Escherichia coli F-18 and *E. coli* K-12 *eda* Mutants Do Not Colonize the Streptomycin-Treated Mouse Large Intestine

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The Escherichia coli human fecal isolates F-18 and K-12 are excellent colonizers of the streptomycin-treated mouse intestine. E. coli F-18 and E. coli K-12 eda mutants (unable to utilize glucuronate, galacturonate, and gluconate) were constructed by insertional mutagenesis. Neither the E. coli F-18 eda nor the E. coli K-12 eda mutant was able to colonize the streptomycin-treated mouse intestine, whether they were fed to mice together with their respective parental strains or alone. Complementation of the eda mutants with pTC190 (containing a functional E. coli K-12 eda gene) completely restored the colonization ability of both eda mutants. Relative to their parental strains, the E. coli F-18 eda mutant and the E. coli K-12 eda mutant grew poorly in cecal mucus isolated from mice fed either normal mouse chow or a synthetic diet containing sucrose as the sole carbon source, yet the mutants and parental strains demonstrated identical growth rates in minimal medium with glucose as the carbon source. E. coli F-18 eda eda and E. coli K-12 eda double mutants colonized the streptomycin-treated intestine when fed to mice alone; however, when fed simultaneously with their respective parental strains, they were poor colonizers. Since the edd gene is involved only in gluconate metabolism via the Entner-Doudoroff pathway, these results implicate the utilization of gluconate and the Entner-Doudoroff pathway as important elements in E. coli colonization of the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine.

Escherichia coli F-18 was isolated from the feces of a healthy University of Rhode Island student in 1977 and is an excellent colonizer of the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine (5, 24). E. coli K-12 was isolated from the feces of a convalescent diphtheria patient at Stanford University in 1922 (20) and is also an excellent colonizer of the streptomycin-treated mouse intestine (22). In the study described in the accompanying paper (27), we found that E. coli F-18 lacks gntP, one of four known gluconate permease genes in E. coli K-12, and that bacteriophage P1 transducing gntP from E. coli K-12 into E. coli F-18 gave it an advantage in the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine. These results implicated gluconate in the ability of E. coli K-12 to colonize the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine; however, since E. coli F-18 also metabolizes gluconate and since it is possible that the gluconate permease encoded by gntP transports another sugar in the mouse intestine, we decided to investigate the role of gluconate in E. coli colonization of the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine in a more systematic way.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacteria and plasmids. A summary of the *E. coli* strains and plasmids used in the present investigation is presented in Table 1.

DNA techniques. *E. coli* HB101 (4) was transformed with plasmids via electroporation (7) with a gene pulser (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Richmond, Calif.). Plasmids were isolated from transformed *E. coli* HB101 with Promega Magic Miniprep columns (Promega Corp., Madison, Wis.) and were subsequently electroporated into *E. coli* F-18 and *E. coli* K-12 strains.

Construction of *eda::miniTn10::npt* and *edd eda::miniTn10::npt E. coli* mutants. An *E. coli* F-18 *eda::miniTn10::npt* mutant was constructed by insertional mutagenesis (6, 18). Briefly, *E. coli* ATM160 carrying the suicide vector pLOF, which contains the miniTn10::npt transposon, was conjugated with the recipient *E. coli* F-18 strain in the following manner. Donor and recipient strains were grown overnight in Luria broth with shaking at 30°C. Aliquots of 100 μ l of each culture were mixed in 5 ml of 10 mM MgSO₄ and filtered through a Millipore

0.45-um-pore-size membrane filter. The filter was placed on the surface of a Luria agar plate and incubated for 5 h at 37°C. Following incubation, the bacteria on the filter were suspended in 5 ml of 10 mM MgSO4, and 100-µl aliquots of the suspension were plated on MacConkey agar (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Mich.) containing streptomycin sulfate (100 µg/ml) and kanamycin sulfate (80 µg/ml), with glucuronate (2.5 mg/ml) as the carbohydrate source. Glucuronate fermenters appear red on MacConkey agar, and nonfermenters appear white. White colonies obtained from the MacConkey-glucuronate plates were then screened for their ability to utilize the carbohydrates glucose, glucuronate, galacturonate, gluconate, and galactonate by being streaked onto Davis minimal agar (Difco) plates containing either glucose (1.0 mg/ml), glucuronate (2.5 mg/ml), galacturonate (2.5 mg/ml), gluconate (1.0 mg/ml), or galactonate (1.0 mg/ml) as the sole carbon source; the plates were incubated at 30°C for 48 h and observing for growth. E. coli uxu mutants cannot utilize glucuronate but can utilize all of the other carbohydrates listed above (Fig. 1). E. coli eda mutants cannot utilize glucuronate, galacturonate, or gluconate but can utilize glucose and galactonate (Fig. 1). Presumptive E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt mutants were screened for sensitivity to ampicillin (to eliminate the possibility of pLOF integration into the chromosome) by observing the lack of growth on MacConkey agar containing lactose (MacConkey-lactose agar), streptomycin sulfate (100 µg/ml), and ampicillin (100 µg/ml). All E. coli strains used in this study grow well on MacConkeylactose agar in the absence of antibiotics.

E. coli edd eda::miniTn10::npt double mutants were selected by plating 100- μ l aliquots of a Luria broth-grown (37°C for 18 h) culture of the *E. coli* eda::miniTn10::npt strain onto bromthymol blue (BTB)-gluconate agar plates (19), incubating overnight at 37°C, and selecting the green colonies (3).

Bacteriophage P1 transduction. All P1 transductions and curing transductants of P1 were performed as previously described (22). *E. coli* K-12 *eda*::miniTn*10::npt* was constructed by infecting *E. coli* K-12 Str^T with the P1 lysate from an induced Luria broth culture of lysogenized *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn*10::npt* and selecting colonies on Luria agar containing streptomycin sulfate (100 μ g/ml) and kanamycin sulfate (100 μ g/ml). The *eda*::miniTn*10::npt* mutation in the resulting transductant was confirmed by its inability to utilize glucuronate, galacturonate, and gluconate, as described above.

In vitro growth in mouse cecal mucus. Mouse cecal mucus was isolated as previously described (28). Briefly, to investigate the role of diet on growth in cecal mucus, 18 mice were fed Charles River Valley rat, mouse, and hamster formula for 5 days and 18 were fed purified mouse diet (ICN Biomedicals, Costa Mesa, Calif.), which contains sucrose as the sole carbon source. The drinking water was then replaced with sterile distilled water containing streptomycin sulfate (5 g/liter). Twenty four hours later, the mice were sacrificed by CO_2 asphysiation and their ceca were removed. The cecal contents were washed out of each cecum with sterile *N*-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-*N*'-2-ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES)-Hanks buffer (pH 7.4), and the cecal mucus was scraped from the washed to obtain a homogeneous, highly viscous sample.

The ceca from each set of 18 mice yielded approximately 2 ml of viscous

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Strain or plasmid	Strain or plasmid Relevant characteristics ^a	
Strains		
F-18	Human commensal strain, Str ^r Rif ^r	24
F-18 Nal ^r	Nalidixic acid-resistant mutant of F-18	22
F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt	miniTn10::npt insertion into eda	This study
F-18 edd eda::miniTn10::npt	edd mutant of F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt	This study
K-12	Wild type	20
K-12 Str ^r	Streptomycin-resistant mutant of K-12	This study
K-12 Str ^r eda::miniTn10::npt	Transduction of miniTn10::npt insertion into eda from F-18 into K-12 Str ^r	This study
K-12 Str ^r edd eda::miniTn10::npt	edd mutant of K-12 Str ^r eda::miniTn10	This study
Plasmids		
pBluescriptII	Amp ^r	Stratagene
pTC180	edd cloned into pBluescriptII	8
pTC190	eda cloned into pBluescriptII	8

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^a npt, gene conferring resistance to kanamycin.

mucus. Two 1-ml aliquots were then separately inoculated with 10⁴ CFU of either E. coli F-18 Nalr or E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt in one set of experiments and inoculated with 104 CFU of E. coli K-12 Strr or E. coli K-12 Strr eda::miniTn10::npt in a separate set of experiments. All input E. coli strains were grown in Luria broth (at 37°C with shaking, for 18 h), centrifuged, washed three times in sterile HEPES-Hanks buffer, and diluted in HEPES-Hanks buffer. Cecal mucus samples were incubated standing at 37°C. Samples were withdrawn at 0, 2, 4, and 6 h, diluted in 1% tryptone broth (Difco), and plated on MacConkeylactose agar containing selective antibiotics. E. coli F-18 Nalr was enumerated on MacConkey-lactose agar containing 100 μ g of streptomycin sulfate per ml and 50 µg of rifampin per ml. E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt was enumerated on MacConkey-lactose agar containing 100 μg of streptomycin sulfate per ml and 80 µg of kanamycin sulfate per ml. E. coli K-12 Str^r was plated on MacConkeylactose agar containing streptomycin sulfate (100 µg/ml), and E. coli K-12 Str eda::miniTn10::npt was plated on MacConkey-lactose agar containing streptomycin sulfate (100 µg/ml) and kanamycin sulfate (80 µg/ml). All MacConkeylactose plates were incubated at 37°C for 18 to 24 hours before being counted. Mouse colonization experiments. The method used to compare the relative

arge intestine-colonizing abilities of *E. coli* strains in mice has been described

previously (5, 28). Briefly, three male CD-1 mice (5 to 8 weeks old) were given streptomycin sulfate-treated (5 g/liter) drinking water for 24 h. Following 18 to 24 h of starvation, the mice were fed 1 ml of 20% (wt/vol) sucrose containing 10^{10} CFU of Luria broth-grown E. coli. The strains were fed to mice either alone or along with another strain. After the bacterial suspension had been ingested, both the food (Charles River Valley rat, mouse, and hamster formula) and streptomycin-water were returned to the mice; 1 g of feces was collected after 5 and 24 h and on odd-numbered days for 2 weeks thereafter. Fecal samples (no older than 24 h) were homogenized, diluted in 1% tryptone broth, and plated on Mac-Conkey-lactose agar containing antibiotics as indicated in the legends to the figures to enumerate each E. coli strain. Antibiotic concentrations on plates were as follows: streptomycin sulfate, 100 µg/ml; rifampin, 50 µg/ml; tetracycline hydrochloride, 10 µg/ml; kanamycin sulfate, 80 µg/ml; nalidixic acid, 50 µg/ml; ampicillin, 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}.$ All the plates were incubated for 18 to 24 h at 37°C before being counted. Each colonization experiment was repeated twice to confirm initial colonization results. All plates were incubated for 18 to 24 h at 37°C. The log_{10} mean number of CFU per gram of feces ± the standard error (SE) for each strain in the mice was calculated for each time point.

If the concentration of an E. coli strain in mouse feces was below the detection



FIG. 1. Degradative pathways of D-gluconate, D-glucuronate, and D-galacturonate by E. coli.

	Growth on ^{<i>a</i>} :					
E. coli strain	Glc	GlcA	GalA	Gnt	Galnt	
F-18	+	+	+	+	+	
F-18 Nal ^r	+	+	+	+	+	
F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt	+	0	0	0	+	
F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt(pTC190)	+	+	+	+	+	
F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt(pBluescriptII)	+	0	0	0	+	
F-18 edd eda::miniTn10::npt	+	0	0	0	+	
F-18 edd eda::miniTn10::npt(pTC180)	+	0	0	0	+	
F-18 edd eda::miniTn10::npt(pTC190)	+	+	+	0	+	
F-18 edd eda::miniTn10::npt(pBluescriptII)	+	0	0	0	+	
K-12 Str ^r	+	+	+	+	+	
K-12 Str ^r eda::miniTn10::npt	+	0	0	0	+	
K12 Str ^r eda::miniTn10::npt(pTC190)	+	+	+	+	+	
K-12 Str ^r eda::miniTn10::npt(pBluescriptII)	+	0	0	0	+	
K-12 Str ^r edd eda::miniTn10::npt	+	0	0	0	+	
K-12 Str ^r edd eda::miniTn10::npt(pTC180)	+	0	0	0	+	
K-12 Str ^r edd eda::miniTn10::npt(pTC190)	+	+	+	0	+	
K-12 Str ^r edd eda::miniTn10::npt(pBluescriptII)	+	0	0	0	+	

TABLE 2. Growth of E. coli strains with various sugars as sole carbon sources

^a Glc, glucose (1.0 mg/ml); GlcA, glucuronate (2.5 mg/ml); GalA, galacturonate (2.5 mg/ml); Gnt, gluconate (1.0 mg/ml); Galnt, galactonate (1.0 mg/ml). Davis minimal agar plates were incubated at 30°C for 48 h.

limit by the end of the experiment, the mice were sacrificed and their cecal mucus was isolated as described above. The mucus from the cecum of each mouse (approximately 100 μ l) was plated onto MacConkey-lactose agar containing the appropriate antibiotics to determine if the *E. coli* strain could be detected in mouse cecal mucus.

RESULTS

E. coli eda::miniTn10::npt and edd eda::miniTn10::npt mutants. *E. coli* utilizes the gene products of the uxu genes (26) to metabolize glucuronate via the Ashwell pathway (2) and the edd and eda gene products (9, 13) to metabolize gluconate via the Entner-Doudoroff pathway (10). Gluconate, glucuronate, and galacturonate are converted to 2-keto-3-deoxy-6-phosphogluconate (KDPG), the point at which the Entner-Doudoroff and Ashwell pathways converge (Fig. 1). KDPG is cleaved by KDPG aldolase (encoded by eda) to yield pyruvate and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate. Thus, isolation of mutants unable to utilize glucuronate on MacConkey agar (white colonies [wildtype colonies are red]) results in the selection of eda mutants as well. This was necessary, since *E. coli eda* mutants grow on MacConkey agar containing glucuronate but not gluconate.

A summary of utilization of selected carbohydrates as sole carbon sources by E. coli eda::miniTn10::npt and edd eda:: miniTn10::npt mutants and their corresponding parental strains is presented in Table 2. E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt and E. coli K-12 eda::miniTn10::npt did not grow on gluconate, glucuronate, or galacturonate but grew on glucose and galactonate as sole carbon sources. Utilization of gluconate, glucuronate, and galacturonate via the Ashwell and Entner-Doudoroff pathways requires a functional eda gene product (Fig. 1). When the E. coli eda::miniTn10::npt mutants were complemented with pTC190 (containing a functional eda gene), utilization of these carbohydrates was restored (Table 2). In contrast, the control vector pBluescriptII did not restore gluconate, glucuronate, and galacturonate utilization as sole carbon sources, thereby confirming the eda::miniTn10::npt mutations (Table 2).

BTB-gluconate plates were used to differentiate *E. coli eda*::miniTn10::*npt* mutants from *edd eda*::miniTn10::*npt* double mutants. Despite containing peptones and yeast extract, BTB-gluconate plates do not support the growth of *E. coli eda*::miniTn10::*npt* mutants, presumably because of an accumulation of KDPG, which is known to be toxic to *E. coli* (11, 16). *E. coli edd eda*::miniTn10::npt mutants grow on BTB-gluconate plates because the *edd* mutation prevents the formation of KDPG. The *edd eda*::miniTn10::npt double mutants were confirmed by the observation that when these mutants were transformed with plasmid pTC180, containing the functional *E. coli* K-12 *edd* gene, the transformants did not grow on the BTB-gluconate plates, again presumably because of the accumulation of KDPG. *E. coli edd eda*::miniTn10::npt mutants transformed with the control vector pBluescriptII grew on BTB-gluconate plates.

Glucuronate, galacturonate, and gluconate degradation should each result in the formation of the growth-inhibitory intermediate KDPG (Fig. 1). As stated above, the E. coli eda::miniTn10::npt mutants did not grow on MacConkey agar containing gluconate but did grow on MacConkey agar containing glucuronate. Moreover, the E. coli eda::miniTn10::npt mutants grew on MacConkey agar plates containing galacturonate. Therefore, gluconate inhibited the E. coli eda::mini Tn10::npt mutants from utilizing the other carbon sources present in MacConkey agar, but neither glucuronate nor galacturonate prevented these mutants from growing on MacConkey agar; i.e., the eda::miniTn10::npt mutants grew and appeared white, suggesting that metabolism of glucuronate and galacturonate does not, for presently unknown reasons, result in accumulation of growth-inhibitory amounts of KDPG in eda mutants.

Relative colonizing abilities of *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r and *E. coli* F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt and of *E. coli* K-12 Str^r and *E. coli* F-18 Str^r and *E. coli* F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt, *E. coli* F-18 colonized at approximately 10^8 CFU/g of feces whereas *E. coli* F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt was essentially eliminated from the intestine by day 3 (Fig. 2A). On day 15 postfeeding, the mice were sacrificed and $100 \ \mu$ l of cecal mucus from each animal was plated on MacConkey-lactose agar plates containing streptomycin, rifampin, and kanamycin. *E. coli* F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt colonies were not detected (<1 CFU in the mucus of the entire cecum). Of greater interest, when 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt was fed to streptomycin-treated mice alone, it failed to colonize the





FIG. 2. Colonization of *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn10::npt and *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r in the streptomycin-treated mouse. Three streptomycin-treated mice were fed 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r (\bullet) and 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn10::npt (\bigcirc) (A) or 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn10::npt (B). Platings were done on MacConkey-lactose agar plates containing either streptomycin, rifampin, and nalidixic acid to enumerate *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r or streptomycin, rifampin, and kanamycin to enumerate *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn10::npt.

mouse intestine (Fig. 2B). Similarly, *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *eda*::miniTn*10*::*npt* was unable to colonize the mouse intestine either alone or in the presence of its parent (Fig. 3). Furthermore, *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *eda*::miniTn*10*::*npt* was not found in cecal mucus after disappearing from the feces (<1 CFU in the mucus of the entire cecum).

The only non-pBluescriptII gene that pTC190 contains is a functional E. coli K-12 eda gene (8). Complete colonization ability was restored when E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt was complemented with pTC190. Indeed, when E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt(pTC190) was fed (10¹⁰ CFU) to streptomycin-treated mice, it colonized at approximately 5×10^7 CFU/g of feces (Fig. 4A). In a control experiment, a separate set of mice were fed 10¹⁰ CFU of E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt(pBluescriptII). This strain was essentially eliminated by day 3 postfeeding (Fig. 4B). The fecal samples in each of these experiments were plated on MacConkey-lactose agar containing streptomycin sulfate (100 µg/ml) and kanamycin (80 µg/ml) to enumerate total CFU and on MacConkeylactose agar containing streptomycin sulfate (100 µg/ml) and ampicillin (100 µg/ml) to enumerate plasmid-containing CFU. In each case, the number of total CFU was nearly identical to the number of plasmid-containing CFU (data not shown). Similarly, E. coli K-12 Str^r eda::miniTn10::npt(pTC190) re-

FIG. 3. Colonization of *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *eda*::miniTn*10*::*mpt* and *E. coli* K-12 Str^r in the streptomycin-treated mouse. Three streptomycin-treated mice were fed 10¹⁰ CFU of *E. coli* K-12 Str^r (\bullet) and 10¹⁰ CFU of *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *eda*::miniTn*10*::*npt* (\bigcirc) (A) or 10¹⁰ CFU of *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn*10*::*npt* (B). Platings were done on MacConkey-lactose agar plates containing either streptomycin to enumerate *E. coli* K-12 Str^r or streptomycin and kanamycin to enumerate *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *eda*::miniTn*10*::*npt*.

gained almost full colonizing ability but *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *eda*::miniTn10::*npt*(pBluescriptII) did not (Fig. 5). Collectively, these data suggest that a functional *eda* is required for both *E. coli* F-18 and *E. coli* K-12 Str^r to colonize the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine.

Relative colonizing abilities of E. coli F-18 Nal^r and E. coli F-18 edd eda::miniTn10::npt and of E. coli K-12 Str^r and E. coli K-12 Str^r edd eda::miniTn10::npt. As demonstrated in Table 2, an edd mutation in E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt relieved the inhibition of growth on gluconate, presumably because it prevents the accumulation of the growth-inhibiting compound KDPG (8). To determine whether the edd mutation might also improve the colonizing ability of E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt, mice were fed 10¹⁰ CFU of E. coli F-18 edd eda::miniTn10::npt. This strain colonized at approximately 10⁸ CFU/g of feces (Fig. 6A). However, when mice were fed 10¹⁰ CFU of E. coli F-18 edd eda::miniTn10::npt and 10¹⁰ CFU of E. coli F-18 Nal^r, E. coli F-18 Nal^r colonized at approximately 10⁹ CFU/g of feces whereas E. coli F-18 edd eda::miniTn10::npt colonized at a level of only 10⁴ CFU/g of feces (Fig. 6B). Similarly, *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *edd eda::miniTn10::npt* colonized better than *E. coli* K-12 eda::miniTn10::npt when fed alone to mice (Fig. 7A) but was unable to colonize the mouse intestine to any great extent in



FIG. 4. Colonization of *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn10::npt(pTC190) and *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn10::npt(pBluescriptII) in the streptomycin-treated mouse. Three streptomycin-treated mice were fed 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn10::npt(pTC190) (A) or 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn10::npt(pBluescriptII) (B). Platings were done on MacConkey-lactose agar plates containing streptomycin and ampicillin.

the presence of its parent (Fig. 7B). Since gluconate is the only known carbon source that utilizes the *edd* gene product, these data suggest that the functioning of the Entner-Doudoroff pathway is required for maximum colonizing ability.

In vitro growth in mouse cecal mucus. E. coli F-18 grows in cecal mucus in vitro but does not grow in cecal contents in vitro, suggesting that the ability to colonize depends on the ability to grow in the mucus layer of the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine (28). Crude cecal mucus specimens isolated from mice fed either a normal laboratory chow diet or a synthetic diet containing only sucrose as the carbon source were separately inoculated with either E. coli F-18 eda::mini Tn10::npt or E. coli F-18 Nalr as described in Materials and Methods. After 6 h of incubation in cecal mucus isolated from mice on the normal laboratory chow diet, E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt had not grown whereas E. coli F-18 Nal^r had grown about 100-fold (Table 3). Similar results were obtained when cecal mucus isolated from mice fed the synthetic diet containing sucrose as the sole carbon source; i.e., when cecal mucus isolated from these mice was separately inoculated with either E. coli F-18 Nalr or E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt, E. coli F-18 Nalr grew about 2,000-fold in 6 h whereas E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt barely doubled in number in the same time (Table 4). Nearly identical results



FIG. 5. Colonization of *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *eda*::miniTn*10*::*npt*(pTC190) and *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *eda*::miniTn*10*::*npt*(pBluescriptII) in the streptomycin-treated mouse. Three streptomycin-treated mice were fed 10¹⁰ CFU of *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *eda*::miniTn*10*::*npt*(pTC190) (A) or 10¹⁰ CFU of *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *eda*::miniTn*10*::*npt*(pBluescriptII) (B). Platings were done on MacConkey-lactose agar plates containing streptomycin and ampicillin.

were obtained with *E. coli* K-12 Str^r and *E. coli* K-12 Str^r eda::miniTn10::npt (data not shown). All four strains grew equally well and with equal generation times in Davis minimal medium containing glucose as the carbon source (data not shown). These results therefore suggest that enough gluconate is present in cecal mucus even in the absence of gluconate in the diet to act as a carbon source for both *E. coli* F-18 and *E. coli* K-12 Str^r growth in the intestine.

DISCUSSION

The data presented here demonstrate the requirement of a functional *eda* gene for *E. coli* F-18 and *E. coli* K-12 to colonize the streptomycin-treated mouse intestine. That is, neither *E. coli* F-18 nor *E. coli* K-12 *eda* mutants colonized the mouse intestine to any great extent when fed alone to mice (Fig. 2B and 3B). However, when the *eda* mutants were complemented with a wild-type *eda* gene, their colonizing ability was restored (Fig. 4A and 5A).

The product of the *eda* gene, KDPG aldolase, is used in the metabolism of glucuronate, galacturonate, and gluconate (Fig. 1). Although we have no information as yet on the importance of glucuronate and galacturonate, we have shown that gluconate appears to be a carbon source for *E. coli* colonization of



FIG. 6. Colonization of *E. coli* F-18 *edd eda*::miniTn10::*npt* and *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r in the streptomycin-treated mouse. Three streptomycin-treated mice were fed 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* F-18 *edd eda*::miniTn10::*npt* (A) or 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r (\bullet) and 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* F-18 *edd eda*::miniTn10::*npt* (\bigcirc) (B). Platings were done on MacConkey-lactose agar plates containing either streptomycin, rifampin, and nalidixic acid to enumerate *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r or streptomycin, rifampin, and kanamycin to enumerate *E. coli* F-18 *edd eda*::miniTn10::*npt*.

the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine. That is, although E. coli F-18 and E. coli K-12 eda mutants failed to colonize when fed to mice alone, presumably because of KDPG accumulation (11, 16), the edd eda double mutants colonized well (Fig. 6A and 7A). Since the edd mutation relieves only KDPG accumulation caused by metabolism of gluconate in an eda mutant (Fig. 1), gluconate is implicated as a carbon source for E. coli in the intestine. In support of this view, while both the E. coli F-18 and E. coli K-12 edd eda double mutants were able to colonize alone, they were poor colonizers when fed to mice together with their wild-type parents (Fig. 6B and 7B). These data suggest that when an E. coli strain is unable to utilize the Entner-Doudoroff pathway in the intestine, even if inhibition by gluconate-derived KDPG is blocked by an *edd* mutation, the strain is unable to grow as rapidly in the intestine as one that has that ability.

At present, we do not know which carbon source or which pathway the *edd eda* mutants utilize for growth in and colonization of the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine. However, it is clear that glucuronate and galacturonate are not being utilized, since their metabolism requires a functional *eda* gene to produce pyruvate and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate for energy (2) (Fig. 1). It is possible, however, that gluconate is



FIG. 7. Colonization of *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *edd eda*::miniTn10::*npt* and *E. coli* K-12 Str^r in the streptomycin-treated mouse. Three streptomycin-treated mice were fed 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *edd eda*::miniTn10::*npt* (A) or 10^{10} CFU of *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *edd eda*::miniTn10::*npt* (O) (B). Platings were done on MacConkey-lactose agar plates containing either streptomycin to enumerate *E. coli* K-12 Str^r *edd eda*::miniTn10::*npt*.

also being utilized in *edd eda* double mutants, since gluconate metabolism is not confined to the Entner-Doudoroff pathway but can proceed via the hexose monophosphate shunt, although growth is slower under such conditions (29).

E. coli F-18 grows in cecal mucus in vitro but does not grow in cecal luminal contents (28), suggesting that the ability to colonize depends on the ability to grow in the mucus layer of the intestine. In support of this view, both the *E. coli* F-18 *eda* and *E. coli* K-12 *eda* mutants grew poorly in mucus in vitro

TABLE 3. Growth of *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r and *E. coli* F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt in cecal mucus isolated from mice on a conventional diet

Time (h)	E. col	D-ti-a	
Time (n)	F-18 Nal ^r	F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt	Katio
0	2.3×10^{4}	$2.4 imes 10^4$	0.96
2	$1.0 imes 10^5$	$3.4 imes10^4$	2.94
4	$1.3 imes10^6$	$3.6 imes10^4$	36.11
6	$3.2 imes 10^{6}$	$3.2 imes 10^4$	100.00

^a Ratio of growth of *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r to growth of *E. coli* F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt.

TABLE 4. Growth of *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r and *E. coli* F-18 *eda*::miniTn10::npt in cecal mucus isolated from mice on a purified sucrose diet

Time (h)	E. co.	D-t-a		
Time (h)	F-18 Nal ^r	F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt	Ratio	
0	5.2×10^{3}	$1.2 imes 10^4$	0.43	
2	4.1×10^{4}	$2.3 imes 10^4$	1.78	
4	$1.0 imes 10^6$	$2.8 imes 10^4$	35.71	
6	$1.2 imes 10^7$	$2.9 imes 10^4$	413.00	

^a Ratio of growth of *E. coli* F-18 Nal^r to growth of *E. coli* F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt.

(Table 3) and failed to colonize the mouse intestine (Fig. 2B and 3B). In addition, the *E. coli* F-18 *eda* mutant grew poorly in cecal mucus isolated from mice on a synthetic diet containing sucrose as the sole carbon source (Table 4). Therefore, it appears that endogenous rather than dietary gluconate in cecal mucus is the carbon source for *E. coli* F-18 and *E. coli* K-12 growth in and colonization of the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine.

As stated above, in the presence of gluconate, the Entner-Doudoroff intermediate KDPG accumulates in E. coli eda mutants (Fig. 1), and it is well known that an intracellular accumulation of KDPG has growth-inhibitory properties (11, 16). The inhibitory nature of gluconate on the eda mutants was demonstrated by the inability of E. coli F-18 eda::miniTn10::npt and E. coli K-12 eda::miniTn10::npt to grow on BTB-gluconate agar and on MacConkey agar containing gluconate. Each of these growth media contains carbon sources other than gluconate, but the presence of gluconate prevents growth. In contrast, E. coli eda mutants exposed to MacConkey agar containing either glucuronate or galacturonate as the carbon source do grow, although they cannot ferment these carbohydrates and should accumulate KDPG. KDPG is produced by Ashwell pathway enzymes in the degradation of hexuronates (2) and by Entner-Doudoroff pathway enzymes in the degradation of gluconate (12). Therefore, it is possible that the Ashwell pathway is regulated such that growth-inhibitory concentrations of KDPG do not accumulate in the presence of glucuronate and galacturonate.

The conventional mammalian large intestine is populated by 400 to 500 species of bacteria, each maintaining a numerical balance in the presence of the others (23). The prevailing theory of how this balance is maintained is that each microorganism is able to utilize a growth-limiting nutrient better than the others (14, 15, 21). An exception to this theory is that two microorganisms can use the same nutrient and survive in the intestine as long as the one that uses it less efficiently can adhere to epithelial cells and thereby prevent washout (14, 15). At present, we do not know whether E. coli F-18 and E. coli K-12 utilize gluconate better than any of the myriad of species in the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine or whether they use it less efficiently than another species but adhere to epithelial cells and thereby remain in the intestine. However, we favor the former hypothesis, since recent evidence shows that E. coli BJ4, also a commensal strain, is dispersed throughout the cecal mucus layer but does not appear to adhere to epithelial cells in streptomycin-treated mice (25).

A major problem encountered in studying the colonization of the mammalian intestine is what is commonly referred to as "colonization resistance," in which all intestinal niches are occupied in a balanced ecosystem and most ingested microorganisms fail to colonize because of the lack of an available niche (21). Colonization resistance is, in fact, the reason that we use streptomycin, i.e., to clear the mouse intestine of facultative microorganisms and create an available niche. Streptomycin treatment selectively reduces the facultative microflora; however, the anaerobic population in the large intestine remains largely intact, and large numbers of different species coexist (17). Because maximum E. coli colonizing ability requires gluconate metabolism via the Entner-Doudoroff pathway, an incoming microorganism that utilizes gluconate better than E. coli could displace it and colonize. In this context, it is of great interest that when gluconate is the carbon source, Yersinia enterocolitica makes 4- to 26-fold the amount of heatstable enterotoxin as it does in the presence of a number of other sugars (1). Perhaps Y. enterocolitica overcomes colonization resistance by its ability to utilize gluconate and at the same time uses gluconate as a signal to induce synthesis of virulence factors.

In summary, it appears that *E. coli* F-18 and *E. coli* K-12 utilize the gluconate present in mucus for colonization of the streptomycin-treated mouse large intestine. As a consequence, it appears that the Entner-Doudoroff pathway is important for *E. coli* in the intestine. Whether pathogenic strains of *E. coli* rely on gluconate and the Entner-Doudoroff pathway for virulence is under investigation.

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