# Mechanism of postsegregational killing by the hok gene product of the *parB* system of plasmid R1 and its homology with the *relF* gene product of the E. coli relB operon

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The parB region of plasmid R1 encodes two genes, hok and sok, which are required for the plasmid-stabilizing activity exerted by parB. The hok gene encodes a potent cell-killing factor, and it is regulated by the sok gene product such that cells losing a parB-carrying plasmid during cell division are rapidly killed. Coinciding with death of the host cell, a characteristic change in morphology is observed. Here we show that the killing factor encoded by the hok gene is a membraneassociated polypeptide of <sup>52</sup> amino acids. A gene located in the Escherichia coli relB operon, designated relF, is shown to be homologous to the hok gene. The relF gene codes for a polypeptide of 51 amino acids, which is 40% homologous to the hok gene product. Induced overexpression of the hok and relF gene products results in the same phenomena: loss of cell membrane potential, arrest of respiration, death of the host cell and change in cell morphology. The parB region and the relB genes were cloned into unstably inherited  $\text{ori}C$ minichromosomes. Whereas the parB region also conferred a high degree of genetic stability to an  $\textit{oriC}$  minichromosome, the  $relB$  operon (with  $relF$ ) did not; therefore the latter does not appear to 'stabilize' its replicon (the chromosome). The function of the  $relF$  gene is not known.

Key words: hok gene/parB of plasmid R1/plasmid stability/  $relB$ operon/relF gene/gene homology/host cell killing/membrane potential

## Introduction

Natural bacterial plasmids are genetically stable entities, indicating that precise mechanisms operate not only at the level of replication control, but also at the level of plasmid maintenance during cell division. The low copy number antibiotic resistance plasmid RI is an example of a very stably maintained replicon, characterized by a loss rate in the range of  $10^{-7}$ /cell/cell division (Nordström and Aagaard-Hansen, 1984). When the largest  $EcoRI$ fragment of this plasmid was deleted, the plasmid still replicated in a normal fashion,but the very stable maintenance during cell growth and division was lost, as shown by a loss rate in the range of  $10^{-2}$ /cell/cell division (Nordström et al., 1980). A more detailed genetic analysis showed that plasmid RI encodes two stability loci, designated parA and parB respectively, both of which independently confer a high degree of genetic stability on mini-R1 plasmids (Gerdes et al., 1985). The parB locus seemed particularly interesting, since many unrelated unstably inherited plasmids became efficiently stabilized by this locus in cis (Gerdes et al., 1985, 1986; unpublished results).

Recently we found that the *parB* locus confers genetic stability to plasmids in Escherichia coli populations by a new mechanism termed 'postsegregational killing' (Gerdes et al., 1986): cells which have lost a *parB*-carrying plasmid at cell division are rapidly killed. Thus the parB locus prevents the appearance of plasmid-free cells in a growing culture. Cells killed after losing the parB locus have a characteristic morphology (so-called 'ghost' cells). The killing factor was encoded by a small region within the *parB* locus, the *hok* gene (host killing). Induction of *hok* gene expression caused rapid killing of the host cells and yielded the same morphological changes which paralleled the killing concomitant with the loss of a parB-carrying plasmid. Expression of the hok gene is regulated by the nearby sok gene (suppressor of killing) such that the hok gene product is only expressed in cells which have lost the parB-carrying plasmid during the preceding cell division.

We demonstrate here that the killing controlled by the *parB* system is due to the synthesis of a 52 amino acid polypeptide encoded by the hok gene. Induced overproduction of the hok protein, which appears to be membrane bound, leads to a rapid collapse of the membrane potential and a concomitant arrest of respiration.

Surprisingly we found that the  $relF$  gene (previously designated  $or(3)$  of the E. coli relB operon (Bech et al., 1985) is related to the hok gene both structurally and functionally. The relF gene



Fig. 1. Physical and genetic maps of the plasmids used in the induction of the hok and relF genes. Plasmid pKG634 is a pBR322 derivative which contains the *parB* region extending from  $+194$  to  $+580$  (P.B.Rasmussen, K.Gerdes and S.Molin, in preparation) linked to the  $\lambda$  pR promoter (indicated by  $\rightarrow$ ). The *hok* and *sok* genes are indicated with filled and open bars respectively. The presumed sok gene promoter is indicated by  $\leftarrow$ . The bla and c1857 genes are indicated with open bars. Plasmid pKG341 is a similar plasmid containing the parB region from  $+268$  to  $+580$  linked to the  $\lambda$  pR promoter. This plasmid derivative is devoid of the sok gene. Plasmid pBD2941 is a pBR322 derivative containing the relF gene (filled bar) linked to the  $\lambda$  pL promoter. The relB derived region of this plasmid extends from  $+1070$  (HincII site) to  $+1348$  (MluI site) [relB coordinates as in Bech et al. (1985); see also Figure 6b]. The bla gene (open bar) and origin of replication are also indicated. The figure is not drawn to scale. Restriction sites are shown as S (SaI), P (PstI), H<sub>3</sub> (HindIII), E (EcoRI),  $S_1$  (SmaI),  $H_2$  (HincII), M (MluI).



Fig. 2. Killing kinetics after induction of the hok and relF genes. The strains were grown exponentially at 30°C in A+B medium (Clark and Maaloe, 1967) supplemented with casamino acids. At time zero the temperature was shifted to 41°C. Open symbols show OD450, closed symbols are viable counts.  $\triangle$ ,  $\blacktriangle$ : JC411 (KG634 sok<sup>+</sup> hok<sup>+</sup>),  $\heartsuit$ ,  $\blacklozenge$ JC411 (pKG341 hok<sup>+</sup>), and  $\Box$ ,  $\blacksquare$ : JC411 [pBD2941 (relF<sup>+</sup>)/pNF2690 (contains cI857)].

codes for a polypeptide of 51 amino acids which has a degree of homology with the hok gene product. Induction of relF gene expression leads to the same corollary of responses as when the hok gene is overexpressed: collapse of the membrane potential, arrest of respiration, change in morphology and cell death.

Cell death caused by the hok gene product appears to be due to the elimination of a vital function of the cell membrane, so does cell death caused by the relF gene product, however, the physiological role of the latter is as yet unknown.

## Results

# Host cell killing caused by induced expression of the hok and relF genes

Plasmids pKG341 and pKG634 are pBR322 derivatives carry-



Fig. 3. Photograph obtained by phase contrast microscopy of cells from the hok and relF induction experiments (Figure 2). Arrows point at cells with a clearly changed morphology. Cells with a normal morphology are also seen. (a) Shows cells obtained from strain JC411 (pKG341) 10 min after induction of the hok gene of the plasmid; (b) shows cells obtained from strain JC411 containing pBD2941/pNF2690 also 10 min after induction of the relF gene of pBD2941. Magnification  $\times$  1600.

ing the hok gene inserted downstream of the  $\lambda$ -pR promoter (Figure 1). These plasmids also carry the cI857 allele of the  $\lambda$ repressor gene, thereby allowing temperature induction of the  $\lambda$  pR promoter. At low temperature (30°C) the hok genes of pKG341 and pKG634 are not transcribed, whereas a shift to high temperature (41 °C) greatly increases the transcription of the genes due to inactivation of the  $\lambda$  repressor. Upon a temperature shift from 30 to 41°C of strain JC411, containing either pKG341 or pKG634, the numbers of viable cells in the culture decrease rapidly (Figure 2). Thus induction of hok gene expression leads to rapid cell death in agreement with results shown previously (Gerdes et al., 1986). The killing with pKG634, which carries the sok gene in addition to the hok gene, is slower than with  $pKG341$ , which is Sok<sup>-</sup> (Figure 1).

A similar response was found for strain JC411, harbouring plasmid pBD2941 (Figure 1), with the relF gene under  $\lambda$  pL control (Figure 2), and pNF2690 (with the heat-sensitive cI857  $\lambda$ repressor gene). The cells killed by overproduction of the relF gene product exhibited the same morphological changes as the cells killed by overexpression of the hok gene product (Figure 3a and b). The central parts of the cells appear completely translucent, whereas the poles apparently contain condensed material. Also, the dead cells appear somewhat larger than normal cells. By Coulter counter experiments we showed that the cell size is 70-90% larger than normal (data not shown). Thus induction of the hok and relF genes leads to similar biological phenomena: a rapid killing of the host cells and a change to an unusual cell



21 30 30 40  $\frac{1}{2}$  30 ILGPHETHRTYRLEUTHRARGLYSSERLEUCYSGLUILEARGTYRARGASPGLYHISARG ILETHETHATTALEUTHAAKSLYSSERLEUUTSULUTEAKSTYRARGASPULTIISARG<br>| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |<br>VALTHRALALEUVALTHRARGLYSASPL2UCYSGLUVALARGIL2ARGTHRASPGLNTHR

41 50 GLUVALALAALAPHEMETALATYRGLUSERGLYLYS-COOH <sup>I</sup> <sup>I</sup> IIl I I I GLUVALALAVALPHETHRALATYRGLUPROGLUGLU-COOH

Fig. 4. Alignment of the amino acid sequences of the hok and relF proteins. Identical amino acids are indicated with bold vertical lines, conservative changes [as defined by Stragier et al. (1984)] are indicated with thin lines.

morphology, which is also reflected in a decrease in the buoyant density of the cells (Gerdes et al., 1986).

Comparison of the hok gene of plasmid  $R1$  and the chromosomal relF gene and their products

The presumptive products of the hok (P.B.Rasmussen, K.Gerdes and S.Molin, in preparation) and relF (Bech et al., 1985) genes of 52 and 51 amino acid residues respectively, have strikingly similar structures as shown in Figure 4. The proteins share 40% direct homology besides a number of conservative replacements. Three segments exhibiting strong homology are apparent, namely  $12-21$ ,  $26-36$  and  $41-49$  (numbering is for the amino acids of the *Hok* protein).

Several characteristics of the two proteins are conserved (Figure 4). Firstly, both proteins are basic, most of the charged amino acids being in conserved positions: 9 of the 11 charged amino acids of the Hok protein are conserved in the relF encoded protein. Secondly, both proteins have hydrophobic sequences in the same regions (amino acids  $8-15$  and  $19-25$ ). Figure 5 shows a hydrophilicity plot of the two proteins. The patterns are very similar: the N termini of the proteins are hydrophobic, whereas the C termini are hydrophilic; also the N-terminal ends of the two proteins bear resemblance to signal peptides (Hall and Silhavy, 1981), although no typical cleavage site for signal peptidase is present. Thirdly, the cysteine residues at positions 16 and 31 are conserved.

In the coding region extending from  $+304$  to  $+460$ , there is <sup>52</sup> % nucleotide sequence homology (Figure 6). Also in the region surrounding the Shine & Dalgarno sequence (Shine and Dalgarno, 1974) there is a remarkable sequence conservation (13 out of 14 bp are identical).

The regions downstream of both coding sequences show resemblance to 'extragenic palindromic units' (EPUs; Gilson et al., 1984). Nucleotides in accordance with the consensus EPU sequence are marked with asterisks in Figure 6 in both sequences. Cellular localization of the Hok and RelF proteins

The hok and relF gene products were radioactively labelled after heat induction, using the maxicell technique (Materials and methods). After labelling, disintegrated cells were fractionated into crude membranes and cytoplasm using the method of Russel and Model (1982). The fractions were run on an SDS-polyacrylamide gel and autoradiographed (Figure 7). Both the hok and relF gene products migrate with apparent mol. wts of  $11 -$ 12 kd. No bands appear in this part of the gel if the cells are labelled prior to heat induction (not shown). Large quantities of the relF and hok gene products are found in the membrane frac-



Fig. 5. Hydrophilicity plot of the hok (a) and relF (b) proteins according to the method of Hopp and Woods (1981). Values are averaged over <sup>11</sup> amino acids.

tion, as is also found for the smallest subunit of the ATP synthase (the c-subunit product of the  $a t p E$  gene; Figure 7, lane 8 and 9), the synthesis of which was induced in an analogous way in strain CSR603 carrying plasmid pCMC1073 (von Meyenburg et al., 1985). The rom gene product of the vector plasmid appeared almost exclusively in the cytoplasmic fraction (Figure 7). Thus these results indicate that the *relF* and hok gene products are localized in a cellular membrane, presumably the cytoplasmic membrane.

## Hok and RelF proteins interfere with a vital function in the cell membrane

The apparent association of the Hok and RelF proteins with the cell membrane indicated that the proteins might affect a function of the membrane. As the proton gradient-dependent energygenerating machinery is tightly coupled to the cell membrane, we considered it important to measure any changes in the cell membrane potential  $(\Delta \psi)$  after induction of synthesis of the hok and relF gene products. We chose to determine  $\Delta \psi$  by



Fig. 6. Alignment of the nucleotide sequences of the parB region (upper line) and the part of the relB operon homologous to parB (lower line). Numbers are parB coordinates (as in P.B.Rasmussen, K.Gerdes and S.Molin, in preparation); the corresponding coordinates of the relB sequence are given in brackets. Identical bases are indicated with lines. Inverted repeats are indicated with arrows. The starts and stops of the hok and relF genes are indicated with 'Met' and 'Ter' respectively. Stars indicate stretches of bases conforming to the so-called 'EPU' consensus sequence (Gilson et al., 1984) see text.

measuring uptake of the lipophilic cation tetraphenylphosphonium ([3H]TPP+; see Materials and methods). Plasmids pBD2941, pKG341, pKG634 and pBR322 were transferred into the permeable mutant strain CM12 of E. coli B, <sup>a</sup> derivative of strain AS19 (Sekiguchi and lida, 1967), which was previously found to be permeable to  $TPP<sup>+</sup>$  (von Meyenburg et al., 1985). The extent of uptake of  $[3H]TPP<sup>+</sup>$  into growing cells of these plasmid-carrying strains at 30°C, and after different periods of temperature-induced synthesis of the hok and relF gene products, was determined (Figure 8a, b and c respectively). There is a rapid cessation of  $[3H]TPP<sup>+</sup>$  uptake after the heat-induced transcription of both the hok and relF genes (Figure 8a and b). No effect was observed in the control strain (data not shown). Thus induction of either the hok or the relF gene leads to a collapse of the cell membrane potential.

The kinetics of reduction of the membrane potential is different for the different plasmids.  $\Delta \psi$  is most rapidly reduced after induction of the relF gene expression from plasmid pBD2941 (down to zero within 5 min upon transfer to  $41^{\circ}$ C). When hok gene expression from pKG341 is induced it takes  $\sim$  15 min before  $\Delta\psi$  has reached its minimum. Since the *RelF* protein is expressed from the pL promoter, while the Hok protein is expressed under the control of the pR promoter, the differences in the kinetics of the membrane potential reduction are probably mainly due to differences in the level of gene expression of the two gene products (Remaut et al., 1981).

After induction of hok gene expression from the plasmid  $pKG634$ ,  $[3H]TPP<sup>+</sup>$  uptake decreases more slowly and is not



Fig. 7. Autoradiogram of a polyacrylamide gel showing the hok and relF gene products labelled with [35S]methionine by the maxicell technique. Only the lower part of the gel containing proteins of interest is shown. Lane 1: lpp (lipoprotein, 6 kd) labelled by labelling total cells (von Meyenburg et al., 1982); lane 2: membrane fraction from cells containing pKG341; lane 3: total fraction of cells containing pKG341; lane 4: cytoplasmic fraction from cells containing pKG341; lane 5: membrane fraction from cells containing pBD2941; lane 6: total fraction of cells containing pBD2941; lane 7: cytoplasmic fraction from cells containing  $pBD2941$ ; lane 8: the  $a t p E$  gene product (the c protein, 7 kd), membrane fraction; lane 9: the  $a t p E$  gene product, total fraction. Labelled  $a t p E$  gene product was obtained from an overproducer strain, see text.

completely eliminated (Figure 8c). In this case the pR promoter is inserted upstream of the region encoding the regulator of hok gene expression (the sok gene, cf. Figure 1). Thus the presence of the *sok* gene appears to partially counteract hok gene ex-



Fig. 8. Membrane potential (uptake of  $[3H]TPP^+$ ) and oxygen consumption of strain CM12 containing either pKG341 (a), pBD2941 (b) or pKG634 (c). Closed symbols show the membrane potential, open symbols show oxygen consumption. Note the difference in time scale between the upper (a and b) and lower (c) part of the figure.

pression, even when the hok gene is transcribed from the full de-repressed promoter pR of phage  $\lambda$ .

The rates of oxygen consumption of the same strains were measured in parallel with the  $TPP<sup>+</sup>$  uptake after a shift from 30 C to 41 $^{\circ}$ C. As a reference level we used the rate of oxygen consumption at 2 min after the shift to 41°C (after the initial increase in oxygen consumption due to the temperature shift). In the strains with the *hok* and *relF* gene expression plasmids, respiration ceases after the initial increase upon the temperature shift (Figure 8). The kinetics of respiration cessation is similar to the kinetics of loss of membrane potential in the same three different cases. In two cases (Figure 8b and c) it appears that the loss of the membrane potential preceded the inhibition of respiration.

Table I. Loss frequencies/cell/cell cycle of relB and parB-carrying oriC minichromosomes in strains CM987 and JS115<sup>a</sup>



<sup>a</sup>Measured as described in Gerdes et al., 1985.

#### Table H. Plasmids used and constructed



## Functional tests of the relB and parB regions: effects on the genetic stability of oriC minichromosomes

Since the hok gene expression is instrumental in rendering plasmid RI genetically stable (through postsegregational killing of plasmidless cells), we asked whether the homologous chromosomal gene relF might have a similar 'stabilizing' function with respect to the chromosome by postsegregational killing of chromosomeless cells. In order to test this inference we constructed oriC minichromosomes (Messer et al., 1978; von Meyenburg et al., 1979) carrying the *parB* region with the *hok* gene of plasmid R1 on the one hand (pAL041), and the complete relB operon with the  $relF$  gene on the other hand (pAL042). Since the *parB* system has been found to exhibit allele-specific incompatibility (Gerdes et al., 1985) we tested the rel $B^+$  (rel $F^+$ ) minichromosome in the relB deletion strain JS115 (Table I). The stability of the  $oriC$ minichromosomes was also tested in a wild-type  $E$ . coli K-12 strain (CM987).

The minichromosome carrying the *parB* region was very stably inherited in both strains compared with the  $\text{o}riC$  minichromosome without parB, which is very unstably inherited (von Meyenburg et al., 1979). On the other hand, the presence of the *relB* operon did not increase the stability of the minichromosomes in either of the two strains. It is not known why the minichromosome itself (pAL022) is slightly more stable in strain CM987 than in JS115 (Table I).

## **Discussion**

The genetic stability conferred by the partitioning locus parB to the antibiotic resistance plasmid Rl, on which it naturally resides, or to other replicons, into which parB has been inserted, has been shown to be due to postsegregational killing of those cells in the population which at cell division have lost (or are born without) a *parB*-carrying replicon (Gerdes *et al.*, 1986).

The 'killing' could be assigned to the expression of a small gene, hok, whose expression is appropriately controlled by the neighbouring sok gene. Other plasmids (e.g. the broad host range plasmid RK2) have been found to contain genes whose expression is lethal to the host cell, the killing effects of these genes, however, have not been ascribed to any known physiological function (Figurski et al., 1982. Young et al., 1985). Recently, Jaffé et al. (1985) showed that the  $ccdB$  gene of plasmid F encodes a product which, under certain circumstances, is lethal to the host cell. More specifically, the expression of the killing factor seems to be regulated such that a dividing cell containing only one copy of a  $ccd$ <sup>+</sup> plasmid produces one viable plasmid-containing cell and one non-viable plasmid-free cell. Thus the ccd system of plasmid F seems to express its killing effect only in situations where the  $ccd^+$  plasmid is lost due to an abnormal low copy number of the plasmid, whereas the *parB* system of R1 expresses its killing effect in the plasmid-free cell whatever the cause of plasmid loss. The mechanism of host cell killing by the ccdB gene product and the regulation of the ccd system has not yet been elucidated (Jaffé et al., 1985).

In the present analysis the mode of action of the hok gene product has been investigated. The findings may be summarized as follows: (i) the hok gene encodes a small hydrophobic 52 amino acid long polypeptide which associates with the cellular membrane; (ii) a closely related gene,  $relF$ , is present in the E. coli chromosome as part of the relB operon (Bech et al., 1985) the product of which is 40% homologous with the Hok protein and which also associates with the cell membrane; (iii) induced synthesis of the RelF polypeptide also leads to killing of the host cells and to the characteristic Hok-induced change in cell morphology (Figure 3); (iv) the rate of killing is dependent on the level of expression of the *relF* and hok genes respectively, and (v) shortly after induction of synthesis of the Hok or RelF proteins the electrochemical potential,  $\Delta \psi$ , and the rate of oxygen consumption decrease, the rapidity of the decrease in  $\Delta \psi$  and respiration again corresponding to the degree of expression of those genes.

The mechanism of postsegregational killing by expression of the hok gene, or the killing due to induced expression of the relF gene, thus appears to be due to the inhibition of a vital function in the cell membrane through the insertion of the respective polypeptide in the cytoplasmic membrane. How can such small polypeptides have such a dramatic deleterious effect on both the membrane potential  $(\Delta \psi)$  and the respiratory activity? It seems that both are affected simultaneously,  $\Delta \psi$  decreasing marginally before respiration (Figure 8). It is not the collapse of  $\Delta \psi$  per se which is the cause of the decrease in respiration as shortcircuiting of the membrane potential by carbonyl-cyanide-m-chlorophenylhydrazone (CCCP, a prodonophore) or by the overproduction of the subunit 'a' of the ATP synthase does not lead to inhibition of respiration, rather the rate of oxygen consumption increases (von Meyenburg et al., 1985; unpublished data). On the other hand, inhibition of respiration by cyanide does not lead to a collapse of  $\Delta \psi$  either (von Meyenburg, unpublished data).

We are therefore led to propose that the Hok and RelF polypeptides interact with a membrane function, the inactivation of which simultaneously leads to inhibition of oxygen consumption and a shortcircuiting/uncoupling of the membrane potential. An obvious target therefore could be a component of the respiratory chain. Interference with this function by Hok or RelF should lead to an inhibition of electron transport and proton pumping; the interference with the proton pumping must be of the kind leading to an actual proton leak such that  $\Delta \psi$  could not be maintained by alternative proton pumps such as  $H^+$ -ATPase.

A possible explanation of the morphological changes apparent in Hok-killed cells (Figure 3) and of these cells lower buoyant density (Gerdes et al., 1986), both effects which only appear later after induction and therefore must be considered secondary effects, is that due to the permeabilization of the cell membrane, water accumulates in the cell due to osmotic pressure and a simultaneous loosening of the rigid peptidoglycan layer; only the latter effectively allowing for an expansion of the cell volume and dilution of the intracellular macromolecules.

In the light of the high toxicity of the hok and relF gene products it is not surprising that both genes appear to be tightly regulated. The *parB* region of plasmid R1 encodes another gene, sok, the product of which inhibits the expression of the hok gene in trans (Gerdes et al., 1986). It is transcribed in the opposite direction (Figure lA) and presumably yields <sup>a</sup> non-translated RNA (K.Gerdes, unpublished data). We therefore think that the sok gene product controls hok gene expression post-transcriptionally, probably inhibiting the translation of the hok mRNA to which it is complementary. An extensive elaboration of this control model will be published elsewhere. With respect to the expression of the *relF* gene, the third gene in the *relB* operon, it appears that its transcription is under negative control of the  $relB$  gene product (Bech et al., 1985; unpublished results). The relF gene also seems to be subject to post-transcriptional control (unpublished results) and it is interesting to note that there is a high degree of homology of its translation start region with the one of the hok mRNA (Figure 5).

The physiological role of the relF gene is unknown: one possibility is that the *relF* gene could be involved in chromosome maintenance. We were able to test this proposal by cloning both the  $relB$  operon (including  $relF$ ) and the parB region separately into unstably inherited  $oriC$  minichromosomes. The data presented in Table I show that the parB locus but not the relB operon, stabilized  $oriC$  minichromosomes. Thus the function of the  $relF$ gene is probably not one of postsegregational killing of chromosomeless cells, although it shares structural and functional homology with the hok gene. Maybe the relF gene product is involved in control of respiratory activity under extreme physiological growth conditions.

The close relationship between the hok and relF genes and their regulatory sequences implies that the two genes have evolved from <sup>a</sup> common ancestral gene. It is tempting to speculate that an ancient plasmid RI has, by illegitimate recombination, picked up the chromosomal hok homologous gene, which then evolved into the present plasmid maintenance system.

## Materials and methods

#### Bacterial strains and plasmids

The E. coli K-12 strain CSH50 ( $\Delta$ lac pro rpsL; Miller, 1972) was used as recipient of ligated DNA in the plasmid construction procedures, whereas the K-12 strain JC411 (metB leu his argG lacY malA xyl mtl gal rpsl; Bachmann, 1972) was used in the physiological experiments. Strains CM987 (relB<sup>+</sup>; Hansen et al., 1981) and JS115 ( $\Delta relB$ ) (donated by J.-P. Bouche) were used to test the genetic stability of oriC minichromosomes carrying the parB or relB genes. Strains CSR603 (Sancar et al., 1979) was used in the maxicell experiments. The plasmids used and constructed are listed in Table H.

#### Biochemical methods

Large scale preparation of plasmid DNA was as described by Stougaard and Molin (1981), small scale preparation of plasmid DNA was according to Birnboim and Doly (1979). Digestion with restriction endonucleases and ligation of restricted DNA was accomplished as described previously (Gerdes et al., 1985). Transformation of bacterial cells was done by the method of Cohen et al. (1972).

## Detection of plasmid encoded proteins

The maxicell method of Sancar et al. (1979) was used to label plasmid-encoded

polypeptides. Cycloserine (100  $\mu$ g/ml) was added to the maxicell culture after u.v.-irradiation. The maxicells were labelled for 10 min with [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine, 2 min after the temperature was raised to  $42^{\circ}$ C to induce the hok and relF genes, and then chased for another 10 min with non-radioactive methionine.

#### Preparation of crude membranes

Crude membrane fractions were prepared from maxicells labelled with [35S]methionine as described above using the NaOH precipitation method of Russel and Model (1982).

### Plasmids

pKG634 and pKG341. The construction of these plasmids is described elsewhere (Gerdes et al., 1986). Plasmid pKG634 is <sup>a</sup> pBR322 derivative containing the  $\lambda$  pR promoter inserted in front of the hok gene. The plasmid carries the cI857 allele of the  $\lambda$  repressor gene. The plasmid also carries the sok gene (Figure 1). Plasmid pKG341 is an analogous plasmid containing the pR promoter in front of the hok gene but does not carry the sok gene (Figure 1).

pBD2941. Plasmid pBD2941 contains a fragment of the relB operon beginning 16 bp before the start codon of the relF gene and ending 45 bp after its stop codon. This fragment was brought into the polylinker region of pUC8 and from there moved (using the EcoRI and HindUI sites of the polylinker region) to a position just downstream of  $\lambda$  pL of pLc28 (Remaut et al., 1981).

pALD37. Plasmid pBD2430 is <sup>a</sup> pUC8 derivative containing the entire E. coli relB operon on an EcoRI-HindIII restriction fragment (Bech et al., 1985). The plasmid was restricted with HindIII, the overhanging ends filled by treatment with the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I, and EcoRI linkers added. One plasmid which had taken up an EcoRI linker was designated pAL037. This plasmid contains the relB operon on an EcoRI restriction fragment, thus facilitating transfer of the fragment in further plasmid constructions.

pAL022. The MstI fragment of the minichromosome pFHC271 (Hansen et al., 1981) extending from position 1230L to 2499R in the oriC region was ligated to the XmnI fragment of pBR322 carrying the tetracycline reistance gene. Thus pAL022 is a minichromosome derivative of 6160 bp containing a unique EcoRI restriction site and conferring tetracycline resistance on plasmid-bearing cells.

pAL041. The 900 bp parB-carrying EcoRI fragment of pPR95 (P.B.Rasmussen, K.Gerdes and S.Molin, in preparation) was inserted into the EcoRI site of pAL022.

pAL042. The relB-carrying fragment of pAL037 was inserted into the EcoRI site of pAL022.

#### Measurement of the cell membrane potential

The membrane potential was measured by the method of Hirota et al. (1981). The lipophilic cation tetraphenylphosphonium  $(TPP<sup>+</sup>)$  is taken up intracellularly in proportion to the size of the cell membrane potential. Thus the membrane potential can be measured indirectly by determining the extent of uptake of  $[3H]TPP^+$ into growing cells.

#### Rate of oxygen consumption

The rate of oxygen consumption was determined using a Clark type electrode (Kier et al., 1976) by measuring the decrease in dissolved oxygen concentration in aliquots of the cultures at the respective temperatures (von Meyenburg et al., 1985).

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