## *Escherichia coli* exhibits negative chemotaxis in gradients of hydrogen peroxide, hypochlorite, and *N*-chlorotaurine: Products of the respiratory burst of phagocytic cells

LUDMIL BENOV AND IRWIN FRIDOVICH\*

Department of Biochemistry, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, NC 27710

Contributed by Irwin Fridovich, January 22, 1996

ABSTRACT Escherichia coli can respond to gradients of specific compounds, moving up gradients of attractants and down gradients of repellents. Stimulated phagocytic leukocytes produce H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, OCl<sup>-</sup>, and N-chlorotaurine in a response termed the respiratory burst. E. coli is actively repelled by these compounds. Catalase in the suspending medium eliminated the effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Repulsion by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> could be demonstrated with 1  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, which is far below the level that caused overt toxicity. Strains with defects in the biosynthesis of glutathione or lacking hydroperoxidases I and II retained this response to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and 2.0 mM CN<sup>-</sup> did not interfere with it. Mutants with defects in any one of the four known methyl-accepting chemotaxis proteins also retained the ability to respond to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, but a "gutted" mutant that was deleted for all four methyl-accepting chemotaxis proteins, as well as for CheA, CheW, CheR, CheB, CheY, and CheZ, did not respond to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Hypochlorite and N-chlorotaurine were also strongly repellent. Chemotaxis down gradients of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, OCl<sup>-</sup>, and N-chlorotaurine may contribute to the survival of commensal or pathogenic microorganisms.

*Escherichia coli* is capable of chemotaxis, moving up gradients of attractants and down gradients of repellents (1-4). It must be assumed that these complex responses (5-7) have evolved because they have survival value. Thus they allow the cells to seek out nutrients, as well as optimal conditions of pH, osmolarity, and oxygen concentration, and to avoid noxious substances and crowding.

Microorganisms that often live within animals are subject to phagocytic killing by host leukocytes and would be well served by being able to sense and move down gradients of compounds produced by activated phagocytes. The primary product of the respiratory burst, which occurs upon excitation of such phagocytes, is  $O_2^-$  (8, 9). The  $O_2^-$  would be converted to  $H_2O_2$  by the dismutation reactions, both spontaneous (10) and enzymecatalyzed (11). Myeloperoxidase would then use the  $H_2O_2$  to oxidize Cl<sup>-</sup> to OCl<sup>-</sup> (12), and OCl<sup>-</sup>, in turn, would rapidly convert taurine, another product of the phagocytic cells, to *N*-chlorotaurine (13, 14).

It thus seemed reasonable to expect *E. coli* to be repelled by gradients of  $H_2O_2$ ,  $OCl^-$ , and *N*-chlorotaurine. There are, moreover, data that can be interpreted in terms of a repellent effect of  $H_2O_2$ . Thus high-intensity light, in the range of 350-450 nm, was reported to cause a tumbling response in *E. coli* (15). This could well have been due to production of  $H_2O_2$  by a photochemical process similar to that involved in activity staining for superoxide dismutase on gels (16). More recently, a strain of *E. coli*, which accumulates protoporphyrin IX, was reported to exhibit a tumbling response to blue light (17). In this case, protoporphyrin IX probably photosensitized the

production of  $H_2O_2$ . Chemotaxis away from  $H_2O_2$  has been reported in the protozoan *Trichomonas vaginalis* (18).

We now report that *E. coli* is repelled by  $H_2O_2$ ,  $OCl^-$ , and *N*-chlorotaurine.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Chemicals.** EDTA, NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> were obtained from Mallinckrodt. NaOCl was purchased from the Aldrich, and catalase was a product of Boehringer Mannheim. Riboflavin was obtained from Eastman Chemical Products (Kingsport, TN), and N, N, N', N'-tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED) was obtained from Bio-Rad. The fluorescent dye Hoechst 33258 (2'-[4-hydroxyphenyl]-5-[4-methyl-1-piperazinyl]-2,5'-bi-1H-benzimidazole)-3HCl was from Sigma.

NaOCl concentration was determined using  $\varepsilon_{292} = 350$ M<sup>-1</sup>·cm<sup>-1</sup> (19). H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration was determined using  $\varepsilon_{240} = 43.5$  M<sup>-1</sup>·cm<sup>-1</sup> (20).

**Strains.** All strains are derivatives of *E. coli* K-12. If not otherwise indicated, all experiments were performed with the wild-type chemotaxis strain AW405 (see Table 1).

**Procedures.** Bacteria were grown in LB medium and washed and resuspended in taxis buffer  $[10^{-2} \text{ M potassium phosphate}$ buffer (pH 7.0) containing  $10^{-4} \text{ M EDTA}]$  as described by Adler (29). For the chemical-in-plug method (4), plugs were prepared by adding a small volume of the concentrated chemical to 2% liquid agar in taxis buffer cooled to just above the point of solidification.

For photochemical generation of  $H_2O_2$ , plugs were prepared by mixing 1 ml of riboflavin solution (1.0 mg/ml) with 9 ml of liquid agar containing 2% agar in taxis buffer with or without 100  $\mu$ l of TEMED (final concentration in plug = 68 mM) or 70 or 100  $\mu$ l of 2-mercaptoethanol (final concentration in plug = 100 or 142 mM). Plugs containing only TEMED, 2-mercaptoethanol, or riboflavin were prepared as controls. Plates were illuminated with 40-W fluorescence sources above and below the plate.

For all chemical-in-plug experiments, the 2% agar, containing the respective chemical, was allowed to solidify for 2 hr and was used the same day.

All chemical-in-pond experiments were performed as described by Tso and Adler (4). When cell number was calculated on the basis of the DNA assay (30), three capillaries were pooled in 1 ml of phosphate-saline (0.05 M sodium phosphate/2.0 M NaCl) buffer, pH 7.4, containing 0.1  $\mu$ g of Hoechst 33258 per ml. In this case, cell suspensions of higher density were used (OD<sub>590</sub> = 0.6-0.8 nm). The cells were sonicated for 30 sec, and fluorescence was measured. A standard curve was prepared by measuring the fluorescence of known cell numbers. However, the data are presented in terms of fluorescence units.

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "*advertisement*" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Abbreviations: TEMED, N, N, N', N'-tetramethylethylenediamine; MCP, methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein. \*To whom reprint requests should be addressed.

Table	1	. Strains	used	in	this study	Ζ.
I GOIO		· otrains	abea	***	tino biuu,	

Mutant	Strain	Ref.
Receptor mutants		
tsr (MCP I <sup>-</sup> )	AW518	21
tar (MCP II <sup>-</sup> )	AW539	21
trg (MCP III <sup>-</sup> )	AW701	22
tap (MCP IV <sup>-</sup> )	RP3525	23
Wild type	AW405	21
Gutted	HCB437	24
Other mutants		
cat <sup>-</sup>	UM1	25, 26
Parental	GSH7	25, 26
gsh <sup>-</sup>	JTG10	27
Parental	AB1157	28

MCP, methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein.

## RESULTS

Hydrogen Peroxide. When the chemical-in-plug method (4) was used with rapidly motile mid-logarithmic phase cells  $(OD_{590} = 0.6 - 0.8)$ , clear zones formed in response to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the plug, and these zones increased in width as the concentration of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was raised from 1 mM to 32 mM (data not shown). It was noted that the diameter of the clear zones was inversely related to the density of the cell suspension used, probably because of consumption of the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> by the hydroperoxidases in the cells. When this experiment was repeated with less motile late-logarithmic phase cells, concentric rings developed around the plugs containing high concentrations of  $H_2O_2$ , as shown by plugs E and F in Fig. 1. This probably reflects inhibition of motility by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Thus cells adjacent to the plug were so affected, whereas cells at some distance were at first repelled and then, in turn, inhibited by the expanding gradient of  $H_2O_2$ . The rapidly motile mid-logarithmic phase cells could stay ahead of the expanding gradient of  $H_2O_2$ , whereas the less motile late-logarithmic phase cells could not. When catalase was added to the cell suspension surrounding the plug, to a concentration of 160-320 units/ml, it eliminated the response to  $H_2O_2$ .

A strain of *E. coli* defective in both hydroperoxidases I and II (UM1; refs. 25 and 26) retained the ability to flee  $H_2O_2$ , and a strain unable to synthesize GSH (JTG10) did likewise (27). It should be noted that UM1 and JTG-10, as well as their parental strains glutathione 7 and AB1157, were of lower motility than was AW405. *E. coli* (AW405) cells that had been grown anaerobically in LB medium and then transferred to aerobic chemotaxis buffer with 0.2% glucose were unaffected by cyanide (31, 32). Chemotaxis away from  $H_2O_2$  in such *E. coli* 



FIG. 1. Effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-in-plug on late-logarithmic *E. coli. E. coli* AW405 was grown in LB medium to  $OD_{590} = 1.66$  and washed and suspended in 20 ml of 0.3% agar in taxis buffer. The plugs were placed, and 1 hr later the 9-cm diameter plates were photographed. The plugs contained the following concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>: A, 0.0 mM; B, 1.0 mM; C, 4.0 mM; D, 8.0 mM; E, 16 mM; and F, 32 mM in taxis buffer.



FIG. 2. Photochemical source of  $H_2O_2$ -in-plug repels *E. coli. E. coli* AW405, which was grown to  $OD_{590} = 0.65$ , washed, and suspended in 0.5 ml of taxis buffer, was mixed with 10 ml of 0.3% agar in taxis buffer and poured into the 5.4-cm Petri dishes. Plugs were then placed, and the plates were illuminated for 30 min. The plugs contained the following compounds: A, 0.1 mg of riboflavin per ml; B, 100 mM 2-mercaptoethanol; and C, 0.1 mg of riboflavin per ml with 100 mM 2-mercaptoethanol.

was not inhibited by 2 mM CN<sup>-</sup>. It follows that CN<sup>-</sup>-sensitive proteins were not involved in the response to  $H_2O_2$ . *E. coli* cells that had been grown aerobically were prevented from responding by 2 mM CN<sup>-</sup>, presumably because they contained the CN<sup>-</sup>-sensitive cytochrome o in place of the CN<sup>-</sup>-resistant cytochrome d (32) and so could not maintain an energized state in the presence of CN<sup>-</sup>.

 $O_2^-$  can be generated photochemically, and such a photochemical source is used for activity-staining superoxide dismutase (16). Because of the spontaneous dismutation reaction, such a photochemical source of  $O_2^-$  is also a source of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Riboflavin was used as the photosensitizer, and TEMED or 2-mercaptoethanol was used as the electron donor. 2-Mercaptoethanol per se was weakly repellent. Thus an area of lower density developed around plugs containing only 2-mercaptoethanol, but it was so lacking in clarity that its diameter could not be measured with certainty. TEMED also acted as a weak repellent, causing a small zone of clearing around TEMED-laced plugs. In contrast, when plugs contained riboflavin with TEMED or with 2-mercaptoethanol, there was an illumination-dependent appearance of a ring of clearing (Fig. 2) similar to those produced by  $H_2O_2$ , and this did not develop when catalase was present. The results shown in Fig. 2 were obtained with mid-logarithmic phase cells. When late-logarithmic phase cells were used, with the photochemical source of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, concentric rings of turbidity and clearing developed, similar to those shown in Fig. 1, and catalase inhibited this response. These results are shown in Table 2. The

Table 2. Negative chemotaxis against photochemically generated  $H_2O_2$ 

Plug content	Additional components in the soft agar	Response diameter, mm	Distance migrated, mm
2-Mercaptoethanol	None	0*	0
2-Mercaptoethanol + riboflavin	None	12 (clear zone); 16 (turbid ring); 18 (clear ring)	5
2-Mercaptoethanol + riboflavin	catalase	0 mm	0

The strain AW405 was grown to  $OD_{590} = 1.5$ . Chemical-in-plug method was used. Plates were illuminated for 45 min. Chemicals were present in the plug in the following concentrations: 2-mercaptoethanol, 142 mM; riboflavin, 0.1 mg/ml; and catalase, 1625 units in the medium. Plug diameter was 8 mm.

\*A slightly visible narrow zone with lower turbidity, possibly due to osmotaxis (33), could sometimes be seen.



FIG. 3. Negative chemotaxis to  $H_2O_2$  and  $OCl^-$ . The chemical-inpond method was used, and the cells (*E. coli* AW405) in the capillary were plated for enumeration after 30 min of exposure to the indicated concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  (line 1) or of  $OCl^-$  (line 2). In control experiments,  $H_2O_2$  (line 3) or  $OCl^-$  (line 4) was placed both in the pond and in the capillary. The error bars denote the standard error of the mean (n = 5).

prominent clear zone around plug C in Fig. 2 was due to migration of the cells, rather than to lysis. Thus *E. coli* loses motility when grown in LB medium containing 0.4% glucose (34) or when grown to stationary phase (29). AW405 grown under either of these conditions gave neither clear zones as in Fig. 2 nor rings as in Fig. 1 in response to gradients of  $H_2O_2$  produced as described for Figs. 1 and 2.

To obtain a quantitative measure of the repulsive effect of  $H_2O_2$ , the chemical-in-pond method (4) was used. The results shown in Fig. 3 indicate a strong repulsive effect of  $H_2O_2$ , which plateaued in the range of  $1-10 \mu M$  and showed a decline at higher concentrations, probably due to inhibition of motility or to lethality at the high concentration of  $H_2O_2$ . Controls were done in which the same concentration of  $H_2O_2$  was placed in both the pond and in the capillary, in which case there was no evidence of negative chemotaxis.

Mutants defective in MCP I, MCP II, MCP III, or MCP IV retained the ability to respond to  $H_2O_2$ , as shown in Fig. 4. A "gutted" mutant (24) that lacked MCP I–IV, as well as CheA, CheW, CheR, CheB, CheY, and CheZ, did not respond to gradients of  $H_2O_2$ .

**Hypochlorite and** *N*-Chlorotaurine. Hypochlorite is produced by activated neutrophils as a consequence of the action of myeloperoxidase on  $H_2O_2$  with chloride (12). Taurine is



FIG. 4. MCP mutants retain the response to  $H_2O_2$ . Conditions were as described in the legend of Fig. 3, but the following *E. coli* mutants were used: line 1, parental strain (AW405); line 2, MCP I<sup>-</sup> (AW518); line 3, MCP II<sup>-</sup> (AW539); line 4, MCP III<sup>-</sup> (AW701); and line 5, MCP IV<sup>-</sup> (RP3525).



FIG. 5. Formation of N-chlorotaurine. Chemotaxis buffer was used as the solvent for the following compounds: line 1, 0.5 mM NaOCl; line 3, 0.5 mM taurine; and line 2, 0.5 mM NaOCl and 0.5 mM taurine; spectrum recorded 30 sec after admixture.

also released from these cells (13, 14). Fig. 5 shows that, under our conditions, hypochlorite reacts rapidly with taurine. The product of that reaction is N-chlorotaurine. The chemical-in-plug method demonstrated that  $OCl^-$  was a repellent but that taurine was not. A mixture of  $OCl^-$  with taurine was a more effective repellent than was  $OCl^-$ , indicating that N-chlorotaurine is a very effective repellent of *E. coli*.

The chemical-in-pond method was used to get a quantitative measure of the repellence of  $OCl^-$  and of *N*-chlorotaurine. With the chemical-in-pond method, we measured the cells driven into the capillary both by plating and enumeration of colonies and by fluorimetric assay of DNA. The results in Fig. 3 show that there was a repellent effect of  $OCl^-$  but it peaked



FIG. 6. Negative chemotaxis to *N*-chlorotaurine. The chemical-inpond method was used. *N*-chlorotaurine in chemotaxis buffer was prepared 1 hr before use by admixture of 0.4 M NaOCl and 0.5 M taurine, both in taxis buffer. This stock was diluted to the desired concentration with taxis buffer. The data in *A* were obtained by plating and enumeration of the cells in the capillary, whereas the data in *B* represents DNA measured fluorimetrically. Lines 1 and 3, *N*-chlorotaurine-in-pond; line 2, *N*-chlorotaurine, in both pond and capillary. The error bars denote the standard error of the mean (n = 4).

at  $\approx 1.0 \ \mu$ M and declined at higher concentration, probably due to inhibition of motility or to lethality. A more pronounced response to OCl<sup>-</sup> was seen at lower cell density in the pond. Presumably this was due to consumption of OCl<sup>-</sup> by the cells. Fig. 6 shows that *N*-chlorotaurine was a repellent whose effectiveness peaked at 10  $\mu$ M and declined at higher concentrations. The cells that made it into the capillary remained viable as shown by the congruence of the results obtained by enumeration with those obtained by fluorimetric assay of DNA.

## DISCUSSION

Neutrophils can actively seek out bacteria by moving up gradients of N-formylated peptides (35), which leak from the cells. It is now clear that the bacteria can, at the same time, flee by moving down gradients of the products of the neutrophil respiratory burst-i.e.,  $H_2O_2$ ,  $OCl^-$ , and N-chlorotaurine. Thus we have, on a microscopic scale, the familiar predator-prey relationship, with the predator pursuing and the prey fleeing. It appears possible that compounds that interfere with the signal transduction pathway mediating the negative chemotaxis we have described would constitute a new class of antibiotics.

Mutants in MCP I, MCP II, MCP III, and MCP IV retained the ability to move down gradients of  $H_2O_2$ . However, gutted mutants lacking all four MCPs (MCP I–IV), as well as CheA, CheW, CheR, CheB, CheY, and CheZ, failed to respond. This indicates that the known mechanism of chemotaxis in *E. coli* is involved in the response to  $H_2O_2$ . Evidently the mechanism involved in mediating this response to  $H_2O_2$ , OCl<sup>-</sup>, and *N*-chlorotaurine needs to be explored.

We are grateful to Julius Adler for helpful discussions and for providing mutants defective in the MCPs. This work was supported by a grant from the Council for Tobacco Research. L.B. is the recipient of a Fogarty International Fellowship from the National Institutes of Health.

- 1. Adler, J. (1969) Science 166, 1588-1597.
- 2. Chet, I. & Mitchell, R. (1976) Can. J. Microbiol. 22, 1206-1208.
- 3. Ordal, G. W. & Goldman, D. J. (1975) Science 189, 803-805.
- 4. Tso, W.-W. & Adler, J. (1974) J. Bacteriol. 118, 560-576.
- 5. Berg, H. C. (1992) in Sensory Transduction, eds. Corey, D. P. & Roper, S. D. (Rockefeller Univ. Press), pp. 219–223.

- 6. Macnab, R. M. (1978) Crit. Rev. Biochem. 5, 291-341.
- Stock, J. B., Lukat, G. S. & Stock, A. M. (1991) Annu. Rev. Biophys. Biophys. Chem. 20, 109–136.
- 8. Babior, B. M. (1978) New Engl. J. Med. 298, 659-668.
- Babior, B. M., Kipnes, R. S. & Curnutte, J. T. (1973) J. Clin. Invest. 52, 741-744.
- 10. Czapski, G. (1971) Annu. Rev. Phys. Chem. 22, 171-208.
- 11. McCord, J. M. & Fridovich, I. (1969) J. Biol. Chem. 244, 6049-6055.
- 12. Kettle, A. J. & Winterbourn, C. C. (1989) Biochem. J. 263, 823-828.
- Weiss, S. J., Klein, R., Slivka, A. & Wei, M. (1982) J. Clin. Invest. 70, 598-607.
- 14. Weiss, S. J., Lampert, M. B. & Test, S. T. (1983) Science 222, 25-28.
- 15. Macnab, R. & Koshland, D. E., Jr. (1974) J. Mol. Biol. 84, 399-406.
- 16. Beauchamp, C. & Fridovich, I. (1971) Anal. Biochem. 44, 276-287.
- 17. Yang, H., Inokuchi, H. & Adler. J. (1995) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 92, 7332-7336.
- Styrt, B., Sugarman, B., Mummaw, N. & White, J. C. (1991) J. Infect. Dis. 163, 176–179.
- 19. Morris, J. C. (1966) J. Phys. Chem. 70, 3798-3805.
- 20. Hilderbrandt, A. G. & Roots, I. (1975) Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 171, 385-397.
- Springer, M. S., Goy, M. F. & Adler, J. (1977) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 74, 3312–3316.
- Kondoh, H., Ball, C. B. & Adler, J. (1979) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 76, 260–264.
- 23. Slocum, M. K. & Parkinson, J. S. (1985) J. Bacteriol. 163, 586-594.
- Wolfe, A. J., Conley, M. P., Kramer, T. J. & Berg, H. C. (1987) J. Bacteriol. 169, 1878–1885.
- 25. Loewen, P. C. (1984) J. Bacteriol. 157, 622-626.
- Loewen, P. C. Triggs, B. L., George, C S. & Hrabarchuk, B. E. (1985) J. Bacteriol. 162, 661–667.
- Greenberg, J. T. & Demple, B. (1986) J. Bacteriol. 168, 1026– 1029.
- 28. Imlay, J. A. & Linn, S. (1987) J. Bacteriol. 169, 2967-2976.
- 29. Adler, J. (1973) J. Gen. Microbiol. 74, 77-91.
- 30. Labarca, C. & Paigen, K. (1980) Anal. Biochem. 102, 344-352.
- 31. Brokahn, R. H. & Mirsky, I. A. (1938) J. Bacteriol. 35, 455-475.
- 32. Sweet, W. J. & Peterson, J. A. (1978) J. Bacteriol. 133, 217-224.
- Li, C., Boileau, A. J., Kung, C. & Adler, J. (1988) Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 85, 9451–9455.
- 34. Adler, J. & Templeton, B. (1967) J. Gen. Microbiol. 46, 175-184.
- 35. Schiffmann, E., Corcoran, B. A. & Wahl, S. M. (1975) Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 72, 1059–1062.