Characterization of Tn5-Induced Mutants of Xenorhabdus nematophilus ATCC ¹⁹⁰⁶¹

JIMIN XU, MARK E. OLSON, MICHAEL L. KAHN, AND RONALD E. HURLBERT*

Department of Microbiology, Washington State University, Pullman, Washington 99164

Received 20 August 1990/Accepted 2 February 1991

A negative-selection vector, pHX1, was constructed for use in transposon mutagenesis of Xenorhabdus nematophilus ATCC 19061. pHX1 contains the Bacillus subtilis levansucrase gene which confers sucrose sensitivity. In addition, various TnS-containing plasmids with different replication origins were transferred by conjugation from Escherichia coli into X. nematophilus ATCC 19061, and one of these plasmids, pGS9, yields TnS insertion mutants of X. nematophilus ATCC 19061. By using these two delivery vehicles, more than 250 putative Tn5 insertion mutants of \overline{X} . nematophilus ATCC 19061 were isolated and were then characterized. Mutants that were altered in bromothymol blue adsorption, ability to lyse sheep erythrocytes, production of antibiotics on a variety of media, and virulence for Galleria mellonella were found.

Xenorhabdus spp. (Enterobacteriaceae) are mutualistically associated with two families of entomogenous nematodes, the Steinernematidae (syn. Neoaplectanidae) and the Heterorhabditidae, that infect more than 250 species of insects (7, 8, 17, 41, 42). The symbiosis is specific in that each nematode species contains its own unique Xenorhabdus sp. that lives monoxenically in the gut of the nonfeeding, infective stage of the nematode. The infective-stage nematode invades a host insect, usually through a natural orifice, and then migrates to the hemolymph where it voids its resident Xenorhabdus sp. (1, 4, 5, 29, 31, 41, 42). Xenorhabdus spp. proliferate in the hemolymph and, in combination with the nematode, usually kill the insect within 48 h $(3, 4, 4)$ 11, 13, 28-30, 42). Xenorhabdus spp. produce antibiotics that inhibit the growth of other microorganisms in the insect cadaver, and the bacteria produce nutrients required for optimal nematode development (2, 3, 10, 21, 30, 40). New infective-stage nematodes subsequently leave the carcass in search of new hosts.

Most Xenorhabdus spp. share the following characteristics: (i) they exist monoxenically in the gut of specific nematodes, (ii) they have large cells, and (iii) they produce dimorphic or polymorphic clones. Xenorhabdus luminescens isolates are catalase positive and luminescent, but other Xenorhabdus spp. are catalase negative and nonluminescent. Dimorphism in Xenorhabdus spp. involves a type of phase variation between a primary form that is usually isolated from the nematode host and a secondary form that can be isolated from infected insects, from monoxenic in vitro cultures of nematodes and symbiotic bacteria, or from pure cultures of the bacterium (1, 2, 4, 12, 22, 42). The primary forms of most Xenorhabdus strains have a distinct colony morphology, produce antibiotics and pili, adsorb certain dyes, support the vigorous development of their host nematode in vivo, and develop large intracellular protein inclusions. The secondary forms have a different colony morphology and do not adsorb the dyes, produce antibiotics or pili, or form protein inclusions efficiently. The X. luminescens primary form is usually brightly luminescent, whereas the secondary form is weakly luminescent. Although both forms are pathogenic, the primary forms sup-

We report here the development of conjugation and transposon mutagenesis systems for use with Xenorhabdus spp. A number of putative TnS insertion mutants, including avirulent mutants, were isolated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains, plasmids, and cultivation conditions. The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1. Bacteria were grown in modified LB (Luria-Bertani) broth (1% tryptone [Difco Laboratories]-0.5% yeast extract-0.5% NaCl, adjusted to pH 7.5 with NaOH [25]) and maintained on LB agar (LA) and NBT as previously described (22, 45). The accumulation of toxic photoproducts in the media was prevented as previously described (44). Other media were nutrient agar (NA); LA supplemented with bromothymol blue and 2,3,5-triphenyltetrazolium (LBT) at 25 and 30 mg/liter, respectively; blood agar (5% [vol/vol] sheep erythrocytes in Trypticase soy agar); LA plus Congo red (0.01%, wt/vol) (LBCR); Spirit blue agar; milk agar (prepared by mixing equal volumes of sterile 10% [wt/vol] skim milk and double-strength Plate Count Agar after sterilization); egg yolk agar (5% [wt/vol] egg yolk in Trypticase soy agar); Tween 40 and Tween 80 agar (0.2%, vol/vol) (10); and medium X (21). CAS agar for the detection of siderophores was prepared as described by Schwyn and Neilands (33) by using vitamin-free Casamino Acids (grade 0230; Difco). For dipyridyl agar, 2,2'-dipyridyl in 95% ethanol was added to sterile LA before the plates were poured. Except for motility medium, solid media contained 1.5% (wt/vol) Bacto-Agar. All plates were dried for ³ days in the dark at 22°C before use to prevent swarming. Dyes, antibiotics, 2,2'-dipyridyl, Tween 40, and Tween 80 were from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, Mo. Chrome azurol and hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide were from Fluka Chemical Corporation (Ronkonkoma, N.Y.).

port superior growth of their host nematodes in vivo better than the secondary forms $(1, 10, 22)$. Secondary forms of X. nematophilus revert to primary forms under certain conditions, but the secondary forms of X . *luminescens* have not been reported to revert under any conditions. The switching rate from primary to secondary forms varies between strains (1, 22). Neither the mechanism of switching nor its role in Xenorhabdus spp. survival is known.

^{*} Corresponding author.

Strain or plasmid	Relevant characteristics	Reference or source
Strains		
Escherichia coli		
$S17-1$	pro thi hsdR hsdM ⁺ recA Tp ^r Sm ^r RP4 2-Tc::Mu-Km::Tn7 Tra ⁺	36
HB101	F^- hsdR hsdM proA2 leuB6 galK2 lacY1 supE44 thi-1 recA13 rpsL20 Sm ^r	25
JEF8	Lambda ⁻ Hfr thr-31 carB8 relA1 metB1 spoT1	26
Xenorhabdus nematophilus		
ATCC 19061/1	Amp ^r Kan ^s	ATCC ^a
ATCC 19061/2	Amp ^r Kan ^s	45
IM/1	Amp ^r Kan ^s	This study
X. poinarii	Amp ^r Kan ^s	45
X. luminescens RH/1	Amp ^s Kan ^s	22
Plasmids and bacteriophage		
pRS14	ColE1 and RK2 replicons, Kan' Tet ^r	39
pRZ102	ColE1 replicon::Tn5 Kan' Mob ⁺	23
pSUP1021	p15A replicon::Tn5 Kan ^r Tet ^r Cam ^r Mob ⁺	37
pSUP2021	ColE1 replicon::Tn5 Mob ⁺ Amp ^r Cam ^r Kan ^r	35
pGS9	p15A replicon::Tn5 Tra ⁺ (N type) Cam ^r Mob ⁺ Kan ^r	34
pMK409	ColE1 and RK2 replicons, sacB sacR Tet ^r	This study
pHX1	ColE1 and RK2 replicons::Tn5 sacB sacR Tet ^r Kan ^r	This study
pUC18	ColE1 replicon, Amp ^r	46
Lambda 467	Lambda B221 rex::Tn5 cI857 Oam80 Pam80	15

TABLE 1. Bacterial strains, plasmids, and viruses

^a ATCC, American Type Culture Collection, Rockville, Md.

Plasmid transformation and mating procedure. Transformation of X. nematophilus and Escherichia coli was performed as described by Xu et al. (45) and Maniatis et al. (25), respectively. Unless otherwise noted, all cultures of Xenorhabdus spp. used in the conjugation and transformation experiments were shaken at 28°C in LB at 200 rpm in ^a covered rotary water bath shaker. For conjugation, plasmidcontaining E. coli S17-1 (36) donor cells were grown for approximately 16 h at 37°C without shaking in a 125-ml Erlenmeyer flask containing ⁵ ml of LB and the appropriate antibiotics. One milliliter of the donor culture was added to ⁹ ml of antibiotic-free LB in ^a 250-ml Erlenmeyer flask and grown at 37°C without shaking to a concentration of 1.5 \times 10^8 cells ml⁻¹. *Xenorhabdus* spp. recipients, grown to a cell density of 1.5×10^8 cells ml⁻¹, were washed once in LB to remove antibiotics produced by Xenorhabdus spp. and suspended to their original volume in LB. Equal volumes of donor and recipient cells were mixed gently, and 0.2 ml was dropped onto sterile 0.45 - μ m-pore-size membrane filters (cellulose nitrate; Whatman Inc., Clifton, N.J.) on LA plates. The plates were incubated at 28°C in the dark for 4 h. The cells were resuspended, diluted in LB, and plated on the appropriate medium. The frequency of plasmid transfer is expressed as the number of transconjugants per viable recipient cell.

Biochemical and physiological characterization of mutants. Each isolate was tested at least three times. Tween 80 and Spirit blue plates contained approximately 40 ml of media; all other plates contained approximately 25 ml of media. All plates were patched with 22 test strains and the wild-type primary and secondary strains as controls. All plates, except for the LBCR plates, were incubated for ⁴⁸ ^h at 28°C and then at 22°C in the dark for the indicated periods before the results were read. The LBCR plates were incubated for ³ to 4 days at 28°C. Plates that were incubated for longer than 72 h were sealed with Parafilm. The milk and egg yolk plates were treated with $HgCl₂$ (10%, wt/vol) by the method of Frazier (19). Phase-shift stability was determined by moni-

toring the pattern of bromothymol blue adsorption for 10 to 21 days at 22°C. Unstable mutants developed sectors at the colony edges with the alternative bromothymol blue uptake pattern, whereas stable mutants did not.

Bioassay. Galleria mellonella L. (Carolina Biological Supplies, Gladstone, Oreg.) was cultivated in the dark at 32°C by the method of Dutky et al. (16). Virulence assays were performed on the last instar of G. mellonella. In preliminary tests, Xenorhabdus cells were smeared on the upper rear segments of G. mellonella and a sterile stainless steel straight pin was stabbed through the cuticle into the hemolymph. The larvae were incubated in test tubes at 32°C for 48 h. Putative avirulent mutants were tested by injecting 20 μ l of culture diluted in Ringer solution (1) into 3 to 10 larvae (in the first intersegmental fold anterior to the prolegs) by using a repeating dispenser (Hamilton Co., Reno, Nev.) fitted with a 0.5-ml disposable syringe and a 27-gauge needle. Three- to 10-fold dilutions, with the lowest concentration ranging between 12 and 50 viable bacteria, were used. Control larvae were inoculated with sterile Ringer solution, avirulent $E.$ coli HB101, and wild-type $X.$ nematophilus ATCC 19061/1. Putative avirulent mutants were tested three or more times. Numbers of viable cells were determined as described by Poinar and Thomas (31).

DNA manipulations. Plasmid DNA isolation, purification, and electrophoresis were performed as described by Maniatis et al. (25). Chromosomal DNA was prepared as described by Ausubel et al. (6). Restriction endonucleases were used as described by the supplier. DNA transfer to GeneScreen Plus, hybridization, and autoradiography with ³²P-labeled probes were performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (NEN Research Products, Boston, Mass.). A 3.4-kb internal *HindIII* fragment of Tn5 (15) from pRZ102 was purified from agarose gel by using Gene Clean (Bio 101, Inc., La Jolla, Calif.) according to the manufacturer's instructions, labeled with 32P by using ^a NEN Random Primer kit, and used as the Tn5-specific DNA probe.

Phenotypic nomenclature. When possible, the diagnostic

phenotypes of the wild-type strain of X . *nematophilus* and of the Tn5 insertion mutants were named according to the conventions of Akhurst (4, 5) and Boemare and Akhurst (10). New symbols and symbol combinations were used for the new diagnostic characterizations employed in this study. We have attempted to use single letters or numbers for all characterizations used in tables and have used three-letter mnemonics to designate phenotypes not previously named. When phenotypic designations for equivalent genes exist in E. coli, we have used mnemonics utilized in recent publications. Btb^+ and Btb^- stand for the ability and inability, respectively, to adsorb bromothymol blue, and Suc^r and Suc' stand for the ability and inability, respectively, to grow on media containing 5% sucrose.

RESULTS

Development of mating conditions between E. coli and X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1. The standard conditions for the conjugational transfer of plasmids from E . coli S17-1 to X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 described in Materials and Methods were determined by using the plasmid pRZ102. Under these conditions the frequency of pRZ102 transfer to both the primary and secondary forms of X . nematophilus ATCC 19061 was 3.0×10^{-2} to 5.8×10^{-2} and that to X. poinarii was 3.5×10^{-7} . No transconjugants were found when X . luminescens RH/1 or X . nematophilus IM/1 was used as a recipient.

The viable counts of E. coli S17-1 fell during mating from a starting ratio of 1:1 to approximately 1:200 within 4 h of mating, and after 20 h of incubation only a rare E. coli colony could be detected. The death of E. coli during mating made counterselection unnecessary. To determine if Xenorhabdus spp. antibiotics were responsible for this killing, E. coli S17-1 cells were spread on plates from which filters containing the mating mixtures had been removed after various periods. No inhibition zones developed on plates of matings with X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 before 20 h. Although E. coli S17-1 also died when mated with the non-antibioticproducing strains X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/2 and X. poinarii, no inhibition zones were detected even on matings of >20 h. Transconjugants could be measured on selective plates of LA or LBT, but because of their distinct dye uptake patterns both E . coli and X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 could be counted on the nonselective LBT medium. However, the recovery of transconjugants on LBT was ⁵ to 10% lower than on LA (21a). Since X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 is resistant to ampicillin (100 μ g ml⁻¹), ampicillin was occasionally used to select against the donor.

When the TnS-containing plasmids pSUP1021, pSUP2021, and pGS9 were tested as possible suicide vectors for transposon mutagenesis by conjugation into X . *nematophilus* ATCC 19061/1, the frequency of kanamycin-resistant X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 colonies was 7.0 \times 10⁻³, 3.0 \times 10^{-3} , and 5.0×10^{-7} , respectively, and only pGS9 yielded kanamycin-resistant colonies that had lost the plasmid at a useful frequency (15 to 25%).

Because the frequency of recovery of putative Tn5 transposon mutants of X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 obtained from matings with pGS9 was low, a negative-selection plasmid, pHX1, was constructed for use as a suicide vector (Fig. 1). The negative-selection characteristic of pHX1 is based on the production of levansucrase by the sacB gene of Bacillus subtilis. This gene is lethal to many gram-negative bacteria when they are incubated on medium containing sucrose (20, 32). Mutants could be directly isolated by spreading cells transformed with pHX1 onto plates supplemented with kanamycin and 5% sucrose. This procedure usually yielded fewer than 20 colonies per ml. Alternately, mutants could be isolated by first plating the transformants on medium supplemented only with kanamycin and then streaking the colonies to plates supplemented with kanamycin and 5% sucrose. All the colonies from the kanamycin plates yielded Tet^s Suc^r Kan^r isolates. All Tet^s Suc^r Kan^r isolates were assumed to be independent Tn5 transposon mutants. Putative insertion mutants with a wide variety of combinations of characteristics have been isolated. Many of the putative mutants are distinguished from the wild type only by being kanamycin resistant. In this paper only the mutants with properties that differed in one or more characteristics from the pattern of characteristics assigned to either the primary or secondary wild-type forms (Table 2, columns 2 and 3) are discussed.

Physical characterization of Tn5 insertion. To characterize the nature of the transpositions, EcoRI fragments of chromosomal DNA from putative insertion mutants were separated on agarose gels and were analyzed by hybridization with a Tn5-specific DNA probe. X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 mutants isolated on medium containing 20 μ g of kanamycin m I^{-1} produced multiple bands (data not presented), whereas DNA from the majority of mutants that were isolated by using 10 μ g of kanamycin ml⁻¹ produced singlehybridization bands (Fig. 2). These data suggested that TnS was inserting at various sites, because multiple copies of the resistance gene were required in order to produce resistance to the higher concentration of kanamycin used. Bands of different sizes were also observed, suggesting that the insertion was random (Fig. 2, lanes a through f and h). At 10μ g of kanamycin m I^{-1} , spontaneous resistant mutants appeared on the selective plates after 48 h of incubation; however, these resistant mutant colonies were distinguished from those containing the transposon by their smaller sizes and their delayed growth. The lack of hybridization of the probe with the DNA isolated from one of the colonies (Fig. 2, lane g), suggests that it was a spontaneous kanamycin-resistant mutant.

Tn5 also contains a Str^r gene that is expressed in some bacteria. When putative $Tn5$ insertion mutants of X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 were streaked onto LA containing 100 μ g of streptomycin ml⁻¹, only a few colonies developed. Hybridizational analysis of the genomic DNA of several of these Str^r mutants that originated from strains carrying only a single copy of the TnS showed that all contained multiple bands that hybridized with the TnS probe and that the banding pattern in each was unique (44a). These data support the suggestion that a single copy of chromosomeinserted TnS provides only low-level resistance to the antibiotics.

Avirulent mutants. The protein profiles of the avirulent X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 mutants, AV1, 7A-2/1G, and 7A-2/1SA (Table 2), are shown in Fig. 3. Although the protein patterns of the wild-type and avirulent mutants are similar, there are some differences. All of the avirulent strains are missing or are deficient in a number of high- M_r protein bands and in particular, a major band with an apparent molecular mass of 32.5 kDa (Fig. 3). The significance of these missing proteins in virulence remains to be determined.

All three avirulent mutants were Btb^+ (Table 2) and produced the same fragment pattern when their genomic DNA was digested with restriction enzymes (data not presented). Strain 7A-2/1SA was unusual in its sensitivity to

FIG. 1. Partial restriction map of the plasmid pMK409 and its Tn5 derivative, pHX1. pRS14, which carries both the RK2 and ColEl origins of replication and the Tet^r and Kan^r genes (39), was digested with BamHI and HindIII and ligated to similarly digested pUC18 to replace part of the Kanr gene in pRS14 with part of the linker region of the pUC18 plasmid. One of the resulting Tetr Kans Amps plasmids was then digested with BgIII and ligated to the BamHI sacB sacR cartridge from pUM24 (32). Because the inhibition of growth of E. coli strains that contain the levansucrase genes was greater on LA containing 5% (wt/vol) sucrose at ³⁰ than at 37°C, selection for sucrose resistance and screening for sucrose sensitivity were done at 30°C. Tet^r Kan^r transformants that contained the insertion of the sucrose-kanamycin cartridge were then partially digested with PstI to remove Kan^r, and Tet^r Kan^s Suc^s transformants were isolated. The structure of one of these isolates (pMK409) was confirmed by restriction digests. E. coli JEF8(pMK409) was infected with lambda::Tn5 467 as described by de Bruijn and Lupski (15). A plasmid pool from cultures grown in LB containing kanamycin and tetracycline at 50 and 12.5 μ g ml⁻¹, respectively, was used to transform E. coli HB101. pHX1, isolated from an E. coli HB101 colony that was Tet^r Kan^r Suc^s, was transformed into X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1, and a single Tet^r Kan^r Suc^s X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1(pHX1) isolate was used to obtain pHX1 for subsequent transposon mutagenesis experiments. Filled areas represent significant genes. Restriction sites: R, EcoRI; H, HindIII; B, BamHI. The multiple sites at the top represent the linker fragment of pUC19 bounded by the BamHl and HindllI sites.

ampicillin, resistance to streptomycin (100 μ g ml⁻¹), and slow growth. Strain 7A-2/1SA also produced two colony morphologies on LA after incubation for ⁴⁸ h at 28°C: ^a large colony of 1.0 to 1.3 mm in diameter and ^a small colony of < 0.5 mm in diameter. Both of these forms generate the alternative form, and repeated attempts to purify them from clonally isolated colonies have failed. Strain 7A-2/1G appears to be defective in iron uptake, since it is unable to grow in the presence of the iron-chelating agents 2,2'-dipyridyl or Chrome azurol S (Table 2).

Biochemical mutants. The biochemical and physiological characteristics of several putative TnS insertion mutants of X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 were compared with each other and the wild-type forms (Table 2). No stable, primaryform bromothymol blue-adsorbing mutants were isolated. Since all the Btb^+ mutants also produced Btb^- forms. However, the degree of instability among the $B⁺$ adsorption mutants varied from mutants in which only occasional red sectors appeared through strains that produced approximately equal proportions of red and blue sectors or that were maroon to mutants whose colonies were predominantly Btb⁻ with rare blue sectors. The intensity of the bromothymol blue adsorption varied from deep blue through pale blue to green (Table 2). Further, the rate of switching between Btb^+ and Btb^- was influenced by the conditions of the testing, with more sectors appearing in strains grown on LBT at 28°C than those grown on NBT at 22°C. Several stable Btb⁻ mutants had different intensities of red pigmentation (Table 2).

Among mutants modified in antibiotic synthesis were several whose production was influenced by the medium used (Table 2). Several antibiotic-producing mutants had the bromothymol blue adsorption pattern of secondary forms (Table 2, strains XuH1, 141, 200, and 209). The ability to lyse erythrocytes is often considered a virulence factor (18). Several mutants that had primary-form characteristics were nonhemolytic (Table 2, strains AV1, 113, 210, 7A-2/1SA, and 7A-2/1G), whereas others that had some secondary-form characteristics were hemolytic (Table 2, strains 141, 200, and 209). Furthermore, some mutants produced lytic zones consistently larger or smaller than the wild type, and others produced cloudy lytic zones, the size of which varied among mutants.

Because Congo red adsorption is related to virulence in some gram-negative bacteria (27), we examined the pattern of its adsorption by X . *nematophilus*. Three characteristics of Congo red adsorption were genetically variable: (i) the development of a red ring immediately around the colony,

⁴ +, Positive reaction, equivalent to wild-type control; --, negative reaction; w, positive reaction or growth, but significantly less so than the wild-type control; s, positive reaction, squivalent to wild-type control

if unstable; R, red, with rare blue sectors if unstable; M, maroon or approximately equal mixture of red and blue sectors; G, green; w, weak growth, dye adsorption indeterminate; S, stable, does not produce

alternative bromothymol blue adsorption form; U, unstable, produces alternative bromothymol blue adsorption form.

^c Results were recorded after 72 to 96 h at 28°C. First symbol, red-to-purple ring immediately around colony; second symbol, clearing of dye around colony, outside of the ring when ring is present; third symbol, color by

⁴ Hemolysis was read after 48 h of incubation at 28°C. +, Clear lysis zone surrounding colony; –, no clearing; c, cloudy lysis. See footnote a for additional symbol definitions.

⁴ S. Susceptibility, no or rare growth 24 h of the state state of occurrence is a particle of the state state state state state is to a portion of the state state state state state st

 h +, Formation of white halo immediately surrounding colony after 5 to 7 days at 28°C. See footnote a for other symbol definitions.

 1 Results were read after 5 to 7 days at 28°C. +, Clear zone under colony following treatment with HgCl₂. See footnote a for other symbol definitions.

symbol, colony surface (R, rough; S, smooth); fourth symbol, papilla formation after approximately 30 to 50 days. See footnote a for other symbol definitions.
 k +, Formation of crystals around and under colony after I Results were read after growth at 22°C for approximately 50 days. Characteristics are as follows: first symbol, presence of blue ring around colony; second symbol, colony color (W, white; B, brown); third

 $'$ +, Ability to grow in CAS medium and to produce yellow halo around colony, indicating siderophore formation. See footnote a for other symbol definitions

from the colony edge. Symbols: +, formation of flares;-, no flares; w, rare flare appearing after 24 h of incubation. See footnote a for other symbol definitions m +, Growth on LB (pH 7.5) containing 300 µM 2,2'-dipyridyl. See footnote a for other symbol definitions.
" LB medium was prepared with 1.2% Bacto-Agar and stored at 4°C shortly after solidification. Colonies were examined

r tTI \mathbb{H} <u>ក្នុ</u>
ក្នុ $\bf \overline{}$ 0 0 nsei vativ oCD 0. CD ຼະ H riju

FIG. 2. Demonstration of TnS-specific sequences in genomic DNA of putative $Tn5$ insertion mutants of X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 by Southern hybridization. EcoRI digests of chromosomal DNA were separated by electrophoresis in 0.7% agarose buffered with Tris-borate and hybridized with a ³²P-labeled Tn5-specific probe. Lanes: a, 3-2/1; b, 3-6/1; c, 6-2/1; d, 5A-1/1; e, 5A-2/1; f, 3A-3/1; g, 8-1/1; h, 7A-2/1. The small arrows indicate the migration of lambda HindIII size standards determined by ethidium bromide staining of the gel (from top to bottom, in kilobases): 23.7, 9.46, 6.67, 4.26, 2.25, and 1.96. The large arrow indicates the position of the 3.5-kb TnS probe.

(ii) the clearing of dye from the medium to form a colorless zone outside the red ring, and (iii) the color of the colony by reflected light. The primary-form colony on LBCR was opaque white, and it developed a prominent red ring, surrounded by a clear zone, whereas the secondary form colony was red by reflected light and produced no rings. A number of mutants with mixtures of these characteristics were isolated (Table 2, strains XuH1 and 113).

Since Xenorhabdus spp. grow in insects that are rich in fats, the ability to digest lipids may contribute to their pathogenicity. Therefore, the phenotype of X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 on the Spirit blue lipase indicator medium was examined. Differentiation on Spirit blue medium required incubation periods of up to 50 days (Table 2). Phenotypic differences could be discerned on this medium in colony color (colorless, brown, light blue, or dark blue), colony appearance (rough or smooth), and the development, after 20 to 40 days, of prominent, raised, yellow-brown papillae. Sectors of the various colony morphologies in a variety of combinations were present in many colonies, but other colonies were homogeneous in given characteristics.

Mutants in lecithinase production, Tween 80 hydrolysis, motility, and the hydrolysis of milk casein were also characterized (Table 2). Although only the response of mutants on milk in a plate count agar base is reported here, we also tested some strains on milk in an LA base and observed ^a different phenotype for some mutants on the two media (data not presented). The adsorption of neutral red from Mac-Conkey agar (1) was too weak for consistent differentiation between X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 strains. None of the strains tested possessed urease or catalase activity and

FIG. 3. Comparison of the total cellular protein-banding pattern of X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 wild type with avirulent TnS mutants. Cells were grown for 20 to 24 h at 28°C with shaking in 1.5 ml of LB; pelleted in a microcentrifuge for 5 min; suspended in the original volume of sterile, deionized water; and used for sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) analysis as previously described (24) . The proteins (in 20- μ l volumes) were separated on a 1.5-mm-thick 12% acrylamide gel and stained with Coomassie brilliant blue R. Lane 1, X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/1; lane 2, AV1; lane 3, AVlS (derivative of AV1 resistant to 100 μ g of streptomycin ml⁻¹); lane 4, 7A-2/1SA; lane 5, 7A-2/1G; lane 6, 7A-2/1SAL (large colony from clonal plating of 7A-2/1SA); lane 7, 7A-2/1SAS (small colony from clonal plating of 7A-2/1SA). The small arrows indicate the position of the molecular mass protein standards (from top to bottom, in kilodaltons): BSA, 66; ovalbumin, 45; carbonic anhydrase, 29; lysozyme, 14.3. The large arrow indicates the position of the prominent 32.5-kDa protein that is missing in the avirulent strains.

none utilized citrate, whereas all tested positive for Tween 40 hydrolysis.

DISCUSSION

The results presented here are the first demonstration of the use of TnS mutagenesis for the induction of mutations in Xenorhabdus spp. and of conjugative plasmid transfer from $E.$ coli to $X.$ nematophilus. The frequencies of successful transfer of the various plasmids conjugatively transferred into X. nematophilus varied by several orders of magnitude. pRZ102 was transferred at the highest frequency of any of the plasmids tested, whereas pGS9 was infrequently recovered in the recipient cells. The low frequency of transfer observed for pGS9 could be due to inefficient mobilization by the N transfer system used by this plasmid (34) or to some effect linked to its larger size, such as a higher susceptibility to restriction. We have previously reported evidence that restriction barriers exist between Xenorhabdus spp. and E. coli, since plasmids grown in E. coli are transformed at a much lower frequency than plasmids obtained from Xenorhabdus spp. (45). However, the instability of the Kan^r exconjugates obtained with pGS9 suggests that the problem might also be due to inefficient maintenance of the plasmid. The low frequency of transference of $pRZ102$ into X. poinarii and its failure to transfer conjugatively into X . nematophilus IM/1 and X . luminescens RH/1 show that this means of transfer is strain specific. We have not investigated the possibility of conjugation between the various Xenorhabdus spp. or between Xenorhabdus spp. and other bacterial species.

The observed death of donor E. coli cells during conjuga-

tion with Xenorhabdus spp. is similar to that reported for donor cells conjugated with Zymomonas mobilis (38) and Pseudomonas fluorescens (43) strains. Killing of E. coli donor cells by X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 was more rapid than that reported for Z. mobilis. The sensitivity of the donor cells during matings with both Z. mobilis and P. fluorescens was attributed to antibacterial compounds produced by these bacteria (38, 43). E. coli S17-1 showed zones of inhibition when tested against X . *nematophilus* ATCC 19061/1 but not when tested against X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/2 and X . poinarii, yet donor cells were also killed when mated with the last two strains. It is possible that the last two strains produce antibiotics of a kind or quantity that are lethal to donor cells in intimate contact with the strains but which cannot be detected by the production of an inhibition zone. X. nematophilus ATCC 19061/2 occasionally produces ^a narrow zone of inhibition on NA when B. sphaericus 1593 is used as an indicator (Table 2).

pSUP1021, pSUP2021, and pGS9 have all been used as suicide vectors for TnS mutagenesis in gram-negative organisms that do not support their replication (34, 35), but the stability of $pSUP1021$ and $pSUP2021$ in X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 precludes their use for this purpose in this organism. However, putative Tn5 insertion mutants were isolated from matings with pGS9 by screening for Kan^r Cam^s transconjugates.

pHX1 was an efficient negative-selection vector for use with X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 and is likely to serve the same function in the other Xenorhabdus spp. as well as in other gram-negative bacteria. We have transformed pHX1 into X. luminescens RH/1 and have isolated a number of Kan^r putative Tn5 insertion mutants. A mobilizable version of pHX1 has been constructed (unpublished data).

Hybridization analysis of a number of putative Tn5 insertion mutants and the isolation of a wide range of Kanr mutants indicated that $Tn5$ insertion in X. nematophilus is sufficiently random to be suitable for transposon mutagenesis. The observation of multiple Tn5 inserts at higher kanamycin concentrations suggests that several copies of the kanamycin resistance gene were required for growth at these concentrations. The reason for this is not known, but it may be that the kanamycin resistance gene is inefficiently expressed in X . *nematophilus*. Alternatively, the $Tn5$ inserts, which have been shown to be unstable in some cases (9), may produce multiple inserts in a given isolate over time. Exposing the single-insertion TnS mutants to a high concentration of streptomycin to select for multiple insertions may be useful in increasing the chance of obtaining a particular mutation, although it would then be necessary to sort through the insertions to identify the mutation of interest.

We have extended the observations of Boemare and Akhurst (10) that Xenorhabdus spp. characteristics (e.g., bromothymol blue adsorption and antibiotic production) are influenced by the medium used and the temperature of incubation (Table 2). We have introduced new media for the characterization of X . nematophilus mutants, although the biochemical explanations for the differences are unknown. The pattern of Congo red adsorption, while useful in distinguishing avirulent from virulent strains of some gram-negative bacteria (14, 27), did not relate to the virulence of X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1. Since we have not identified ^a pattern of phenotypic characteristics that identifies avirulent mutants, the in vivo virulence assay remains the only means of detecting avirulent mutants of X . nematophilus.

The general variability and phase variation of X . nematophilus (1, 10) makes unambiguous interpretation of some of the diagnostic data difficult. Akhurst (1) has reported that a variety of bromothymol blue adsorption strains exists among isolates of X. nematophilus. Therefore, the phenotypic changes in dye adsorption tentatively ascribed here to TnS insertions may, in some strains, be due to the isolation of spontaneous dye adsorption variants. Final proof of the effect of each TnS insertion must await correlation of the phenotypic change with transfer and incorporation of the affected gene into the chromosome of the wild-type cell as well as complementation studies. However, in ³ years of work with X . nematophilus ATCC 19061/1 we have not seen spontaneous variations of the types present in the putative Tn5 mutants shown in Table 2.

The procedures described in this report provide powerful tools for probing the unique characteristics of the Xenorhabdus spp. These procedures will make it possible to identify and isolate the genes responsible for Xenorhabdus spp. virulence, as well as for a variety of other abilities of the Xenorhabdus spp., such as the genes responsible for the switching from primary to secondary form, for the specificity of the Xenorhabdus sp.-nematode host relationship, and for antibiotic production. The isolation of three avirulent mutants from the first 250 putative TnS insertion mutants acquired shows that this technique yields avirulent mutants at a reasonable frequency. The nature of the mutations leading to loss of virulence is currently under investigation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by funds provided by Washington State University, by the USDA Competitive Research Grants Office, and by a graduate scholarship from Huazhong Agricultural University, Wuhan, People's Republic of China.

We are indebted to I. M. Hurlbert for technical assistance.

REFERENCES

- 1. Akhurst, R. J. 1980. Morphological and functional dimorphism in Xenorhabdus spp., bacteria symbiotically associated with the insect pathogenic nematodes Neoaplectana and Heterorhabditis. J. Gen. Microbiol. 121:303-309.
- 2. Akhurst, R. J. 1982. Antibiotic activity of Xenorhabdus spp., bacteria symbiotically associated with insect pathogenic nematodes of the families Heterorhabditidae and Steinernematidae. J. Gen. Microbiol. 128:3061-3065.
- 3. Akhurst, R. J. 1983. Neoaplectana species: specificity of association with bacteria of the genus Xenorhabdus. Exp. Parasitol. 55:258-263.
- 4. Akhurst, R. J. 1983. Taxonomic study of Xenorhabdus, a genus of bacteria symbiotically associated with insect pathogenic nematodes. Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol. 33:38-45.
- 5. Akhurst, R. J. 1986. Xenorhabdus nematophilus subsp. beddingii (Enterobacteriaceae): a new subspecies of bacteria mutualistically associated with entomopathogenic nematodes. Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol. 36:454-457.
- 6. Ausubel, F. M., R. Brent, R. E. Kingston, D. D. Moore, J. A. Smith, J. G. Seidman, and K. Struhl. 1987. Current protocols in molecular biology, vol. 1, p. 2.4.1. Greene Publishing Associates, Los Angeles.
- 7. Bedding, R. A. 1981. Low cost in vitro mass production of Neoaplectana and Heterorhabditis species (nematoda) for field control of insect pests. Nematologica 27:109-114.
- Bedding, R. A. 1984. Large scale production, storage and transport of the insect parasitic nematodes Neoaplectana spp. and Heterorhabditis spp. Ann. Appl. Biol. 104:117-120.
- Berg, D. E., and C. M. Berg. 1983. The prokaryotic transposable element Tn5. Bio/Technology 1:417-435.
- 10. Boemare, N. E., and R. J. Akhurst. 1988. Biochemical and physiological characterization of colony form variants in Xenorhabdus spp. (Enterobacteriaceae). J. Gen. Microbiol. 134: 751-761.
- 11. Boemare, N., C. Laumond, and J. Luciani. 1982. Mise en evidence d'une toxicogenese provoquee par le Nematode axenique entomophage Neoaplectana carpocapsae Weiser chez 1'insecte axenique Galleria mellonella L. C. R. Acad. Sci. (Paris) Ser. III 295:543-546.
- 12. Boemare, N., C. Louis, and G. Kuhl. 1982. Etude ultrastructurale des cristaux chez Xenorhabdus spp., bacteries infeodees aux nematodes entomophages Steinernematidae et Heterorhabditidae. C. R. Seances Soc. Biol. Fil. 177:107-115.
- 13. Burman, M. 1982. Neoplectana caprecapsae: toxin production by axenic insect parasitic nematodes. Nematologica 28:62-70.
- 14. Daskaleros, P. A., and S. M. Payne. 1985. Cloning the gene for Congo red binding in Shigella flexneri. Infect. Immun. 48:165- 168.
- 15. de Bruijn, F. J., and J. R. Lupski. 1984. The use of transposon Tn5 mutagenesis in the rapid generation of correlated physical and genetic maps of DNA segments cloned into multicopy plasmids-a review. Gene 27:131-149.
- 16. Dutky, S. R., J. V. Thompson, and G. E. Cantwell. 1962. A technique for mass rearing the greater wax moth. Proc. Entomol. Soc. Wash. 64:56-58.
- 17. Ehlers, R.-U., U. Wyss, and E. Stackebrandt. 1988. 16S rRNA cataloguing and the phylogenetic position of the genus Xenorhabdus. Syst. Appl. Microbiol. 10:121-125.
- 18. Finlay, B. B., and S. Falkow. 1989. Common themes in microbial pathogenicity. Microbiol. Rev. 53:210-230.
- 19. Frazier, W. C. 1926. A method for the detection of changes in gelatin due to bacteria. J. Infect. Dis. 39:302-309.
- 20. Gay, P., D. Le Coq, M. Steinmetz, T. Berkelman, and C. I. Kado. 1985. Positive selection procedure for entrapment of insertion sequence elements in gram-negative bacteria. J. Bacteriol. 164:918-921.
- 21. Gotz, P., A. Boman, and H. G. Brown. 1981. Interactions between insect immunity and an insect-pathogenic nematode with symbiotic bacteria. Proc. R. Soc. London B 212:333-350.
- 21a.Hurlbert, R. E. Unpublished data.
- 22. Hurlbert, R. E., J. Xu, and C. L. Small. 1989. Colonial and cellular polymorphism in Xenorhabdus luminescens. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 55:806-812.
- 23. Jorgensen, R. A., S. J. Rothstein, and W. S. Reznikoff. 1979. A restriction cleavage map of Tn5 and location of a region encoding neomycin resistance. Mol. Gen. Genet. 177:65-72.
- 24. Lane, B. C., and R. E. Hurlbert. 1980. Characterization of the cell wall and cell wall proteins of Chromatium vinosum. J. Bacteriol. 141:186-198.
- 25. Maniatis, T., E. F. Fritsch, and J. Sambrook. 1982. Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- 26. Mergeay, M., D. Gigot, J. Beckmann, N. Glansdorff, and A. Pierard. 1974. Physiology and genetics of carbamoylphosphate synthesis in Escherichia coli K12. Mol. Gen. Genet. 133:299-316.
- 27. Payne, S. M., and R. A. Finkelstein. 1977. Detection and differentiation of iron-responsive mutants on Congo red agar. Infect. Immun. 18:94-98.
- 28. Poinar, G. O., Jr. 1975. Description and biology of a new insect parasitic Rhabditoid, Heterorhabditis bacteriophora N. Gen., N. sp. (Rhabditida; Heterorhabditidae N. Fam.) Nematologica 21:463-470.
- 29. Poinar, G. O., Jr., and G. M. Thomas. 1965. A new bacterium, Achromobacter nematophilus sp. nov. (Achromobacteriaceae:

Eubacteriales) associated with a nematode. Int. Bull. Bacteriol. Nomencl. Taxon. 15:249-252.

- 30. Poinar, G. O., Jr., and G. M. Thomas. 1966. Significance of Achromobacter nematophilus Poinar and Thomas (Achromobacteraceae:Eubacteriales) in the development of the nematode, DD-136. (Neoaplectana sp. Steinernematidae). Parasitology 56:385-390.
- 31. Poinar, G. 0., Jr., and G. M. Thomas. 1967. The nature of Achromobacter nematophilus as an insect pathogen. J. Invertebr. Pathol. 9:510-514.
- 32. Reid, J. L., and A. Collmer. 1987. An nptI-sacB-sacR cartridge for constructing directed, unmarked mutations in Gram-negative bacteria by marker exchange-eviction mutagenesis. Gene 57:239-246.
- 33. Schwyn, B., and J. B. Neilands. 1987. Universal chemical assay for the detection and determination of siderophores. Anal. Biochem. 160:47-56.
- 34. Selvaraj, G., and V. N. Iyer. 1983. Suicide plasmid vehicles for insertion mutagenesis in Rhizobium meliloti and related bacteria. J. Bacteriol. 156:1292-1300.
- 35. Simon, R., M. O'Connell, M. Labes, and A. Puhler. 1985. Plasmid vectors for the genetic analysis and manipulation of Rhizobia and other Gram-negative bacteria. Methods Enzymol. 118:640-659.
- 36. Simon, R., U. Priefer, and A. Puhler. 1983. A broad host range mobilization system for in vitro genetic engineering: transposon mutagenesis in gram negative bacteria. Bio/Technology 1:784- 791.
- 37. Simon, R., U. Priefer, and A. Puhler. 1983. Vector plasmids for in-vivo and in-vitro manipulations of Gram negative bacteria, p. 98-106. In A. Puhler (ed.), Molecular genetics of the bacteriaplant interaction. Springer-Verlag KG, Berlin.
- 38. Skotnicki, M. L., G. M. Browne, and P. L. Rogers. 1984. Antibacterial activity of different Zymomonas mobilis strains. Microbios 39:187-192.
- Somerville, J. E., R. G. Shatters, and M. L. Kahn. 1989. Isolation, characterization, and complementation of Rhizobium meliloti 104A14 mutants that lack glutamine synthetase II activity. J. Bacteriol. 171:5079-5086.
- 40. Stoll, N. R. 1957. Conditions favoring the axenic culture of Neoaplectana glaseri, a nematode parasite of certain insect grubs. Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci. 77:126-136.
- 41. Thomas, G. M., and G. 0. Poinar, Jr. 1979. Xenorhabdus gen. nov., a genus of entomophatogenic, nematophilic bacteria of the family Enterobacteriaceae. Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol. 29:352-360.
- 42. Thomas, G. M., and G. 0. Poinar, Jr. 1983. Amended description of the genus Xenorhabdus Thomas and Poinar. Int. J. Syst. Bacteriol. 33:878-879.
- 43. Thomashow, L. S., and D. M. Weller. 1988. Role of a phenazine antibiotic from Pseudomonas fluorescens in biological control of Gaeumannomyces graminis var. tritici. J. Bacteriol. 170: 3499-3508.
- 44. Xu, J., and R. E. Hurlbert. 1990. Toxicity of irradiated media for Xenorhabdus spp. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 56:815-818.
- 44a.Xu, J., and R. E. Hurlbert. Unpublished data.
- 45. Xu, J., S. Lohrke, I. M. Hurlbert, and R. E. Hurlbert. 1989. Transformation of Xenorhabdus nematophilus. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 55:806-812.
- 46. Yanisch-Perron, C., J. Vieira, and J. Messing. 1985. Improved M13 phage cloning vectors and host strains: nucleotide sequences of the M13mpl8 and pUC19 vectors. Gene 33:103-119.