

Transposon Mutagenesis Identifies Genes Critical for Growth of *Pseudomonas nitroreducens* **TX1 on Octylphenol Polyethoxylates**

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ABSTRACT

Pseudomonas nitroreducens **TX1 is of special interest because of its ability to utilize 0.05% to 20% octylphenol polyethoxylates (OPEO***n***) as a sole source of carbon. In this study, a library containing 30,000 Tn***5***-insertion mutants of the wild-type strain TX1 was constructed and screened for OPEO***ⁿ* **utilization, and 93 mutants were found to be unable to grow on OPEO***n***. In total, 42 separate disrupted genes were identified, and the proteins encoded by the genes were then classified into various categories, namely, information storage and processing (14.3%), cellular processes and signaling (28.6%), metabolism (35.7%), and unknown proteins (21.4%). The individual deletion of genes encoding isocitrate lyase (***aceA***), malate synthase (***aceB***), and glycolate dehydrogenase (***glcE***) was carried out, and the requirement for** *aceA* **and** *aceB* **but not** *glcE* **confirmed the role of the glyoxylate cycle in OPEO***ⁿ* **degradation. Furthermore, acetaldehyde dehydrogenase and acetyl-coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA) synthetase activity levels were 13.2- and 2.1-fold higher in TX1 cells grown on OPEO***ⁿ* **than in TX1 cells grown on succinate, respectively. Growth of the various mutants on different carbon sources was tested, and based on these findings, a mechanism involving exoscission to liberate acetaldehyde from the end of the OPEO***ⁿ* **chain during degradation is proposed for the breakdown of OPEO***n***.**

IMPORTANCE

Octylphenol polyethoxylates belong to the alkylphenol polyethoxylate (APEO*n***) nonionic surfactant family. Evidence based on the analysis of intermediate metabolites suggested that the primary biodegradation of APEO***ⁿ* **can be achieved by two possible** pathways for the stepwise removal of the C₂ ethoxylate units from the end of the chain. However, direct evidence for these hy**potheses is still lacking. In this study, we described the use of transposon mutagenesis to identify genes critical to the catabolism of OPEO***ⁿ* **by** *P. nitroreducens* **TX1. The exoscission of the ethoxylate chain leading to the liberation of acetaldehyde is proposed. Isocitrate lyase and malate synthase in glyoxylate cycle are required in the catabolism of ethoxylated surfactants. Our findings also provide many gene candidates that may help elucidate the mechanisms in stress responses to ethoxylated surfactants by bacteria.**

Octylphenol polyethoxylates (OPEO*n*, commercial name Triton X-100) is a nonionic surfactant that belongs to the alkylphenol polyethoxylate (APEO*n*) family. These surfactants are used in a range of industrial and household products [\(1,](#page-7-0) [2\)](#page-7-1). APEO*ⁿ* structures typically consist of hydrophilic polyethoxylate chain bound to a hydrophobic moiety, such as alkylphenol or a linear primary/secondary alcohol [\(3\)](#page-7-2). APEO*ⁿ* are often discharged into wastewater treatment plants or into the environment, which leads to them ultimately being degraded into shorter ethoxylate (EO) chains. Sometimes, the chains are completely removed to form nonylphenol, octylphenol, and alkylphenol monoethoxylates to triethoxylates (APEO_n, $n = 1$ to \sim 3, respectively) [\(4,](#page-7-3) [5\)](#page-7-4). Many studies have shown that these APEO*ⁿ* metabolites, which have increased hydrophobicity, are more toxic than their parent compounds [\(6\)](#page-7-5). In fact, these metabolites are able to mimic natural hormones, thus acting as endocrine disruptors when ingested by wildlife, which in turn can affect the environment and ultimately human health [\(7\)](#page-7-6).

The fate and degradability of APEO*ⁿ* in the environment have received much attention [\(8\)](#page-7-7). The biodegradation of APEO*ⁿ* has been studied using both pure and mixed cultures that grow solely on APEO*n*, and several bacterial strains have been reported as being able to degrade the EO chains of APEO*ⁿ* [\(1,](#page-7-0) [8](#page-7-7)[–](#page-7-8)[12\)](#page-7-9). Most such isolates are proteobacteria and are often members of the

genus *Pseudomonas*. Nguyen and Sigoillot [\(13\)](#page-7-10) isolated four *Pseudomonas* strains from coastal seawater that grew on OPEO*n*, and these generated OPEO with 4 to 5 units of EO chain as the end products. John and White [\(14\)](#page-8-0) reported a strain of *Pseudomonas putida* that grew on nonylphenol polyethoxylate (NPEO*n*) as the sole source of carbon, and in this case, the final accumulating metabolite was identified by gas chromatography-mass spectros-copy as NPEO₂. Nishio et al. [\(15\)](#page-8-1) isolated 11 strains of OPEO_nutilizing bacteria from paddy field soils. One strain, *P. putida* S-5, was shown to transform $OPEO_n$ to form $OPEO_2$ and $OPEO_3$, which were the dominant metabolites accumulating under aerobic conditions. Evidence based on analysis of intermediate metab-

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FIG 1 Proposed pathways for the biodegradation of alkylphenol polyethoxylates from the literature [\(14,](#page-8-0) [15,](#page-8-1) [17\)](#page-8-3).

olites has suggested that the primary biodegradation of APEO*ⁿ* under aerobic condition is achieved by a stepwise shortening of the EO chains [\(13,](#page-7-10) [14,](#page-8-0) [16\)](#page-8-2). Two possible pathways for the stepwise removal of the C_2 ethoxylate units from the end of the chain have been proposed [\(Fig. 1\)](#page-1-0). The first is a nonoxidative hydroxyl shift mechanism using ether scission that yields hemiacetal, which then produces acetaldehyde [\(14,](#page-8-0) [17\)](#page-8-3). The second is the cleavage of APEO*ⁿ* by terminal carboxylation, followed by hydrolysis to yield glycolate, which is oxidized to glyoxylate by glycolate dehydrogenase [\(15,](#page-8-1) [17\)](#page-8-3). However, clear-cut evidence regarding the operation in organisms of these pathways during OPEO*ⁿ* degradation is still lacking.

In our previous studies, *P. nitroreducens* TX1, which possesses the ability to grow on OPEO*ⁿ* at a wide range of concentrations, was isolated [\(1,](#page-7-0) [9](#page-7-11)[–](#page-7-8)[12,](#page-7-9) [18\)](#page-8-4). The strain is able to use 0.05% to 20% OPEO*ⁿ* as a sole source of carbon. The liquid chromatographymass spectrometry (LC-MS) analysis revealed that the ethoxylate chain was sequentially shortened from the hydroxyl terminal side in this strain [\(9\)](#page-7-11). To elucidate the biodegradation mechanism of OPEO*n*, a library containing 30,000 mutants of strain TX1 was prepared using Tn*5* insertion mutagenesis during this study. A total of 93 mutants were identified that were unable to grow on OPEO*n*, and these were found to have disrupted 42 individual genes. In-frame deletion of some of the target genes was then performed to confirm the roles of these genes in OPEO*ⁿ* degradation. The results revealed the important role of the glyoxylate cycle in OPEO*ⁿ* utilization by strain TX1.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and culture conditions. The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in [Table 1.](#page-2-0) Strain TX1 was routinely grown at 30°C in Luria-Bertani (LB) or minimal salt basal (MSB) medium with appropriate sources of carbon and energy [\(12\)](#page-7-9). In liquid culture, cells were grown in a 50-ml culture volume in 250-ml Erlenmeyer flasks with shaking in an incubator at 180 rpm. For plate culture, agar was added at a final concentration of 1.5% (wt/vol). *Escherichia coli* was grown in LB medium at 37°C and served as the host organism for plasmid retention. Ampicillin (20 μ g · ml⁻¹), gentamicin (20 μ g · ml⁻¹), and kanamycin (20 μ g · ml⁻¹) were used to select the transformed *E. coli* or TX1 cells.

Plasmid and chromosomal DNA isolation. Total DNA and plasmid DNA were extracted using previously described procedures [\(19\)](#page-8-5). For the PCR amplifications, a 50-µl PCR mixture, consisting of 0.2 mM each of the four dinucleoside triphosphates (dNTPs), 20 pmol each primer, 10 ng of extracted DNA, and 1.25 U of *Taq* DNA polymerase (Toyobo Co. Ltd., Japan), with an appropriate amount of reaction buffer, was used. Amplification was performed in a program temperature control system, PC-808 (Astec Co. Ltd.). Other molecular techniques were performed using standard procedures [\(20\)](#page-8-6) or as recommended by the reagent suppliers. The oligonucleotide primers used in this study are listed in [Table 2.](#page-3-0)

Transposon mutagenesis. The plasmid pRL27, which carries the transposon Tn*5*with a kanamycin (Km) resistance gene, was chosen as the vector for transferring the transposon to *P. nitroreducens* TX1. The introduction and subsequent transposition of the modified mini-Tn*5* transposon into the *P. nitroreducens* TX1 genome were carried out as previously described by mating TX1 and *E. coli* BW20767, which carries the transposon delivery vector pRL27 [\(21,](#page-8-7) [22\)](#page-8-8). The donor BW20767(pRL27), the helper *E. coli* HB101(pRK2013), and the recipient strain TX1 were mixed at a ratio of 1:1:1, spotted on an LB agar plate, and cultured at 30°C for 12 h to allow conjugational transfer of the pRL27 plasmid into the recipient cells. Transconjugants were initially selected on MSB agar medium containing 0.5% succinate, ampicillin, and kanamycin. They were then subjected to OPEO*ⁿ* utilization screening as follows. First, single colonies were streaked on MSB agar containing 0.5% OPEO*n*. The plates were then incubated in an inverted position for several days at 30°C. Mutant strains that did not show visible growth on the plate were designated OPEO*n*-negative mutants and were then subjected to further study.

Plasmid rescue and recovery of interrupted genes. Larsen et al. have shown that one-step cloning of the transposon with its associated flanking DNA can be accomplished after mutation by pRL27 [\(21\)](#page-8-7). The selected OPEO*n*-negative mutants were grown overnight in LB plus kanamycin and ampicillin, and then 1.5 ml of each culture was transferred to microcentrifuge tubes. Next, the cells were harvested by centrifugation at $10{,}000\times g$ for 1 min. Chromosomal DNA was isolated from the pelleted cells as described above and digested with the restriction enzyme BamHI, which does not cut within the transposon sequence of pRL27. The digested DNA was cleaned, which was followed by self-ligation using the T4 ligase at 20°C for 1 h. Material from ligated mixtures was transformed into *E. coli* DH5 αλpir, as previously described, and plated onto LB agarkanamycin plates in order to select for cells transformed with the ligated pRL27 plasmid that also contained the flanking *P. nitroreducens* TX1 DNA [\(23\)](#page-8-9). Next, the transposon with its flanking DNA was isolated using the Midi Plus ultrapure plasmid extraction system (Viogene, Taipei, Taiwan). Primers tpnRL17-1 and tpnRL13-2, which anneal to positions within the transposon sequence in pRL27 and read outwards into flanking DNA regions, were used for sequencing [\(21\)](#page-8-7). Sequencing of the DNA interrupted by the transposon was carried out on an automatic genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems). The genes disrupted by the transposon were identified using the BioEdit software by a local BLAST search against the TX1 draft genome sequence and also against the GenBank database.

In-frame deletion mutagenesis. Four genes (*aceA*, *aceB*, *fixC*, and *glcE*, which encode isocitrate lyase, malate synthase, dehydrogenase, and glycolate dehydrogenase, respectively) were inactivated by in-frame deletion to avoid any polar effect. The in-frame *aceA* deletion mutant of strain TX1 was constructed by allelic replacement, as previously described [\(24\)](#page-8-10). A gene fragment containing about a 98% deletion of the internal region of *aceA* was created by overlap extension PCR, as described previously [\(25\)](#page-8-11). The primers used were Ace_FEco, Ace_RXho, Ace_FXho, and Ace_ RHind. The internally deleted gene fragment was cloned into a suicide vector (pK18mobsacB), which was named pKaceA. The *aceA* deletion mutant of TX1 was created by triple mating between strains TX1, *E. coli* DH5α(pKaceA), and *E. coli* HB101(pRK2013). The TX1 ΔaceA strain was screened as described previously [\(24\)](#page-8-10) and confirmed by PCR. The same procedure was applied to construct the TX1 *aceB*, TX1 *fixC*, and TX1 Δ glcE mutants using the primers that are described in [Table 2.](#page-3-0)

TABLE 1 Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study

Strain or plasmid	Description ^a			
Strains				
Pseudomonas nitroreducens				
TX1	Wild-type strain TX1, Amp ^r	Laboratory collection		
AaceA mutant	Strain TX1 with in-frame deletion of aceA gene, Amp ^r	This study		
Δ aceB mutant	Strain TX1 with in-frame deletion of aceB gene, Amp ^r	This study		
Δ fixC mutant	Strain TX1 with in-frame deletion of fixC gene, Amp ^r	This study		
Δ glcE mutant	Strain TX1 with in-frame deletion of glcE gene, Amp ^r	This study		
Δ aceA(pBaceA) mutant	AaceA mutant harboring plasmid pBaceA, Amp ^r , Gm ^r	This study		
$\Delta aceB$ (pBaceB) mutant	Δ aceB mutant harboring plasmid pBaceB, Amp ^r , Gm ^r	This study		
E. coli				
$DH5\alpha$	F ⁻ ϕ 80dlacZ Δ M15 Δ (lacZYA-argF)U169 deoR recA1 endA1 hsdR17(r_K^- m _K ⁺) phoA $supE44 \lambda^-$ thi-1 gyrA96	Laboratory collection		
$DH5\alpha/\lambda\pi r$	λ pir lysogen of DH5 α	Laboratory collection		
BW20767	Containing pRL27; used as donor for pRL27 conjugations	Larsen et al. (21)		
HB101	Containing pRK2013; used as helper for pRL27 conjugations	Figurski and Helinski (22)		
Plasmids				
pGEM-T Easy	PCR cloning vector, Amp ^r	Promega		
pGaceA	Amp ^r , pGEM-T Easy with 2.6-kb fragment, including aceA	This study		
pGaceB	Amp ^r , pGEM-T Easy with 3.2-kb fragment, including aceB	This study		
pRL27	Km ^r , mini-Tn5 transposon (oriR6K) delivery vector	Larsen et al. (21)		
pRK2013	Km ^r , carrying RK2 transfer genes	Figurski and Helinski (22)		
pK18mobsacB	Km ^r , oriT(RP4) sacB lacZα Plac Pmbi, mobilization and counterselection	Schafer et al. (24)		
pKaceA	pK18mobsacB containing a gene fragment with 98% deletion of internal region of aceA	This study		
pKaceB	pK18mobsacB containing a gene fragment with 98% deletion of internal region of aceB	This study		
pKfixC	pK18mobsacB containing a gene fragment with 98% deletion of internal region of $fixC$	This study		
pKglcE	pK18mobsacB containing a gene fragment with 98% deletion of internal region of glcE (GenBank accession no. WP_017520229.1)	This study		
pBBR1MCS-5	Broad-host-range cloning vector, lacZ, Gm ^r	Kovach et al. (26)		
pBaceA	Gm ^r , pBBR1-MCS5 with 2.6-kb fragment, including aceA	This study		
pBaceB	Gm ^r , pBBR1-MCS5 with 3.2-kb fragment, including aceB	This study		
pBglcE	Gm ^r , pBBR1-MCS5 with 1.5-kb fragment, including glcE	This study		

^a Km^r, Gm^r, and Amp^r indicate resistance to kanamycin, gentamicin, and ampicillin, respectively.

Complementation of the TX1 ΔaceA, TX1 ΔaceB, and TX1 ΔglcE **mutants.** To determine whether the OPEO*ⁿ* utilization deficiency was due to an inactivated gene, the TX1 *aceA*, TX1 *aceB*, and TX1 *glcE* mutants were complemented with appropriate wild-type genes expressed in a broad-host-range vector pBBR1MCS5 [\(26\)](#page-8-12). For example, the *aceA* expression vector was constructed as follows: a PCR fragment (2.6 kb) obtained by amplifying the chromosomal DNA of TX1 with the primers aceA(f)_F and aceA(f)_R was ligated into a pGEM-T Easy vector (Promega Co.). The resulting vector (pGaceA) was then amplified in *E. coli* $DH5\alpha$, purified, and digested with EcoRI and HindIII to generate the PCR product. Next, the retrieved PCR-amplified fragment was ligated into pBBR1MCS-5, which had been cut with the same restriction enzymes. The resulting plasmid (pBaceA) was then introduced into TX Δ aceA by conjugation using the helper strain *E. coli* HB101(pRK2013). The presence of the intact *aceA* gene was confirmed by DNA sequencing. The recombinant TX1 *aceA*(pBaceA) strain was selected on MSB agar containing 0.5% OPEO*n*, ampicillin, and gentamicin. The same procedure was applied for complementation of the TX1 *aceB* and TX1 *glcE* mutants with pBaceB and pBglcE, respectively, which were constructed using the primers listed in [Table 2.](#page-3-0)

Preparation of crude cell extract from strain TX1. A 0.5-liter culture of TX1 grown on either 0.5% OPEO*n*-MSB or 0.5% succinate-MSB was used for the preparation of crude cell extract. The cells were collected by centrifugation (11,000 \times g, 10 min, 4°C), washed with 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), and suspended in 5 ml of the same buffer. The cell suspension was subjected to sonication for 3 min with 50% pulse on ice using the Sonicator 4000 (Misonix, Farmingdale, NY) to disrupt the cells [\(27\)](#page-8-13). In the process of cell lysis, 0.15 mM protease inhibitor (phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride) was added. After the removal of unbroken cells and cell debris by centrifugation (11,000 \times g, 10 min, 4°C), the supernatant was collected by ultracentrifugation (200,000 \times g, 1 h, 4°C) and used as the crude cell extract. Protein concentrations were determined using the Bradford protein assay with bovine serum albumin as the standard.

Enzyme assays. The acetaldehyde dehydrogenase activity assay was performed by measuring the rate of appearance of NADH at 340 nm in 1-cm-path cuvette at 25°C with a Beckman DU640 spectrophotometer (Beckman Coulter, Krefeld, Germany). The incubation mixtures contained the following constituents in a final volume of 1 ml: 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), 10 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 2 mM NAD⁺, 0.5 mg of cell crude extract, and 1 mM acetaldehyde. The reaction was started by the addition of acetaldehyde. For isocitrate lyase activity, a spectrophotometric assay was used to measure isocitrate-dependent formation of glyoxylate. The standard reaction mixture (0.5 ml) contained 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), 5 mM $MgCl₂$, 2 mM dithioerythritol, 3.5 mM phenylhydrazine, and 0.5 mg of cell crude extract. The reactions were started by the addition of 2 mM isocitrate, and the formation of the glyoxylate phenylhydrazone derivative was monitored at 324 nm. Malate synthase activity in the crude cell extracts was measured by the method of Srere et al. by tracking the glyoxylate- and acetyl-CoA-dependent release of CoA [\(28\)](#page-8-14). Acetyl-CoA synthetase activity in the crude cell extracts was measured in the presence of ATP, acetate, and CoA, as described in a previous study [\(29\)](#page-8-15).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Transposon mutagenesis of *P. nitroreducens* **TX1.** The availability of the draft genome sequence of *P. nitroreducens* TX1 provides

TABLE 2 Oligonucleotide primers used in this study

^a Restriction enzyme sites are underlined.

an opportunity for investigating genes that play significant roles in $OPEO_n$ utilization [\(18\)](#page-8-4). In order to identify genes involved in OPEO*ⁿ* catabolism, the Tn*5* vector pRL27 [\(21\)](#page-8-7), which has been used widely in *Pseudomonas* genetics, was used to construct a mutant library of strain TX1, as described in Materials and Methods. In total, 30,000 Tn*5* insertion mutants of TX1 were successfully obtained. After 48 h of incubation at 30°C, these mutants were screened, and 93 (0.31%) of them failed to grow on 0.5% OPEO*n*-MSB but still grew on 0.5% succinate-MSB.

A total of 6,341 open reading frames (ORFs) have been putatively identified in the TX1 draft genome [\(18\)](#page-8-4), and therefore, the Tn5 mutant library would seem to have 4.7 \times ORF coverage of the TX1 genome. The stability of the Tn*5* transposon in the transformants was also tested using two of the mutants (C94-4 and A16- 7). After 10 generations of the single-colony propagation by subculture on LB plates, the initial and final colonies were found to still retain the kanamycin resistance and, in addition, the Tn*5* transposon had remained in the same genomic position on the genome, with this being determined by PCR. These findings confirm that the transposon insertion events present in the transformants from this library are stable.

The transposon insertion points of the 93 mutants defective in OPEO*ⁿ* utilization were identified by the plasmid rescue, followed by nucleotide sequencing using a transposon-derived primer set [\(21\)](#page-8-7). The insertion loci harboring Tn*5* were then mapped to 42 independent coding genes, three noncoding sequences, and one 23S rRNA. These results are summarized in [Table 3.](#page-4-0) Of these 42 genes, 11 had been mutated multiple times to give a number of different mutant strains for a given specific gene. These were the *dedA* gene, which had 12 mutants; the *hit* gene, with 11 mutants; the *aceB* gene, with seven mutants; the *aceA* and *rfaG* genes, with

six mutants; the *rfe* gene, with four mutants; the *coq7* gene and a gene encoding a hypothetical protein, with three mutants; and the *yfgC* and *fixC* genes and a gene encoding a transcriptional regulator, with two mutants [\(Table 3\)](#page-4-0). These genes with multiple mutations were used for further investigation. Among these 42 disrupted genes, 39 genes could be located within the draft genome of TX1 (accession no. [AMZB01000000\)](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nucleotide/AMZB01000000), while the other three genes, namely, those of the K11-8, C2-42, and T43-26 mutants, were found to be similar to genes present in the genomes of other strains, including *Mycobacterium abscessus*, *Comamonas testosteroni*, and *Pseudomonas knackmussii* (accession numbers [WP_049232543,](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore?term=WP_049232543) [WP_003060809,](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore?term=WP_003060809) and [WP_043252236.1,](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore?term=WP_043252236.1) respectively), but not within the draft genome of TX1 [\(18\)](#page-8-4).

Functional characterization of the mutant genes. The proteins encoded by the 42 unique genes identified in this study (OPEO*ⁿ* growth-associated proteins) were grouped into functional classes using the clusters of orthologous groups (COG), as shown in [Table 3.](#page-4-0) When this was done, six proteins (14.3%) were classified into the information storage- and processing-related categories (K and L). Furthermore, the cellular process- and signaling-related categories (O, M, N, T, and V) consisted of 12 proteins (28.6%). Fifteen proteins (35.7%) were present in the metabolism-related categories (C, G, E, F, H, and I). Two poorly characterized COG groups (R and S) were found to contain six proteins (14.3%). In addition, for the category "no related COGs" (the protein is not predicted to belong to any of the currently defined COGs), there were found to be three proteins (7.1%).

Overall, 12 (28.5%) genes were predicted to encode catabolic enzymes. Three proteins (isocitrate lyase, malate synthase, and FixC dehydrogenase) are known to be involved in energy production and conversion, whereas nine proteins (diadenosine tetra**TABLE 3** Characterization of the OPEO*n*-negative mutants of *P. nitroreducens* TX1 obtained by Tn*5* insertional mutagenesis

^a The representative strains (in bold) were selected for further investigation, as described in the text.

^b HIT, histidine triad.

^c The proteins were classified into functional categories according to the clusters of orthologous groups (COG). The functional categories are information storage and processing, including COG categories K (transcription) and L (replication, recombination, and repair); cellular processes and signaling, including O (posttranslational modification, protein turnover, and chaperones), M (cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis), N (cell motility), T (signal transduction mechanisms), and V (defense mechanisms); metabolism, including C (energy production and conversion), G (carbohydrate transport and metabolism), E (amino acid transport and metabolism), F (nucleotide transport and metabolism), H (coenzyme transport and metabolism), and I (lipid transport and metabolism); poorly characterized, including R (general function prediction only) and S (function unknown). NC, proteins not classified into a COG.

phosphate hydrolase, NAD $^+$ -specific glutamate dehydrogenase, thiamine pyrophosphate-requiring enzyme, β -glucosidase-related glycosidase, glucose-6-phosphate 1-dehydrogenase, y-glutamylcysteine synthetase, UbiE methylase involved in ubiquinone

biosynthesis, demethoxyubiquinone hydroxylase, and 3-hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase) are known to be involved in the metabolism of amino acids, carbohydrates, coenzymes, and lipids. Of these, diadenosine tetraphosphate hydrolase (*hit*) is a key en-

zyme controlling the *in vivo* concentration of the dinucleotide diadenosine tetraphosphate that has been proposed to play a range of roles in processes, such as control of DNA replication and repair, signaling in stress response, and apoptosis [\(30\)](#page-8-16).

OPEO*ⁿ* is one of the most widely used nonionic surfactants; it is used in biology to lyse cells to allow the extraction of protein and other cellular organelles. Previous studies have suggested that OPEO*ⁿ* affects the cell membrane by disrupting its structural integrity and functioning, which results in increased membrane fluidity and permeabilization [\(31\)](#page-8-17). In our previous work, we found that *P. nitroreducens* TX1 is able to tolerate up to 20% OPEO*ⁿ* in MSB medium. Therefore, the membrane of TX1 might have special structural features that allow OPEO*ⁿ* to be tolerated. In this context, it should be noted that seven (16.6%) out of the 42 identified proteins, namely, three glycosyltransferases (*rfaG*, *gt2*, and *wcaA*), a UDP-*N*-acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate transferase (*rfe*), a membrane protein related to metalloendopeptidase (*nlpD*), a UTP-glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase (*galU*), and a nucleoside-diphosphate-sugar epimerase (*wcaG*), are known to be linked to cell wall/membrane/ envelope biogenesis. For example, the deletion of *ssg*, which encodes a glycosyltransferase in *Pseudomonas alkylphenolia* KL28, has been shown to cause the loss of lipopolysaccharide O antigen, which alters the composition of the exopolysaccharide. Furthermore, this mutant strain was found to have reduced surface spreading, reduced pellicle formation, and reduced biofilm formation; these were probably due to the cumulative effects of lipopolysaccharide truncation and alterations to the cell's exopolysaccharide composition [\(23\)](#page-8-9). In some bacterial species, UDP-*N*acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate transferase has been shown to play an important role in the biosynthesis of various polymers within the bacterial cell wall, such as common antigen and lipopolysaccharide O antigen [\(32\)](#page-8-18). UTP-glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase is an enzyme associated with glycogenesis. This enzyme synthesizes UDP-glucose from glucose-1-phosphate. UDP-glucose has been reported to be involved in galactose utilization, in glycogen synthesis, and in the synthesis of various carbohydrate moieties, such as glycolipids, glycoproteins, and proteoglycans [\(33\)](#page-8-19). Interestingly, *yfgC* codes for a putative Zndependent protease, and although its function is unknown, the chemical and genetic data suggest that it also plays a role in outer membrane protein biogenesis [\(34\)](#page-8-20). Furthermore, five (11.9%) out of the 42 genes were predicted to encode transport proteins, among which two ABC transporters were identified. Such transport proteins were likely to play important roles in the transport of OPEO*ⁿ* into the cell. For the functions of the DedA membrane protein, the recent genetic approaches have revealed important roles in membrane homeostasis. Bacterial DedA family mutants display such intriguing phenotypes as cell division defects, temperature sensitivity, altered membrane lipid composition, elevated envelope-related stress responses, and loss of proton motive force [\(35\)](#page-8-21). Finally, there are a significant number of mutants that fall within the hypothetical, unknown, and unclassified gene categories, which suggests that there is still a large number of unknown genes across the *P. nitroreducens* genome potentially involved in OPEO*ⁿ* metabolism that remain to be explored, including the three not found in the TX1 draft genome. Further studies on these genes using complementation and other strategies will improve our understanding of the strain TX1 and its tolerance and degradation of OPEO*n*.

Role of the glyoxylate cycle in OPEO*ⁿ* **degradation by TX1.** Isocitrate lyase and malate synthase, which are both key enzymes in the glyoxylate cycle, were frequently detected during screening of mutants unable to grow on 0.5% OPEO*n*. In the glyoxylate cycle, two molecules of acetyl-CoA are converted into oxaloacetate, thus bypassing the reactions of the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle in which $CO₂$ is released. The glyoxylate cycle is essential when cells are growing on C_2 compounds, because this pathway allows the synthesis of all cellular compounds with three or more carbon atoms; examples include the biosynthesis of amino acids and nucleotides. To confirm the role of these two enzymes in OPEO*ⁿ* utilization, in-frame deletion mutants lacking the *aceA* and *aceB* genes were created from strain TX1. As expected from the transposon mutagenesis results, the TX1 *aceA* and TX1 *aceB* mutants were unable to grow on OPEO*n*. The in-frame deletion mutants were then used for complementation analysis. Two plasmids, pBaceA and pBaceB, which carry the *aceA* and *aceB* genes, respectively, were constructed and transferred independently from *E. coli* into the TX1 *aceA* and TX1 *aceB* mutant strains by conjugation. In both cases, the introduction of the wildtype copy of the gene resulted in a return to the wild-type growth pattern, confirming the role of the *aceA* and *aceB* in OPEO*ⁿ* utilization. In addition, isocitrate lyase and malate synthase activities in cell extract of wild-type cells grown on OPEO_n were 277.6 \pm 5 (mean \pm standard deviation) and 15.1 \pm 5 nmol · min⁻¹ · mg⁻¹, respectively. These activities were downregulated 8.8- and 1.7 fold in cells grown on succinate (31.3 \pm 6.5 and 8.7 \pm 2 nmol \cdot $\min^{-1} \cdot \text{mg}^{-1}$, respectively). These results clearly reveal that the glyoxylate cycle plays a critical role in OPEO*ⁿ* degradation by strain TX1.

Growth of the mutants on different carbon sources. Eleven mutants (TX1 *aceA*, TX1 *aceB*, TX1 *fixC*, C48-18, C73-29, C82-3, C85-47, B2-48, C3-45, B3-46, and C11-3), which are representatives of the 11 genes present in the Tn*5* library as multiple events, TX1 Δ *glcE*, and the three complemented strains [TX1 Δ *aceA*(pBaceA), TX1 Δ *aceB*(pBaceB), and TX1 Δ *glcE*(pBglcE)] were tested for their growth on 0.1% OPEO*n*, 0.1% NPEO*n*, 0.1% dodecyl octaethoxylate (ABO_8) , 0.1% ethanol, 0.1% acetate, 0.1% glycolate, or 0.1% pyruvate as the sole source of carbon [\(Table 4\)](#page-6-0). The *glcE* gene was deleted to test the cleavage of OPEO*ⁿ* by terminal carboxylation, followed by hydrolysis to yield glycolate in strain TX1 [\(Fig. 1,](#page-1-0) oxidation). Wild-type TX1 is unable to grow on polyethylene glycol 400 (PEG 400), polyethylene glycol 1000 (PEG 1000), acetaldehyde, or glyoxylate; therefore, these compounds were not used for growth testing of the mutants. The generation time of wild-type TX1 was much longer when grown on glycolate (10.8 to 11.8 h) than on OPEO_n , NPEO_n , AEO_8 , ethanol, acetate, or pyruvate (1.5 to 4.8 h) [\(Table 4\)](#page-6-0). All mutants were able to grow on pyruvate, with generation times ranging from 3.6 to 4 h. When $NPEO_n$ or $AEO₈$ was used as the sole source of carbon, five mutants, TX1 *fixC*, TX1 *glcE*, TX1 *aceA*(pBaceA), TX1 Δ *aceB*(pBaceB), and TX1 Δ *glcE*(pBglcE), showed growth on these compounds, with generation times ranging from 1.5 to 3.7 h, whereas the rest of mutants failed to grow at all. When ethanol or acetate was used as the sole source of carbon, the two glyoxylate cycle mutants (TX1 *aceA* and TX1 *aceB*) failed to grow, but others were able to grow on ethanol or acetate, with generation times ranging from 2.7 to 4.8 h. In addition, the two mutants TX1 Δ *aceB* and TX1 Δ *glcE* failed to grow on 0.1% glycolate, but the

		Generation time (mean \pm SD) (h) ^b						
Strain ^a	Description	OPEO _n	$NPEO_n$	AEO_{8}	Ethanol	Acetate	Pyruvate	Glycolate
TX1	Wild type	1.5 ± 0.1	3.2 ± 0.1	3.7 ± 0.2	4.8 ± 0.2	2.7 ± 0.2	3.6 ± 0.4	11.3 ± 3.1
TX1 ΔaceA	Deletion of isocitrate lyase gene						3.6 ± 0.4	11.5 ± 2.5
$TX1 \,\Delta aceB$	Deletion of malate synthase gene						3.6 ± 0.4	
TX1 Δ fixC	Deletion of dehydrogenase gene	1.5 ± 0.1	3.1 ± 0.1	3.7 ± 0.1	4.8 ± 0.2	2.7 ± 0.2	3.6 ± 0.4	10.8 ± 2.2
TX1 Δ glcE	Deletion of glycolate dehydrogenase gene	1.5 ± 0.1	3.2 ± 0.1	3.7 ± 0.1	4.7 ± 0.1	2.9 ± 0.3	4 ± 0.2	$\overline{}$
C_{48-18}	Mutation at diadenosine tetraphosphate hydrolase gene				4.7 ± 0.2	2.7 ± 0.2	4 ± 0.2	11.2 ± 4.2
$C73-29$	Mutation at demethoxyubiquinone hydroxylase gene				4.7 ± 0.2	2.7 ± 0.2	4 ± 0.2	11.3 ± 3.3
$C82-3$	Mutation at glycosyltransferase gene				4.7 ± 0.2	2.9 ± 0.3	4 ± 0.2	11.5 ± 2.8
$C85-47$	Mutation at UDP-N-acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate transferase gene				4.7 ± 0.1	2.7 ± 0.2	4 ± 0.2	11.7 ± 2.5
$B2-48$	Mutation at putative Zn-dependent protease gene				4.8 ± 0.2	2.9 ± 0.3	4 ± 0.2	10.9 ± 3.2
$C3-45$	Mutation at gene encoding membrane protein				4.7 ± 0.2	2.9 ± 0.3	4 ± 0.2	11.6 ± 2.7
$B3-46$	Mutation at gene encoding transcriptional regulator				4.8 ± 0.1	2.9 ± 0.3	4 ± 0.2	11.8 ± 2.8
$C11-3$	Mutation at gene encoding unknown protein				4.7 ± 0.1	2.9 ± 0.3	4 ± 0.2	11.7 ± 3.1
TX1 Δ aceA(pBaceA)	Complementation of isocitrate lyase gene	1.5 ± 0.1	3.2 ± 0.1	3.6 ± 0.2	4.7 ± 0.1	2.9 ± 0.3	4 ± 0.2	11.1 ± 3.2
TX1 $\Delta aceB(pBaceB)$	Complementation of malate synthase gene	1.5 ± 0.1	3.1 ± 0.1	3.7 ± 0.1	4.7 ± 0.2	2.9 ± 0.3	4 ± 0.2	10.8 ± 2.6
TX1 Δ glcE(pBglcE)	Complementation of glycolate dehydrogenase gene	1.5 ± 0.1	3.1 ± 0.1	3.7 ± 0.1	4.8 ± 0.2	2.9 ± 0.3	4 ± 0.2	11.2 ± 2.8

TABLE 4 Growth of TX1 mutants on various carbon sources

^a Each strain was cultured in 5 ml of MSB plus 0.1% of the relevant carbon source.

b –, no growth; OPEO_n, Triton X-100; NPEO_n, Triton N-101; AEO₈, dodecyl octaethoxylate. Data are the results from three independent experiments.

other mutants were able to grow on it, with generation times ranging from 10.8 to 11.8 h.

Proposed mechanism for the degradation of OPEO*ⁿ* **by** *P. nitroreducens* **TX1.** The biodegradation of long-chain APEO*ⁿ* has been studied using isolated bacterial strains that grow solely on OPEO*ⁿ* or NPEO*n*. Most isolates are from the genus *Pseudomonas*, which belongs to the *Gammaproteobacteria* [\(9,](#page-7-11) [13,](#page-7-10) [14\)](#page-8-0). Based on the results of metabolite analyses, the initial degradation reaction of APEO*ⁿ* has been found to be a shortening of the ethoxylate chain by exoscission of the EO chains from the hydroxyl terminal side [\(13,](#page-7-10) [14,](#page-8-0) [16\)](#page-8-2) [\(Fig. 1\)](#page-1-0). Our group isolated *Pseudomonas* strain TX1, which has the ability to grow on OPEO*ⁿ* at a wide range of concentrations [\(9\)](#page-7-11). LC-MS analysis of the intermediate metabolites revealed the presence of a gradual shortening process that affected the EO chains during OPEO*ⁿ* utilization. The results suggested that the same exo-type biodegradation process is occurring in TX1 as in other isolates.

The terminal oxidation model for the biodegradation of PEG under aerobic conditions has been reviewed previously [\(36,](#page-8-22) [37\)](#page-8-23). In this model, the biodegradation of the PEG molecules is initiated through the oxidation of the terminal EO unit to a carboxyl group, which is followed by the liberation of glycolate. The carboxyl is converted to glyoxylate by glycolate dehydrogenase (GlcE). Tasaki et al. [\(38\)](#page-8-24) isolated the *adh1* gene from *P. putida* S-5 and expressed this gene in *E. coli*. By measuring the reduction of 2,6-dichlorophenolindophenol (DCPIP) spectrophotometrically at 600 nm using a cell crude extract, alcohol dehydrogenase (Adh1) was shown to have activity against OPEO*ⁿ* of various EO chain lengths [\(38\)](#page-8-24). However, its relevance to the ether cleavage step in OPEO*ⁿ* biodegradation remains unknown. The use of redox dye-based assay with crude extracts can be misleading, because crude cell extract may contain multiple activities that are able to utilize DCPIP as an electron acceptor [\(17\)](#page-8-3). Furthermore, the detection of glycolate and an increase in GlcE activity have not been reported; such findings would support the terminal oxidation model. In our study, a *fixC*gene encoding a dehydrogenase was found among the mutants. However, an in-frame deletion mutant of the *fixC* gene retained the ability to grow on OPEO*ⁿ* in a manner similar to the wild type. These results suggest that the transposon insertion into

fixC has a polar effect, and the *fixC* gene product itself may not play an important role in OPEO*ⁿ* utilization. In addition, TX1 grows only slowly on glycolate but does not grow at all on glyoxylate, PEG 400, or PEG 1000 as the sole source of carbon. In order to determine whether glycolic acid is involved in the metabolism of OPEO*ⁿ* by strain TX1, a *glcE* in-frame deletion mutant was constructed. As shown in [Table 4,](#page-6-0) TX1 Δ *glcE* grew on OPEO_n to a level comparable to that of the wild type. Interestingly, TX1 *glcE* and TX1 Δ aceB were unable to grow on glycolate, whereas TX1 *aceA*was able to grow. Interestingly, one isocitrate lyase gene was found in the TX1 genome [\(18\)](#page-8-4). In addition, the isocitrate lyase activity in the cell extract of TX1 *aceA* cells grown on glycolate or succinate was not detectable. These results suggest that the degradation of glycolate does not involve the glyoxylate cycle, because the isocitrate lyase mutant was able to grow on glycolate in a manner similar to the wild-type TX1 [\(Fig. 2\)](#page-7-12). Considering the results, we conclude that the degradation of OPEO_n by strain TX1 does not demonstrate an oxidative pathway involving the liberation of glycolate.

In the nonoxidative biodegradation model, biodegradation of the EO chain proceeds via the shift of a hydroxyl group, followed by the liberation of acetaldehyde, which is then quickly transformed to acetate by dehydrogenases that are ubiquitously distributed throughout the cell [\(39\)](#page-8-25). The pathway for acetate degradation is well known and involves the conversion of acetate into acetyl-CoA, which then enters in the central carbon metabolism of the cell [\(39\)](#page-8-25). In the glyoxylate cycle, the input of two molecules of acetyl-CoA results in a net synthesis of one molecule of succinate, which is then available for biosynthetic purposes [\(40\)](#page-8-26). As shown in [Table 4,](#page-6-0) TX1 was able to grow on either ethanol or acetate as the sole source of carbon, with generation times ranging from 2.7 to 4.8 h, but TX1 *aceA* and TX1 *aceB*were unable to grow on these carbon sources. These results suggest that the glyoxylate cycle plays a critical role in ethanol or acetate catabolism. The ethanol oxidation product acetate must first be activated to acetyl-CoA so it can be used as a carbon source and for the replenishment of intermediates within the TCA cycle; this would occur via the glyoxylate bypass in strain TX1. Our results suggest that nonoxidative biodegradation with the liberation of acetaldehyde is the

FIG 2 Proposed pathway and mechanism (black lines) for the degradation of OPEO*ⁿ* by *P. nitroreducens* TX1.

most likely pathway for OPEO_n utilization in strain TX1 [\(Fig. 2\)](#page-7-12). In addition, acetaldehyde dehydrogenase and acetyl-CoA synthetase activities were upregulated 13.1- and 2.1-fold in cells grown on OPEO_n (211 \pm 14 and 68.8 \pm 1.1 nmol · min⁻¹ · mg⁻¹, respectively) versus TX1 grown on succinate (16 \pm 12 and 32.6 \pm 1.2 $nmod \cdot min^{-1} \cdot mg^{-1}$, respectively). Further studies on the mechanism used for the liberation of acetaldehyde will be needed in order to improve our understanding of the degradation of OPEO*ⁿ* by strain TX1.

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