# RpoS Is Necessary for Both the Positive and Negative Regulation of Starvation Survival Genes during Phosphate, Carbon, and Nitrogen Starvation in Salmonella typhimurium

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The starvation stress response of Salmonella typhimurium encompasses the genetic and physiologic changes that occur when this bacterium is starved for an essential nutrient such as phosphate (P), carbon (C), or nitrogen (N). The responses to the limitation of each of these nutrients involve both unique and overlapping sets of proteins important for starvation survival and virulence. The role of the alternative  $\sigma$  factor RpoS in the regulation of the starvation survival loci, stiA, stiB, and stiC, has been characterized. RpoS ( $\sigma^S$ ) was found to be required for the P, C, and N starvation induction of stiA and stiC. In contrast, RpoS was found to be required for the negative regulation of stiB during P and C starvation-induced stationary phase but not during logarithmic phase. This role was independent of the relA gene (previously found to be needed for stiB induction). The role of RpoS alone and in combination with one or more sti mutations in the starvation survival of the organism was also investigated. The results clearly demonstrate that RpoS is an integral component of the complex interconnected regulatory systems involved in S. typhimurium's response to nutrient deprivation. However, differential responses of various sti genes indicate that additional signals and regulatory proteins are also involved.

The starvation stress response (SSR) of Salmonella typhimurium, and other enteric bacteria, encompasses the genetic and physiologic changes that occur upon starvation for an essential nutrient, e.g., phosphate (P), carbon (C), or nitrogen (N). The SSR can be subdivided into the P starvation, C starvation, and N starvation stress responses, each of which involves unique and overlapping genes and proteins (34-37, 42-44, 46; reviewed in references 24, 25, 41, and 45). Many of the components of the SSR are also important in the bacterial response to (and survival during) other environmental stresses such as acid pH, oxidative stress, osmotic stress, heat shock, and anaerobiosis (2, 9, 10, 16, 18, 33, 37, 43, 45). The importance of the SSR becomes evident when we consider that many of the conditions that salmonellae encounter, as they move through various microenvironments within their hosts and natural aquatic and terrestrial microcosms, are frequently limiting for bacterial growth in terms of the availability of essential nutrients (14, 19, 48). Evidence from several laboratories indicates that S. typhimurium encounters microenvironments within the host (e.g., within host macrophages) that induce both unique and overlapping sets of stress-inducible proteins. Several of these proteins are regulated by P, C, and/or N starvation  $(1, 3, 7, 8, 29, 49)$ . Consequently, the ability of Salmonella spp. to respond to and survive periods of nutrient deprivation can have a profound influence on the epidemiology and pathogenesis of disease caused by salmonellae.

To address the question of how S. typhimurium responds to and survives starvation conditions, we have identified a number

of P starvation-inducible  $(psi)$ , C starvation-inducible  $(csi)$ , and multiple-nutrient starvation-inducible (sti) loci by Mu d-directed lac fusion techniques  $(11, 38, 42, 44, 46)$ . Three of the sti loci identified by this method,  $\text{stiA}$ ,  $\text{stiB}$ , and  $\text{stiC}$ , are essential for bacterial survival during simultaneous P, C, and N starvation (PCN starvation). Isogenic strains carrying single mutations in any one of these three loci exhibit 50- to 75-foldreduced levels of survival compared with wild type strains. Moreover, double sti mutants exhibit 500- to 2,000-fold-lower levels of survival, indicating a kind of synergistic relationship among these three loci (44). The expression of these loci exhibits a complex interconnected network of regulation involving positive control by the  $relA$  locus (i.e., guanosine tetraphosphate  $[pPGpp]$ ) (4) and negative control by the  $crp$ gene (i.e., cyclic AMP [cAMP] receptor protein [22]) (44). Interestingly, the regulation of the  $\pi$  locus (unlike that of stiA and stiC) was unaffected by a cya mutation, suggesting that cAMP receptor protein acts alone or with <sup>a</sup> different signal molecule in the repression of  $\delta t$  (44).

Recently, the alternative sigma factor RpoS (also called KatF or  $\sigma^3$  [30, 47]) has been implicated in the regulation of genes and proteins during C starvation and stationary phase following logarithmic growth in rich medium (8, 20a, 24, 26, 27, 49). We report here the role of RpoS in the regulation of the starvation survival genes stiA, stiB, and stiC during P, C, and/or N starvation. We also characterize the relationship between the rpoS gene and the stiA, stiB, and stiC loci in the long-term starvation survival of S. typhimurium.

# MATERLALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and phage used. The bacterial strains used in this study are derivatives of S. typhimurium SL1344 or JF235 and are listed in Table 1. Transductions were performed with

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TABLE 1. List of bacterial strains used in this study

<b>Strain</b>	Genotype (pertinent phenotype <sup>a</sup> )	Source or reference
SL1344	hisG46	<b>B. B. Finlay (15)</b>
<b>SF1005</b>	14028s $k\alpha tF$ (rpoS):: $Ampr$	8
<b>SMS438</b>	$SL1344$ rpoS:: $Ampr$	This study
ST66	SL1344 stiA1::MudJ (lac Kan')	This study
<b>SMS465</b>	$ST66$ rpoS:: $Ampr$	This study
ST67	SL1344 stiB2::MudJ (lac Kan <sup>r</sup> )	This study
<b>SMS466</b>	ST67 rpoS::Amp <sup>r</sup>	This study
<b>SMS482</b>	SMS465 relA21::Tn10 (Tet <sup>r</sup> )	This study
<b>SMS523</b>	$ST67$ relA21:: $Tn10$ (Tet <sup>r</sup> )	This study
<b>ST68</b>	SL1344 stiC4::MudJ (lac Kan')	This study
<b>SMS467</b>	ST68 rpoS::Amp <sup>r</sup>	This study
JF235	$\Delta$ nad $A100$	J. W. Foster
<b>SMS470</b>	JF235 rpoS::Amp <sup>r</sup>	This study
<b>JF807</b>	JF235 ΔstiA18	44, 46
<b>SMS471</b>	JF807 rpoS::Amp <sup>r</sup>	This study
JF1142	$JF235 \Delta stiB13$	44, 46
<b>SMS472</b>	JF1142 rpoS::Amp <sup>r</sup>	This study
JF1145	JF235 $\Delta$ stiC15	44.46
<b>SMS473</b>	$JF1145$ rpoS::Amp <sup>r</sup>	This study
<b>SMS392</b>	JF235 AstiA18 stiB2::MudJ (lac Kan <sup>r</sup> )	44
<b>SMS474</b>	SMS392 rpoS::Amp <sup>r</sup>	This study
<b>SMS393</b>	JF235 AstiA18 stiC4::MudJ (lac Kan <sup>r</sup> )	44
<b>SMS475</b>	SMS393 rpoS::Amp <sup>r</sup>	This study
<b>SMS399</b>	JF235 ΔstiB13 stiC4::MudJ (lac Kan <sup>r</sup> )	44
<b>SMS476</b>	SMS399 $rpoS::Ampr$	This study

<sup>a</sup> Amp<sup>r</sup>, ampicillin resistance; Kan<sup>r</sup>, kanamycin resistance; Tet<sup>r</sup>, tetracycline resistance.

the high-transducing derivative of S. typhimurium bacteriophage P22, P22 HT 105/1 int (HT phage) (5). In all cases, the strains used in this study were determined to be nonlysogens for P22 phage by growth on green indicator agar plates (6) and by sensitivity to the H5 derivative of P22 phage (23).

Culture media and antibiotics used. The minimal media used in this study were modifications of <sup>a</sup> minimal MOPS (morpholinepropanesulfonic acid)-buffered salts (MS) medium (32) and were described in detail previously (44, 46). Nicotinic acid and histidine were added to minimal media, as needed, at a final concentration of 0.1 mM. Rich media used included Luria-Bertani (LB) broth and agar (6).

Antibiotics were used, as needed, at the following final concentrations: 30  $\mu$ g of ampicillin ml<sup>-1</sup>, 10 (minimal medium) or 20 (rich medium)  $\mu$ g of tetracycline ml<sup>-1</sup>, or 100  $\mu$ g of kanamycin m $l^{-1}$ .

Confirmation of regulatory mutant phenotypes. Modified SMG medium (39) was used to confirm the  $relA$  mutant phenotype. The  $rpoS$  mutant phenotype was confirmed qualitatively by mixing a colony of the desired strain from an LB agar plate with 50  $\mu$ l of 10% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and observing for the evolution of oxygen (bubbling) (31).

Starvation induction assays and kinetics of expression. Starvation induction and induction kinetics were measured as previously described (44). Briefly, overnight cultures grown in nonlimiting minimal medium (MS hiPCN [see below]) were washed and resuspended in MS buffer (no P, C, or N sources) and then were used to inoculate (i) nonlimiting PCN (MS hiPCN  $[25 \text{ mM } KH_2PO_4/K_2HPO_4$ , pH 7.4-0.4% glucose-10 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl]), (ii) limiting P (MS loP [0.113 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/  $K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>]$ ), (iii) limiting C (MS loC [0.025% glucose]), and (iv) limiting N (MS loN [1 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl]) media to an  $A_{600}$  of ca. 0.03 (time zero). Cultures were incubated at 37°C with aeration. At specified time intervals, growth was monitored by  $A_{600}$ ,

and 0.1- or 0.5-ml aliquots were removed and assayed for  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity by the method of Miller (28).

Starvation survival assays. Long-term starvation survival was assayed as previously described (44). Briefly, overnight cultures were washed, resuspended, and used to inoculate 3 ml of MS loPCN medium  $(1 \text{ mM } KH_2PO_4/K_2HPO_4$ , pH 7.4-0.25% glucose-10 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl) to ca.  $4 \times 10^7$  to  $5 \times 10^7$  CFU  $ml^{-1}$ . This culture was then grown with aeration at 37<sup>o</sup>C to ca.  $4 \times 10^8$  CFU ml<sup>-1</sup>. At this point, 1 ml of this culture was diluted in <sup>9</sup> ml of MS buffer. At specified time intervals, aliquots of the culture were removed, immediately serially diluted in MS buffer, and plated onto LB agar plates plus antibiotic, as needed, to determine viable plate counts. Time zero was the point at which the culture entered starvationinvoked stationary phase (cell density of ca.  $3 \times 10^8$  CFU  $ml^{-1}$ ). Survival was calculated as the percentage of the maximum cultural viability achieved.

## RESULTS

RpoS is required for  $\text{stiA}$  and  $\text{stiC}$  induction during phosphate, carbon, and nitrogen starvation. The alternative  $\sigma$ factor RpoS, or  $\sigma^S$ , is essential for the development of starvation-induced general resistance to a variety of stresses in both Escherichia coli and S. typhimurium (8, 18, 20a, 24). Therefore, since the  $stiA$  and  $stiC$  loci are required for starvation survival and both are induced during starvation for phosphate, carbon, and nitrogen (44, 46), we wanted to determine if RpoS plays a role in the regulation of these two starvation survival genes. To accomplish this, an  $rpoS::Amp<sup>r</sup>$  insertion mutation (8) was transduced into each of the sti::MudJ (lac Kan<sup>r</sup>) (sti-lac) transcriptional fusion-containing strains. Prior to transduction, complementation of the rpoS mutation with a cloned wild-type rpoS gene on a ColEl plasmid vector was performed. The cloned rpoS gene restored full spvB expression as measured from the spvB-lac translational fusion on plasmid pFF14 (7), and the gene also restored resistance to low pH and hydrogen peroxide exposure to wild-type levels (data not shown).

Figure 1 illustrates the results from subsequent starvation induction assays with the wild-type parent and the  $rpoS::Amp<sup>r</sup>$ derivatives of the stiA-lac and stiC-lac fusion strains. As can be seen in Fig. 1, the rpoS mutation eliminated the normal induction of these loci during C and N starvation. Interestingly, the rpoS mutation also eliminated the normal P starvation induction of these two loci. This supports recent findings demonstrating that RpoS levels increase during phosphate limitation and provides direct evidence that RpoS is involved in phosphate starvation-regulated gene expression. Moreover, the  $rpoS$  mutation is the first mutation shown to affect the P starvation induction of these sti loci. We previously reported that the P starvation induction of these genes is phoP independent  $(13, 44)$ . The *phoB* and *phoR* homologs of S. typhimurium have not been identified, so a role for these genes has not been determined. Curiously, expression of the stiC-lac fusion was still slightly induced during P and N starvation (but not C starvation) in an rpoS background. This suggests that regulatory mechanisms, in addition to RpoS, are involved in  $\text{sti}\overline{C}$  (but not stiA) expression during P or N starvation. Nonetheless, it is clear from these results that RpoS is involved in the positive regulation of both stiA and stiC during C, N, and P starvation.

RpoS functions in the negative regulation of stiB. The stiB locus is also required for the starvation survival of S. typhimurium and is induced during the transition from log phase to P or C starvation-induced (but not N starvation-induced) stationary phase (44). Thus, we wanted to determine if RpoS also plays a role in the regulation of this starvation survival



FIG. 1. Role of the alternative  $\sigma$  factor RpoS, or  $\sigma^S$ , in the regulation of the starvation survival genes stiA and stiC. rpoS<sup>+</sup> and rpoS derivatives of strains carrying either stiA-lac (ST66 and SMS465) (A) or a stiC-lac (ST68 and SMS467) (B) fusion were grown and treated as described in Materials and Methods in nonlimiting (MS hiPCN  $[+PCN]$ ), limiting P (MS loP  $[-P]$ ), limiting C (MS loC  $[-C]$ ), or  $limiting N (MS 10N [-N])$  medium.  $\beta$ -Galactosidase activity was measured at several predetermined intervals throughout log phase and starvation-induced stationary phase in the various starvation media. The activities shown represent the maximal level of induction achieved under each starvation condition. Maximal levels of induction for both  $stiA$  and  $stiC$  typically occur at about 4 to 6 h into starvation. 3-Galactosidase was assayed at the same intervals for both the wild-type (e.g.,  $rpoS^{+}$  relA<sup>+</sup> parent) and mutant fusion-containing strains.  $\beta$ -Galactosidase activity is expressed in Miller units (28). The asterisks  $(*)$  indicate that  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity was undetectable in our assay procedure. The data presented are from a representative experiment from at least three separate trials.

locus. As illustrated in Fig. 2A, starvation induction assays performed on wild-type and  $\eta \circ S$  derivatives of the stiB-lac fusion strain yielded an unexpected and extremely interesting finding. The rpoS mutation resulted in a two- to threefoldhigher level of induction of  $\sin B$  during P starvation and a fiveto sixfold-higher level of induction during C starvation, suggesting that RpoS is involved in the negative regulation of the stiB locus.

As shown in Fig. 2B, the  $rpoS$  mutation does not alter the timing of  $\text{stiB}$  induction; it alters only the rate and level to which it is induced. Thus, RpoS appears to be involved in limiting the expression of  $\sin B$  during P and C starvationinduced stationary phase but has no effect on basal expression during logarithmic growth in minimal media.

An rpoS mutation suppresses the effect of a relA mutation on stiB induction. Induction of the  $\delta$  stiB locus is dependent on the relA gene during C starvation but not P starvation (44). However, the rpoS mutation was found to suppress the effect of

<sup>a</sup> relA mutation on the C starvation-induced expression of stiB, because the rpoS mutation restored the C starvation induction of stiB in the presence of a relA null mutation (Fig. 2A). The fact that RpoS is an alternative  $\sigma$  factor (47) suggests that rpoS controls the expression of a negative regulator of stiB, rather than stiB itself. ppGpp would then be necessary to overcome the action of this putative stiB repressor in this model.

Effect of an  $rpoS$  mutation alone or in combination with stiA, stiB, and/or sti $\ddot{C}$  mutations on survival during prolonged PCN starvation. We previously reported (44) that  $\sin A$ ,  $\sin B$ , and  $\sin C$ mutations, separately (50- to 75-fold) or in combination (500 to 2,000-fold), reduced survival during prolonged PCN starvation. Other investigators have reported that rpoS mutants are more sensitive to the effects of prolonged carbon starvation than wild-type parent strains  $(8, 20a, 27)$ . Since the stiA, stiB, and stiC loci are regulated by RpoS, we wanted to examine the combined effects of rpoS and sti mutations on starvation survival. Results presented in Fig. 3A show that strains possessing the rpoS mutation alone lost viability more quickly and exhibited a 75- to 100-fold reduction in survival, after 15 to 20 days of starvation, compared with the parent strain. This supports the findings of previous studies with E. coli and S. typhimurium (8, 20a, 27), which were performed for shorter periods, and further confirms the effectiveness of our starvation protocol. However, the extent to which viability was compromised was comparable to that of  $rpoS<sup>+</sup>$  strains possessing single mutations in either the  $stiA$ ,  $stiB$ , or  $stiC$  locus (compare Fig. 3A and C) (44).

Moreover, we found that combining an rpoS mutation with individual sti mutations produced only a slight additional effect on starvation survival compared with  $rpoS<sup>+</sup>$  sti mutants (compare Fig. 3A and C). Because rpoS mutants would presumably be defective in all rpoS-dependent systems, one might expect that inactivating rpoS-dependent genes in an rpoS mutant would not significantly decrease survival any further. However, this does not appear to be the case. This point is demonstrated by the finding that combining an  $rpoS$  mutation with pairs of sti mutations caused diminished starvation survival even beyond that of rpoS or rpoS sti mutants (compare Fig. 3A and B). This in itself was not that surprising, since we previously reported that sti double mutants are much more sensitive to long-term starvation than *sti* single mutants (45) (compare Fig. 3C and D). The extent to which rpoS stiA stiB, rpoS stiA stiC, and rpoS stiB stiC triple mutants lost viability was comparable to that of  $rpoS<sup>+</sup>$  sti double mutants (compare Fig. 3B and D). Taken as a whole, these results suggest that even basal levels of expression (levels occurring in the absence of RpoS) of the rpoSdependent survival genes can contribute to starvation survival and/or, perhaps, that a separate cryptic or unknown mechanism that can partially compensate for the loss of RpoS might be involved. However, if the expression of two (or more) of these sti survival genes is completely abolished, then the effect on starvation survival becomes even more pronounced.

There is one other possibility as to why rpoS mutants survive starvation better than double *sti* mutants. This alternative explanation stems from the fact that our survival assays are performed under conditions of simultaneous P, C, and N starvation, whereas the role of RpoS in regulation was assessed under conditions of starvation for individual nutrients. Thus, the possibility that the *sti* loci are regulated differently during PCN starvation and are less RpoS dependent under these conditions existed. However, this was ruled out for two reasons: (i) sti-lac expression was measured under conditions which were the same as those used for our survival assays, and (ii) analogous starvation survival assays were performed under conditions in which mutants were starved for only the C



FIG. 2. Role of the alternative  $\sigma$  factor RpoS, or  $\sigma^S$ , in the regulation of the starvation survival gene stiB. (A) rpoS<sup>+</sup> and rpoS derivatives of a stiB-lac fusion strain (ST67 and SMS466) were grown and treated as described in Materials and Methods in nonlimiting (MS hiPCN [+PCN]), limiting P (MS loP  $[-P]$ ), limiting C (MS loC  $[-C]$ ), or limiting N (MS loN  $[-N]$ ) medium.  $\beta$ -Galactosidase activity was measured at several predetermined intervals throughout log phase and starvation-induced stationary phase in the various starvation media. The activities shown represent the maximal level of induction achieved under each starvation condition. Maximal levels of induction for stiB typically occur at about 4 to 6 h into starvation.  $\beta$ -Galactosidase was assayed at the same intervals for both the wild-type (e.g.,  $rpoS^+$   $relA^+$  parent) and mutant fusion-containing strains. (B) *rpoS*<sup>+</sup> and *rpoS* derivatives of a stiB-lac fusion strain were grown and treated as described in Materials and Methods in MS hiPCN ( $+$ PCN) or MS loC ( $-C$ ) medium. The arrow indicates the point at which the limiting C culture stopped growing because of exhaustion of glucose. β-Galactosidase activity is expressed in Miller units (28). The data presented are from a representative experiment from at least three separate trials.

source. The results suggest that starving for P, C, and N sources simultaneously is not significantly different from starving for only the carbon source in terms of (i) the regulation of stiA, stiB, or stiC or (ii) the effects of mutations in these loci on starvation survival (data not shown).

Results similar to those presented in Fig. 3C and D were previously reported (44) and are included here for the purpose of comparison. The growth rates of rpoS mutants with and without one or more *sti* mutations were not significantly different from each other during logarithmic growth (data not shown).

### DISCUSSION

The data presented indicate that the alternative  $\sigma$  factor RpoS has a central role in both the positive and the negative regulation of starvation-inducible gene expression in S. typhimurium. RpoS, or  $\sigma^S$ , typically functions as a positive regulator redirecting the selectivity of core RNA polymerase (E) complexes for specific promoters (47), e.g., starvation-inducible promoters and stationary-phase-inducible promoters. This appears to be the case for stiA and stiC.

RpoS has been implicated in the regulation of C and N starvation-inducible gene expression in  $\overline{E}$ . coli (20a, 27) and C starvation-inducible gene expression in Salmonella spp. (8, 38, 49). However, this is the first report to directly demonstrate the involvement of RpoS in P starvation-inducible gene expression. A role for RpoS in P starvation-inducible gene expression is supported by the recent finding that RpoS itself is induced during P starvation (12). Although RpoS is required for the P, C, and N starvation induction of  $stiA$  and  $stiC$ , separate additional signals appear to be involved in the response to individual starvation conditions as well as other conditions that induce RpoS-dependent genes. For example, we have identified rpoS-dependent genes induced during P and C starvation (but not N starvation) as well as  $rpoS$ -dependent genes induced only during C starvation (38). Moreover, stiA and stiC are not induced during the transition from logarithmic phase to stationary phase in rich medium (LB) or nonlimiting minimal medium (MS hiPCN) (44, 46), while many other  $rpoS$ -regulated genes are induced under these conditions (21, 31, 40). Therefore, it seems likely that  $E\sigma^S$  holoenzyme complexes interact with signals or regulatory components unique to a specific condition(s), e.g.,  $\overline{P}$  or  $C$  starvation or transition to stationary phase following logarithmic growth in LB medium. Furthermore, there are genes induced during these conditions that do not require RpoS for their induction (38, 47). Thus, the signals generated or regulatory proteins functioning under these conditions may also interact with other RNA polymerase holoenzymes, e.g.,  $E\sigma^{70}$  holoenzymes (47). One thing is clear from the complexity of SSR gene regulation: one must exercise caution when trying to characterize so-called stationary-phase gene expression because many environmental and growth conditions can result in stationary phase without necessarily causing the induction of certain genes.

One possible signal molecule is ppGpp (synthesized by the relA gene product [4]), which we previously found to be required for the induction of  $\text{stiA}$  and  $\text{stiC}$  during C and N



FIG. 3. Starvation survival of strains carrying an rpoS mutation in combination with one or two sti mutations. Desired strains were grown and starved by dilution in MS buffer as described in Materials and Methods. Maximum survival was measured between 12 and 48 h following entry into starvation-induced stationary phase (day 0) for each culture. Subsequent viability determinations of each culture were expressed as percentages of the maximum viability for that culture (% survival). The same parent strain (JF235) and rpoS mutant strain (SMS470) were used in panels A through D. (A) SMS471 (rpoS stiA), SMS472 (rpoS stiB), SMS473 (rpoS stiC). (B) SMS474 (rpoS stiA stiB), SMS475 (rpoS stiA stiC), SMS476 (rpoS stiB stiC). (C) JF807 (stiA), JF1142 (stiB), JF1145 (stiC). (D) SMS392 (stiA stiB), SMS393 (stiA  $stic$ ), SMS399 (stiB stiC). The data presented are from a representative experiment from at least three separate trials.

starvation (but not P starvation) (44). Thus, a model whereby ppGpp interacts directly with  $E\sigma^S$  holoenzyme complexes to further alter or perhaps strengthen their interaction with certain promoters, e.g., sti promoters, can be postulated. However, a recent report by Gentry et al. (12) demonstrating that ppGpp positively regulates RpoS synthesis during C, P, or amino acid starvation in  $E$ . coli can also explain why relA null mutants are defective in stiA and stiC induction during C and N starvation, assuming that <sup>a</sup> similar phenomenon occurs in S. typhimurium. The findings that (i) ppGpp levels apparently do increase during P starvation, (ii) RpoS is induced during P starvation in a ppGpp-dependent manner, and (iii) the P starvation induction of stiA and stiC is independent of  $relA$  but is still rpoS dependent suggest an interesting scenario. ppGpp

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has been shown to be synthesized by both the relA and  $spoT$ gene products (4). With this in mind, a model for the  $spoT$ dependent, relA-independent accumulation of ppGpp during P starvation can be postulated. Thus, the ppGpp-dependent induction of RpoS, and consequently RpoS-dependent genes, would be spoT dependent during P starvation and relA dependent during C starvation. The spoT-dependent, relA-independent accumulation of ppGpp has been demonstrated to occur in response to fatty acid deprivation in  $E$ . coli (40a). In that study the researchers postulated a link between fatty acid starvation and carbon starvation in terms of the signal transduction mechanisms responsible for ppGpp accumulation. However, this link is based on reports that ppGpp accumulation during C starvation is relA independent but  $spoT$  dependent (4). Our studies seem to contradict the relA independence of ppGpp accumulation during C starvation since the C starvation induction of  $stiA$ ,  $stiB$ , and  $stiC$  is  $relA$  dependent (44). Therefore, the respective roles of RelA and SpoT in the accumulation of ppGpp under various starvation and stress conditions requires further study.

Another interesting and unexpected finding reported here is that  $\sin B$  is overexpressed during P and C starvation (but not during log phase) in an rpoS genetic background. This suggests, given its function as a  $\sigma$  factor, that RpoS may act indirectly by positively regulating another gene which negatively regulates stiB expression during P and C starvation. This putative repressor would not function during log phase; the repression of stiB during log phase is mediated by cAMP receptor protein (22) in a cAMP-independent manner (44). The function of this putative stiB repressor appears to be to limit the level of induction of  $\delta t$  under inducing conditions. The reason for the need to limit stiB expression is under investigation.

As with stiA and stiC, the induction of stiB is dependent on the relA gene product during C starvation (but not P starvation) (44). However, we report here that an  $rpos$  null mutation can suppress the effect of a  $relA21::Tn10$  insertion mutation  $(39)$  on stiB expression. A possible explanation is that, as proposed above, RpoS may be required for the expression of <sup>a</sup> putative  $\text{stiB}$  repressor that limits the expression of  $\text{stiB}$  during C starvation. ppGpp would then be needed to relieve the effect of this putative repressor on  $\text{stiB}$  expression during C starvation. Thus, in an rpoS or rpoS relA mutant the stiB repressor would not be expressed, and in turn the stiB locus would not be repressed during C starvation. Therefore, ppGpp (or the relA gene product) would not be required to relieve the repression of stiB under these conditions. In a relA rpoS<sup>+</sup> background, the putative stiB repressor would be synthesized, repressing  $stiB$ expression, but since ppGpp synthesis is defective, the repression could not be relieved and stiB would not be induced. According to this model, however, if the same  $\delta$  repressor functions during C and P starvation, then either (i) <sup>a</sup> signal transduction system other than ppGpp must be involved during P starvation or (ii), as stated above, ppGpp synthesis during P starvation involves a relA-independent mechanism, e.g., the spoT gene product.

The stiA, stiB, stiC, and rpoS loci are all needed for long-term starvation survival of S. typhimurium (8, 44). On the basis of the fact that  $\text{stiA}, \text{stiB}, \text{and } \text{stiC}$  are all regulated by RpoS, one might predict that rpoS mutants exhibit increased sensitivity to the effects of C starvation because stiA and stiC are not induced and/or because  $\sin B$  is overexpressed in an  $\eta \rho \rho S$  mutant. Because RpoS regulates genes, in addition to these three sti loci, that are likely to be important for starvation survival, one might expect rpoS mutants to be even more susceptible to starvation effects than sti single mutants. However, rpoS singly or in combination with  $\text{stiA}$ ,  $\text{stiB}$ , or  $\text{stiC}$  only slightly increased

sensitivity to the effects of starvation relative to stiA, stiB, or stiC mutations in an  $rpoS<sup>+</sup>$  background (compare Fig. 3A and C). This implies that  $\overline{stiA}$  and  $\overline{stiC}$ , at least, are key starvation survival genes in the rpoS-dependent system because a deficiency of either locus compromises starvation survival to about the same extent as an rpoS mutation. Interestingly, if sti mutations are combined in an  $rpoS^+$  or  $rpoS$  background (compare Fig. 3B and D), the effect on starvation survival is even more dramatic than that with an  $rpos$  sti<sup>+</sup> mutant. This suggests that even basal levels of rpoS-dependent gene products synthesized in the absence of a functional RpoS protein can partially protect cells during starvation. Also, the fact that rpoS double sti mutants are only slightly more sensitive to the effects of prolonged starvation than isogenic  $\eta \rho S^+$  strains suggests that the loss of two rpoS-dependent sti survival genes produces a near maximal effect on starvation survival. In such a case, rpoS-independent mechanisms may account for residual levels of survival. In addition, genetic (8, 17) and biochemical (47) analyses have demonstrated that at least some RpoSregulated genes are not absolutely dependent upon RpoS for their expression. Rather, RpoS serves to amplify the expression of specific genes possessing additional independent regulatory systems during starvation conditions. Thus, this may also account for phenotypic differences between strains harboring mutations in rpoS or in specific rpoS-regulated genes.

What is clear from our findings (11, 38, 42-46, 49) and the work of other laboratories (1-3, 8, 12, 20-21, 24-27, 30, 31, 34-37, 40-41, 47) is that the regulation of the SSR and of stationary-phase gene expression is carried out by a very complex network involving both unique and overlapping signals and regulatory proteins. The signal molecules identified, thus far, include cAMP and ppGpp. The regulators identified to date include the cAMP receptor protein and the alternative  $\sigma$  factor RpoS. Recently, reports on E. coli have also implicated Lrp and integration host factor in the RpoS-dependent stationary-phase induction of  $osmY$  (20). This suggests that these proteins may also play a role in the regulation of stationary-phase gene expression in general. Interestingly, these regulatory components can have both positive and negative effects on starvation-regulated gene expression.

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