Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms of the DNA of Selected Naegleria and Acanthamoeba Amebae

G. L. McLAUGHLIN,t F. H. BRANDT, AND G. S. VISVESVARA*

Division of Parasitic Diseases, Center for Infectious Diseases, Centers for Disease Control, Atlanta, Georgia 30333

Received 21 March 1988/Accepted ¹ June 1988

Fourteen strains of Naegleria fowleri, two strains of N. gruberi, and one strain each of N. australiensis, N. jadini, N. lovaniensis, Acanthamoeba sp., A. castellanii, A. polyphaga, and A. comandoni isolated from patients, soil, or water were characterized by restriction fragment length polymorphisms. Total cellular DNA (1 μ g) was digested with either HindIII, BgIII, or EcoRI; separated on agarose gels; and stained with ethidium bromide. From 2 to 15 unusually prominent repetitive restriction fragment bands, totaling 15 to 50 kilobases in length and constituting probably more than 30% of the total DNA, were detected for ail ameba strains. Each species displayed a characteristic pattern of repetitive restriction fragments. Digests of the four Acanthamoeba spp. displayed fewer, less intensely staining repetitive fragments than those of the Naegleria spp. All N. fowleri strains, whether isolated from the cerebrospinal fluid of patients from different parts of the world or from hot springs, had repetitive restriction fragment bands of similar total lengths (ca. 45 kilobases), and most repetitive bands displayed identical mobilities. However, polymorphic bands were useful in identifying particular isolates. Restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis generally was consistent with taxonomy based on studies of infectivity, morphology, isoenzyme patterns, and antibody reactivity and suggests that this technique may help classify amebae isolated from clinical specimens or from the environment.

Restriction fragment length polymorphisms have been useful in the classification of viruses (4), bacteria (6), bacterial plasmids (9), and eucaryotic pathogens (13). Restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis also has been used to determine the origins of particular pathogenic isolates (5). For most bacteria and eucaryotes, restriction enzyme digestion of the total cellular DNA produces smears or banding patterns that are too complex for easy analysis (7). To simplify the banding patterns analyzed, separated DNA usually is transferred to membranes and hybridized with cloned DNA that detects particular genomic sequences, especially repetitive sequences. For eucaryotes, repetitive DNA represents ^a good marker for strain characterization, because the primary sequence, chromosomal location, and copy number change rapidly for many classes of repetitive DNA through evolutionary time; these variations are reflected by changes in restriction fragment length polymorphism patterns among particular strains (12).

As part of our research on the characterization of pathogenic and nonpathogenic free-living amebae of the genera Acanthamoeba and Naegleria, which contain strains that are opportunistic human pathogens, we isolated the total genomic DNA of several strains and digested the DNA with restriction endonucleases. After the DNA was electrophoresed on agarose gels and stained with ethidium bromide, we noticed strikingly abundant, well-defined DNA fragments when the gels were examined under UV illumination. The patterns of these DNA fragments may be useful in characterizing the pathogenic and nonpathogenic Naegleria and Acanthamoeba species.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Amebae. Strains of Naegleria and Acanthamoeba analyzed are listed in Table 1 along with their places of origin and years of isolation. All strains were grown for 4 to 5 days and harvested at late log phase. N. fowleri, N. gruberi, and N. jadini were grown in modified Nelson medium; N. australiensis was grown in TYPH medium; and Acanthamoeba was grown in PYG medium, as described previously (14). N. gruberi, N. jadini, A. castellanii, A. polyphaga, and A. comandoni were incubated at 24°C; all other amebae were grown at 37°C.

DNA preparation. Pellets of amebae (7 \times 10⁶ to 2 \times 10⁷ cells) were lysed and digested by incubation in ⁵ ml of 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate-5 mM EDTA-0.3 mg of proteinase K per ml-50 mM Tris (pH 8.0) for ² ^h at 37°C. Eqùivolume phenol saturated with ¹ mM EDTA-10 mM Tris (pH 8.0) was added, and samples were thoroughly mixed by gentle inversion for 5 min at room temperature. Samples were chilled fi 5 min on ice and were then centrifuged at 4,000 \times g for 1 min at 4°C. The aqueous phase was removed, and 0.1 volume of ³ M sodium acetate (pH 5.4) and equivolume -20° C isopropanol were added with mixing (1). After storage at -20° C for 20 min to overnight, samples were centrifuged at 4°C at 10,000 \times g for 20 min. The pellet was washed with ¹ ml of 70% ethanol containing 0.1 mM EDTA-1 mM Tris (pH 7.6) and once with 95% ethanol, dried for 10 min at 50°C, and dissolved in 0.5 ml of ¹ mM EDTA-10 mM Tris (pH 7.8).

Enzyme digestion and electrophoresis. DNA samples (1 to ⁷ μ g, 15 μ l) were digested for 1 h at 37°C with BgIII, HindIII, or $EcoRI$ in 50 μ l of corresponding restriction enzyme buffers (International Biotechnologies, Inc.). Samples $(20 \mu l)$ were electrophoresed at 4 V/cm in 0.7% flat-bed agarosé gels without ethidium bromide. Gels were stained for 30 min with 1μ g of ethidium bromide per ml, destained for 10 min in H₂O, and photographed under shortwave UV illumination (8).

Southern blot analysis. Gels were incubated for 20 min in

^{*} Corresponding author.

^t Present address: College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL 61801.

Ameba	Strain	Place and yr of origin	Host or source
N. fowleri	CA-66	Australia (1966)	Human
	$HB-3$	Czechoslovakia (1968)	Human $(CSF)^a$
	$HB-1$	Florida (1968)	Human (CSF)
	$NH-1$	New Zealand (1972)	Human (CSF)
	$HB-5$	Texas (1977)	Human (CSF)
	HBWS-1	Georgia (1977)	Human (CSF)
	MP	California (1978)	Human (CSF)
	A 5086	Texas (1979)	Human (CSF)
	MD	California (1980)	Human (CSF)
	NY	New York (1980)	Human (CSF)
	CDC:0784:1	Texas (1984)	Human (CSF)
	CDC:0784:2	Texas (1984)	Human (CSF)
	CDC:0487:1	Arizona (1987)	Human (CSF)
	CDC:0687:1	New Mexico (1987)	Hot springs
N. australiensis	ATCC 30958	Australia (1973)	Flood drainage water
N. lovaniensis	76-15-250	Belgium (1976)	Thermally polluted water
N. jadini	0400	Belgium (1971)	Private swimming pool
N. gruberi	$NB-1 (=1518/1A)$	United Kingdom (pre-1950)	Soil
	Eg	California (1959)	Soil
Willaertia sp.	CDC:0687:6	New Mexico (1987)	Hot springs
A. castellanii	ATCC 30011	United Kingdom (1930)	Yeast culture
A. polyphaga	ATCC 30871	Wisconsin (1964)	Soil
A. comandoni	ATCC 30135	France (1935)	Soil
Acanthamoeba sp.	CDC:0187:1	Massachusetts (1987)	Human (cornea)

TABLE 1. Origins and sources of selected strains of amebae used in this study

^a CSF, Cerebrospinal fluid.

0.5 M NaOH containing 1.5 M NaCI, neutralized in ³ M sodium acetate (pH 5.4), and transferred to nylon filters as previously described (10). After the filters were baked at 80°C for ¹ h, they were blocked and hybridized with a nick-translated plasmid (7E3; courtesy of Thomas Byers, Ohio State University) containing 5.2 kilobases of A. castellanii mitochondrial DNA. Filters were also hybridized to Agrl 2A, ^a ribosomal DNA plasmid isolated from Anopheles sp, (2). Specific activities were 10^8 cpm/ μ g of DNA. Filters were washed at 55°C in $2 \times$ SSC containing 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate $(1 \times SSC$ is 0.15 M NaCl plus 0.015 M sodium citrate [pH 7.0]). Kodak X-Omat film (Eastman Kodak Co., Rochester, N.Y.) was exposed with two enhancing screens for 10 to 60 h at -80° C.

RESULTS

Ethidium bromide-stained gels. Figures ¹ through ³ show typical patterns of ethidium bromide-stained gels. For N. fowleri and N. gruberi, prominent simple bands totaling about 45 kilobases in molecular weight were clearly detectable above the genomic background smear. If a sufficient amount of restriction enzyme was used to achieve full digestion (about 7 U of enzyme per μ g of DNA), the background genomic smear would be almost undetectable and no high-molecular-weight DNA would remain near the origin. In some partial digestions, evenly spaced bands were detectable between the position of the genomic smear and the highest-molecular-weight band (Fig. 3). A total of ⁷ to ¹⁰ remarkably prominent bands were resolvable for N. fowleri and N. gruberi after EcoRI digestion, whereas N. australiensis showed only 2 to ³ prominent bands. Each species showed a recognizable pattern of prominent bands with the three restriction enzymes used. Also, particular geographic isolates of N. fowleri differed slightly in their banding patterns after EcoRI digestion.

Band characterization. The stained bands were sensitive to DNase but not to RNase; without restriction enzyme digestion, only one small band below the genomic smear was detected (data not shown). The A. castellanii mitochondrial plasmid 7E3 hybridized to this dim band for A. castellanii and to a single 7.8-kilobase band of EcoRI-digested A.

FIG. 1. Agarose gel profiles of HindIII and EcoRI digestions of genomic DNA of N . gruberi Eg (lane 1), two strains of N . fowleri (HBWS [lane 2] and \tilde{A} 5086 [lane 3]), and N. lovaniensis 76-15-250 (lane 4).

FIG. 2. Agarose gel profiles of EcoRI and BgllI digestions or genomic DNA of N. lovaniensis 76-15-250 (lane 1); seven strains of N. fowleri (A ⁵⁰⁸⁶ [lanes ² and 6], CDC:0784:1 [lane 5], NY [lane 7], HB-5 [lane 8], MD [lane 9], CDC:0784:2 [lane 10], HB-3 [lane 11]); and two strains (NB-1 [lane 3] and Eg [lane 4]) of N . gruberi. The profile of Bglll digestion of N. gruberi Eg DNA is not shown.

castellanii DNA; the detected band corresponded in mobility to one of the prominent bands of EcoRI-digested Acanthamoeba DNA. The Acanthamoeba mitochondrial probe did not cross-hybridize to any DNA of the other ameba strains analyzed; similarly, the heterologous ribosomal probe did not hybridize to any of the prominent bands of Naegleria or Acanthamoeba species, even with low-stringency washes (45 \degree C, 2 \times SSC).

DISCUSSION

We are unaware of any other eucaryotic organism that displays so prominent ^a class of DNA bands after restriction enzyme digestion. The underlying genetic reason for the remarkably simple banding pattern obtained with restriction enzyme digestion of total ameba DNA remains unclear. With complete digestion, the complex genomic smear was virtually invisible, suggesting that the DNA in the prominent bands probably contains more than 30% of the total DNA of the organism. The homologous Acanthamoeba mitochondrial probe, but not the heterologous ribosomal probe, hybridized to one of the prominent bands, suggesting that these prominent bands may represent amplified mitochondrial rather than ribosomal genes. The nature of these remarkably abundant bands awaits clarification through additional cloning, hybridization with more closely related probes, and sequencing approaches.

The relative similarity of DNA banding patterns between N. fowleri strains and the differences in the patterns between N. fowleri and other Naegleria spp. observed in this study correlated well with the results obtained previously by using such criteria as pathogenicity, isoenzyme patterns, and monoclonal antibody typing (14).

De Jonckheere recently described prominent ethidium bromide-stained DNA bands after restriction enzyme digestion of Willaertia magna, Didascalus thorontoni, and Nae-

FIG. 3. Agarose gel profiles of EcoRI digestion of genomic DNA of one strain each of A. polyphaga ATCC 30,871 (lane 1). A. castellanii ATCC 30,011 (lane 2), Acanthamoeba sp. strain CDC: 0187:1 (lane 3), A. comandoni ATCC 30,135 (lane 4), N. australiensis (lane 5), N. jadini 0400 (lane 6), N. lovaniensis (lane 7), and N. gruberi Eg (lane 9) and of five strains of N. fowleri (CDC:0687:1) [lane 8], CA-66 [lane 10], MP [lane 11], NH-1 [lane 12], and CDC: 0487:1 [lane 131).

gleria spp. (3). Although the procedures for DNA isolation differed in the two studies, the major $EcoRI$ and $HindIII$ bands of particular Naegleria strains correspond in mobility. However, the bands on our gels were typically more prominent, with less genomic DNA remaining near the origin and a dimmer genomic smear in each lane. In our hands, resolution of more intense and distinct bands depended on gentle mixing during DNA isolation, enough restriction enzyme, low voltage (below 10 V/cm) during electrophoresis, and omission of ethidium bromide during the gel run.

In summary, analysis of restriction fragment length polymorphisms of totally digested genomic DNA allows one to reliably identify particular ameba species and strains. This finding suggests that oligonucleotide analysis may be useful in studies on the molecular epidemiology and ecology of small free-living and pathogenic amebae. If a subset of the sequences of these simple, abundant, repetitive sequences is characteristic of a given pathogenic strain, the development of rapid dot blot hybridization assays may be feasible (11).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Thomas Byers for providing the 7E3 plasmid containing A. castellanii mitochondrial DNA and for helpful discussions and Steven Miller for helpful suggestions.

LITERATURE CITED

- 1. Bell, G. I., J. H. Karam, and W. J. Rutter. 1981. Polymorphic DNA region adjacent to the ⁵' end of the human insulin gene. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 78:5759-5763.
- 2. Collins, F. H., M. A. Mendez, M. O. Rasmussen, P. C. Mehaffey, N. J. Besanski, and V. Finnerty. 1987. A ribosomal RNA gene probe differentiates member species of the Anopheles gambiae complex. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 37:37-41.
- 3. De Jonckheere, J. F. 1987. Characterization of Naegleria species

by restriction endonuclease digestion of whole-cell DNA. Mol. Biochem. Parasitol. 24:55-66.

- 4. Grillner, L., and K. Strangert. 1986. Restriction endonuclease analysis of cytomegalovirus DNA from strains isolated in daycare centers. Pediatr. Infect. Dis. J. 5:184-187.
- 5. Hammer, S. M., T. G. Bushman, L. J. D'Angelo, A. W. Karchmer, B. Roizman, and M. S. Hirsh. 1980. Temporal cluster of herpes simplex encephalitis: investigation by restriction endonuclease cleavage of viral DNA. J. Infect. Dis. 141:436-440.
- 6. Khabbas, R. F., J. B. Kaper, M. R. Moody, S. C. Schimpff, and J. H. Tenney. 1986. Molecular epidemiology of group JK Corynebacterium on a cancer ward: lack of evidence for patient to patient transmission. J. Infect. Dis. 154:95-99.
- 7. Kristiansen, B.-E., B. Sorensen, B. Bjorvatn, E. Falk, E. Fosse, K. Bryn, L. O. Froholm, P. Gaustad, and K. Bøvre. 1986. An outbreak of group B meningococcal disease: tracing the causative strain of Neisseria meningitidis by DNA fingerprinting. J. Clin. Microbiol. 23:764-767.
- 8. Maniatis, T., E. F. Fritsch, and J. Sambrook. 1982. Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- 9. Markowitz, S. M., J. M. Zeaey, F. L. Macrina, Z. G. Mayhall, and V. A. Lamb. 1980. Sequential outbreaks of infection due to

Klebsiella pneumoniae in a neonatal intensive care unit: implication of ^a conjugative R plasmid. J. Infect. Dis. 142:106-112.

- 10. McLaughlin, G. L., W. E. Collins, and G. H. Campbell. 1987. Comparison of genomic, plasmid, synthetic, and combined DNA probes for detecting Plasmodium falciparum DNA. J. Clin. Microbiol. 25:791-795.
- 11. McLaughlin, G. L., J. L. Ruth, E. Jablonski, R. Stekette, and G. H. Campbell. 1987. Use of enzyme-linked synthetic DNA in diagnosis of falciparum malaria. Lancet i:714-716.
- 12. Mucenski, C. M., P. Guerry, M. Buesing, A. Szarfman, J. Trupser, P. Walliker, G. Watt, R. Sangalong, C. P. Ranoa, M. Tuazon, O. R. Majam, I. Quakyi, L. W. Scheibel, J. H. Cross, and P. L. Perine. 1986. Evaluation of a synthetic oligonucleotide probe for diagnosis of Plasmodium falciparum infections. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg. 35:912-920.
- 13. Nash, T. E., T. McCutchan, D. Keister, J. B. Dame, J. D. Conrad, and F. D. Gillin. 1985. Restriction endonuclease analysis of DNA from ¹⁵ Giardia isolates obtained from humans and animals. J. Infect. Dis. 152:64-73.
- 14. Visvesvara, G. S., M. J. Peralta, F. H. Brandt, M. Wilson, C. Aloisio, and E. Franko. 1987. Production of monoclonal antibodies to Naegleria fowleri, agent of primary amebic meningoencephalitis. J. Clin. Microbiol. 25:1629-1634.