

# Regulation of riboflavin biosynthesis and transport genes in bacteria by transcriptional and translational attenuation

Alexey G. Vitreschak<sup>1</sup>, Dmitry A. Rodionov<sup>2</sup>, Andrey A. Mironov<sup>2,3</sup> and Mikhail S. Gelfand<sup>2,3,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Institute for Problems of Information Transmission, Moscow, 101447, Russia, <sup>2</sup>State Scientific Center GosNII Genetika, Moscow, 113545, Russia and <sup>3</sup>Integrated Genomics—Moscow, PO Box 348, Moscow, 117333, Russia

Received March 25, 2002; Revised and Accepted May 25, 2002

## ABSTRACT

The riboflavin biosynthesis in bacteria was analyzed using comparative analysis of genes, operons and regulatory elements. A model for regulation based on formation of alternative RNA structures involving the *RFN* elements is suggested. In Gram-positive bacteria including actinomycetes, *Thermotoga*, *Thermus* and *Deinococcus*, the riboflavin metabolism and transport genes are predicted to be regulated by transcriptional attenuation, whereas in most Gram-negative bacteria, the riboflavin biosynthesis genes seem to be regulated on the level of translation initiation. Several new candidate riboflavin transporters were identified (*impX* in *Desulfitobacterium halfniense* and *Fusobacterium nucleatum*; *pnuX* in several actinomycetes, including some *Corynebacterium* species and *Streptomyces coelicolor*; *rfnT* in Rhizobiaceae). Traces of a number of likely horizontal transfer events were found: the complete riboflavin operon with the upstream regulatory element was transferred to *Haemophilus influenzae* and *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae* from some Gram-positive bacterium; non-regulated riboflavin operon in *Pyrococcus furiosus* was likely transferred from *Thermotoga*; and the *RFN* element was inserted into the riboflavin operon of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* from some other *Pseudomonas* species, where it had regulated the *ribH2* gene.

## INTRODUCTION

Riboflavin (vitamin B2) is an essential component of the basic metabolism, being a precursor of coenzymes flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) and flavin mononucleotide (FMN). Many

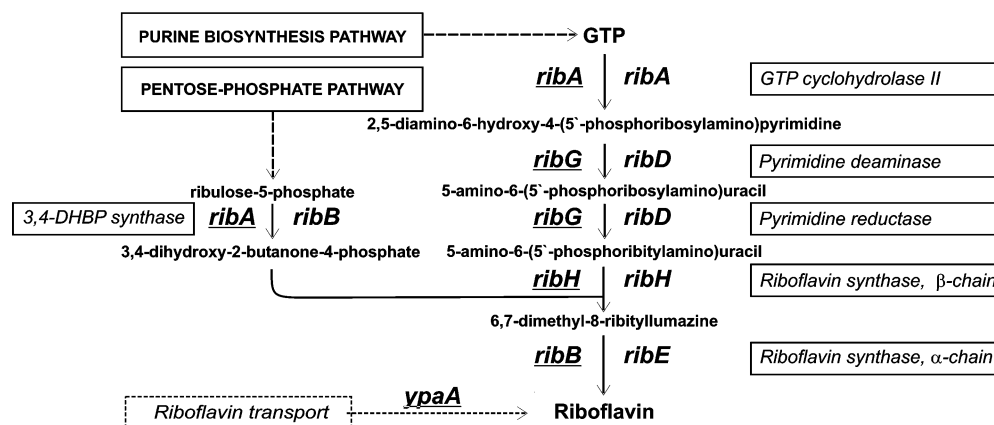
microorganisms as well as plants and fungi synthesize riboflavin, but it is not produced by vertebrates.

The best studied system of the riboflavin biosynthesis in bacteria is the *rib* operon of *Bacillus subtilis* encoding a pyrimidine deaminase/reductase,  $\alpha$ -subunit of riboflavin synthase, GTP cyclohydrolase/3,4-dihydroxy 2-butanone 4-phosphate (3,4-DHBP) synthase, and  $\beta$ -subunit of riboflavin synthase (1). These enzymes form a pathway that creates one riboflavin molecule from one molecule of GTP and two molecules of ribulose 5-phosphate (Fig. 1). At the next stage, bifunctional flavokinase/FAD-synthase converts riboflavin to FMN and FAD, which serve as prosthetic groups for many oxidoreductases (1). Riboflavin operons were also studied in *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* (2), *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae* (3) and *Bartonella* species (4). In *Photobacterium phosphoreum* and *Photobacterium leiognathi*, the riboflavin genes reside within the *lux* operon (5,6), whereas in *Vibrio fisheri*, the pyrimidine deaminase/reductase genes are convergent to the *lux* operon (7). In contrast to these genomes, the riboflavin biosynthesis genes of *Escherichia coli* do not form a single operon, but are scattered on the chromosome (8). The operon structures in other genomes were not studied experimentally.

The traditional gene names are different in *E.coli* and *B.subtilis* (Fig. 1). The bifunctional enzyme pyrimidine deaminase/reductase RibG and the  $\alpha$ -subunit of riboflavin synthase RibB from *B.subtilis* have their counterparts in *E.coli* named RibD and RibE, respectively. Moreover, *E.coli* has two separate genes, *ribB* and *ribA*, that encode 3,4-DHBP synthase and GTP cyclohydrolase, respectively, whereas in *B.subtilis* these functions are encoded by one gene *ribA*. For consistency, we use the *E.coli* gene names throughout. Thus, the *B.subtilis* *ribG*, *ribB* and *ribA* genes are renamed here to *ribD*, *ribE*, *ribB/A*, respectively.

Little is known about the mechanisms of regulation of the bacterial riboflavin genes. Metabolic studies gave no evidence for any regulation of the riboflavin biosynthesis genes in *E.coli* (8). Based on genetic studies, the regulatory role in *B.subtilis* had been initially ascribed to the *ribC* and *ribR* loci (9,10) and

\*To whom correspondence should be addressed at: Integrated Genomics—Moscow, PO Box 348, Moscow, 117333, Russia. Tel: +7 095 135 2041; Fax: +7 095 132 6080; Email: gelfand@integratedgenomics.ru



**Figure 1.** The riboflavin biosynthesis pathway in bacteria. *Bacillus* gene names are underlined.

the *ribO* region located between the promoter and the coding region of the *ribGBAH* operon (11). Later it has been shown that *ribC* and *ribR* encode flavokinase/FAD-synthase and monofunctional flavokinase, respectively (12–14). The riboflavin production is repressed by FMN, but not riboflavin (13,15), which explains why inactivation of *ribC* and *ribR* leads to overproduction of riboflavin.

Mutations in the regulatory region *ribO* release the repression in *B.subtilis* and *B.amyloliquefaciens*, and a hypothetical transcription terminator has been observed between this region and the translation start of the first gene in the operon (2,11). A short transcript corresponding to the leader region of the *rib* operon was identified by northern hybridization analysis (16). It has been suggested that the regulation involves a termination–anti-termination mechanism (2,15). Indeed, this locus is conserved in several bacteria from diverse taxonomic groups (2), and it can fold into a conserved RNA secondary structure with a base stem and four hairpins, named the *RFN* element (17).

In addition to the riboflavin biosynthesis genes, the *RFN* element was observed upstream of *ypaA* genes in several Gram-positive genomes. The product of this gene, YpaA, has five predicted transmembrane segments, which has lead us to the prediction that it is a transporter of riboflavin or related compounds, co-regulated with other riboflavin genes (17). Both these predictions have been verified in experiments. YpaA was shown to transport flavins (18). FMN was shown in a microarray-based experiment to decrease the level of the full-length transcripts of the riboflavin operon and *ypaA*, and to cause appearance of short attenuator transcripts (15).

The current availability of many complete genomes gives an opportunity to compare genes encoding one metabolic pathway and their regulation in a variety of bacteria. The comparative analysis is a powerful approach to the prediction of the DNA and RNA regulation in bacterial genomes (19). In particular, it has been used to analyze attenuators of transcription of the aromatic amino acid operons in  $\gamma$ -proteobacteria (20), to predict the secondary structure of RNA (21), and to find candidate iron-responsive elements in *E.coli* (22). In such studies, analysis of complementary substitutions in aligned sequences is used to construct a single conserved structure. Another comparative technique for

analysis of gene functions is based on the assumption that functionally coupled genes are often clustered on the chromosome (23). Simultaneous analysis of probable operon structures and regulatory elements is the most effective theoretical method of functional annotation when the standard homology-based methods are insufficient.

In this study we applied the comparative genomics techniques to identify the riboflavin biosynthetic genes in almost all available bacterial genomes. Analysis of the candidate *RFN* elements was used to predict the mechanism of regulation on the level of transcription in Gram-positive bacteria, and on the level of translation in most Gram-negative bacteria. Analysis of regulation and positional clustering of genes resulted in identification of a number of new riboflavin-related transporters. Finally, the evolutionary history of the riboflavin operons, involving a number of horizontal transfer events, was elucidated.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

The complete and partial sequences of eubacterial genomes were downloaded from GenBank (24). Preliminary sequence data were obtained also from the WWW sites of The Institute for Genomic Research (<http://www.tigr.org>), University of Oklahoma's Advanced Center for Genome Technology (<http://www.genome.ou.edu>), the Sanger Centre (<http://www.sanger.ac.uk>), the DOE Joint Genome Institute (<http://www.jgi.doe.gov>), and the ERGO Database, Integrated Genomics, Inc. (25).

The RNA-PATTERN program (Alexey G. Vitreschak, unpublished data) was used to search for *RFN* elements. The input RNA pattern described the RNA secondary structure and sequence consensus motifs. The RNA secondary structure was described as a set of the following parameters: the number of helices, lengths of helices, loop lengths, and description of topology of helix pairs. The RNA pattern of the *RFN* element was constructed using the training set of 20 *RFN* elements from our previous paper (17). Each genome was scanned with the *RFN* pattern. The RNA secondary structures of anti-terminators and anti-sequestors were predicted using Zuker's algorithm of free energy minimization (26) implemented in the Mfold program (<http://bioinfo.math.rpi.edu/~mfold/rna>).

The similarity search was done using BLAST (27) and GenomeExplorer (28). Transmembrane segments (TMSs) were predicted using the TMpred program ([http://www.ch.embnet.org/software/TMPRED\\_form.html](http://www.ch.embnet.org/software/TMPRED_form.html)). Multiple sequence alignments were constructed using CLUSTAL X (29). Phylogenetic trees were constructed by the maximum likelihood algorithm implemented in PHYLIP (30) and plotted using the GeneMaster program (A.A.Mironov, unpublished data). Candidate operons were defined as chains of genes transcribed in the same direction such that distance between adjacent genes did not exceed 100 nt.

## RESULTS

### ***RFN* elements and genes of riboflavin biosynthesis and transport**

Scanning of the genomic sequences by RNA-PATTERN trained at known *RFN* elements identified 61 elements in 49 genomes. Then, a similarity search was used to identify the riboflavin biosynthesis (RB) genes. It showed that riboflavin biosynthesis is a widely distributed metabolic pathway in eubacteria. Only spirochetes, mycoplasmas and rickettsia have neither RB genes nor *RFN* elements (Table 1). At that, note that the absence of genes can be reliably claimed only for complete genomes. *RFN* elements were found only upstream of the RB and riboflavin transport genes (Table 1).

The RB genes form a single *ribDE(B/A)H* operon in all complete genomes of the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group except both *Listeria*, *Enterococcus faecalis* and *Streptococcus pyogenes*. The absence of the riboflavin biosynthetic pathway in the latter bacteria is compensated by the existence of the riboflavin transporters YpaA found in all complete genomes of this group except *Bacillus halodurans*. The *Bacillus/Clostridium* group has the most tightly regulated pathway among all considered bacteria, since all RB operons from this group, as well as the transporter genes *ypaA*, have upstream *RFN* elements.

A different structure of the RB operon was observed in actinomycetes. In *Thermomonospora fusca*, this operon consists of *ribE*, *RTFU01116* (named here *pnuX*, see below), *ribB/A* and *ribH*. The upstream region of this operon contains a candidate *RFN* element. *Streptomyces coelicolor* has a similar organization of the riboflavin operon and *RFN*. The *pnuX* gene is homologous to the nicotinamide mononucleotide transporter *pnuC* from enterobacteria and encodes a protein with six predicted TMSs. Orthologs of the *pnuX* gene, *RD102242* and *RCGL00070*, were detected in two other actinomycetes, *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* and *Corynebacterium glutamicum*. In these genomes *pnuX* is not clustered with RB genes, but an *RFN* element was found upstream of *pnuX* in *C. glutamicum*. The genome of *Atopobium minutum* does not contain *pnuX*; however, it has another transporter gene, *ypaA*, preceded by an *RFN* element. Notably, all four *RFN* elements detected in actinomycetes occur upstream of transporters: *pnuX*, or a *pnuX*-containing operon, or *ypaA*. We propose that *pnuX* encodes a new type of riboflavin transporter not homologous to *ypaA*.

Two *RFN* elements were found in *Fusobacterium nucleatum*. The first one is located upstream of the *ribHDE(B/A)* operon, whereas the second one precedes a new gene encoding

a hypothetical protein with nine candidate TMSs. This gene, named *impX*, is not similar to any known protein and has only one ortholog in a Gram-positive bacterium from the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group, *Desulfitobacterium hafniense*. This ortholog is also *RFN*-regulated. Thus, we predict that *ImpX* is one more new riboflavin transporter.

Genomes of all cyanobacteria and chlamydia as well as the genome of *Aquifex aeolicus* have a complete set of RB genes but no *RFN* elements. *Thermotoga maritima*, *Chloroflexus aurantiacus*, *Deinococcus radiodurans* and *Thermus thermophilus* have a single *RFN* element upstream of the *ribDE(B/A)H* operon, the structure of the operon is similar to that in *B. subtilis*. The only exception is *T. thermophilus* where *ribH* is a separate gene without an *RFN* element. *Thermotoga maritima* has *ypaA* which is not preceded by an *RFN* element.

Most proteobacteria have some redundancy of the RB genes due to paralogs of the *ribH*, *ribB/A* and *ribE* genes. Moreover, some genomes contain not only the fused *ribB/A* gene, but also additional single *ribB* or *ribA* genes. The genomes of all proteobacteria, except rickettsia, have several single RB genes as well as at most one probable RB operon which usually is preceded by *ybaD* and followed by *nusB* genes.

The most tightly *RFN*-regulated RB genes in proteobacteria are *ribB* and *ribH2*. *ribB* is always a single gene and in all cases it has an upstream *RFN* element. The *ribH2* gene, which is paralogous to *ribH*, was found in some  $\alpha$ -proteobacteria and *Pseudomonas* species. *ribH2* as a single gene is always regulated by an *RFN* element with only one exception in *Rhodopseudomonas palustris*. Phylogenetic analysis of the RB protein sequences reveals two examples of possible horizontal transfer of the *ribDE(B/A)H* operon from the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group to two genomes of Pasteurellaceae, *Haemophilus ducreyi* and *A. pleuropneumoniae* (see below). In both cases the *RFN* element preceding the RB operon is also well conserved. In general, the *RFN* elements were found in the genomes of almost all proteobacteria. The exceptions are *Xylella fastidiosa*, both *Neisseria*, *Caulobacter crescentus*,  $\epsilon$ -proteobacteria (*Helicobacter pylori* and *Campylobacter jejuni*) and some unfinished genomes from the  $\alpha$ -proteobacteria group.

The last gene of the hypothetical RB operon *ybaD-ribDEH-nusB-mlr8412* in *Mesorhizobium loti* encodes a hypothetical transmembrane protein with 11 predicted TMSs. This gene is similar to transporters from the MFS family and has orthologs with the same operon structure in two other rhizobium genomes, *Sinorhizobium meliloti* and *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. Possibly, *mlr8412* encodes a new type of riboflavin transporter in Rhizobiaceae, and we tentatively name it *rftT*.

### **Possible attenuation mechanism for the *RFN*-mediated regulation**

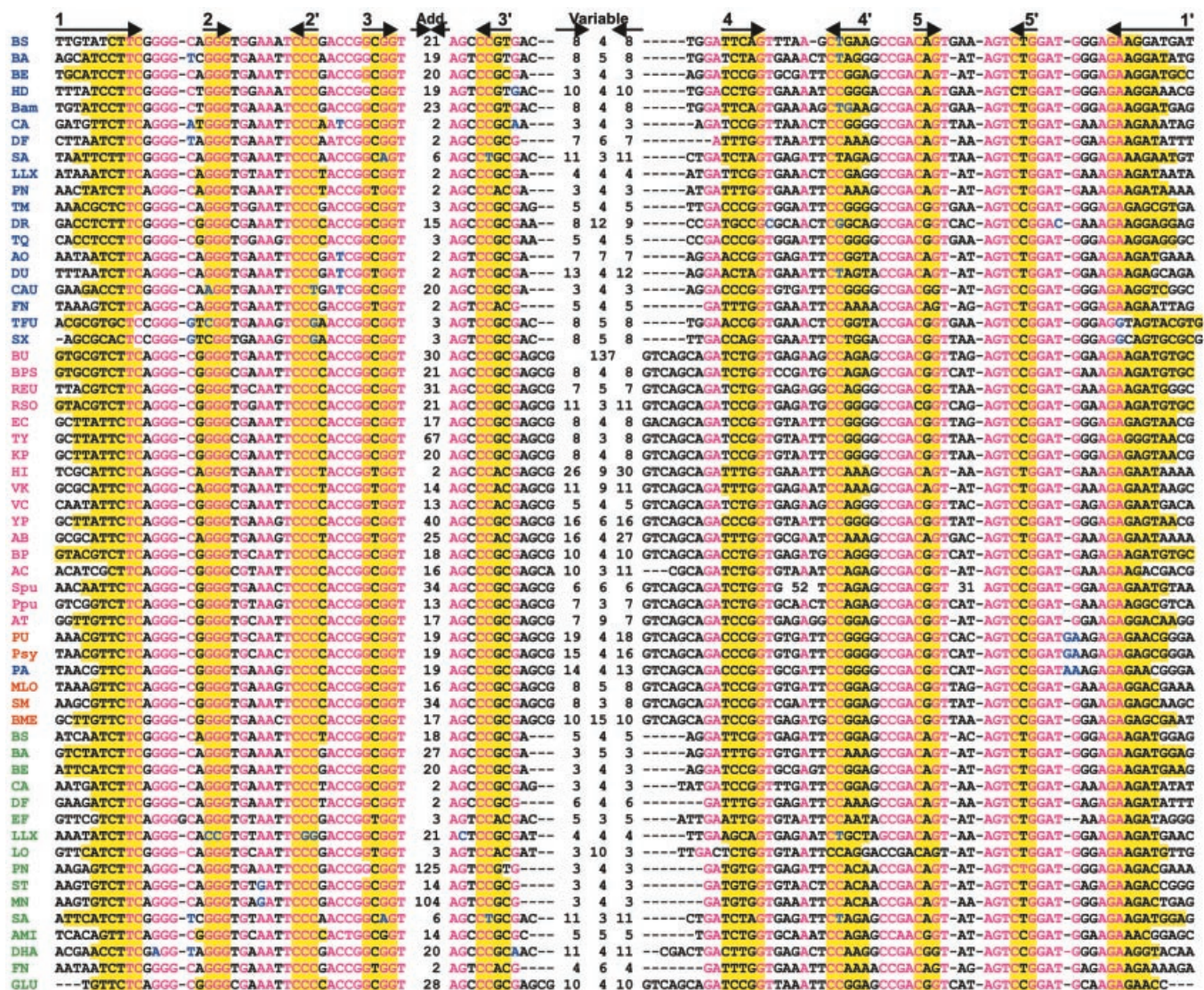
The alignment of 61 *RFN* elements confirms a high degree of conservation of the *RFN* primary and secondary structure (Fig. 2). The improved secondary structure of the *RFN* element is shown in Figure 3. The *RFN* element consists of five conserved helices, one variable stem-loop, and one facultative additional stem-loop. The lengths of the latter two hairpins are very variable and depend on the taxonomy. The maximal observed length of additional stem-loops exceeds

**Table 1.** The operon structures of the riboflavin biosynthesis (RB) and transport genes in eubacteria

Genome	AB	RBS operons	Single RBS genes	Riboflavin transporters
<b>α-Proteobacteria</b>				
<i>Rhodobacter sphaeroides</i> #	RS	<i>ybaD-ribD/ribE2-X-ribBA-ribH-nusB</i>		
<i>Magnetospirillum magnetotacticum</i> #	MMA	<i>ybaD-ribD-ribE2-ribBA-ribH-nusB</i>		
<i>Rhodopseudomonas palustris</i> #	RPA	<i>ybaD-ribE2-ribD-ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribBA</i>	<i>ribH2</i>
<i>Mesorhizobium loti</i>	MLO	<i>ybaD-ribD-ribE2-ribH-nusB-rfnT</i>	<i>ribBA</i>	& <i>ribH2</i>
<i>Sinorhizobium meliloti</i>	SM	<i>ybaD-ribD-ribE2/ribH-nusB-rfnT</i>	<i>ribBA</i>	& <i>ribH2</i>
<i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i>	AT	<i>ybaD-ribD-ribE2/ribH-nusB-rfnT</i>	<i>ribBA</i>	& <i>ribB</i>
<i>Brucella melitensis</i> #	BME	<i>ybaD-ribD-ribE2-ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribBA</i>	& <i>ribH2</i>
<i>Caulobacter crescentus</i> #	CC	<i>ybaD-ribH1-nusB/ribD-ribE-ribBA-ribH2</i>		
<b>β-Proteobacteria</b>				
( <i>Neisseria</i> )	(NM, NG)	<i>ybaD-ribD/ribA=ribBA/ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribE</i>	
( <i>Bordetella</i> )	(BP, BPA)	<i>ribBA-ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribD</i>	& <i>ribB</i>
( <i>Burkholderia</i> ), ( <i>Ralstonia</i> )	(BU, BPS); (REU, RSO)	<i>ribD-ribE2=ribBA-ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribA</i>	& <i>ribB</i>
<b>γ-Proteobacteria</b>				
(Enterobacteriaceae)	(EC, TY, KP, YP)	<i>ybaD-ribD-ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribA</i>	<i>ribE</i> & <i>ribB</i>
(Pasteurellaceae)	(HI, VK, AB)	<i>ybaD-ribD/ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribA</i>	<i>ribE</i> & <i>ribB</i>
~ <i>Haemophilus ducreyi</i> #, <i>Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae</i> #	DU, AO	& * <i>ribD-ribE-ribBA-ribH</i>		
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	PA	<i>ybaD-ribD=&amp; <sup>^</sup> ribE2-ribBA-ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribA</i>	
<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i> #, <i>P. syringiae</i> #	PU, Psy	<i>ybaD-ribD-ribE2-ribBA=ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribA/ribBA</i>	& <i>ribH2</i>
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i> #	Ppu	<i>ybaD-ribD-ribE2-ribBA=ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribA/ribBA</i>	<i>ribE</i> & <i>ribB</i>
<i>Shewanella putrefaciens</i> #	Spu	<i>ybaD-ribD-ribE2-ribBA-ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribA</i>	<i>ribE</i> & <i>ribB</i>
<i>Vibrio cholerae</i>	VC	<i>ybaD-ribD-ribE2-ribBA=ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribA</i>	& <i>ribB</i>
<i>Xylella fastidiosa</i>	XFA	<i>ybaD=ribD=ribE2-ribBA-ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribA</i>	
<i>Acinetobacter calcoaceticus</i> #	AC	<i>ybaD-ribD-X-ribE2/ribBA-ribH]</i>	<i>ribA</i>	& <i>ribB</i>
<i>Buchnera sp. APS</i>	BUC	<i>mltA-ribH-thiL-ribD-nusB</i>	<i>ribA</i>	<i>ribE</i>
<b>ε-Proteobacteria</b>				
The <i>Bacillus/Clostridium</i> group	BS, BA, ZC, BE; SA; LLX; PN; CA, DF	<i>ribBA-X-ribA/ribH-nusB</i> & * <i>ribD-ribE-ribBA-ribH</i>	<i>ribD</i>	<i>ribE</i>
~ <i>Bacillus halodurans</i>	HD	& * <i>ribD-ribE-ribBA-ribH</i>		& <i>ypaA</i>
~ <i>Bacillus amyloliquefaciens</i>	Bam	& * <i>ribD-ribE-ribBA-ribH</i>		None
~ ( <i>Listeria</i> ), <i>Streptococcus pyogenes</i>	(LO, LI); ST	None		? & * <i>ypaA</i>
~ <i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> #, <i>Streptococcus mutans</i> #	EF, MN	None?		& <i>ypaA</i>
~ <i>Desulfotobacterium halfniense</i> #	DHA	<i>ribD]/[ribE-ribBA-ribH</i>		& * <i>impX</i>
<b>Actinomycetes</b>				
( <i>Mycobacterium</i> )	(MT, ML)	<i>ribE-X-ribBA-ribH</i>	<i>ribD</i>	
<i>Corynebacterium diphtheriae</i> #	DI	<i>ribD-ribE-ribBA-ribH</i>		<i>X-pnuX</i>
<i>Corynebacterium glutamicum</i> #	GLU	<i>ribD-ribE-ribBA-ribH</i>		& <i>pnuX</i>
<i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i> #	SX	& <i>ribE-pnuX-ribBA-ribH/ribA-ribD</i>		
<i>Thermomonospora fusca</i> #	TFU	& <i>ribE-pnuX-ribBA-ribH</i>		
<i>Atopobium minutum</i> #	AMI	None?		& <i>ypaA</i>
<b>The <i>Thermus/Deinococcus</i> group</b>				
<i>Deinococcus radiodurans</i>	DR	& <i>ribD-ribE-ribBA-ribH</i>		<i>ribH</i>
<i>Thermus thermophilus</i> #	TQ	& <i>ribD-ribE-ribBA</i>		<i>ribH</i>
<b>Cyanobacteria</b>				
<b>Other groups of eubacteria</b>				
<i>Thermotoga maritima</i>	TM	& * <i>ribD-ribE-ribBA-ribH</i>		<i>ypaA</i>
<i>Fusobacterium nucleatum</i> #	FN	& * <i>ribH-ribD-ribE-ribBA</i>		& * <i>impX</i>
<i>Chloroflexus aurantiacus</i> #	CAU	& <i>ribD-ribE-ribBA-ribH</i>	<i>ribA</i>	
<i>Aquifex aeolicus</i>	AA	<i>ribF-ribD/ribH-nusB</i>	<i>ribBA</i>	<i>ribE</i>
( <i>Chlamydia</i> )	(QP, QT)	<i>ybaD/ribE/ribD-ribBA=ribH</i>		
<b>Archaea</b>				
<i>Pyrococcus furiosus</i>	PF	<i>ribBA-ribH-ribD-ribE</i>		

The standard *E. coli* names of the RB genes are used throughout (see the text for explanation and Fig. 1 for the *B. subtilis* equivalents). *ribBA* denotes the fusion gene encoding the protein consisting of two domains, RibB and RibA. Genes forming one candidate operon (with spacers <100 bp) are separated by '-'. Larger spacers between genes are marked by '='. Operons from different loci, if shown in one column, are separated by slashes '/'. Non-RB genes are shown as X. The predicted RFN elements and possible terminators and sequesters are denoted by '&', '\*' and '^', respectively. The contig ends are marked by square brackets.

The genome abbreviations are given in column 'AB' with unfinished genomes marked by '#'. The names of taxonomic groups given in parentheses indicate similar operon structures of the RB genes in all available genomes from the group, the exclusions are listed in the table and marked '~'. Additional genome abbreviations are: *Neisseria meningitidis* (NG), *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (#, NG); *Bordetella pertussis* (#, BP), *Bordetella bronchiseptica* (#, BPA); *Burkholderia cepacia* (#, BU), *Burkholderia pseudomallei* (#, BPS); *Ralstonia eutropha* (#, REU), *Ralstonia solanacearum* (RSO); *Escherichia coli* (EC), *Salmonella typhi* (TY), *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (#, KP), *Yersinia pestis* (YP); *Haemophilus influenzae* (HI), *Pasteurella multocida* (VK), *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans* (#, AB); *Helicobacter pylori* (HP), *Campylobacter jejuni* (CJ); *Bacillus subtilis* (BS), *Bacillus anthracis* (#, BA), *Bacillus cereus* (#, ZC), *Bacillus stearothermophilus* (#, BE), *Staphylococcus aureus* (SA), *Lactococcus lactis* (LLX), *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (PN), *Clostridium acetobutylicum* (CA), *Clostridium difficile* (#, DF); *Listeria monocytogenes* (LO), *Listeria innocua* (LI); *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MT), *Mycobacterium leprae* (ML); *Chlamydia pneumoniae* (QP), *Chlamydia trachomatis* (QT).



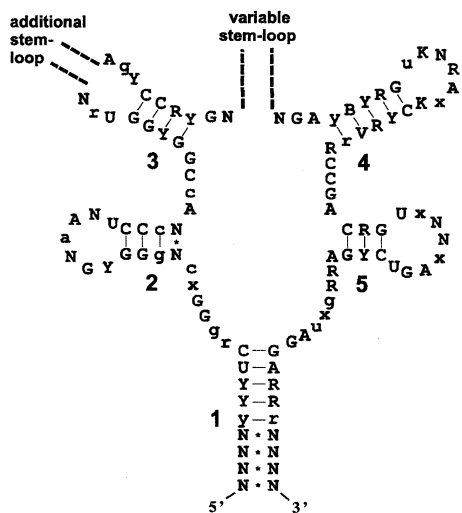
**Figure 2.** Multiple alignment of 58 *RFN* elements from eubacteria. The first column contains the genome abbreviations (see Table 1). The riboflavin operons, single *ribH2* genes, single *ribB* genes and possible riboflavin transporters are marked in blue, red, magenta and green, respectively. The complementary stems of the RNA secondary structure are shown by arrows in the upper line. Base-paired positions are highlighted by the yellow background. Conserved positions and non-consensus nucleotides are shown in red and blue, respectively. Black indicates non-conserved positions. The lengths of additional (Add.) and variable stem-loops are given.

100 nt. The length of the variable stem-loop varies from 10 to 137 nt. All other stem-loops and internal loops in the *RFN* secondary structure are highly conserved, the only exception being the long loops in the fourth and fifth helices in *Shewanella putrefaciens*. These loops of 55 and 35 nt, respectively, can form additional stem-loops.

The *RFN* elements can be classified into two major types based on the existence of two conserved fragments, AGCG and GTCAGCA, located in the branching loops adjacent to the variable helix. The *RFN* elements occurring in all proteobacteria (excluding *H. ducreyi* and *A. pleuropneumoniae*, see below) have these conserved sequences, whereas *RFN* elements without sequences are observed in the Gram-positive bacteria and other taxonomic groups, the only exception being the *RFN* element upstream of the *pnuX* gene in *C. glutamicum*, that belongs to the proteobacterial type.

Recently, it was shown that FMNs regulate expression of the RB operon and *ypaA* in *B. subtilis* (15). We propose here a possible mechanism of the FMN-mediated regulation via the *RFN* element (Fig. 4).

Downstream of all *RFN* elements, there are potential hairpins that are either followed by runs of thymidines (and thus are candidate terminators) or overlap the translation start region of the first gene in the operon (and thus are candidate sequestrors). Moreover, all *RFN* elements are capable of forming alternative structures, in which the base stem of *RFN* interacts with the regulatory hairpin (terminator or sequestror). This leads to formation of a structure alternative to the regulatory hairpin, similar to transcriptional and translational attenuation by competing RNA structures. Thus, two different types of regulation are suggested, attenuation of transcription via an anti-termination mechanism and



**Figure 3.** The conserved structure of the *RFN* element. Upper case letters, invariant (absolutely conserved) positions; lower case letters, strongly conserved positions. Dashes and asterisks indicate obligatory and facultative base pairs, respectively. Degenerate positions: R = A or G; Y = C or U; K = G or U; B = not A; V = not U. N, any nucleotide; X, any nucleotide or deletion.

attenuation of translation by sequestering of the Shine-Dalgarno (SD) box.

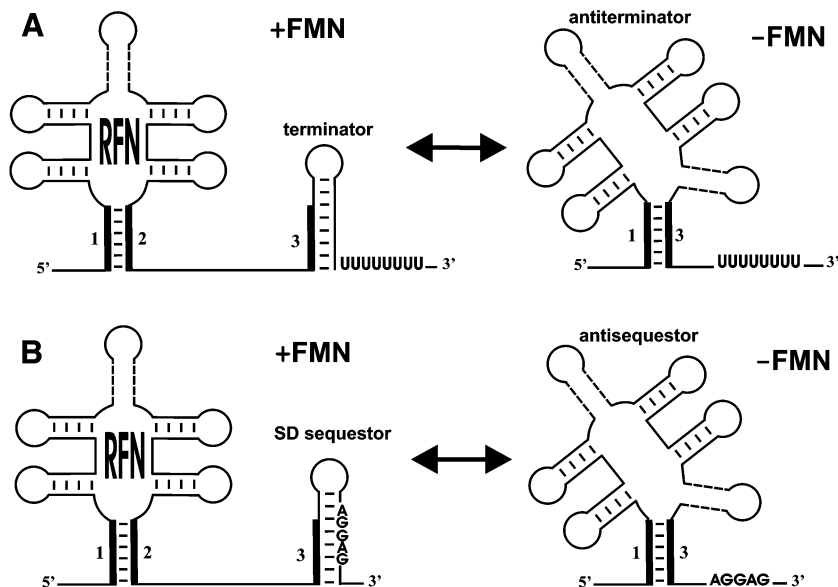
In Gram-positive bacteria, *T.maritima* and *C.aurantiacus*, terminator-like RNA structures are located between the predicted *RFN* element and the start of translation of RB genes. We found complementary fragments of RNA sequences that partially overlap both the first helix of *RFN* and the left stem of the terminator (Figs 4A and 5A). Furthermore, these complementary fragments always form the main helix of a new, more stable alternative secondary structure with  $\Delta G$  smaller than  $\Delta G$  of the *RFN* element. We predict that this

structure functions as an anti-terminator, alternative to both the *RFN* element and the terminator. Thus, the *RFN* element is the predicted anti-antiterminator that in the repressing conditions of excess FMN prevents formation of the anti-terminator hairpin. Then, the terminator forms and transcription is preliminarily terminated. Without FMN, non-stabilized *RFN* is replaced by the more energy-favorable anti-termination conformation that allows the transcription read-through. In this model *RFN* acts as an anti-antiterminator.

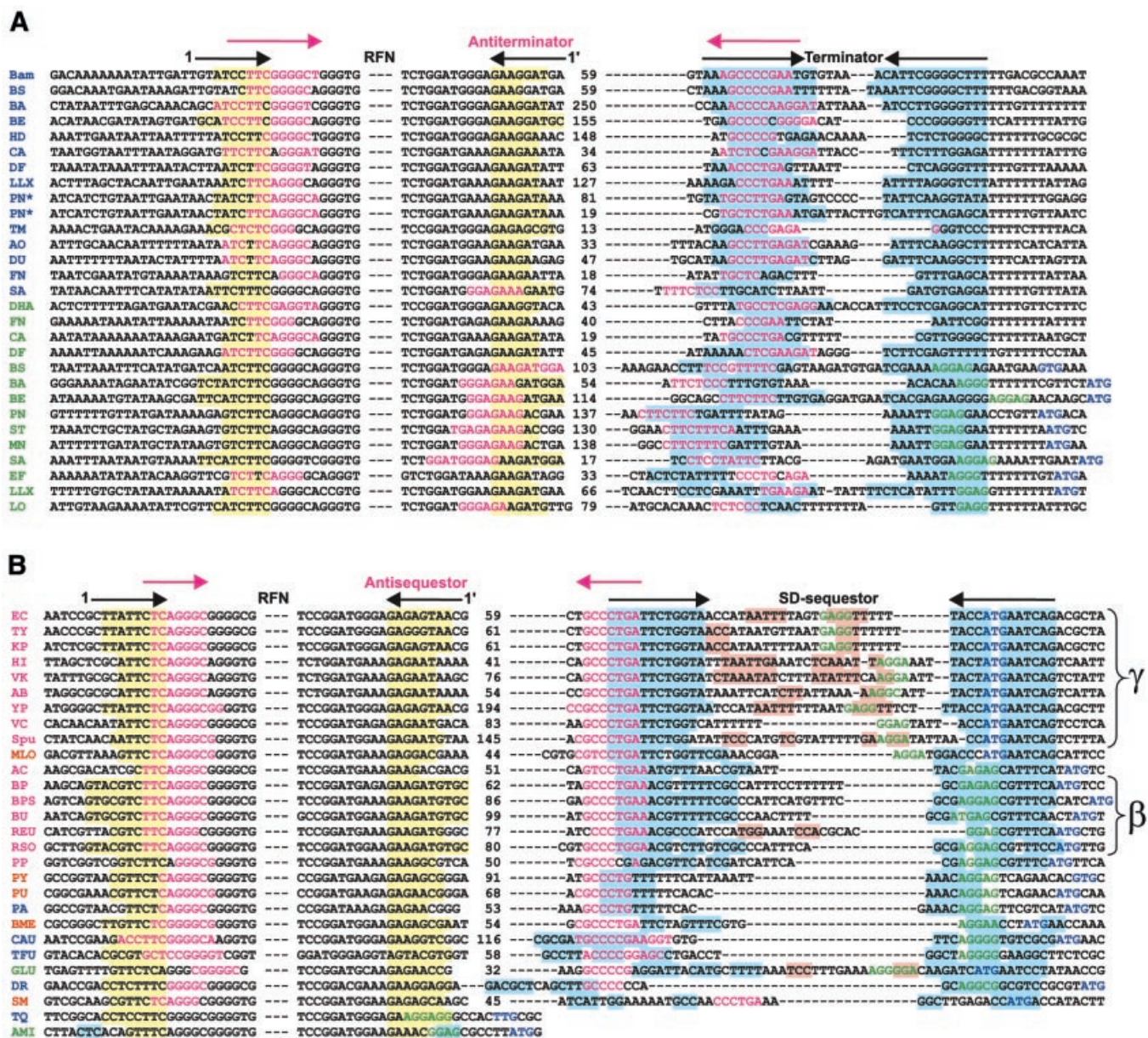
In other cases, mostly in Gram-negative bacteria, the RNA hairpins downstream of the *RFN* element sequester the ribosome-binding site (the SD-box). In most cases we have found a highly conserved sequence, GCCCTGA, which overlaps the proposed sequestor hairpin and is complementary to the base stem of the *RFN* element (Figs 4B and 5B). These two complementary sequences always form the stem of the RNA secondary structure, anti-sequestor, which is more stable than the *RFN* element. The proposed mechanism of translational regulation of the RB operons is similar to the termination-anti-termination mechanism described above, but includes the SD-sequestor instead of the terminator. In the repressing conditions, *RFN* prevents formation of the anti-sequestor, and the SD-sequestor structure represses the initiation of translation. In the de-repressing conditions, *RFN* is replaced by the anti-sequestor that releases the SD-box and allows for initiation of translation.

We have observed two main arrangements of sequestors with respect to the SD-box and the start codon. The highly conserved sequestors in *ribB* in  $\gamma$ -proteobacteria overlap both the start codons and the SD-boxes, whereas in *ribB* of  $\beta$ -proteobacteria, sequestors overlap only the SD-boxes.

Analysis of the 5'-non-coding RNA regions of the *ypaA* genes reveals two possibilities for the regulation. In most cases the predicted terminator hairpin overlaps the SD-box of the *ypaA* gene. Therefore, this hairpin can function both as a terminator and a sequestor. The *RFN* elements of *ribD* of *T.thermophilus* and *ypaA* of *A.minutum* overlaps the SD-boxes



**Figure 4.** The predicted mechanism of the *RFN*-mediated regulation of riboflavin genes: (A) transcription attenuation; (B) translation attenuation.



**Figure 5.** The conserved RNA elements in the upstream regions of the *RFN*-regulated genes: (A) the *RFN* elements and potential terminators; (B) the *RFN* elements and potential SD-sequesters. The yellow background indicates the first stem of the *RFN* element. The blue background indicates the proposed terminator/SD-sequester. Mangenta text indicates the main stem of the anti-terminator or anti-sequester. Arrows in the upper line show the complementary stems of these RNA secondary structures. The SD-box and the start codon are shown in green and blue, respectively. The pink background indicates additional helices in the loop of the SD-sequester. The color code of the genome abbreviations in the first column is as in Figure 3. The presence of two terminators in the upstream region of the *S.pneumoniae* riboflavin operon is marked by an asterisk. The distinct groups of conserved sequesters from  $\gamma$ - and  $\beta$ -proteobacteria are marked.

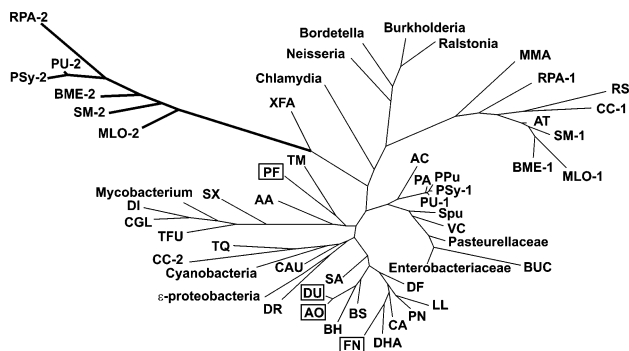
directly. In these cases we predict that *RFN* regulates translation without additional RNA elements. In the presence of FMN, the stabilized *RFN* element represses initiation of translation. Conversely, *RFN* is not stable in the absence of FMN which results in opening of the SD-box and releasing from repression.

The left stem of the main helix of the predicted anti-terminator overlaps either the left or the right part of the base stem of the *RFN* element (Fig. 5A). In the first case, the anti-terminator is formed by the spacer between *RFN* and the

terminator with intact *RFN* hairpins. At that, the spacer potentially folds into an additional secondary structure. In the second case, which is predominant for the *ypaA* genes, the alternative secondary structure of the anti-terminator only partially overlaps the *RFN* element and the terminator.

**Paralogs and horizontal transfer**

Comparison of RB protein phylogenetic trees with the standard trees for ribosomal proteins reveals some unusual branches. The most interesting observation is the likely



**Figure 6.** The maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of bacterial riboflavin synthases encoded by the *ribH* gene. The genome abbreviations are listed in Table 1. The separate branch including the *ribH2* genes from some  $\alpha$ -proteobacteria and *Pseudomonas* species is shown by bold lines. The *ribH* genes likely to be horizontally transferred are boxed.

horizontal transfer of the RB operon from the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group to two proteobacterial genomes. For instance, the RibH proteins from *H.ducreyi* and *A.pleuropneumoniae* cluster with RibH from the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group (Fig. 6). The same holds for other phylogenetic trees (data not shown). Moreover, the RB operon structure in these two proteobacteria differs from that of other proteobacteria, and is similar to the operon structure observed in the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group. Finally, the *RFN* elements upstream of these operons are of the Gram-positive type.

Another example of possible horizontal transfer is the RB operon of *F.nucleatum*. Again, the RB proteins of this bacterium cluster with the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group (e.g. in the RibH tree, Fig. 6). Furthermore, the new *RFN*-regulated transporter ImpX from *F.nucleatum* has only one ortholog in *D.halfniense*, the latter belonging to the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group.

Finally, the RB operon observed in *Pyrococcus furiosus* also seems to be transferred, probably from *T.maritima*, as the *P.furiosus* RB proteins consistently cluster with those of *T.maritima* (e.g. in the RibH tree, Fig. 6), whereas closely related *Pyrococcus horicoshii* and *Pyrococcus abyssi* have no RB genes.

Some  $\alpha$ -proteobacteria and *Pseudomonas* species have two *ribH* paralogs, *ribH* in the RB operon and a single gene *ribH2* (Table 1). Interestingly, most single *ribH2* genes, in contrast to *ribH*, are regulated by the *RFN* element. The RibH2 proteins form a separate group in the RibH phylogenetic tree. The same was observed for the *ribE* gene in proteobacteria. Some genomes, in particular *E.coli*, have a single *ribE* gene. Other genomes either have a related, non-orthologous gene in the RB operon, named *ribE2*, or both *ribE2* and *ribE* (Table 1). Unlike single *ribH2* genes, single *ribE* genes are not regulated by *RFN*. Finally, most proteobacteria contain single *ribB* and *ribA* genes as well as a fused *ribB/A* gene which is usually located in the RB operon. The single *ribA* gene is never regulated by *RFN*, whereas the single *ribB* gene in all cases is *RFN*-regulated.

As mentioned above, the riboflavin operons in proteobacteria are not regulated by *RFN*, with the only exception being *P.aeruginosa*. In this genome we have observed a possible insertion of the *RFN* element inside the *ybaD-ribD-ribE2-*

*rib(B/A)-ribH-nusB* operon upstream of the *ribE2* gene. Strikingly, the alignment of the upstream sequences of the *ribE2* gene from *P.aeruginosa* and the *ribH2* genes from other *Pseudomonas* species shows that both *RFN* and the predicted sequester are highly conserved (Fig. 7). This highly conserved region overlaps with the *ribH2* start codon. However, the sequester does not overlap the SD-box of the *ribE2* gene in *P.aeruginosa*, as the *ribE2* start codon lies ~100 nt downstream. A possible explanation of this mysterious case of the *RFN*-mediated regulation is that regulation is carried out via translation of the leader peptide. Such a mechanism was described for regulation of the erythromycin resistance genes in *B.subtilis* (31). Another possibility is that we observe the result of a recent horizontal transfer, which will eventually lead to formation of a functional regulation cassette or will be eliminated. The latter possibility seems to be corroborated by the phylogenetic tree of *RFN* elements (Fig. 8). Indeed, the *RFN* element of *ribE* from *P.aeruginosa* tightly clusters with the *RFN* elements of *ribH* genes from other *Pseudomonas* species.

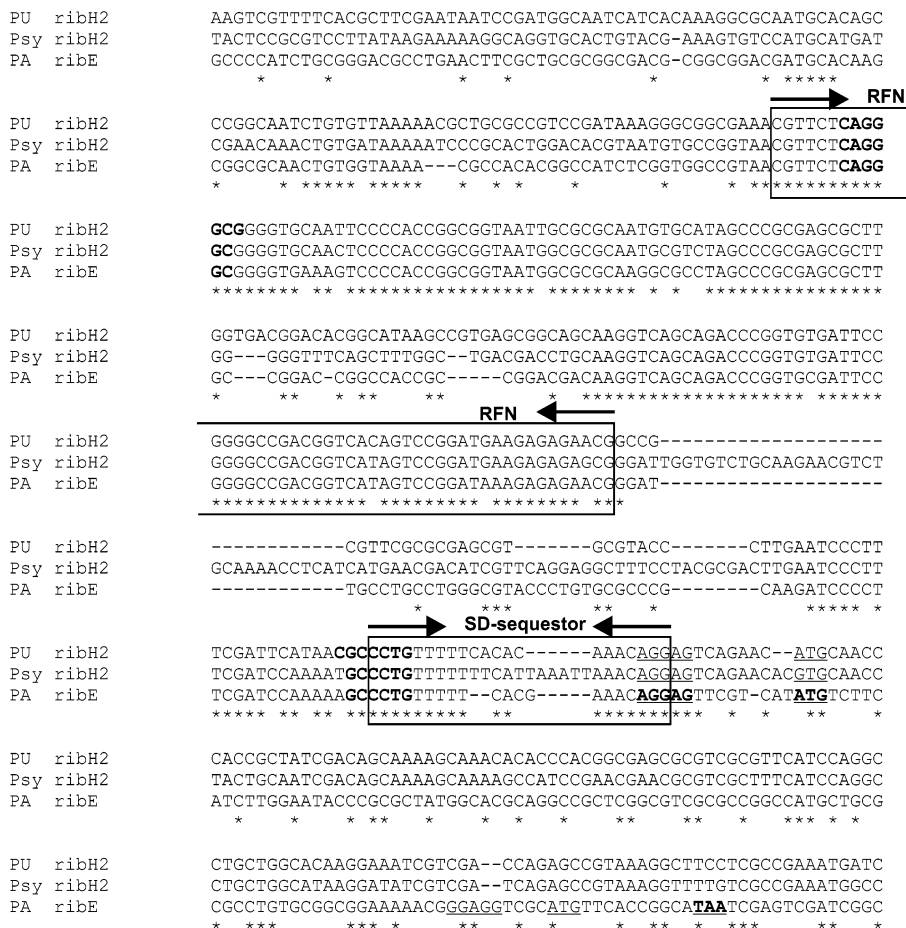
Consistent with the structural analysis (above), the tree of *RFN* elements can be roughly divided into two main branches corresponding to Gram-positive and Gram-negative types. Another noteworthy feature of this tree is that in five of nine genomes containing two *RFN* elements, these elements form a single branch. On the other hand, no consistent clustering of functionally similar *RFN* elements (those upstream of the *rib* operons in the *Bacillus/Clostridium* genomes and those upstream of the *ypaA* genes) was observed. Thus, it is likely that the evolution of the *RFN* elements involved several independent genome-specific duplications.

## DISCUSSION

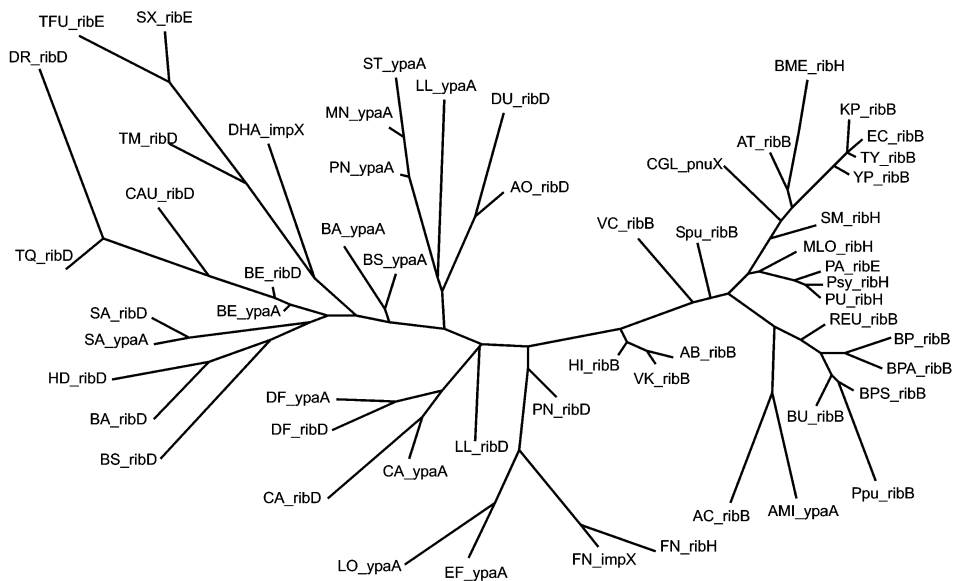
Using the global analysis of *RFN* elements in available bacterial genomes, we have found that this conserved RNA regulatory element is widely distributed in eubacteria. Analysis of the operon structure shows that *RFN* predominantly regulates single RB genes (*ribB* or *ribH2*) in proteobacteria and the RB operon in most Gram-positive bacteria. Thus, in contrast to only one regulated step of riboflavin biosynthesis in the former taxonomic group, the complete riboflavin biosynthetic pathway is under FMN-mediated regulation in the latter group of bacteria. Another phylogenetic observation is that all observed *RFN* elements are divided into two major groups based on conservation of the fragment close to the variable stem-loop. Moreover, single RB genes seem to be regulated on the level of translation, whereas the RB operons are predicted to be regulated on the level of transcription. As a result, Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria significantly differ in the *RFN* element structure, the target of *RFN*-mediated regulation, and the predicted mechanism of the regulation.

The exact mechanism of regulation is not clear. It is known that FMNs can specifically bind to RNA aptamers (32). The FMN-mediated regulation of the RB genes apparently requires high conservation of the sequence and the structure of *RFN* due to possible FMN binding to this site. Preliminary experimental data seem to confirm involvement of the transcriptional and translational attenuation in the regulation of RB gene expression in *B.subtilis* and *E.coli*, respectively,





**Figure 7.** The multiple alignment of the *ribH2* upstream regions from *P. fluorescens* (PU) and *P. syringiae* (Psy) and the *ribE2* upstream region from *P. aeruginosa* (PA). The highly conserved RFN elements and the predicted SD-sequestors are boxed. The main stems of the predicted anti-sequestors are shown in bold-face. The predicted SD-boxes and start codons of *ribH2* and *ribE* are underlined. The predicted SD-box, start and stop codons of a possible short leader ORF upstream of *ribE* are set in bold-face and underlined.



**Figure 8.** The maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of the RFN elements. The names of the first genes of the RFN-regulated operons are given. The genome abbreviations are listed in Table 1.

although this model seems to be insufficient to explain all observations (A. S. Mironov, personal communication). Indeed, a number of other factors are known to be involved in the riboflavin regulation in a variety of bacteria. In particular, the *ribA* gene of *E.coli* is regulated by the *soxRS* locus, which is responsible for the superoxide stress response (33), and *ribBA* of *H.pylori* is regulated by the iron utilization repressor FUR (34,35). Together with observations of Fur-regulation of the superoxide stress-related genes *sodA* in *E.coli* (36), *fumC* and *sodA* in *P.aeruginosa* (37), *sodA* and *sodB* in *Pseudomonas putida* (38) and, vice versa, the regulation of the *fur* gene by SoxRS in *E.coli* (39) and regulation of siderophore biosynthesis by oxidative stress in *Azotobacter vinelandii* (40), this establishes an interconnection between response to the superoxide stress, iron metabolism and flavinogenesis, supported also by the observed co-regulation of the latter two systems in the yeast *Pichia guilliermondii* (41).

One of the remaining open problems is the meaning of positional clustering of *ybaD* and *nusB* genes with riboflavin operons in proteobacteria. The hypothetical protein YbaD contains a Zn-ribbon domain and is highly conserved in bacteria. Zn-ribbons participate in various functions, in particular DNA or RNA binding and redox reactions (42). The RNA-binding protein NusB is involved in anti-termination of *E.coli* ribosomal RNA operons and lambdaoid phage genes (43,44). Their functional relationship with the riboflavin biosynthesis is not clear, although it has been suggested that YbaD is the riboflavin repressor (45). At that, it might be relevant that the *ybaD*- and *nusB*-containing RB operons are not regulated by *RFN* with only one exception in *P.aeruginosa* resulting from horizontal transfer. However, other genes in the same genomes are often regulated by *RFN*.

There are four riboflavin-related transporters. One of them is *ypaA* in Gram-positive bacteria from the *Bacillus/Clostridium* group, *A.minutum* (an actinomycete) and *T.maritima*. It is always a single gene preceded by *RFN* elements in all genomes excluding *T.maritima*. Its specificity for riboflavin and co-regulation with the RB genes was predicted in our previous paper (17) and confirmed in experiments (15,18). Two newly identified transporters, *pnuX* from actinomycetes and *impX* from *F.nucleatum* and Gram-positive bacterium *D.halfniense* are always regulated by *RFN*, the former as a single gene or within an operon, and the latter in both cases as a single gene. The PnuX protein is homologous to the mononucleotide transporter PnuC from enterobacteria. One more candidate transporter is *rfnT* from Rhizobiaceae. However, this prediction is less certain than that for other transporters, as it is based solely on positional clustering.

Finally, this study has demonstrated that the evolutionary history of the RB genes involves a number of horizontal transfer events both of the structural genes and the regulatory *RFN* element. These events manifest in protein phylogenetic trees, operon structures and the *RFN* element architecture.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to Andrei Osterman for attention, advice and encouragement, Ekaterina Panina, Iain Anderson and Svetlana Gerdes for useful discussions, and D. A. Perumov and A. S. Mironov for sharing preliminary experimental data. This study

was partially supported by grants from INTAS (99-1476) and the Howard Hughes Medical Institute (55000309).

## REFERENCES

- Perkins,J.B. and Pero,J.G. (2001) Vitamin biosynthesis. In Sonenshein,A.L., Hoch,J.A. and Losick,R. (eds), *Bacillus subtilis and Its Relatives: From Genes to Cells*. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, DC, pp. 279–293.
- Gusarov,I.I., Kreneva,R.A., Podcharniaev,D.A., Iomantas,I.V., Abalagina,E.G., Stoinova,N.V., Perumov,D.A. and Kozlov,I.I. (1997) Riboflavin biosynthetic genes in *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*: primary structure, organization and regulation of activity. *Mol. Biol.*, **31**, 446–453.
- Fuller,T.E. and Mulks,M.H. (1995) Characterization of *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae* riboflavin biosynthesis genes. *J. Bacteriol.*, **177**, 7265–7270.
- Bereswill,S., Hinkelmann,S., Kist,M. and Sander,A. (1999) Molecular analysis of riboflavin synthesis genes in *Bartonella henselae* and use of the *ribC* gene for differentiation of *Bartonella* species by PCR. *J. Clin. Microbiol.*, **37**, 3159–3166.
- Lee,C.Y., O’Kane,D.J. and Meighen,E.A. (1994) Riboflavin synthesis genes are linked with the *lux* operon of *Photobacterium phosphoreum*. *J. Bacteriol.*, **176**, 2100–2104.
- Lin,J.W., Chao,Y.F. and Weng,S.F. (2001) Riboflavin synthesis genes *ribE*, *ribB*, *ribH*, *ribA* reside in the *lux* operon of *Photobacterium leiognathi*. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, **284**, 587–595.
- Lee,C.Y., Szittner,R.B., Miyamoto,C.M. and Meighen,E.A. (1993) The gene convergent to *luxG* in *Vibrio fischeri* codes for a protein related in sequence to RibG and deoxycytidylate deaminase. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta*, **1143**, 337–339.
- Bacher,A., Eberhardt,S. and Richter,G. (1994) Biosynthesis of riboflavin. In Neidhardt,F.C. (ed.), *Escherichia coli and Salmonella. Cellular and Molecular Biology*. American Society for Microbiology, Washington, DC, pp. 657–664.
- Kreneva,R.A. and Perumov,D.A. (1990) Genetic mapping of regulatory mutations of *Bacillus subtilis* riboflavin operon. *Mol. Gen. Genet.*, **222**, 467–469.
- Solov’eva,I.M., Iomantas,Iu.A., Kreneva,R.A., Kozlov,Iu.I. and Perumov,D.A. (1997) Cloning of *ribR*, an additional regulatory gene of the *Bacillus subtilis* riboflavin operon. *Genetika*, **33**, 739–743.
- Kil,Y.V., Mironov,V.N., Gorishin,I.Yu., Kreneva,R.A. and Perumov,D.A. (1992) Riboflavin operon of *Bacillus subtilis*: unusual symmetric arrangement of the regulatory region. *Mol. Gen. Genet.*, **233**, 483–486.
- Gusarov,I.I., Kreneva,R.A., Rybak,K.V., Podcharniaev,D.A., Iomantas,Iu.V., Kolibaba,L.G., Polanuer,B.M., Kozlov,Iu.I. and Perumov,D.A. (1997) Primary structure and functional activity of the *Bacillus subtilis* *ribC* gene. *Mol. Biol.*, **31**, 820–825.
- Mack,M., van Loon,A.P., Hohmann,H.P. (1998) Regulation of riboflavin biosynthesis in *Bacillus subtilis* is affected by the activity of the flavokinase/flavin adenine dinucleotide synthetase encoded by *ribC*. *J. Bacteriol.*, **180**, 950–955.
- Solovieva,I.M., Kreneva,R.A., Leak,D.J. and Perumov,D.A. (1999) The *ribR* gene encodes a monofunctional riboflavin kinase which is involved in regulation of the *Bacillus subtilis* riboflavin operon. *Microbiology*, **145**, 67–73.
- Lee,J.M., Zhang,S., Saha,S., Santa Anna,S., Jiang,C. and Perkins,J. (2001) RNA expression analysis using an antisense *Bacillus subtilis* genome array. *J. Bacteriol.*, **183**, 7371–7380.
- Azevedo,V., Sorokin,A., Ehrlich,S.D. and Serron,P. (1993) The transcriptional organization of the *Bacillus subtilis* 168 chromosome region between the *spoVAF* and *serA* genetic loci. *Mol. Microbiol.*, **10**, 397–405.
- Gelfand,M.S., Mironov,A.A., Iomantas,J., Kozlov,Y.I. and Perumov,D.A. (1999) A conserved RNA structure element involved in the regulation of bacterial riboflavin synthesis genes. *Trends Genet.*, **15**, 439–442.
- Kreneva,R.A., Gelfand,M.S., Mironov,A.A., Iomantas,I.A., Kozlov,I.I., Mironov,A.S. and Perumov,D.A. (2000) Study of the phenotypic occurrence of *ypaA* gene inactivation in *Bacillus subtilis*. *Genetika*, **36**, 1166–1168.

19. Gelfand, M.S., Novichkov, P.S., Novichkova, E.S. and Mironov, A.A. (2000) Comparative analysis of regulatory patterns in bacterial genomes. *Brief Bioinform.*, **1**, 357–371.
20. Panina, E.M., Vitreschak, A.G., Mironov, A.A. and Gelfand, M.S. (2001) Regulation of aromatic amino acid biosynthesis in gamma-proteobacteria. *J. Mol. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*, **3**, 529–543.
21. Eddy, S.R. and Durbin, R. (1994) RNA sequence analysis using covariance models. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **22**, 2079–2088.
22. Dandekar, T., Beyer, K., Bork, P., Kenealy, M.R., Pantopoulos, K., Hentze, M., Sonntag-Buck, V., Flouriot, G., Gannon, F. and Schreiber, S. (1998) Systematic genomic screening and analysis of mRNA in untranslated regions and mRNA precursors: combining experimental and computational approaches. *Bioinformatics*, **14**, 271–278.
23. Overbeek, R., Fonstein, M., D'Souza, M., Pusch, G.D. and Maltsev, N. (1999) The use of gene clusters to infer functional coupling. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, **96**, 2896–2901.
24. Benson, D.A., Karsch-Mizrachi, I., Lipman, D.J., Ostell, J., Rapp, B.A. and Wheeler, D.L. (2000) GenBank. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **28**, 15–18.
25. Overbeek, R., Larsen, N., Pusch, G.D., D'Souza, M., Selkov, E.Jr, Kyrpides, N., Fonstein, M., Maltsev, N. and Selkov, E. (2000) WIT: integrated system for high-throughput genome sequence analysis and metabolic reconstruction. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **28**, 123–125.
26. Lyngso, R.B., Zuker, M. and Pedersen, C.N. (1999) Fast evaluation of internal loops in RNA secondary structure prediction. *Bioinformatics*, **15**, 440–445.
27. Altschul, S., Madden, T., Schaffer, A., Zhang, J., Zhang, Z., Miller, W. and Lipman, D. (1997) Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database search programs. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **25**, 3389–3402.
28. Mironov, A.A., Vinokurova, N.P. and Gelfand, M.S. (2000) GenomeExplorer: software for analysis of complete bacterial genomes. *Mol. Biol.*, **34**, 222–231.
29. Thompson, J.D., Gibson, T.J., Plewniak, F., Jeanmougin, F. and Higgins, D.G. (1997) The CLUSTAL\_X windows interface: flexible strategies for multiple sequence alignment aided by quality analysis tools. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **25**, 4876–4882.
30. Felsenstein, J. (1981) Evolutionary trees from DNA sequences: a maximum likelihood approach. *J. Mol. Evol.*, **17**, 368–376.
31. Hue, K.K. and Bechhofer, D.H. (1991) Effect of *ermC* leader region mutations on induced mRNA stability. *J. Bacteriol.*, **173**, 3732–3740.
32. Hermann, T. and Patel, D.J. (2000) Adaptive recognition by nucleic acid aptamers. *Science*, **287**, 820–825.
33. Koh, Y.S., Choih, J., Lee, J.H. and Roe, J.H. (1996) Regulation of the *ribA* gene encoding GTP cyclohydrolase II by the *soxRS* locus in *Escherichia coli*. *Mol. Gen. Genet.*, **251**, 591–598.
34. Fassbinder, F., van Vliet, A.H., Gimmel, V., Kusters, J.G., Kist, M. and Bereswill, S. (2000) Identification of iron-regulated genes of *Helicobacter pylori* by a modified fur titration assay (FURTA-Hp). *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.*, **184**, 225–229.
35. Worst, D.J., Gerrits, M.M., Vandenbroucke-Grauls, C.M. and Kusters, J.G. (1998) *Helicobacter pylori* *ribBA*-mediated riboflavin production is involved in iron acquisition. *J. Bacteriol.*, **180**, 1473–1479.
36. Hassan, H.M. and Schrum, L.W. (1994) Roles of manganese and iron in the regulation of the biosynthesis of manganese-superoxide dismutase in *Escherichia coli*. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.*, **14**, 3153–3123.
37. Hassett, D.J., Howell, M.L., Ochsner, U.A., Vasil, M.L., Johnson, Z. and Dean, G.E. (1997) An operon containing *fumC* and *sodA* encoding fumarase C and manganese superoxide dismutase is controlled by the ferric uptake regulator in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*: *fur* mutants produce elevated alginate levels. *J. Bacteriol.*, **179**, 1452–1459.
38. Kim, Y.C., Miller, C.D. and Anderson, A.J. (1999) Transcriptional regulation by iron of genes encoding iron- and manganese-superoxide dismutases from *Pseudomonas putida*. *Gene*, **239**, 129–135.
39. Zheng, M., Doan, B., Schneider, T.D. and Storz, G. (1999) OxyR and SoxRS regulation of *fur*. *J. Bacteriol.*, **181**, 4639–4643.
40. Tindale, A.E., Mehrotra, M., Ottem, D. and Page, W.J. (2000) Dual regulation of catecholate siderophore biosynthesis in *Azotobacter vinelandii* by iron and oxidative stress. *Microbiology*, **146**, 1617–1626.
41. Fedorovich, D., Protchenko, O. and Lesuisse, E. (1999) Iron uptake by the yeast *Pichia guilliermondii*. Flavinogenesis and reductive iron assimilation are co-regulated processes. *Biometals*, **12**, 295–300.
42. Aravind, L. and Koonin, E.V. (1999) DNA-binding proteins and evolution of transcription regulation in the archaea. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **27**, 4658–4670.
43. Nodwell, J.R. and Greenblatt, J. (1993) Recognition of boxA antiterminator RNA by the *E. coli* antitermination factors NusB and ribosomal protein S10. *Cell*, **72**, 261–268.
44. Luttgen, H., Robelek, R., Muhlberger, R., Diercks, T., Schuster, S.C., Kohler, P., Kessler, H., Bacher, A. and Richter, G. (2002) Transcriptional regulation by antitermination. Interaction of RNA with NusB protein and NusB/NusE protein complex of *Escherichia coli*. *J. Mol. Biol.*, **316**, 875–885.
45. Wolf, Y.I., Rogozin, I.B., Kondrashov, A.S. and Koonin, E.V. (2001) Genome alignment, evolution of prokaryotic genome organization and prediction of gene function using genomic context. *Genome Res.*, **11**, 356–372.