

An overlap between osmotic and anaerobic stress responses: a potential role for DNA supercoiling in the coordinate regulation of gene expression

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Summary

The regulation of several genes in response to osmotic and anaerobic stress has been examined. We have demonstrated a clear overlap between these two regulatory signals. Thus, the osmotically induced *proU* and *ompC* genes require anaerobic growth for optimum induction while the anaerobically induced *tppB* gene is also regulated by osmolarity. Furthermore, normal expression of *tppB* and *ompC* requires the positive regulatory protein OmpR, yet this requirement can be partially, or even fully, overcome by altering the growth conditions. Finally, the pleiotropic, anaerobic regulatory locus, *oxrC*, is also shown to affect expression of the osmotically regulated *proU* gene. The *oxrC* mutation is shown to affect the level of negative supercoiling of plasmid DNA and its effects on gene expression can be explained as secondary consequences of altered DNA topology. We suggest that there is a class of 'stress-regulated' genes that are regulated by a common mechanism in response to different environmental signals. Furthermore, our data are consistent with the notion that this regulatory overlap is mediated by changes in DNA supercoiling in response to these environmental stresses.

Introduction

There is now considerable evidence for global regulatory networks in which a given environmental signal causes the coordinate induction or repression of a number of diverse and unlinked genes (Gottesman, 1984). For example, when cells are shifted from aerobic to anaerobic growth conditions the rate of synthesis of over fifty proteins is altered (Smith and Neidhardt, 1983a,b; Spector *et al.*, 1986). Similarly, the expression of many genes is affected by changes in the osmolarity or pH of the growth medium (Higgins *et al.*, 1987; Guitierrez *et al.*, 1987; Aliabadi *et al.*, 1988). Unlike more specific regulatory stimuli, such as the presence or absence of a defined nutrient, these more

'diffuse' environmental changes have often proved less tractable when it comes to identifying regulatory proteins which mediate the cell response. For example, although the FNR protein was identified many years ago as a positive regulator of a number of anaerobically induced genes (Newman and Cole, 1978; Lambden and Guest, 1976), it is now clear that many anaerobic genes are FNR-independent. Additional regulatory loci, each affecting a different subset of anaerobically induced genes, have been identified (Jamieson and Higgins, 1984; 1986; Aliabadi *et al.*, 1988). Similarly, selections designed to identify genes responsible for osmotic control of gene expression have failed to identify a global osmotic regulatory protein (Higgins *et al.*, 1988). Although the OmpR and EnvZ proteins are important for the osmotic regulation of porin expression (Hall and Silhavy, 1981a,b), the expression of most osmotically regulated genes is OmpR- and EnvZ-independent (Cairney *et al.*, 1985; May *et al.*, 1986; Guitierrez *et al.*, 1987).

DNA supercoiling is known to play an important role in determining the efficiency with which many promoters are transcribed. Two enzymes, DNA gyrase and DNA topoisomerase I, are primarily responsible for determining the level of DNA supercoiling. DNA gyrase adds negative supercoils in an energy-dependent reaction while topoisomerase I removes supercoils and relaxes DNA. Perturbation of the activities of these enzymes, by mutation or by the use of inhibitors, affects transcription from a variety of promoters (Sanzey, 1979; Drlica, 1984; 1987; Richardson *et al.*, 1984; Menzel and Gellert, 1987; Jovanovich and Lebowitz, 1987) and many promoters are sensitive to DNA supercoiling *in vitro* (Wood and Lebowitz, 1984; Borowiec and Gralla, 1987; Dixon *et al.*, 1988). Recently it has been demonstrated that the supercoiling of cellular DNA is not maintained at a constant level but varies in response to growth conditions. Thus, environmental stresses such as osmolarity or anaerobicity can influence the supercoiling of cellular DNA (Higgins *et al.*, 1988; Dorman *et al.*, 1988). Other factors such as growth phase and carbon limitation also affect DNA topology (Dorman *et al.*, 1988; Balke and Gralla, 1987). Furthermore, these changes in DNA supercoiling appear to be responsible for regulating the expression of a number of specific genes in response to environmental stimuli (Higgins *et al.*, 1988; Dorman *et al.*, 1988). The finding that different environmental stresses

can have apparently similar effects on DNA supercoiling leads to the prediction that supercoiling-sensitive genes may be regulated in response to multiple stimuli. In this paper we test this prediction. Although our findings are limited to a subset of genes, our results demonstrate a clear overlap between the responses to osmotic stress and to the availability of oxygen. We suggest that there is a class of 'stress-induced' genes whose expression is influenced by a variety of external stimuli and is regulated by a common mechanism. Our data support the model that environmentally induced changes in DNA supercoiling play an important role in the regulation of bacterial gene expression in response to stress. Changes in DNA supercoiling appear to provide an underlying global regulatory network upon which more specific regulatory processes are superimposed.

Results and Discussion

Both increased osmolarity and anaerobic growth can lead to an increase in the degree of negative supercoiling of cellular DNA and, furthermore, these topological changes appear to be responsible for the induction or repression of certain genes (Higgins *et al.*, 1988; Dorman *et al.*, 1988). These findings lead to the prediction that genes induced or repressed by, for example, osmolarity, might also be affected by anaerobic growth, and vice versa. We have therefore examined the effects of both osmolarity and anaerobiosis on the expression of genes that are generally considered to be specifically regulated by only one of these stimuli.

The OmpC porin is anaerobically regulated

The OmpC and OmpF porins are major outer membrane proteins of *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella typhimurium*. The relative levels of these proteins depend upon growth conditions, the most important of which is generally considered to be osmolarity (Hall and Silhavy, 1981a). At low osmolarity, transcription of *ompF* predominates and *ompC* is repressed, while at high osmolarity, *ompF* is repressed and *ompC* expression is increased.

To assess whether porin expression in *E. coli* is also regulated by oxygen availability, we took advantage of *ompC-lacZ* and *ompF-lacZ* operon fusions (Table 1). At constant osmolarity, the expression of *ompC* was strongly induced by anaerobic growth and was repressed in highly aerated cultures. Induction by osmolarity and by anaerobiosis did not appear to be additive. In contrast, *ompF-lacZ* expression was relatively unaffected by anaerobic incubation; for *ompF*, the osmolarity of the growth medium appears to be the major regulatory factor. Since *ompC-lacZ* fusions are not available in *S. typhimurium*, expression of the porins in this species was monitored by

Table 1. Effect of anaerobiosis on porin expression in *E. coli*.

Strain	+O ₂	+O ₂ +0.3M NaCl	-O ₂	-O ₂ +0.3M NaCl
MH225 (<i>ompC-lacZ</i>)	247	592	1135	1078
CH1145 (<i>ompC-lacZ ompR</i>)	11	14	50	44
MH513 (<i>ompF-lacZ</i>)	363	185	464	141
CH1147 (<i>ompF-lacZ ompR</i>)	4	2	3	2

Cells were grown in minimal glucose medium, aerobically or anaerobically, in the presence or absence of 0.3M NaCl as indicated. β -galactosidase activity was assayed for cells in early-exponential growth.

gel electrophoresis (Fig. 1). The anaerobic induction of OmpC was similar to that found for the *E. coli omp-lacZ* fusions.

These results show that anaerobiosis is an important component in the regulation of *ompC* expression. Indeed, the *ompC* gene can be efficiently induced in anaerobic cultures in the absence of any increase in growth-medium osmolarity; *ompC* could be justifiably designated as an anaerobically regulated gene rather than (as is generally the case) as an osmoregulated gene.

proU expression requires anaerobic growth

The *proU* gene encodes a glycine-betaine transport system which plays an important role in the cell's adaptation to osmotic stress (Csonka, 1982; Cairney *et al.*, 1985; May *et al.*, 1986). Expression of *proU* is tightly regulated by medium osmolarity and this regulation appears to be mediated by changes in chromosomal supercoiling (Higgins *et al.*, 1988). Figure 2 shows that anaerobiosis also has a considerable influence on *proU* expression. Like *ompC*, expression of *proU* is strongly induced by anaerobic growth although, unlike *ompC*, expression of *proU* shows an absolute requirement for raised osmolarity. The apparent decrease in *proU* expression observed at very high osmolarities (0.45M NaCl) is due to a general inhibition of protein synthesis capacity under these conditions (unpublished results).

Most previous studies on *proU* expression have been carried out in semi-aerated cultures in which shaking is insufficient to achieve complete aeration during growth. Under such conditions we observe an intermediate level of expression, between that found for fully aerated and for fully anaerobic cultures (Fig. 2; Sutherland *et al.*, 1986). Thus, absolute anaerobiosis, such as that achieved with a GasPack, is not required for induction of *proU*. It should also be noted that when growing 'aerated' cultures in test tubes we frequently observe variability in *proU* expression between independent cultures, as a result of differences in

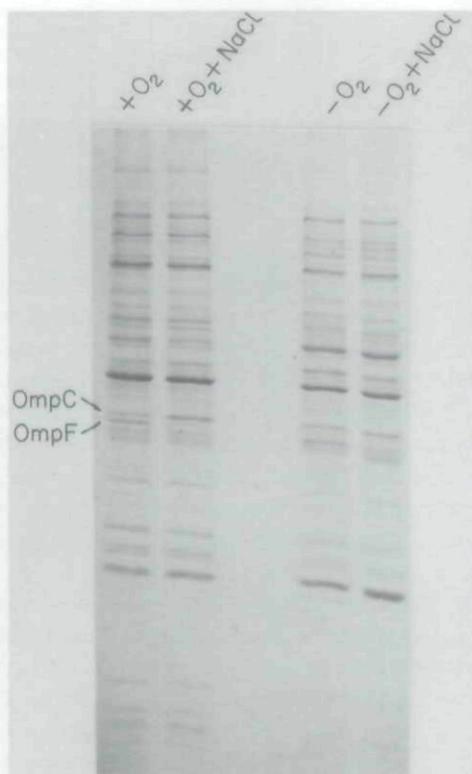


Fig. 1. The effect of anaerobic growth on the expression of OmpC and OmpF in *S. typhimurium*. The wild-type strain LT2 was grown in minimal-glucose medium at 37°C. 0.3M NaCl was added, where indicated, to increase the osmolarity of the medium. Cells were grown aerobically or anaerobically to mid-exponential phase, harvested, and cell proteins separated by electrophoresis on a 12.5% SDS-polyacrylamide gel. Protein bands were visualized by staining with Coomassie Brilliant Blue. The OmpC and OmpF porins are indicated.

aeration (affected by tube diameter and the density to which the culture was grown; data not shown). This illustrates the care that must be taken to ensure reproducible conditions during the study of promoters such as *proU*, which are affected by several different environmental parameters. Again, the distinction between osmotic and anaerobic genes becomes blurred. Indeed, if *proU* expression had originally been monitored in LB as a function of anaerobiosis the gene could, sensibly, have been designated as an anaerobically regulated gene.

Effect of medium osmolarity on *tppB* expression

The results above show that the expression of two well-characterized, osmotically regulated genes is also strongly influenced by changes in anaerobiosis. We were interested to determine whether the converse might also be true, i.e. whether genes normally considered to be part of the anaerobic response also respond to osmotic stress.

The *tppB* locus encodes the tripeptide permease of *S. typhimurium*. [Note: The latest *Salmonella* genetic map

(Sanderson and Roth, 1988) mistakenly designates *tppB* as allelic with *envZ*. This is entirely incorrect. *tppB* encodes the tripeptide permease and is located at 27 min on the chromosome.] Expression of *tppB* is induced by anaerobic growth and by leucine and/or alanine; the effects of these two regulatory signals are additive (Gibson *et al.*, 1984; Jamieson and Higgins, 1984). We previously reported that *tppB* is not osmotically regulated (Gibson *et al.*, 1987). Those experiments were carried out aerobically in rich medium (i.e. with leucine and alanine present) and are reproducible (Fig. 3). However, when grown anaerobically, *tppB* expression depends to a considerable extent on the osmolarity of the growth medium. At low osmolarity, expression is only 15% of that observed in the presence of 0.15M or 0.3M NaCl. Thus, both anaerobiosis and osmolarity play important roles in regulation of the 'anaerobic' *tppB* gene.

Our data imply a relationship between promoters such as *ompC*, *proU* and *tppB*, all of which are regulated by more than one stimulus. Other promoters also fall into this category (see below; unpublished results). Furthermore, data presented and discussed below suggest that these genes are regulated by a common mechanism involving changes in DNA supercoiling. We suggest that this class of genes be designated 'stress-regulated', rather than being referred to by the restrictive classifications of osmotically or anaerobically regulated genes.

Effects of gyrase inhibitors

Expression of the *tppB*, *ompC* and *proU* genes is stimulated both by osmolarity and by anaerobiosis. As both

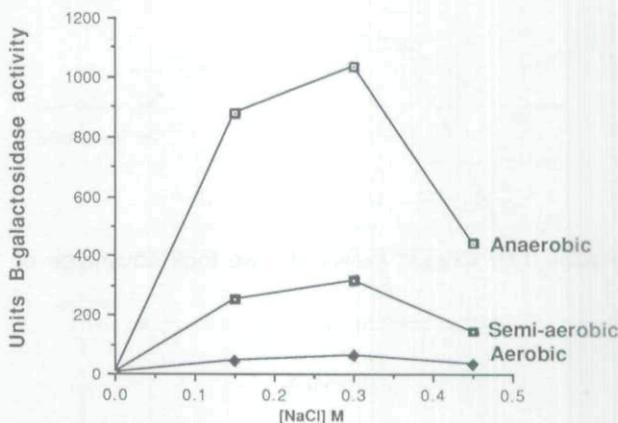


Fig. 2. The effect of osmolarity and anaerobiosis on *proU* expression. Cells of CH1301 (*proU-lacZ*) were grown at 37°C in minimal glucose medium containing the indicated amounts of added NaCl. β -galactosidase activity was assayed in exponentially growing cultures grown aerobically with extremely vigorous agitation (\blacklozenge), semi-aerobically in unshaken test tubes (\blacksquare), or anaerobically (\square).

Table 2. Effect of novobiocin on expression of a *tppB-lacZ* fusion.

Medium	MMA	MMA+NaCl	MMA +Novobiocin	MMA+NaCl +Novobiocin
Units β -galactosidase	148	1182	149	281

Strain CH776 (*tppB-lacZ*) was grown anaerobically in MMA \pm 0.3 M NaCl. Where indicated, novobiocin was added at 25 μ g ml⁻¹. β -galactosidase activity was assayed for cells in mid-exponential growth.

these stresses cause similar increases in DNA supercoiling, these results are consistent with the idea that changes in DNA supercoiling play an important role in their regulation. We have shown elsewhere that the *proU* and *ompC* promoters are highly supercoiling-sensitive. For example, their expression is affected by inhibitors of DNA gyrase (Higgins *et al.* 1988; Graeme-Cook *et al.*, 1989). The data in Table 2 show that, as predicted, the osmotic induction of *tppB* expression is also strongly reduced in the presence of novobiocin. This provides further evidence for a regulatory link between these 'stress-regulated' genes and demonstrates that changes in DNA supercoiling can have major effects on these 'stress-regulated' promoters.

The pleiotropic *oxrC* (oxygen regulation) mutation affects DNA supercoiling

The *oxrC* gene was originally identified as being essential for the anaerobic induction of *tppB* expression. In addition, *oxrC* mutations are highly pleiotropic and inhibit the anaerobic induction of a number of other anaerobically regulated functions, including the formate dehydrogenase component of formate hydrogen lyase, threonine dehydratase and two of the three hydrogenase isoenzymes

(Jamieson and Higgins, 1986). Surprisingly, *oxrC* mutations were found to be allelic with *pgi*, the structural gene for the glycolytic enzyme phosphoglucose isomerase (PGI), and the loss of PGI activity was found to be the primary defect in the reduced expression of anaerobic genes. As *oxrC* mutations could be phenotypically suppressed by the addition of fructose to the growth medium it was apparent that it was not loss of the PGI protein *per se* which prevented the anaerobic induction of gene expression, but simply the reduced flux of carbon through glycolysis.

Recently, Balke and Gralla (1987) found that carbon limitation could affect the supercoiling of plasmid DNA. This suggested to us that *oxrC* (*pgi*) mutants might mimic 'carbon-starvation', resulting in an alteration in DNA supercoiling and, consequently, altered levels of expression of certain anaerobic genes. If this were the case, the regulatory role of *oxrC* would not be expected to be specific to anaerobically induced genes but might also affect other supercoiling-dependent promoters. Table 3 shows that this is the case and that *oxrC* strains show reduced osmotic induction of *proU* expression. This provides further evidence for a regulatory overlap between the osmotic and anaerobic responses and the concept of 'stress-regulated' promoters.

The observed effects of *oxrC* mutations on gene expression are consistent with an indirect effect via changes in DNA topology. We therefore examined the topoisomer distribution of plasmid DNA isolated from congenic *oxrC*⁺ and *oxrC*⁻ strains (Fig. 4). As expected (Higgins *et al.*, 1988), growth at high osmolarity increased

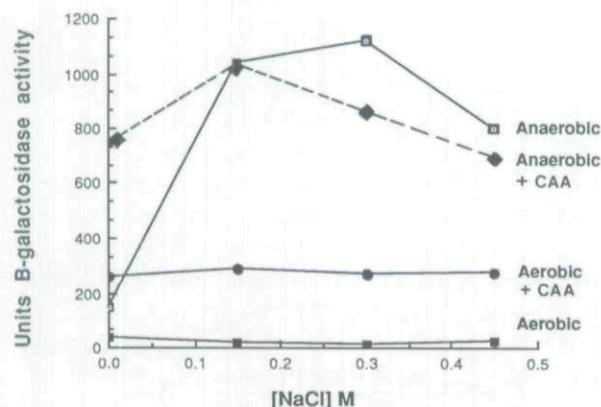


Fig. 3. The effect of osmolarity on expression of *tppB*. Strain CH776 (*tppB-lacZ*) was grown at 30°C in minimal glucose medium containing, where appropriate, 1 mg ml⁻¹ casamino acids (CAA; containing leucine and alanine, inducers of *tppB* expression) and the indicated concentrations of NaCl (■), aerobic growth without CAA; (●), aerobic growth with CAA; (□), anaerobic growth without CAA; (◆), anaerobic growth with CAA.

Table 3. Expression of *proU* in an *oxrC* mutant.

Strain	NB	NBS	NBSF	MFS	MGS
CH946 (<i>proU-lacZ</i>)	4	544	643	1010	1422
CH1723 (<i>proU-lacZ oxrC::Tn5</i>)	4	243	228	1388	ND

Cells were grown anaerobically in nutrient broth (NB) or minimal medium (M) containing, where indicated: fructose (0.4% F), glucose (0.4% G), NaCl (0.3M S). ND: not determined (*oxrC* mutants do not grow on MGS). The phenotypes of *oxrC* mutations are normally suppressed by fructose (Jamieson and Higgins, 1986). Surprisingly, fructose added to NB at high osmolarity (NBSF) failed to suppress the effect of *oxrC* mutations on *proU* expression. This observation could be explained if high osmolarity inhibits fructose uptake. The experiment was therefore repeated in minimal medium with fructose as sole carbon source (MFS). Under these conditions the effect of *oxrC* on *proU* expression was suppressed.

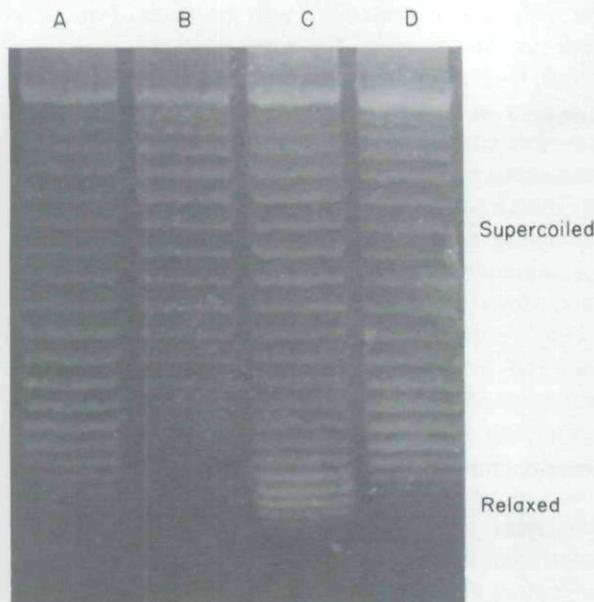


Fig. 4. The effect of an *oxrC* mutation on DNA supercoiling. Strains CH44 (*oxrC*⁺) and CH881 (*oxrC*⁻), each harbouring plasmid pACYC184, were grown in NB-tetracycline in the presence or absence of 0.3M NaCl. After overnight growth (10-ml cultures in universal bottles with gentle shaking) plasmid DNA was extracted and topoisomers separated by electrophoresis as described in the *Experimental procedures*. Lane A, CH44 NB; lane B, CH44 NB + NaCl; lane C, CH881 NB; lane D, CH881 NB + NaCl.

the negative supercoiling of isolated plasmid DNA. Whether the cells were grown at low- or at high osmolarity, the *oxrC* lesion resulted in a relaxation of the DNA. This is consistent with the observation that the *oxrC* mutation reduces *proU* expression. Although these measurements were on plasmid DNA, the fact that *oxrC* mutations affect expression from several supercoiling-sensitive chromosomal promoters implies a similar change in chromosomal DNA topology. Thus, the effects of *oxrC* mutations on gene expression appear to be purely indirect, causing a change in DNA supercoiling which has a 'knock-on' effect on gene expression. *oxrC* should no longer be considered as an anaerobic regulatory locus.

Increased osmolarity can overcome the requirement for activator proteins

Changes in DNA supercoiling appear to provide the primary means of regulating expression of 'stress-regulated' promoters, such as *proU*; no evidence for the involvement of a specific regulatory protein has been obtained (Higgins *et al.*, 1988). In contrast, the *ompC* and *tpdB* promoters require the positive regulatory proteins OmpR and EnvZ for normal expression (Hall and Silhavy, 1981b; Gibson *et al.*, 1987). How can the requirement for

these regulatory proteins be reconciled with a role for changes in DNA supercoiling in determining levels of expression?

OmpR and EnvZ are examples of a large family of two-component regulatory systems which regulate transcription (or other processes) in response to environmental stimuli (Ronson *et al.*, 1987). EnvZ is believed to be a membrane-associated protein which acts as a sensor and modifies OmpR (Slauch *et al.*, 1988). OmpR then interacts with the *ompC* and *ompF* promoter DNA to activate transcription (Norioka *et al.*, 1986; Maeda and Mizuno, 1988). However, the mechanisms by which EnvZ senses osmolarity and by which OmpR activates transcription remain obscure.

We examined the effects of anaerobiosis and osmolarity on *tpdB* and *ompC* expression in *ompR* mutants. Two different *ompR* insertion mutants were introduced into *tpdB* strains, one of which is towards the C-terminal end of OmpR and leaves a partially functional protein while the other insertion completely inactivates OmpR (Gibson *et al.*, 1987). Figure 5 shows that, for *tpdB*, the requirement for *ompR* can be overcome at elevated osmolarities. Indeed, expression of *tpdB* in an *ompR* mutant at high osmolarity is greater than that seen for the OmpR⁺ strain at 'normal' osmolarities. Thus, OmpR is not essential for high-level expression of *tpdB*. Similar experiments with the *E. coli ompC-lacZ* and *ompF-lacZ* fusions show that anaerobic induction of *ompC* expression still occurs in an *ompR* mutant, although at a reduced level (Table 1). It has been shown elsewhere that osmotic regulation of porin synthesis can also occur in OmpR and/or EnvZ mutants (Ramakrishnan *et al.*, 1985; Forst *et al.*, 1988). However, in contrast to *tpdB*, the OmpR requirement for porin expression cannot be fully overcome by varying the growth conditions, at least within the range examined.

These results lead to two important conclusions. First, while OmpR is clearly required for optimum expression of *tpdB* and *ompC*, anaerobic and osmotic regulation can still occur in the absence of this positive regulator. Thus, the OmpR-EnvZ proteins are not the sole mediators of their osmotic regulation. Second, it is possible to achieve high-level expression in the complete absence of OmpR and EnvZ, at least for the *tpdB* promoter, simply by altering the osmolarity of the growth medium. These results, and those elsewhere (Graeme-Cook *et al.*, 1989), suggest that osmotic regulation of the porins is mediated by two distinct mechanisms: one involving the OmpR and EnvZ proteins, and the other involving changes in DNA supercoiling. The two regulatory systems interact to determine the efficiency of productive initiation of transcription by RNA polymerase. The involvement of specific control systems, superimposed on stress-induced supercoiling changes, can add an extra specificity to the responses of 'stress-regulated' genes.

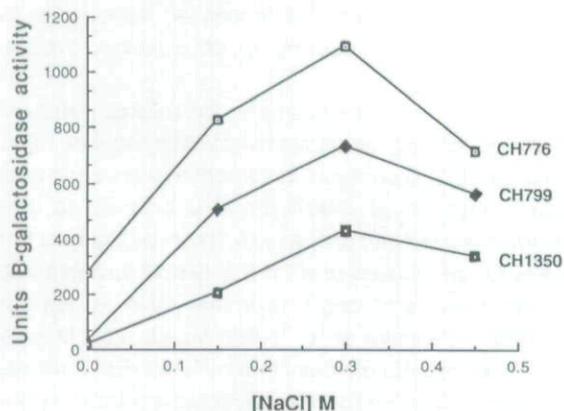


Fig. 5. Expression of *tppB* in *ompR* mutants. Cells were grown at 30°C, anaerobically in minimal glucose medium with NaCl added as indicated. β -galactosidase activity was assayed during exponential growth. Strains used were CH776 (*tppB-lacZ*); CH799 (*tppB-lacZ ompR::Tn5*); and CH1350 (*tppB-lacZ ompR::Tn10*).

A general class of 'stress-regulated' genes

We suggest that genes such as *tppB*, *proU* and *ompC* are members of a family of 'stress-regulated' genes linked by a common regulatory mechanism involving environmentally induced changes in DNA supercoiling. How many other known genes fall into this category?

Osmoregulated genes. Several genes have been identified whose expression is altered by medium osmolarity (Higgins *et al.*, 1987; Guitierrez *et al.*, 1987). Besides *proU* and the porins, the only well-characterized genes are the *bet* genes encoding the glycine-betaine biosynthetic enzymes. The *bet* genes are sensitive to stimuli other than osmolarity, including anaerobiosis and temperature (Eshoo, 1988). *bet* expression is also altered by mutations which affect DNA supercoiling (unpublished data). Thus, the *bet* genes are also 'stress-regulated'. The little that is known about other osmotically induced genes suggests that they also respond to stimuli in a manner similar to *proU* and hence are also probably 'stress-regulated' (Higgins *et al.*, 1987). It is important, however, to emphasize that although most genes designated as osmotically regulated may well be examples of supercoiling-dependent, 'stress-regulated' genes, this is not always the case. For example, expression of the *kdp* operon (encoding a K^+ transport system) is affected by changes in medium osmolarity but is actually regulated by a rather specific mechanism which responds to cell turgor (Laimins *et al.*, 1981; Sutherland *et al.*, 1986).

Anaerobic regulation. There are two distinct classes of anaerobically regulated genes: those which require the positive activator protein FNR, and those which are FNR-independent (Jamieson and Higgins, 1984; 1986).

This distinction is consistent with the roles of the gene products. In general, FNR-dependent genes encode specific respiratory proteins which are required only when oxygen is absent and are induced specifically during anaerobic growth. In contrast, many FNR-independent genes serve more general metabolic functions which may play roles in adapting the cell to stress conditions other than simply anaerobiosis. Many, if not all of these FNR-independent anaerobic genes should perhaps be designated 'stress-regulated'. Furthermore, there is increasing evidence of a role for DNA supercoiling in the regulation of many FNR-independent anaerobic genes besides those such as *tppB* discussed above. For example: (i) DNA supercoiling plays a central role in the anaerobic repression of *tonB* expression (Dorman *et al.*, 1988); (ii) certain mutations which map near the genes encoding DNA gyrase result in a failure to grow anaerobically (Yamamoto and Droffner, 1985; K. Drlica, personal communication); (iii) the *oxrC* mutation which appears to affect DNA supercoiling (see above) affects many FNR-independent promoters (Jamieson and Higgins, 1986); and (iv) expression of many FNR-independent anaerobic genes is affected by gyrase inhibitors (Kranz and Haselkorn, 1986; Novak and Maier, 1987; Axley and Stadtman, 1988; Dimri and Das, 1988; Dixon *et al.*, 1988).

In contrast, osmolarity or mutations which alter supercoiling have little effect on the activities of FNR-dependent enzymes including peptidase T, nitrate reductase and fumarate reductase (unpublished results). In addition, anaerobic changes in DNA supercoiling appear to be insufficient to activate FNR binding and promoter function (N. Ni Bhriain, C. F. Higgins, S. Jayaraman and S. Busby, unpublished results). Thus, although DNA supercoiling is likely to contribute to FNR function at some level (as it does for all DNA-protein interactions), environmentally induced changes in DNA supercoiling do not appear to contribute significantly to the regulation of FNR-dependent promoters.

Other environmental stresses. Our considerations have been limited to osmotic and anaerobic stress. However, available evidence suggests that this overlap in stress responses is not confined to osmolarity and anaerobiosis. Other stimuli such as pH, temperature, and nutritional status also influence expression of 'stress-regulated' genes. For example, porin expression is affected by pH, temperature and other undefined aspects of medium composition (Kawaji *et al.*, 1979; van Alphen and Lugtenberg, 1977; Graeme-Cook *et al.*, 1989; Heyde and Portalier, 1987; Lundrigan and Earhart, 1984; Scott and Harwood, 1980; Barron *et al.*, 1986). Several anaerobically regulated genes are also pH-sensitive (Aliabadi *et al.*, 1988), as is the osmotically regulated *proU* gene (unpublished results). The osmotically regulated betaine

biosynthetic genes are also regulated by anaerobiosis and temperature (Eshoo, 1988). Indeed, there is much published data showing an overlap between responses to different stress conditions (Aliabadi *et al.*, 1988; Christman *et al.*, 1985; Groat *et al.*, 1986; Wanner and McSharry, 1982; Spector *et al.*, 1986; Schultz *et al.*, 1988). Finally, parameters such as temperature (Goldstein and Drlica, 1984), growth phase (Dorman *et al.*, 1988), and nutritional status (Balke and Gralla, 1987) can affect supercoiling.

Conclusions

In this paper we define a class of 'stress-regulated' genes that are regulated in response to a number of apparently independent environmental stimuli. These genes are related by their function, (i.e. adaptation of cellular physiology to adverse growth conditions) as well as by their regulatory mechanism which involves environmentally induced changes in DNA supercoiling. Many genes previously considered to be regulated by a single parameter are in fact 'stress-regulated' genes. Indeed, for many genes specific designations such as 'osmotically regulated' or 'anaerobically regulated' are really historical accidents and do not necessarily reflect their primary mode of control.

Environmentally induced changes in DNA supercoiling provide a simple means of achieving such a regulatory overlap. By altering DNA supercoiling, any environmental stimulus can affect the expression of the same, large set of supercoiling-sensitive genes. For many of the 'stress-regulated' promoters there is now strong evidence of a central role for topological changes in the control of their expression (Dorman *et al.*, 1988; Higgins *et al.*, 1988; 1989). We suggest that such topological changes underlie the regulation, by different stresses, of this entire class of genes. Thus, environmentally induced changes in DNA supercoiling provide a global communications network, coordinating the cell's response to different stresses. Superimposed upon this underlying process are more specific regulatory processes (e.g. OmpR).

It must be stressed that not all genes induced in response to a specific stress are members of this control network. For any given stress there are at least two classes of responsive gene. One class is induced only by that stress, is required by the cell only under those conditions, and specific regulatory mechanisms exist to achieve this (e.g. FNR for anaerobic nitrate reductase; KdpDE for osmoregulation of *kdp*). The second class, the supercoiling-sensitive, 'stress-regulated' genes, function more generally in the adaptation of the stressed cell and their expression must be fine-tuned in response to many stimuli. The distinction between the specific and 'stress-regulated' genes may explain the finding that positive regulators associated with many 'stress-regulated' genes

(e.g. OmpR) appear to function by a mechanism entirely different from that of classical regulatory proteins such as CRP and FNR.

Finally, it is worth emphasizing that, in their natural state, it is unlikely that *E. coli* or *S. typhimurium* will encounter just a single cause of stress. They will, instead, be subject to a continual fluctuation of many parameters. Adjustment in the expression of 'stress-regulated' genes must be in a coordinated fashion. While there is still much to understand, the overlapping response to supercoiling changes provides a relatively simple mechanism by which this can readily be achieved, maximizing the cell's ability to grow under a broad range of stressful conditions.

Experimental procedures

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The strains used in this study are listed in Table 4. Bacteria were grown at 37°C unless otherwise indicated, in LB medium (Miller, 1972), Nutrient broth (NB; Difco) or MMA minimal medium (Miller, 1972) containing 0.4% glucose (or fructose for certain experiments) as carbon source. In certain experiments (indicated in the text), 0.1% w/v casamino acids was added to the minimal medium. Where appropriate, NaCl was added to increase medium osmolarity at the concentrations indicated. Kanamycin, ampicillin, tetracycline and novobiocin were used at concentrations of 40 µg ml⁻¹, 50 µg ml⁻¹, 12.5 µg ml⁻¹ and 25 µg ml⁻¹, respectively. Chloramphenicol was used at 25 µg ml⁻¹ in solid media and at 12.5 µg ml⁻¹ in liquid media. MacConkey-lactose medium was from Difco. Anaerobic incubations were carried out in BBL gas jars using GasPacks (Oxoid). Aerobic growth was achieved by vigorous shaking during incubation using flasks of at least ten times the volume of the culture, and harvesting cells at OD₆₀₀ < 0.3.

Genetic manipulations

Transductions were carried out using a high-transducing derivative of phage P22-*int4* as described (Roth, 1970). Transductants were purified on Green plates (Roth, 1970) before being used. Strain CH1723 was constructed by transducing the *oxrC::Tn5* lesion from CH881 into CH946, selecting for kanamycin resistance. The correct location of the element in the transductant was confirmed phenotypically and by marker rescue. Plasmid pACYC184 (Chang and Cohen, 1978) was transduced into strains CH44 and CH881, selecting for tetracycline resistance.

DNA manipulations

Plasmid DNA was isolated using the alkaline lysis method (Ish-Horowitz and Burke, 1981). Plasmid topoisomers were separated by electrophoresis in 1.0% agarose gels containing 25 µg ml⁻¹ chloroquine at 2.5 V cm⁻¹ for 22 h using a TBE (90 mM Tris (pH 8.3), 90 mM borate, 10 mM EDTA) buffer system. Following electrophoresis, the chloroquine was removed by rinsing for 4–12 h in tap water and the DNA visualized by staining with ethidium bromide (5 µg ml⁻¹).

Table 4. Bacterial strains.

Strain	Genotype	Source/construction
<i>Escherichia coli</i>		
MC4100	<i>araD139 Δ(argF-lac)U169 rpsL150 relA1 deoC1 ptsF25 rbsR flbB5301</i>	Casadaban (1976)
MH225	MC4100Φ(<i>ompC-lacZ</i>)10-25	Hall and Silhavy (1981a,b)
MH513	MC4100Φ(<i>ompF-lacZ</i>)16-13	Hall and Silhavy (1981a,b)
CH1145	MH225 <i>ompR::Tn10</i>	Graeme-Cook <i>et al.</i> (1989)
CH1147	MH513 <i>ompR::Tn10</i>	Graeme-Cook <i>et al.</i> (1989)
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>		
LT2	Wild type	B. N. Ames
CH44	<i>ΔoppBC250</i>	Higgins <i>et al.</i> (1983)
CH881	CH44 <i>oxrC::Tn5</i>	Jamieson and Higgins (1986)
CH776	CH44 <i>tppB84::Mud1-8</i>	Jamieson and Higgins (1986)
CH799	CH776 <i>ompR1001::Tn5</i>	Gibson <i>et al.</i> (1987)
CH1350	CH776 <i>ompR1009::Tn10Δ16Δ17</i>	Gibson <i>et al.</i> (1987)
CH1301	<i>proU::MudJ</i>	Sutherland <i>et al.</i> (1986)
CH946	<i>proU::Mud1-8</i>	Cairney <i>et al.</i> (1985)
CH1723	CH946 <i>oxrC::Tn5</i>	This study

Preparation of cell extracts and polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

Total cell proteins were prepared by harvesting 1 ml of exponentially growing cells, and resuspending the cell pellet in 400 μl of Laemmli sample buffer (Laemmli, 1970). The samples were boiled for 5 min and debris removed by centrifugation in a microcentrifuge prior to loading of 10 μl samples onto a gel. Sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was on 12.5% slab gels (30:0.8 acrylamide:bisacrylamide ratio) as described (Laemmli, 1970; Ames, 1974).

β-galactosidase assays

β-galactosidase activity was measured and quantified as described by Miller (1972) using the chloroform-sodium dodecyl sulphate permeabilization procedure. Each determination was carried out at least in triplicate. The deviation between samples was less than ±10%.

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