# Protein degradation in *Escherichia coli*: The *lon* gene controls the stability of sulA protein

(cell division/SOS regulation/bacteriophage  $\lambda$ )

SAEKO MIZUSAWA\* AND SUSAN GOTTESMAN<sup>†</sup>

Laboratory of Molecular Biology, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland 20205

Communicated by Ira Pastan, September 30, 1982

ABSTRACT Escherichia coli lon mutants are defective in the ATP-dependent proteolysis of abnormal proteins. The mutants are also sensitive to ultraviolet light (UV) in that septation is inhibited after exposure to UV. sulA mutations, isolated as suppressors of UV sensitivity unlinked to lon, do not affect proteolysis but allow septation to occur after DNA damage. We have confirmed the hypothesis that the product of the sulA gene is degraded by lon proteolysis. If sulA (the product of sulA) is a UV-inducible division inhibitor, as suggested by a variety of experiments, lon (the product of lon) may regulate cell division by regulating the half-life of sulA. We cloned the sulA gene in a bacteriophage  $\lambda$ vector from a plasmid carrying the ompA region of E. coli. An 18kilodalton polypeptide was identified as the product of the sulA gene. Pulse-chase labeling demonstrated that the half-life of the sulA protein is 1.2 min in lon<sup>+</sup> cells and 19 min in lon<sup>-</sup> cells. This work demonstrates that lon proteolysis affects the stability of a native E. coli protein.

The lon mutations of Escherichia coli affect a variety of physiological processes. lon mutants have decreased ability to degrade abnormal proteins (1-4), overproduce capsular polysaccharide (5), and are defective for lysogeny of bacteriophages  $\lambda$ and P1 (6, 7). They are also sensitive to DNA-damaging agents, such as ultraviolet light (UV) or methyl methanesulfonate (MeMes) (8). This UV sensitivity seems to result from an exaggeration of the normal inhibition of  $E \cdot coli$  cell division after DNA damage (9). lon mutants do not recover from this division arrest and are therefore UV and MeMes sensitive.

Mutations identified in *lon* strains as suppressors of sensitivity to UV or MeMes map at two loci, *sulA* and *sulB*. These suppressors block the lethal filamentation seen in *lon* strains but do not affect other *lon* phenotypes (10–14). *sulA* and *sulB* also do not affect the cell's UV repair system or its induction. George and her co-workers (15) proposed that a division inhibitor, induced after UV irradiation, might be a target for the *lon* protease. The properties of *sulA* mutations suggest that the *sulA* gene product may be an inhibitor of septation, induced after DNA damage (14, 16). *sulB* mutations, which are rare relative to *sulA*, are dominant and may be in a gene encoding an essential cell division function that is a target for the *sulA* inhibitor. If sulA, the product of the *sulA* gene, were unstable and inactivated by lon proteolysis, its persistence in *lon* mutants might lead to excessive filamentation (13–15).

Recently the product of the *lon* gene has been identified as an ATP-dependent protease (17, 18), suggesting that the primary defect of the *lon* mutants may be the defect in proteolysis. If so, *lon* must exert its pleiotropic effects on cellular physiology by affecting the half-life of proteins involved in such processes as capsular polysaccharide synthesis or septation inhibition. Thus far, however, the lon protease has only been demonstrated to affect the degradation of abnormal proteins and the bacteriophage  $\lambda$  N protein *in vivo* (19). In vitro, it digests artificial substrates such as casein and hemoglobin (18). In the work described here we have asked directly if a protein implicated in the control of one set of *lon*-perturbed functions is a target for the lon protease.

We have cloned the *sulA* gene, identified the gene product, and examined the stability of sulA in  $lon^+$  and  $lon^-$  strains. We show evidence that sulA is degraded by lon proteolysis. Our results support the hypothesis of George *et al.* (15) and are sufficient to explain the UV sensitivity of *lon* strains.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Bacteria and Phage Strains.** The important bacterial and phage strains used are listed in Table 1. All strains not listed are from the National Institutes of Health strain collection. The procedure for P1 transduction has been described (14). Tetracycline-sensitive derivatives (Tet<sup>s</sup>) of strains carrying transposon Tn10 were isolated by the procedure of Maloy and Nunn (22).  $\lambda$  phages  $\lambda \text{imm21cI}$  and  $\lambda \text{imm}\lambda c\text{Ib2}$  were used as *int*<sup>+</sup> helper phages to lysogenize  $\lambda \text{SM1}$  and  $\lambda \text{SM5}$ , respectively, at the bacterial attachment site. The presence of the *sulA* and *ompA* mutations was determined by resistance to MeMes (3) and K3 phage (23), respectively.

**Preparation of DNA.** DNA of plasmid pTU100 was prepared according to the procedure of Clewell and Helinski (24). Closed circular DNA molecules were purified by a CsCl/ethidium bromide equilibrium density gradient centrifugation followed by dialysis against 10 mM Tris+HCl, pH 7.5/1 mM EDTA. High-titer phage stocks were prepared by the method of Yamamoto *et al.* (25). The phage were concentrated by polyethylene glycol precipitation and further concentrated and purified by CsCl equilibrium density gradient centrifugation. The purified phage were dialyzed against 10 mM Tris+HCl, pH 7.5/ 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>. Phage DNA was extracted with phenol and dialyzed against 10 mM Tris+HCl, pH 7.5/1 mM EDTA.

Procedure for UV-Inducible Filamentation. UV treatment and preparation of samples for microscopy were carried out as described (14). Samples were fixed and kept in 2% (wt/vol) formaldehyde solution, collected, and resuspended in 10 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub> before layering on slides and were observed by phasecontrast microscopy in a Zeiss instrument.

N-Methyl-N'-nitro-N-nitrosoguanidine Mutagenesis of sulA Transducing Phage. An N-methyl-N'-nitro-N-nitrosoguanidine-mutagenized lysate was prepared essentially by following the procedure of Adelberg et al. (26). N99 ( $F^-$  gal rpsL) was

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U. S. C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Abbreviations: MeMes, methyl methanesulfonate; Tet<sup>s</sup>, tetracycline sensitive; kb, kilobase(s); kDal, kilodalton(s).

<sup>\*</sup> Present address: The Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, 4-6-1, Shirokanedai Minato-ku Tokyo 108, Japan.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup>To whom reprint requests should be addressed.

Strain name	Genotype	Source
HU100(pTU100)	F <sup>-</sup> thi pyrD gltA galK trp recA ompA rpsL (pTU100)	U. Henning (20)
SM8	F <sup>-</sup> his pyrD leu rpsL	SG13107 (14); select Tet <sup>s</sup>
SM32	$F^-$ his pyrD $\Delta lon-100$ gal rpsL	P1 (galE::Tn10) to SG13009 (14); Tet <sup>s</sup>
SM37	F⁻ his leu ∆lon-100 sulA366 gal rpsL	P1 (galE::Tn10) to SG13082 (14); Tet <sup>s</sup>
SM39	$F^-$ his pyrD sulB367 $\Delta$ lon-100 gal rpsL	P1 (galE::Tn10) to SG13083 (14); Tet <sup>s</sup>
SM40	F <sup>-</sup> his leu ∆lon-100 sulA366 gal trp::Tn10 supF	P1 ( <i>trp</i> ::Tn10 <i>supF</i> ) to SM37
λD69	Bam1° srl∆(1, 2) imm21 nin5 Hind6°	(21)
$\lambda SM1$	$ompA^+$ sulA <sup>+</sup> Bam1° srl $\Delta(1, 2)$ int imm21 nin5 Hind6°	This work; orientation 1
$\lambda SM2$	Same as for $\lambda$ SM1; orientation 2	This work
λSM4	Bam1° srlΔ(1, 2) cI857 nin5	$\lambda D69 \times \lambda bio11 nin5 cI857$
$\lambda$ SM5	$ompA^+$ sul $A^+$ Bam1° srl $\Delta(1, 2)$ int cI857 nin5	$\lambda$ SM1 $\times$ $\lambda$ bio11 nin5 cI857

Table 1. Bacterial and bacteriophage strains

grown to  $2 \times 10^8$  cells per ml in TBMM medium (10 g of Bactotryptone per liter/86 mM NaCl, 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>/0.2% maltose) at 37°C, infected with  $\lambda$ SM5 at a multiplicity of infection of 0.5, and treated with N-methyl-N'-nitro-N-nitrosoguanidine (10  $\mu$ g/ ml) for 15 min at 37°C. Mutagen-treated infected cells were collected and resuspended in 2 vol of prewarmed L broth (15 g of tryptone, 5 g of NaCl, and 5 g of yeast extract per liter), distributed in four aliquots, and incubated for 90 min at 37°C. The resultant lysate was treated with CHCl<sub>3</sub> and centrifuged to remove debris. Under these conditions, the frequency of clear mutations was 1–2% and the viability of the noninfected cells was 30–50%.

Protein Synthesis in UV-Irradiated Bacteria. The procedure was modified from that of Jaskunas et al. (27). Unless otherwise indicated, the cells were grown and treated in minimal medium M56 (28) supplemented with 0.2% maltose, uracil at 15  $\mu$ g/ ml, and 18 amino acids (excluding methionine) each at 25  $\mu$ g/ ml. At an  $OD_{650}$  of 0.3, the cells were concentrated 5-fold in medium supplemented with histidine and leucine (required amino acids, both at 25  $\mu$ g/ml) instead of the 18 amino acids, irradiated with an incident dose of 1,000 J/m<sup>2</sup> at 254 nm, diluted 1:5 in the medium containing the 18 amino acids, and incubated at 37°C for 10 min in the dark. The cells were collected, resuspended in the medium containing 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> at a concentration of  $2 \times 10^9$  cells per ml, infected with phage at a multiplicity of infection of 5, and left on ice for 20 min to allow phage to adsorb. The cells were incubated in a 37°C water bath for 2 min, then diluted 1:20 with prewarmed medium and incubated at 37°C for an additional 5 min. Labeling of the proteins was started by adding [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine (20  $\mu$ Ci/ml, 1,000 Ci/mmol; 1 Ci = 3.7 × 10<sup>10</sup> becquerels) to the samples and stopped after 5-min incubation by adding 1/4 vol of 50% trichloroacetic acid/0.5% unlabeled methionine. In some cases UV-treated cells were labeled with a <sup>14</sup>C-labeled amino acid mixture (New England Nuclear, 10 µCi/ml, 55 Ci/mol of carbon) in medium supplemented with required amino acids. The labeled cells were collected by centrifugation, washed with cold acetone, dried, and suspended in 40  $\mu$ l of sample buffer for NaDodSO<sub>4</sub>/ polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. The gel electrophoresis was carried out by the procedure of King and Laemmli (29) except that the gels were 7.5-20% linear gradient gels. In most cases gels were fixed in 50% trichloroacetic acid for 30 min and then soaked in 25% methanol/10% acetic acid (vol/vol) for at least 1 hr. Some gels were stained in 50% trichloroacetic acid/ 2.5% Coomassie brilliant blue for 30 min and destained in 25% methanol/10% acetic acid. The labeled protein bands were visualized by fluorography (30). To estimate the molecular weight of the labeled proteins, the following proteins were used as standards: phosphorylase b (subunit molecular weight, 94,000), albumin (67,000), ovalbumin (43,000), carbonic anhydrase

(30,000), trypsin inhibitor (20,100), ferritin (18,500), and  $\alpha$ -lact-albumin (14,400).

For quantitative data, a portion of the gel corresponding to the protein band of interest was cut out and soaked in 0.1 ml of distilled water at room temperature for 2 hr. Then 0.3 ml of Protosol and 4 ml of Econofluor (both from New England Nuclear) were added, and the mixture was incubated in a 37°C water bath overnight before radioactivity was measured.

#### RESULTS

Cloning of the sulA Gene. To allow cloning of the sulA gene, we have looked for closely linked markers to use for selection. The sulA gene cotransduces with pyrD at a frequency of 50– 65% (3, 10, 13); ompA, coding for one of the major outer membrane proteins of *E*. coli, has a similar cotransduction pattern, and lies on the same side of pyrD as sulA (10). In P1 transduction experiments, sulA and ompA were very closely linked to each other (data not shown).

The ompA gene has been cloned in low-copy-number plasmids (20, 31). A 1.78-kilobase (kb) BamHI fragment that carries the sequence for the amino terminus of the ompA protein and is sufficient to encode ompA complementing activity was taken from the low-copy-number plasmid pTU100 and cloned in  $\lambda$ D69 by inserting into the BamHI site in the  $\lambda$  int gene (Fig. 1). Phages were isolated with the BamHI fragment in either orientation; both phages  $\lambda$ SM1 and  $\lambda$ SM2 complemented ompA.

A  $\lambda sulA^+$  phage should restore MeMes sensitivity to a lon sulA host. ASM1 lysogens of the lon sulA strain SM37 were isolated, with the prophage located either at attB or near the ompA locus.  $\lambda$ SM2 lysogenizes poorly in the lon sulA strain, although lysogens can be isolated in a proC lon<sup>+</sup> sulA strain and the lon mutation subsequently can be introduced by P1 transduction, selecting for proline independence and screening for mucoidy. We believe the difficulty in establishing lysogens is due to overproduction of sulA (see *Discussion*). Both  $\lambda$ SM1 and  $\lambda$ SM2 lysogens of *lon sulA* were sensitive to MeMes, and  $\lambda$ SM2 lysogens were slightly filamentous even in the absence of MeMes.  $\lambda$  carrying the 1.78-kb fragment also complement sulA for UV-inducible filamentation; a lon  $sulA(\lambda sulA^+)$  lysogen forms long filaments after UV treatment, as does a lon sul<sup>+</sup> strain. This effect is specific to sulA; the transducing phage does not cause filamentation in lon<sup>+</sup> or lon sulB strains after UV treatment. These results indicate that the 1.78-kb fragment carried by  $\lambda sulA^+$  contains the sulA gene and that this gene is functional in a lysogen.

Isolation of Phages Carrying sulA Mutations. On lon bacterial lawns, plaques of an  $imm\lambda c1857$  derivative of  $\lambda SM1$ ,  $\lambda SM5sulA^+$ , are clear, whereas they are turbid on  $lon^+$  lawns. The simplest explanation for this phenomenon is that multiple



FIG. 1. Construction of  $\lambda$ SM1 and  $\lambda$ SM2. A 1.78-kb BamHI fragment of pTU100 was inserted into the BamHI site of the  $\lambda$ D69 vector phage (21) and packaged *in vitro* according to the procedure of Enquist and Sternberg (32). Phages with inserts in the *int* gene were detected by the red plaque test (33). The orientation of the insert was determined by digestion with *Hind*III and *Pvu* II (the sites are indicated as triangles). The restriction map of pTU100 and schematic diagram of the reading frames for the ompA and sulA proteins are cited from Henning *et al.* (20) and Beck and Bremer (34), respectively. In the Beck and Bremer sequence of this region, sulA protein is indicated as a hypothetical 17-kilodalton (kDal) protein.

infection with sulA<sup>+</sup> transducing phage leads to enough sulA expression to kill lysogens growing in the plaque. Consistent with this explanation is the observation that in a lon sulB strain,

A 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 kDal 27-24-18in which sulA may not be able to act,  $\lambda$ SM5 plaques are not as clear as on *lon* or *lon sulA* strains. To isolate a *sulA* mutation on the  $\lambda$ SM5 phage, the *lon sulA* strain SM37 was lysogenized with  $\lambda$ SM5. From this MeMes-sensitive lysogen, MeMes-resistant colonies were selected. Phage induced from the MeMesresistant lysogens no longer complement *sulA*, still complement *ompA*, and form turbid plaques on *lon* hosts.

The difference in plaque morphology for phage carrying  $sulA^+$  and  $sulA^-$  was used to screen for additional sulA mutants on the phage.  $\lambda$ SM5 was mutagenized with N-methyl-N'-nitro-N-nitrosoguanidine and 50 turbid-plaque-forming phage were isolated from 2,800 plaques on a *lon* bacterial lawn. Thirty-five of these were *sulA* mutants as judged by their failure to complement *sulA* for MeMes sensitivity. One mutant,  $\lambda$ sulA46, acts as if it has an amber mutation: lysogens of a *lon sulA supF* strain form filaments on MeMes agar, whereas lysogens of a  $sup^+$  strain do not.

Twelve  $\lambda$ sulA mutants, including sulA46, were shown to still be ompA<sup>+</sup>. Therefore, ompA and sulA act as separate genes.

Identification of the Gene Product. The proteins coded for by the 1.78-kb fragment carried by  $\lambda$ SM5 were determined by infection of UV-irradiated cells followed by labeling with <sup>[35</sup>S]methionine (Fig. 2) or <sup>[14</sup>C]leucine (data not shown). Compared with infection with the  $\lambda$  parental vector, three additional protein bands with the molecular masses of 27, 24, and 18 kDal were observed after infection with  $\lambda$ SM5. The 18-kDal protein is apparently the product of the sulA gene. The 18-kDal protein band is missing after infection with 4 of 11 mutant phages, including sulA46 (Fig. 2A), whereas the 27- and 24-kDal proteins are present after infection with all 11 mutants.  $\lambda$ SM5sulA46, carrying an amber mutation in sulA, produced the 18-kDal protein in supF host cells (Fig. 2B). The 27- and 24-kDal protein bands are consistent with the size for a truncated ompA protein (24 kDal) and its unprocessed precursor (pro-ompA, 27 kDal) (34)

Stability of the sulA Protein. Is the sulA protein degraded by a lon<sup>+</sup>-dependent process? The stability of the sulA protein was assayed in lon<sup>+</sup> and lon<sup>-</sup> strains by pulse-chase labeling of the proteins synthesized after infection of UV-irradiated hosts with the sulA transducing phage. Host cells were treated with UV, infected with  $\lambda$ SM5, pulse labeled with [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine, and chased with an excess of unlabeled methionine. Samples



FIG. 2. NaDodSO<sub>4</sub>/polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis of proteins synthesized after infection of UV-irradiated cells. Cells were  $sup^+$  (SM37) in A and supF (SM40) in B, both lysogenic for  $\lambda ind$ . Cells were infected after UV irradiation as follows: lane 1, no infection; lane 2, vector,  $\lambda$ SM4; lane 3, wild-type phage,  $\lambda$ SM5sulA<sup>+</sup>; lane 4,  $\lambda$ SM5sulA46; lane 5,  $\lambda$ SM5sulA41; lane 6,  $\lambda$ SM5sulA24; lane 7,  $\lambda$ SM5sulA11. The arrows indicate the position of the proteins specified by the 1.78-kb insert carried by  $\lambda$ SM5sulA<sup>+</sup>.

#### Biochemistry: Mizusawa and Gottesman

A  $lon^+$ 2 3 9 10 11 12 13 1 1 5 6 7 8 kDal 27-24-18 R lon 2 1 3 9 10 11 12 13 4 5 6 7 8 27-24. 18

FIG. 3. Pulse-chase labeling of sulA in  $lon^+$  and  $lon^-$  cells. Cells were UV irradiated, and infected with  $\lambda$ SM5, as for Fig. 2. Infected cells were pulse labeled with [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine for 1 min and chased with 10<sup>4</sup>-fold excess unlabeled methionine. Cells were  $lon^+$  (SM8) in A,  $lon^-$  (SM32) in B; both are lysogenic for  $\lambda ind$ . Controls are lane 1, no infection and, lane 2, infection with vector phage,  $\lambda$ SM4, and sampled at 0 min of chase. Lanes 3–13, cells were labeled for 1 min (lane 3) and chased for 1 min (lane 4), 2 min (lane 5), 3 min (lane 6), 5 min (lane 7), 7.5 min (lane 8), 10 min (lane 9), 12.5 min (lane 10), 15 min (lane 11), 17.5 min (lane 12), and 20 min (lane 13).

were removed at various times after the pulse labeling and analyzed by NaDodSO<sub>4</sub>/polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. As shown in Figs. 3 and 4, the sulA protein has a half-life of 1.2 min in  $lon^+$  cells and 19 min in  $lon^-$  cells. Among the *E*. coli proteins coded for by  $\lambda$ SM5, lon protease is specific for sulA; no decay



FIG. 4. Stability of sulA in  $lon^+$  and  $lon^-$  cells. The pulse-chaselabeled bands of the sulA, ompA, and pro-ompA proteins were cut out from the gels shown in Fig. 3, and the radioactivity in the bands was measured. The radioactivity remaining in the band is presented as relative to that found at 0 min of chase. Open symbols, bands from infection of  $lon^+$  strain; closed symbols, bands from infection of  $lon^$ strain.  $\triangle$  and  $\triangle$ , 24-kDal (ompA) band;  $\square$  and  $\blacksquare$ , 27-kDal (pro-ompA);  $\bigcirc$  and  $\blacklozenge$ , 18-kDal (sulA) band.

of the ompA protein was detected in either  $lon^+$  or  $lon^-$  cells. The half-life of the pro-ompA protein, 0.3 min, was the same in  $lon^+$  and  $lon^-$  cells. Similar experiments were carried out in a *lon sulB* strain; the *sulB* mutation has no effect on the stability of the sulA protein (data not shown).

## DISCUSSION

Cell division in E. coli is normally coupled to DNA replication, so that anucleate cells are rare. DNA damage leads to inhibition of septation while cell mass increases, resulting in formation of nonseptated filaments. As DNA damage is repaired, normal cell division resumes. In *lon* cells, however, an exaggerated and lethal continuation of filamentation occurs (9).

sulA has been implicated in this process because mutations in *lon* cells that block lethal filamentation map in *sulA*, or, less commonly, in *sulB*. No other aspect of the SOS induced DNA repair system is apparently affected by the *sulA* and *sulB* mutations. George and her co-workers (15) postulated that a septation inhibitor coded for by one of the *sul* genes might be induced in response to DNA damage and that its persistence might be regulated by *lon* through proteolysis. The recent finding that *sulA* is transcriptionally induced after DNA damage (16) makes sulA the best candidate for such a division inhibitor.

We have cloned the *sulA* gene on a 1.78-kb *Bam*HI fragment, in a  $\lambda$  vector. Lysogens of  $\lambda$  carrying the fragment in either orientation complement sulA, suggesting that the fragment codes for the entire sulA gene, including its promoter. An amber mutation in sulA, sulA46, allows identification of the gene product as a protein with a molecular mass of 17-18 kDal. The fragment also encodes the amino terminus of the ompA protein, but our mutant analysis indicates that the two proteins are coded for by separate genes. Beck and Bremer (34), studying ompA, determined the DNA sequence of the whole BamHI fragment and noted an open translational reading frame that could encode an 18-kDal protein. Because the sizes of the sulA protein and the hypothetical protein are identical, and no other open reading frame found on the fragment could encode a polypeptide with molecular weight near this, we propose that the open reading frame codes for the sulA protein.

The class of DNA-damage-inducible genes shares the property of being under control by *lexA* and *recA* as part of the SOS system (16, 35). For a number of these genes, a *lexA* binding site has been found in the promoter region (36–38). Upstream of the open reading frame for the *sulA* gene there are three potential promoter sequences. In addition, we have found a region in the Beck and Bremer sequence (at base pairs 130–149) highly homologous with the *lexA* binding site regions identified in the *recA*, *lexA*, and *uvrB* genes. Our potential *lexA* binding site shares 18/20 bases of homology with the lexA binding site of the *recA* gene. This region overlaps the -10 regions of two of the three promoters. The finding of this site is consistent with the finding by Huisman and D'Ari (16) that *sulA-lacZ* operon fusions act genetically as if they are repressed by *lexA*.

Huisman and D'Ari also found, in their sulA-lacZ fusion experiments, that lon does not transcriptionally regulate sulA. We found that lon regulates activity of sulA by degradation of the sulA protein. We have demonstrated that sulA is unstable in  $lon^+$  cells, disappearing with a half-life of 1.2 min. In  $lon^-$  cells, however, the half-life is 19 min. Our data are sufficient to explain the filamentation phenotype of lon mutants: if sulA is a division inhibitor and is synthesized for a short time after DNA damage, its persistence in lon cells would lead to extended inhibition of septation and therefore lethal filamentation. In  $lon^+$  cells, the rapid decay of sulA would ensure a return to normal septation as soon as new sulA synthesis is shut off.

If sulA product is the only inducible function necessary for inhibition of septation, any mechanism that leads to its persistence would be sufficient for filamentation. Lysogens of  $\lambda$ SM2 carry sulA downstream from the  $\lambda$  promoters  $p_{\rm L}$  and  $p_{\rm int}$ , in the proper orientation to be expressed from  $p_{int}$ . These strains filament slightly even in the absence of DNA-damage-inducing treatment in lon strains. Thus if  $p_{int}$  is expressing sulA at a low constitutive level (39), it may be sufficient to cause filamentation of lon host cells without any necessary induction of other SOS functions.

Thus we have demonstrated that lon degrades native E. coli proteins, as well as nonsense fragments (3) and a variety of denatured proteins (18). Among a number of unstable  $\lambda$  proteins examined, only the positive regulatory protein N was stabilized by lon (19). The half-lives of neither the pro-ompA protein nor the stable ompA protein are affected by the lon system. We conclude that lon is not generally responsible for the processing of membrane proteins. This is in contrast to the suggestion of Gavda et al. (40), who have proposed that the processing of the precursor of an outer membrane protein is regulated by lon. The other phenotypes of lon such as the overproduction of capsular polysaccharide in lon cells have not yet been satisfactorily explained. If the mechanism of lon control of this phenomenon is similar to its control of cell division, we would predict that a positive regulator of polysaccharide synthesis should exist, and its stability would be regulated by lon proteolysis.

The recA protease has an even more striking specificity than lon, cleaving only a handful of phage repressors and the cellular repressor lexA. The half-life of the  $\lambda$  control protein cII may be regulated by the cellular hf1 function (41). Therefore, E. coli may utilize a set of proteases for fine-tuning and timing regulation of important cellular processes.

We thank U. Henning for sending us pTU100, T. Silhavy for K3 phage and ompA mutant strain K3R6, and Doug Ward for the  $\lambda$ D69 cloning vector. We are grateful to Max Gottesman, Don Court, Michael Gottesman, Nancy Craig, and Sankar Adhya for discussions and for their comments on the manuscript, to Ray Steinberg for photography, and to Annette Kuo for her help in preparing the manuscript.

- Bukhari, A. I. & Zipser, D. (1973) Nature (London) New Biol. 1. 243, 238-241.
- Shineberg, J. B. & Zipser, D. (1973) J. Bacteriol. 116, 1469-1471. 2
- Gottesman, S. & Zipser, D. (1978) J. Bacteriol. 113, 844-851. 3.
- Simon, L. D., Gottesman, M., Tomczak, K. & Gottesman, S. 4. (1979) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 76, 1623-1627.
- Markovitz, A. (1977) in Surface Carbohydrates of Prokaryotic Cells, ed. Sutherland, I. (Academic, New York), p. 415-462. 5.
- Walker, J. R., Ussery, C. L. & Allen, J. S. (1973) J. Bacteriol. 6. 111, 1326-1332
- Takano, T. (1971) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 68, 1469-1473. 7.
- Howard-Flanders, P., Simson, E. & Theriot, L. (1964) Genetics 8. 49, 237-246.

- Witkin, E. M. (1967) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 57, 1275-1279. 9.
- 10.
- Johnson, B. F. & Greenberg, J. (1975) J. Bacteriol. 122, 570-574. Gayda, R. C., Yamamoto, L. T. & Markovitz, A. (1976) J. Bac-11. teriol. 127, 1208-1216.
- 12. Johnson, B. F. (1977) Genet. Res. 30, 273-286.
- Huisman, O., D'Ari, R. & George, J. (1980) J. Bacteriol. 144. 13.
- 185-191 Gottesman, S., Halpern, E. & Trisler, P. (1981) J. Bacteriol. 148, 14. 265-273.
- George, J., Castellazzi, M. & Buttin, G. (1975) Mol. Gen. Genet. 15. 140, 309-332
- 16. Huisman, O. & D'Ari, R. (1981) Nature (London) 290, 797-799.
- Charette, M. F., Henderson, G. W. & Markovitz, A. (1981) Proc. 17 Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 78, 4728-4732.
- Chung, C. H. & Goldberg, A. L. (1981) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 18. USA 78, 4931-4935.
- Gottesman, S., Gottesman, M., Shaw, J. E. & Pearson, M. L. 19. (1981) Cell 24, 225–233
- 20. Henning, U., Rover, H.-D., Teather, R. M., Hindennach, I. & Hollenberg, C. P. (1979) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 76, 4360-4364
- 21. Mizusawa, S. & Ward, D. (1982) Gene, in press.
- Maloy, S. R. & Nunn, W. D. (1981) J. Bacteriol. 145, 1110-1112. 22.
- 23 Van Alphen, L., Havekes, L. & Lugtenberg, B. (1977) FEBS Lett. 75, 285-290.
- Clewell, D. B. & Helinski, D. R. (1970) Biochemistry 9, 4428-24. 4440
- 25. Yamamoto, K. R., Alberts, B. M., Benzinger, R., Lawhorne, L. & Treiber, G. (1970) Virology 40, 734–744. Adelberg, E. A., Mandel, M. & Chen, G. C. C. (1965) Biochem.
- 26 Biophys. Res. Commun. 18, 788-795.
- Jaskunas, S. R., Lindahl, L., Nomura, M. & Burgess, R. R. (1975) Nature (London) 257, 458-462. 27.
- Gottesman, M. & Yarmolinsky, M. (1968) J. Mol. Biol. 31, 487-28. 505
- King, J. & Laemmli, U. K. (1971) J. Mol. Biol. 62, 465-473. 29.
- 30. Laskey, R. A. & Mills, A. D. (1975) Eur. J. Biochem. 56, 335-341.
- Movva, N. R., Nakamura, K. & Inouye, M. (1980) J. Biol. Chem. 31. 255, 27-29.
- 32. Enquist, L. & Sternberg, N. (1979) Methods Enzymol. 68, 281-298
- 33
- Enquist, L. & Weisberg, R. (1976) Virology 72, 147–153. Beck, E. & Bremer, E. (1980) Nucleic Acids Res. 8, 3011–3024. 34.
- 35. Kenyon, C. & Walker, G. (1980) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 77, 2819-2823.
- 36. Little, J. W., Mount, D. W. & Yanisch-Perron, C. (1981) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 78, 4199-4203.
- 37. Brent, R. & Ptashne, M. (1981) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 78, 4204-4208.
- 38. Sancar, G. B., Sancar, A., Little, J. W. & Rupp, W. D. (1982) Cell 28, 523-530.
- 39 Shimada, K. & Campbell, A. (1974) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 71, 239 - 241
- 40. Gayda, R. C., Avni, H., Berg, P. E. & Markovitz, A. (1979) Mol. Gen. Genet. 175, 325-332.
- Herskowitz, I. & Hagen, D. (1980) Annu. Rev. Genet. 14, 399-41.