i>	TT11714	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del762	2585 ...	<i>eutT184-cysA</i>	TT11733	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del734	4407 ...	<i>eut6-cysA</i>	TT11705	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del752	8456 ...	<i>eutH25-cysA</i>	TT11723	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del730	12035 ...	<i>eutC2-cysA</i>	TT11701	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del741	12957 ...	<i>eutL15-cysA</i>	TT11712	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del750	12966 ...	<i>eutL23-cysA</i>	TT11721	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del756	13001 ...	<i>eutL177-cysA</i>	TT11727	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del747	13010 ...	<i>eutL34-cysA</i>	TT11718	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del754	14135 ...	<i>eutR156-cysA</i>	TT11725	Mu dA × Mu dA
Del863	15364 ...	<i>eut-38-cysA</i>	TT13783	Mu dA × Mu dA
<i>eut-333</i>	750–2919	<i>eutP-eutD</i>	TT20581	In-frame deletion
<i>eut-302</i>	2692–3994	<i>eutD-eutM</i>	TT19189	In-frame deletion
<i>eut-300</i>	6646–7438	<i>eutJ-eutG</i>	TT19187	In-frame deletion
<i>eut-301</i>	6945–8362	<i>eutG-eutH</i>	TT19168	In-frame deletion
<i>eut-339</i>	403–~850	<i>eutS-eutP</i>	TT20586	T-POP × T-POP
<i>eut-340</i>	403–~5350	<i>eutS-eutE</i>	TT20587	T-POP × T-POP
<i>eut-336</i>	403–~13950	<i>eutS-eutK</i>	TT20583	T-POP × T-POP
<i>eut-338</i>	~5350–~13950	<i>eutE-eutK</i>	TT20585	T-POP × T-POP
<i>eut-337</i>	~6100–~13950	<i>eutJ-eutK</i>	TT20584	T-POP × T-POP
<i>eut-335</i>	~10150–~13950	<i>eutA-eutK</i>	TT20582	T-POP × T-POP

^a All positions are relative to the base immediately distal to the IS200 insertion (Fig. 2); numbers preceded with (-) are to the left of that reference point. ~, numbers are approximate positions determined by the sizes of PCR fragments or fine-structure mapping.

TABLE 5. Point mutations

Allele	Mutation		Strain	Phenotype
	Amino acid ^a	Codon		
<i>eutT77</i>	Q61Am	CAG→TAG	TT11494	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁻
<i>eutT62^b</i>	Q62Am	CAG→TAG	TT11479	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁻
<i>eutT86</i>	P76L,Q77Am	CCACAG→CTATA	TT11503	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁻
<i>eutT67</i>	Q77Am	CAG→TAG	TT11484	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁺
<i>eutT10</i>	W125Op	TGG→TGA	TT11518	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁺
<i>eutT75</i>	Q127Oc	CAA→TAA	TT11492	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁺
<i>eutT78</i>	Q134Op	TGG→TGA	TT11406	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁺
<i>eutT74</i>	Q177Am	CAG→TAG	TT11491	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁺
<i>eutD64</i>	Q18Am	CAG→TAG	TT11481	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁺
<i>eutD53</i>	Q35Oc	CAA→TAA	TT11470	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁻
<i>eutD10</i>	Q156Am	CAG→TAG	TT11515	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁺
<i>eutD12</i>	R173Op	CGA→TGA	TT11538	<i>eut</i> (N) ⁺

^a Original amino acid (left) and substitution (right) flank the position of the affected codon in the gene. Nonsense codons are abbreviated as follows: Am, amber (TAG); Op, opal (TGA); Oc, ochre (TAA).

^b Unlisted mutations *eutT88* (TT11505) and *eutT90* (TT11507) are recurrences of the same mutation as listed mutation *eutT62*, i.e., Q184Am.

sequencing (Table 5). However the finding that all of the *eutD* point mutations are nonsense types made it reasonable that their phenotype might have been due to polarity effects.

A *eutD*::T-POP insertion mutant remains phenotypically Eut(C⁻) (on minimal medium) even when tetracycline is added to induce downstream genes, but tetracycline restores the ability to produce acid, suggesting partial correction (Table 6). Unfortunately, the only available *eutD*::T-POP insertion is in the B orientation, which provides only weak induction of

distal functions. These results make it difficult to decide whether the phenotypes seen for *eutD* mutations are due to polarity effects or an inherent lack of EutD function. However, the nonpolar deletion mutations (*eutPQTD* and *eutDM*), which remove both the *eutD* gene and additional adjacent material, are Eut⁺ aerobically. The simplest interpretation is that *eutD* point mutations owe their phenotype to polarity effects on multiple downstream genes and a simple EutD defect causes no aerobic phenotype.

TABLE 6. Phenotypes of *eut*::T-POP insertions

Gene	Allele ^a	Operon location ^b	Strain no.	Growth on NCE ethanolamine B ₁₂ ^c		Color on MacConkey ethanolamine B ₁₂ ^d	
				-Tc	+Tc	-Tc	+Tc
<i>eutS</i>	<i>eut-334</i> (A)	403	TT20357	0	3	0	4
<i>eutP</i>	<i>eut-272</i> (A)	~850	TT19099	0	3	0	4
	<i>eut-273</i> (B)	~850	TT19100	0	0	0	0
	<i>eut-274</i> (A)	~950	TT19101	0	0	0	3
	<i>eut-275</i> (B)	~950	TT19102	0	1	0	0
	<i>eut-267</i> (A)	968	TT18814	0	1	0	4
	<i>eut-276</i> (A)	~1050	TT19103	0	1	0	4
<i>eutD</i>	<i>eut-277</i> (B)	~2850	TT19104	0	0	0	2
<i>eutM</i>	<i>eut-278</i> (B)	~3850	TT19105	0	0	0	3
	<i>eut-271</i> (A)	~3900	TT19098	0	0	0	4
<i>eutE</i>	<i>eut-279</i> (A)	~5350	TT19106	0	0	0	0
<i>eutJ</i>	<i>eut-269</i> (A)	~6100	TT19096	0	3	0	3
<i>eutG</i>	<i>eut-270</i> (A)	7628	TT19097	0	3	0	3
<i>eutA</i>	<i>eut-280</i> (A)	~10150	TT19107	0 ^e	0 ^e	0	1 ^e
<i>eutB</i>	<i>eut-281</i> (A)	~11550	TT19108	0 ^f	0 ^f	0	0 ^f
	<i>eut-282</i> (A)	~11650	TT19109	0 ^f	0 ^f	0	0 ^f
<i>eutC</i>	<i>eut-283</i> (B)	~12450	TT19110	0 ^f	0 ^f	0	0 ^f
<i>eutL</i>	<i>eut-284</i> (A)	~12950	TT19111	1	3	2	3
<i>eutK</i>	<i>eut-268</i> (A)	~13900	TT18828	0 ^g	3	3	4
	<i>eut-285</i> (B)	~13900	TT19112	0 ^g	3	3	4
	<i>eut-286</i> (A)	~13950	TT19113	0 ^g	3	3	4

^a A, induced transcription is from the *tetA* promoter of the T-POP element; B, T-POP insertion is in the opposite orientation.

^b Nucleotide position is distance from the first nucleotide at the left of IS200V. ~, approximate location determined by PCR; other positions are by direct sequence determination.

^c Growth is scored on solid minimal medium with ethanolamine as sole carbon source. 0, no growth; 1, slow growth; 2, moderate growth; 3, growth as strong as wild type.

^d The Eut phenotype can be scored by acid production, which produces a red color on this medium. 0, white; 1, pale pink; 2, pink; 3, red; 4, dark red.

^e In *eutA* mutants, the EutBC lyase is inhibited by CNB₁₂ at the concentration used here; thus, *eutA* mutants show weak growth similar to that of *eutBC* mutants.

^f Strains that lack the *eutBC* (lyase) but still express the *eutE* gene are scored here as 0; they show extremely weak but reliably scorable growth that is due to a minor (EutE-dependent) secondary pathway of ethanolamine degradation.

^g The "0" response of *eutK* insertions without tetracycline may reflect blockage of *eutR* transcription from a weak internal promoter between the *eutL* and *eutK* insertions used here.

TABLE 7. Aerobic phenotypes of *eut* deletions

Class ^a	Deletion	Removed	Strain	Growth ^b	
				-Tc	+Tc
1	<i>eut</i> ⁺ (Tc ^r)		TT13440	3	
	<i>Del1955</i>	All <i>eut</i>	TT20606	0	
	<i>Δeut-300</i>	<i>eutJ-eutG</i>	TT19187	3	
	<i>Δeut-301</i>	<i>eutG-eutH</i>	TT19188	3	
	<i>Δeut-302</i>	<i>eutD-eutM</i>	TT19189	3	
	<i>Δeut0333</i>	<i>eutP-eutD</i>	TT20582	3	
	<i>eut</i> ⁺ (Tc ^r)		TT13440	3	3
2	<i>Δeut-338</i> (T-POP)	<i>ΔeutE-eutK</i>	TT20585	0 ^c	0
	<i>Δeut-335</i> (T-POP)	<i>ΔeutA-eutK</i>	TT20582	0	0
	<i>Δeut-336</i> (T-POP)	<i>eutS-eutK</i>	TT20583	0	0
	<i>Δeut-337</i> (T-POP)	<i>eutJ-eutK</i>	TT20584	0	0
	<i>Δeut-339</i> (T-POP)	<i>eutS-eutP</i>	TT20586	0	2
	<i>Δeut-340</i> (T-POP)	<i>eutS-eutE</i>	TT20587	0	0
	<i>Δeut-302, Δeut-337</i> (T-POP)	<i>eutD-eutM, eutJ-eutK</i>	TT20589	0	0
	<i>Δeut-333 Δeut-337</i> (T-POP)	<i>eutP-eutD, eutJ-eutK</i>	TT20588	0	0

^a Class 1 deletions are in-frame deletions derived from T-POP insertions. They retain no *Tn10* material and show no polar effect on downstream *eut* genes. Class 2 deletions were constructed by recombination between T-POP insertions in different *eut* genes. They carry a T-POP insertion at the deletion junction point and are strongly polar but express distal *eut* genes in the presence of tetracycline.

^b Growth responses are scored as follows: 0, no growth; 1, very weak; 2, intermediate; 3, like wild type. Strains that express EutE but not EutBC (lyase) are listed as 0; they show extremely weak (EutE-dependent) growth that is due to a secondary minor route for conversion of ethanolamine to acetaldehyde (see Discussion). Tc, tetracycline.

^c Strains that lack the *eutBC* (lyase) gene but still express the *eutE* gene are scored here as 0; they show extremely weak but reliably scorable growth that is due to a minor (EutE-dependent) secondary pathway of ethanolamine degradation.

The predicted EutD protein sequence is very similar to the C-terminal half of Pta (phosphotransacetylase) and MeaB (NADP-dependent malate oxidoreductase, or malic enzyme). The Pta enzyme catalyzes conversion of acetyl-CoA to acetyl phosphate, and MeaB catalyzes the conversion of malate to pyruvate with release of CO₂.

The function of the domain shared by these three proteins is not known, but we suspect that it may provide substrate specificity rather than catalytic activity. Several malate oxidoreductases align only with the N-terminal domains of Mez and Pta and share no similarity with EutD protein (e.g., *Streptococcus bovis* [GenBank accession no. U35659]); the substrate specificities of these single-domain proteins are reportedly relaxed. Similarly, several malate-decarboxylating enzymes, malic enzymes (which produce pyruvate), and malolactic enzymes (which produce lactate) resemble the N-terminal domain of Pta but lack the C-terminal domain that is homologous to the EutD sequence. Because the two classes of homologues of Pta and Mez enzymes seem to have catalytic domains which are not similar to EutD, we suspect that EutD is not an independent catalyst but may serve as a subunit of a larger complex, perhaps one involved in CO₂ fixation.

The *eutE* and *eutG* genes (an aldehyde dehydrogenase and an alcohol dehydrogenase). The *eutE* gene was initially identified in mutants which could use ethanolamine as a source of nitrogen but not carbon (45). Direct assay revealed that these mutants lack acetaldehyde dehydrogenase, which converts acetaldehyde to acetyl-CoA (44). The gene was initially sequenced by Stojiljkovic et al. (60), who noted that the predicted amino acid sequence of the protein was strikingly similar to that of the aldehyde oxidoreductase domain of the AdhE family of alcohol dehydrogenases-aldehyde oxidoreductases. Sequencing of mutations in the *eutE* complementation group demonstrated that they affect this open reading frame. The EutE sequence most closely resembled that of NADP-dependent succinate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase of *Clostridium kluyveri*, which catalyzes formation of succinyl-CoA (59).

The EutG protein appears to be an alcohol dehydrogenase

(aldehyde reductase) (60). The best BLAST alignment was with lactaldehyde reductase (1,2-propanediol oxidoreductase) of *E. coli*. The EutE and EutG sequences aligned in tandem without overlap along the *E. coli* AdhE sequence, with EutE resembling the C-terminal aldehyde oxidoreductase domain and EutG resembling the N-terminal alcohol dehydrogenase domain. The AdhE protein is known to catalyze reduction of acetyl-CoA to acetaldehyde and further to ethanol. We propose that the EutE and EutG proteins together catalyze the same reactions as AdhE. During growth on ethanolamine, EutE catalyzes formation of acetyl-CoA (as shown previously) and EutG may help to maintain redox balance by reducing some aldehyde to ethanol. Mutants of the *eutG* gene have no Eut phenotype under the conditions tested, presumably because NADH⁺ can be recycled via respiratory enzymes or other alcohol dehydrogenases (Fig. 1). In the *eut* operon, the tandem arrangement of the *eutE* and *eutG* genes is interrupted by the *eutJ* gene.

The *eutJ* and *eutA* genes may encode chaperonins. The *eutJ* gene had no mutant phenotype. The inferred amino acid sequence of the EutJ protein showed similarity to that of members of the DnaK family of heat shock chaperonins (60). A comparison of the conserved cores of EutJ, EutA, and the *E. coli* DnaK protein is shown in Fig. 4.

Mutations in the *eutA* gene cause a distinct Eut(N⁻ C⁻) phenotype under aerobic conditions with CNB₁₂ and defined one of the original *eut* complementation groups (45). These mutants became phenotypically Eut(N⁺ C⁻) when AdoB₁₂ was provided instead of CNB₁₂. A *eutA* mutant shows normal induction of the operon by CNB₁₂ or AdoB₁₂, demonstrating that it is not defective for cobalamin adenosylation (54). Recent results suggest that EutA protects the lyase from inhibition by CNB₁₂ (54). It is important to remember that *eutA* mutants retain their Eut(C⁻) phenotype even when AdoB₁₂ is provided, suggesting that the protein plays some additional role.

The EutA sequence is weakly related to the same group of proteins that show similarity with EutJ (Table 2 and Fig. 4). A

CcmL family

EutN	1	M E A D	M K L A V V	T G Q L V C T V R H	Q G L A H D K L L M	V E M I D A Q G N P	D G Q C A V A I D S	50
CcmL	1		M R I A K V	R G T V V S T Y K E	P S L Q G V K F L V	V Q F L D E A G Q A	L Q E Y E V A A D M	46
EutN	51	G A G T G E W V L	L V S G S S A R Q A	H R S E L S F V D L	C V I G I V D E V V	A G G K V V F H K	99	
CcmL	47	V G A G V D E W V L	I S R G S Q A R H V	R D C Q E R P V D A	A V I A L L D T V N	V E N R S V Y D K	95	

CcmK family

EutK	1	M I N A L G I E	V D G M V A A V D A	A D A M K A A N V	R L L S H	Q V L D P G R L T L	44
EutM	1	M E A L G M I E	T R G L V A L I E A	S D A M V K A A R V	K L V G V	K Q I G C G L C T A	43
CcmK	1	M P I A G M I E	T L G F P A V V E A	A D A M V K A A R V	T L V G Y	E K I G S G R V T V	44
PduA	1	M Q Q E A L G M V E	T K G L T A A I E A	A D A M V K S A N V	M L V G Y	E K I G S G L V T V	45
EutK	45	V V E C D L A A C R	A A L D A G S A A A	K R T G R V I S R K E I G	R P E E D T	83
EutM	44	M V R G D V A A C K	A A T D A G A A A A	Q R T G E	V H V I P R F H G D	L E E V F P	88
CcmK	45	I V R G D V S E V Q	A S V S A G L D S A	K R V A G G E V L S	H H I I A R P H E N	L E Y V L P	90
PduA	46	I V R G D V G A V K	A A T D A G A A A A	R N V G E	V H V I P R P H T D	V E K I L P	89

CcmK (distant relations)

EutL	1	M P A L D L I R P S	V T A M R V I A S V	N D G F A R E L K L	P P H I R S I G L I	T A D S D D V T Y L	50
PduB	8	L T E F V G T A I G	D T L G L V I A N V	D T A L L D A M K L	E K R Y R S I G I L	A A R T G A G P H I	57
EutS	1				N K R T H Y S G I C	A G Q T G H V A H L	21
EutL	51	. A A D E A T K Q A	M V E V V . . . Y G	R S L Y A G A A H G	P S P T A G E V L I	M L G G P N P A E V	96
PduB	58	M A A D E A V K A T	N T E V V S I E L P	R D T K G G A G H G	S L I	I L G G N D V S D V	100
EutL	97	R A G L D A M V A S	I E N G A A F Q W A	N D A E N T A F L A	H V V S R T C S Y L	S S T A G I	142
PduB	101	K R G I E V A L K E	L D R T F G D V Y C	N E A G H I . E L .	Q Y T A R A S Y A L	E K A F G A	144
EutS	22				. . I A H P G E E L	A K K I G V	35
EutL	143	A L C D P M A Y L V	. A P P L E A T F G	I D A A M K S A D V	Q L V T Y V P P S	E T N Y S . . A A F	189
PduB	145	P I G R A C G I I V	G A P A S V G V L M	A D T A I K S A N V	E V V A Y S S P A H	G T S F S N E A I L	194
EutS	36	P D A G A I G I M T	L T P G E T A M I A	G D L A M K A A D V	H I G F	L D R F S . . G A L	77
EutL	190	L T . G S Q A A C K	A A . C N A F T D A	L D I A R N F V Q	R A		218
PduB	195	V I S G D S G A V R	Q A V T S A R E I G	T V L A T L G S E	P K N D R P S Y I		232
EutS	78	V I Y G T V G A V E	E A L L Q T V S G L	R L L N F T L C E	L T K S		110

FIG. 3. Alignment of carboxysome shell protein homologues. The top panel shows the alignment of the EutN protein with the CcmL protein of *Synechococcus*. The middle panel aligns the EutK and EutM proteins with the CcmK protein of *Synechococcus* and the PduA protein of the *Salmonella pdu* (propanediol utilization) operon. The bottom panel aligns the EutL and EutS proteins with the PduB protein from the *Salmonella pdu* operon. The EutLS family is most similar to the PduA protein of the EutK, EutN, CcmK class. The sequence features shared by the EutLS-PduB family and the PduA protein are indicated by the black dots below the sequences.

motif common to EutJ, EutA, and the DnaK family proteins was the tract DIGGGT. This sequence pattern is part of the nucleotide binding loop in the crystal structure of DnaK protein (55).

The EutJ and EutA proteins may be important in assembling the carboxysome or in refolding lyase. The adenosyl moiety of AdoB₁₂ is cleaved during catalysis (2) and may be subject to occasional loss from the enzyme or destruction by inappropriate reactions (65). Cobalamins without adenosine bind strongly to the enzyme and inhibit its activity in vitro (7). Replacement

of damaged AdoB₁₂ may require removal by refolding lyase. The ability to remove inhibitory forms of vitamin B₁₂ from lyase may contribute to the ability of EutA to protect lyase from inhibition. A function of this sort has been reported for the vitamin B₁₂-dependent enzyme propanediol dehydratase (65).

The *eutH* gene encodes a membrane protein of unknown function. The *eutH* gene had no mutant phenotype. The deduced EutH amino acid sequence suggests 11 membrane-spanning segments capped at their ends with short tracts of polar

EutJ	102	F P . . . G T D P R	I S I N V L E S A G	L E V S H V I D E F	T A V A D L L A L D	138
DnaK	143	P A Y F N D A Q R Q	A T K D A G R I T A G	L E V K R I L N E P	T A A A L A Y G L D	182
EutA	105	P A V M A L S Q S .	L G D F V V A S A G	P H E S V I A G H	C A G A Q S L S E Q	143
EutJ	139	N A G V	V D I G G G T T G I	A I V K Q G		158
DnaK	183	K G T G N R T I A V	Y D I G G G T F D I	S I I E I D E V D G		212
EutA	144	R M C . . . R V L N	I D I G G G T S N Y	A L F D A G K V S G		170

FIG. 4. Sequence motif that EutJ and EutA proteins share with the chaperonin DnaK. Only EutJ shows significant similarity to DnaK over its entire length; EutJ and EutA are not significantly similar to each other, but they share the motif mentioned above. The central DIGGT motif is part of a nucleotide binding loop in the DnaK protein (55).

residues. Although a role in ethanolamine transport has been suggested for the EutH protein (60), genetic data indicate that no ethanolamine transport functions are encoded within the operon (45). However, if sufficient ethanolamine enters cells by other means, this gene could encode a transporter with a very slight mutant phenotype. This is true for the propanediol diffusion facilitator PduF, which makes only a minimal contribution to the ability of cells to grow on that carbon source (18, 19). Unlinked mutations previously thought to affect ethanolamine transport have recently been shown to affect vitamin B₁₂ uptake (41, 64). The EutH protein has no resemblance to a reported ethanolamine transporter, EutP, from *Rhodococcus* (GenBank accession no. U17129). Other possibilities are that the EutH protein increases uptake of vitamin B₁₂ or facilitates efflux of acetaldehyde or acetate produced during ethanolamine catabolism.

The *eutBC* genes encode ethanolamine ammonia lyase. The assignment of ethanolamine ammonia lyase to the *eutBC* genes was initially based on enzyme assays of mutants for these two genes (44). The cloned sequence that complemented these two mutant types provided the first sequence for an ethanolamine ammonia lyase (27). The sequence data reported here contain several corrections of the originally reported sequence. Use of the improved sequence may help identify cobalamin binding motifs (38). The only other described homologue of lyase is from *Rhodococcus* (GenBank accession no. L24492), whose *eutB* and *eutC* homologues are adjacent but do not appear to be part of a larger operon.

The EutR protein is a positive regulatory protein of the AraC family. The *eutR* gene was identified in mutants with a Eut⁻ phenotype that were unable to induce the operon in response to the regulatory effectors, ethanolamine and vitamin B₁₂ (45, 46). The EutR protein is encoded within the operon and thus positively controls its own synthesis. This autocatalytic cycle is essential for full operon induction. Coincidence of lyase (EutBC) and EutR may serve to equalize their competition for a small pool of AdoB₁₂, allowing operon control to remain sensitive to cofactor levels over a wide range of vitamin B₁₂ concentrations (53).

The EutR protein is similar in amino acid sequence to a variety of known regulatory proteins in the AraC family. As is typical for this family, the similarity is restricted to the C-terminal helix-turn-helix domain. Since operon transcription is induced only in the presence of both ethanolamine and vitamin B₁₂, the EutR protein may bind both effectors. This has not been demonstrated experimentally and places heavy demands on the EutR protein to recognize two effectors, a DNA binding site and components of the transcription apparatus. It would simplify matters if the requirement for vitamin B₁₂ induction were to help convert ethanolamine to acetaldehyde, which served as sole inducer. However, mutants that lack lyase show normal operon induction by vitamin B₁₂ plus ethanolamine, consistent with direct recognition of the two effectors (46).

The region between the *eut* operon and the *hemF* gene. The region between the *eut* operon and the *hemF* gene includes a sequence resembling a Rho-independent transcription terminator located 519 bases from the end of the *eutR* gene (Fig. 2 and Table 1). A heavily exploited Mud-*lac* insertion mutant (*eut-38::MudA*) lies between the last gene in the operon (*eutR*) and this proposed terminator (Table 3). Strains with this insertion are phenotypically Eut⁺ but show β-galactosidase induction in response to *eut* operon regulatory effectors (46). This insertion lies within the transcribed region of the operon but promoter distal to all structural genes.

In *Salmonella*, two open reading frames (Orf79 and Orf33) are found between the *eut* operon and the nearby *hemF* gene.

The orientation of the *hemF* gene, Orf33, and Orf79 is opposite to that of the *eut* operon. In *E. coli*, only 5 nucleotides separate the *eutR* and *hemF* coding sequences (Fig. 2); each transcript appears to be terminated by a rho-dependent terminator located within the coding sequence of the neighboring gene. A potential transcription terminator for Orf33 was found between Orf33 and Orf79. No significant alignments were found between the translated product of Orf79 or Orf33 and proteins in the database.

The region upstream of the *eut* operon. The 1,200 bases upstream of the first gene of the *eut* operon (*eutS*) includes one of the six IS200 elements found in the chromosome of *S. typhimurium* LT2 (32, 35, 48). The element is flanked by pairs of A residues, as seen in other examples of IS200 insertions (31). Upstream of the insertion sequence is the *meaB* gene, encoding NADP-dependent malic enzyme (malate → pyruvate) (39, 40). The *meaB* gene and the IS200 element are separated by 42 bases. To the left of *meaB* are the genes (*tktB* and *talA*) for transketolase and transaldolase, enzymes which act in the pentose-phosphate shunt. They form an apparent operon whose orientation is opposite to that of the *eut* and *meaB* genes.

The *eut* operon has a main promoter and a minor internal promoter. The main regulated promoter (P_I) is activated by EutR when both ethanolamine and AdoB₁₂ are present and requires Crp protein as a global regulator (46). A good potential σ⁷⁰ binding site was found 83 nucleotides before the start of the *eutS* gene. This lies within a noncoding region well conserved between *Salmonella* and *E. coli*. We assume, but have not yet demonstrated, that the EutR regulator binds a site within this region to stimulate transcription. Although the operon is subject to catabolite repression (46), we have found no likely Crp-binding site in the sequence in this region.

The second promoter (P_{II}) lies adjacent to the *eutR* gene and appears to provide a low constitutive level of EutR regulator sufficient to initiate induction of the main promoter (46, 53). Location of the P_{II} promoter in the *Salmonella* operon was determined by mRNA runoff extension primed by oligonucleotides complementary to mRNA sequence within the *eutR* gene (data not shown). This message starts 29 bases before the beginning of *eutR* in the *eutKR* interval. The existence of this promoter does not preclude the existence of additional weak promoters further upstream which might contribute to the basal level of EutR protein. No obvious σ⁷⁰ consensus is associated with P_{II}.

Comparing the *eut* operons of *S. typhimurium* and *E. coli*. Initial biochemical work on ethanolamine degradation was done for *E. coli*, with little parallel genetic analysis. Both *S. typhimurium* and *E. coli* use the same degradative pathway, and both sets of enzymes are induced by the presence of ethanolamine plus vitamin B₁₂ (6, 7, 33, 34). As diagrammed in Fig. 2, the *E. coli* operon sequence encodes close homologues of the 17 genes described above for *Salmonella* (8). The presence of a *eut* operon in *E. coli* is surprising in that *E. coli* does not make the needed vitamin B₁₂ cofactor de novo (36, 37). Furthermore, *E. coli* cannot reduce tetrathionate, a process that seems essential for anaerobic ethanolamine degradation by *Salmonella*. For both organisms, the *eut* operon has a rather high G+C content, suggesting acquisition by horizontal transfer. However, the two sequences differ at only 17% of aligned positions, a degree of conservation expected for genes that have been inherited vertically from the common ancestor of *Salmonella* and *E. coli*. A surprising feature of the *E. coli* *eut* operon sequenced by Blattner and coworkers (8) is the presence of an insertion element between the *eutA* and *eutB* genes

which does not damage either of the flanking genes (Fig. 2). This element is not found in other K-12 genomes (69).

DISCUSSION

The complete sequence of the *eut* operon includes 17 genes, of which only 6 are required for aerobic use of ethanolamine as a carbon or nitrogen source. The functions encoded by the extra genes may be needed for ethanolamine use under unknown conditions, or they may make a slight contribution that escaped our detection. We initially expected that the extra genes would be required for anaerobic growth. This has recently been tested, since it was found that wild-type strains can grow anaerobically on ethanolamine if the electron acceptor tetrathionate is provided (12). However, the extra *eut* genes tested thus far are also nonessential for anaerobic growth with tetrathionate (28). It seems that the lack of mutant phenotypes for the extra genes is due to an alternative pathway for ethanolamine degradation that can supply some of the Eut functions and prevent the detection of *eut* mutations in some genes. In the presence of mutations that appear to block this alternative pathway, all genes in the *eut* operon have a Eut⁻ phenotype aerobically and anaerobically (28).

The five Eut proteins that are similar to carboxysome components suggest that the ethanolamine pathway may involve fixation of CO₂. In photosynthetic bacteria (*Synechococcus*) and in sulfur oxidizers (*Thiobacillus*), this protein-bounded organelle is thought to concentrate CO₂ and exclude O₂; this supports activity of RUBISCO, the enzyme directly involved in CO₂ fixation (14, 25, 29, 30, 56, 58). In *Salmonella*, structures resembling carboxysomes have recently been observed by electron microscope following induction of the *pdu* (9) or *eut* (21) operon, but fixation of CO₂ has not yet been shown to accompany growth on ethanolamine.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported in part by NIH grant GM34804.

We thank Tom Fazio and David Sheppard for helpful discussions and sharing unpublished results during the course of this work.

REFERENCES

- Ailion, M., and J. R. Roth. 1996. Repression of the *cob* operon of *Salmonella typhimurium* by adenosylcobalamin is influenced by mutations in the *pdu* operon. *J. Bacteriol.* **179**:6084–6091.
- Babior, B. M., T. J. Carty, and R. H. Abeles. 1974. The mechanism of action of ethanolamine ammonia-lyase, a B₁₂-dependent enzyme. *J. Biol. Chem.* **249**:1689–1695.
- Baker, S. H., S. Jin, H. C. Aldrich, G. T. Howard, and J. M. Shively. 1998. Insertion mutation of the form I *cbfL* gene encoding ribulose biphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCO) in *Thiobacillus neapolitanus* results in expression of form II RuBisCO, loss of carboxysomes, and an increased CO₂ requirement for growth. *J. Bacteriol.* **180**:4133–4139.
- Bender, J., and N. Kleckner. 1992. IS10 transposase mutations that specifically alter target site recognition. *EMBO J.* **11**:741–750.
- Berkowitz, D., J. M. Hushon, H. J. Whitfield, Jr., J. R. Roth, and B. N. Ames. 1968. Procedure for identifying nonsense mutations. *J. Bacteriol.* **96**:215–220.
- Blackwell, C. M., F. A. Scarlett, and J. M. Turner. 1977. Microbial metabolism of amino alcohols: control of formation and stability of partially purified ethanolamine ammonia-lyase in *Escherichia coli*. *J. Gen. Microbiol.* **98**:133–139.
- Blackwell, C. M., and J. M. Turner. 1978. Microbial metabolism of amino alcohols: purification and properties of coenzyme B₁₂-dependent ethanolamine ammonia-lyase of *Escherichia coli*. *Biochem. J.* **175**:555–563.
- Blattner, F. R., G. R. Plunkett, C. A. Bloch, N. T. Perna, V. Burland, M. Riley, V. J. Collado, J. D. Glasner, C. K. Rode, G. F. Mayhew, J. Gregor, N. W. Davis, H. A. Kirkpatrick, M. A. Goeden, D. J. Rose, B. Mau, and Y. Shao. 1997. The complete genome sequence of *Escherichia coli* K-12. *Science* **277**:1453–1474.
- Bobik, T. Personal communication.
- Bobik, T., Y. Xu, R. Jeter, K. Otto, and J. R. Roth. 1997. Propanediol utilization genes (*pdu*) of *Salmonella typhimurium*: three genes for the propanediol dehydratase. *J. Bacteriol.* **179**:6633–6639.
- Bobik, T. A., M. Ailion, and J. R. Roth. 1992. A single regulatory gene integrates control of vitamin B₁₂ synthesis and propanediol degradation. *J. Bacteriol.* **174**:2253–2266.
- Bobik, T. A., J. Tingey, and J. R. Roth. Unpublished data.
- Bradbeer, C. 1965. The clostridial fermentations of choline and ethanolamine. I. Preparation and properties of cell-free extracts. *J. Biol. Chem.* **240**:4669–4674.
- Cannon, G. C., R. S. English, and J. M. Shively. 1991. *In situ* assay of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase in *Thiobacillus neapolitanus*. *J. Bacteriol.* **173**:1565–1568.
- Casadaban, M. J., and S. N. Cohen. 1979. Lactose genes fused to exogenous promoters in one step using a Mu-*lac* bacteriophage: *in vivo* probe for transcriptional control sequences. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **76**:4530–4533.
- Castilho, B. A., P. Olfson, and M. J. Casadaban. 1984. Plasmid insertion mutagenesis and *lac* gene fusion with mini-Mu bacteriophage transposons. *J. Bacteriol.* **158**:488–495.
- Chan, R. K., D. Botstein, T. Watanabe, and Y. Ogata. 1972. Specialized transduction of tetracycline by phage P22 in *Salmonella typhimurium*. II. Properties of a high frequency transducing lysate. *Virology* **50**:883–898.
- Chen, P., D. I. Andersson, and J. R. Roth. 1994. The control region of the *pdu/cob* regulon in *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Bacteriol.* **176**:5474–5482.
- Chen, P., and J. R. Roth. Unpublished results.
- Crouzet, J., S. Levy-Schil, B. Cameron, L. Cauchois, S. Rigault, M.-C. Rouyez, F. Blanche, L. Debussche, and D. Thibaut. 1991. Nucleotide sequence and genetic analysis of a 13.1-kilobase-pair *Pseudomonas denitrificans* DNA fragment containing five *cob* genes and identification of structural genes encoding cob(I)alamin adenosyltransferase, cobyrinic acid synthase, and bifunctional cobinamide kinase-cobinamide phosphate guanylyltransferase. *J. Bacteriol.* **173**:6074–6087.
- Czymmek, K. Unpublished results.
- Daniel, R., and G. Gottschalk. Personal communication.
- Debussche, L., M. Couder, D. Thibaut, B. Cameron, J. Crouzet, and F. Blanche. 1991. Purification and partial characterization of cob(I)alamin adenosyltransferase from *Pseudomonas denitrificans*. *J. Bacteriol.* **173**:6300–6302.
- Devereux, J. 1989. Profile analysis: associating distantly related proteins and finding structural motifs, p. 7.3–7.5. *In* J. Devereux (ed.), Program manual: sequence analysis software package. Genetics Computer Group, Madison, Wis.
- English, R. S., S. C. Lorbach, X. Qin, and J. M. Shively. 1994. Isolation and characterization of a carboxysome shell gene from *Thiobacillus neapolitanus*. *Mol. Microbiol.* **12**:647–654.
- Escalante-Semerena, J. C., S.-J. Suh, and J. R. Roth. 1990. *cobA* function is required for both de novo cobalamin biosynthesis and assimilation of exogenous corrinoids in *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Bacteriol.* **172**:273–280.
- Faust, L. P., J. A. Connor, D. M. Roof, J. A. Hoch, and B. M. Babior. 1990. Cloning, sequencing and expression of the genes encoding the adenosylcobalamin-dependent ethanolamine ammonia-lyase of *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Biol. Chem.* **265**:12462–12466.
- Fazio, T. Unpublished results.
- Friedberg, D., K. M. Jager, M. Kessel, N. J. Silman, and B. Bergman. 1993. Rubisco but not Rubisco activase is clustered in the carboxysomes of the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7942: Mud-induced carboxysome-less mutants. *Mol. Microbiol.* **9**:1193–1201.
- Friedberg, D., A. Kaplan, R. Ariel, M. Kessel, and J. Seiffers. 1989. The 5'-flanking region of the gene encoding the large subunit of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase is crucial for growth of the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus* sp. strain PCC 7942 at the level of CO₂ in air. *J. Bacteriol.* **171**:6069–6076.
- Haack, K., and J. Roth. Unpublished.
- Haack, K., and J. R. Roth. 1995. Recombination between chromosomal IS200 elements supports frequent duplication formation in *Salmonella typhimurium*. *Genetics* **141**:1245–1252.
- Jones, P. W., and J. M. Turner. 1984. Interrelationships between the enzymes of ethanolamine metabolism in *Escherichia coli*. *J. Gen. Microbiol.* **130**:299–308.
- Jones, P. W., and J. M. Turner. 1984. A model for common control of enzymes of ethanolamine metabolism in *Escherichia coli*. *J. Gen. Microbiol.* **130**:849–860.
- Lam, S., and J. R. Roth. 1983. Genetic mapping of insertion sequence IS200 copies in *Salmonella typhimurium* strain LT2. *Genetics* **105**:801–812.
- Lawrence, J. G., and J. R. Roth. 1995. The cobalamin (coenzyme B₁₂) biosynthetic genes of *Escherichia coli*. *J. Bacteriol.* **177**:6371–6380.
- Lawrence, J. G., and J. R. Roth. 1995. Evolution of coenzyme B₁₂ synthesis among enteric bacteria: evidence for loss and reacquisition of a multigene complex. *Genetics* **142**:11–24.
- Ludwig, M., and R. Matthews. 1997. Structure-based perspectives on B₁₂-dependent enzymes. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **66**:269–313.
- Murai, T., M. Tokushige, J. Nagai, and H. Katsuki. 1971. Physiological functions of NAD- and NADP-linked malic enzymes in *Escherichia coli*. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **43**:875–881.

40. Murai, T., M. Tokushige, J. Nagai, and H. Katsuki. 1972. Studies on regulatory functions of malic enzymes. I. Metabolic functions of NAD- and NADP-linked malic enzymes in *Escherichia coli*. *J. Biochem. (Tokyo)* **71**:1015–1028.
- 40a. Oppenheim, D. S., and C. Yanofsky. 1980. Translational coupling during expression of the tryptophan operon of *Escherichia coli*. *Genetics* **95**:785–795.
41. O'Toole, G. A., and J. C. Escalante-Semerena. 1991. Identification and initial characterization of the *eutF* locus of *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Bacteriol.* **173**:5168–5172.
42. Rappleye, C. A., and J. R. Roth. 1997. A Tn10 derivative ("T-POP") for isolation of insertions A Tn10 derivative ("T-POP") for isolation of insertions with conditional (tetracycline-dependent) phenotypes. *J. Bacteriol.* **179**:5827–5834.
43. Ratzkin, B., and J. Roth. 1978. Cluster of genes controlling proline degradation in *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Bacteriol.* **133**:744–754.
44. Roof, D. M., and J. R. Roth. 1988. Ethanolamine utilization in *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Bacteriol.* **170**:3855–3863.
45. Roof, D. M., and J. R. Roth. 1989. Functions required for vitamin B₁₂-dependent ethanolamine utilization in *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Bacteriol.* **171**:3316–3323.
46. Roof, D. M., and J. R. Roth. 1992. Autogenous regulation of ethanolamine utilization by a transcriptional activator of the *eut* operon in *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Bacteriol.* **174**:6634–6643.
47. Roth, J. R., J. G. Lawrence, and T. A. Bobik. 1996. Cobalamin (coenzyme B₁₂): synthesis and biological significance. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* **50**:137–181.
48. Sanderson, K. E., P. Sciore, S. Liu, and A. Hessel. 1993. Location of IS200 on the genomic map of *Salmonella typhimurium* LT2. *J. Bacteriol.* **175**:7624–7628.
49. Sanger, F., S. Nicklen, and A. R. Coulson. 1977. DNA sequencing with chain-terminating inhibitors. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **74**:5463–5467.
50. Scarlett, F. A., and J. M. Turner. 1976. Microbial metabolism of amino alcohols. Ethanolamine catabolism mediated by coenzyme B₁₂-dependent ethanolamine ammonia-lyase in *Escherichia coli* and *Klebsiella aerogenes*. *J. Gen. Microbiol.* **95**:173–176.
51. Schmieger, H. 1971. A method for detection of phage mutants with altered transducing ability. *Mol. Gen. Genet.* **110**:378–381.
52. Seyfried, M., R. Daniel, and G. Gottschalk. 1996. Cloning, sequencing, and overexpression of the genes encoding coenzyme B₁₂-dependent glycerol dehydratase of *Citrobacter freundii*. *J. Bacteriol.* **178**:5793–5796.
- 52a. Sharp, P. M., and W. H. Li. 1987. The codon adaptation index—a measure of directional synonymous codon usage bias, and its potential applications. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **15**:1281–1295.
53. Sheppard, D. E., and J. R. Roth. 1994. A rationale for autoinduction of a transcriptional activator: ethanolamine ammonia-lyase (EutBC) and the operon activator (EutR) compete for adenosyl-cobalamin in *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Bacteriol.* **176**:1287–1296.
54. Sheppard, D. E., and J. R. Roth. Vitamin B₁₂ adenosylation functions in the *eut* operon of *Salmonella typhimurium*. Submitted for publication.
55. Sheppard, P. Personal communication.
- 55a. Shields, D. C., P. M. Sharp, D. G. Higgins, and F. Wright. 1998. "Silent" sites in *Drosophila* genes are not neutral: evidence of selection among synonymous codons. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **5**:704–716.
56. Shively, J. M. 1974. Inclusion bodies of prokaryotes. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* **28**:167–187.
57. Shively, J. M., F. Ball, D. H. Brown, and R. E. Saunders. 1973. Functional organelles in prokaryotes: polyhedral inclusions (carboxysomes) of *Thiobacillus neapolitanus*. *Science* **182**:584–586.
58. Shively, J. M., E. Bock, K. Westphal, and G. C. Cannon. 1977. Icosahedral inclusions (carboxysomes) of *Nitrobacter agilis*. *J. Bacteriol.* **132**:673–675.
59. Sohling, B., and G. Gottschalk. 1996. Molecular analysis of the anaerobic succinate degradation pathway in *Clostridium kluyveri*. *J. Bacteriol.* **178**:871–880.
60. Stojiljkovic, I., A. J. Bäuml, and F. Heffron. 1995. Ethanolamine utilization in *Salmonella typhimurium*: nucleotide sequence, protein expression, and mutational analysis of the *cchA cchB eutI eutG eutH* gene cluster. *J. Bacteriol.* **177**:1357–1366.
61. Suh, S.-J., and J. C. Escalante-Semerena. 1993. Cloning, sequencing and overexpression of *cobA*, which encodes ATP:corrinoid adenosyltransferase in *Salmonella typhimurium*. *Gene* **129**:93–97.
62. Suh, S.-J., and J. C. Escalante-Semerena. 1995. Purification and initial characterization of the ATP:corrinoid adenosyltransferase encoded by the *cobA* gene of *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Bacteriol.* **177**:921–925.
63. Takiff, H. E., T. Baker, T. Copeland, S. Chen, and D. L. Court. 1992. Locating essential *Escherichia coli* genes by using mini-Tn10 transposons: the *pxdI* operon. *J. Bacteriol.* **174**:1544–1553.
64. Thomas, M. G., G. A. O'Toole, and J. C. Escalante-Semerena. 1999. Molecular characterization of *eutF* mutants of *Salmonella typhimurium* LT2 identifies *eutF* lesions as partial-loss-of-function *tonB* alleles. *J. Bacteriol.* **181**:368–374.
65. Toraya, T., and K. Mori. 1999. A reactivating factor for coenzyme B₁₂-dependent diol dehydratase. *J. Biol. Chem.* **274**:3372–3377.
66. Walter, D., M. Ailion, and J. R. Roth. 1996. Genetic characterization of the *pdu* operon: use of 1,2 propanediol in *Salmonella typhimurium*. *J. Bacteriol.* **179**:1013–1022.
67. Warnick, L. Unpublished results.
68. Way, J. C., M. A. Davis, D. Morisato, D. E. Roberts, and N. Kleckner. 1984. New Tn10 derivatives for transposon mutagenesis and for construction of *lacZ* operon fusions by transposition. *Gene* **32**:369–379.
69. Yamamoto, Y., H. Aiba, T. Baba, K. Hayashi, T. Inada, K. Isono, T. Itoh, S. Kimura, M. Kitagawa, K. Makino, T. Miki, N. Mitsuhashi, K. Mizobuchi, H. Mori, S. Nakade, Y. Nakamura, H. Nashimoto, T. Oshima, S. Oyama, N. Saito, G. Sampei, Y. Satoh, S. Sivasundaram, H. Tagami, H. Takahashi, J. Takeda, K. Takemoto, K. Uehara, C. Wada, S. Yamagata, and T. Horiuchi. 1997. Construction of a contiguous 874 kb sequence of the *Escherichia coli* K-12 genome corresponding to 50.0–68.8 min region on the linkage map and analysis of its sequence features. *DNA Res.* **4**:91–113.
70. Youdarian, P., P. Sugiono, K. L. Brewer, N. P. Higgins, and T. Elliot. 1988. Packaging specific segments of the *Salmonella* chromosome with locked-in Mud-P22 prophages. *Genetics* **118**:581–592.