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Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC), which accounts for 85% of urinary tract infections (UTI), assembles biofilms in diverse environments, including the host. Besides forming biofilms on biotic surfaces and catheters, UPEC has evolved an intracellular pathogenic cascade that culminates in the formation of biofilm-like intracellular bacterial communities (IBCs) within bladder epithelial cells. Rapid bacterial replication during IBC formation augments a build-up in bacterial numbers and persistence within the host. Relatively little is known about factors mediating UPEC biofilm formation and how these overlap with IBC formation. To address this gap, we screened a UPEC transposon mutant library in three *in vitro* biofilm conditions: Luria broth (LB)-polyvinyl chloride (PVC), YESCA (yeast extract-Casamino Acids)-PVC, and YESCA-pellicle that are dependent on type 1 pili (LB) and curli (YESCA), respectively. Flagella are important in all three conditions. Mutants were identified that had biofilm defects in all three conditions but had no significant effects on the expression of type 1 pili, curli, or flagella. Thus, this approach uncovered a comprehensive inventory of novel effectors and regulators that are involved in UPEC biofilm formation under multiple conditions. A subset of these mutants was found to be dramatically attenuated and unable to form IBCs in a murine model of UTI. Collectively, this study expands our insights into UPEC multicellular behavior that may provide insights into IBC formation and virulence.

The orchestrated sequence of events that leads to biofilm formation encompasses reversible and irreversible stages that require conserved and species-specific factors regulated by hierarchically organized genetic networks (44, 51, 53). These regulatory systems respond to environmental cues to fine-tune the ordered transition from planktonic growth to biofilm by directing gene expression changes (41, 55, 56) and establishing developmental checkpoints, which once passed, commit cells to a specific fate (44). Biofilm-forming bacteria change their spatial and temporal organization (44) and alter the expression of surface molecules (41, 66), nutrient utilization and virulence factors (66), and resistance mechanisms to environmental stresses. In addition, the presence of environmental gradients within the biomass leads to community “division of labor” with subpopulations of bacteria exhibiting differential gene expression in response to local nutrient and oxygen availability (19, 42). Combined, these attributes confer a unique advantage to bacterial pathogens in biofilms and makes their eradication particularly difficult, resulting oftentimes in the establishment of chronic infections.

In the urinary tract, biofilm formation can lead to several serious infections, not only in catheterized patients but also in nonhospitalized individuals (21, 68). Eighty-five percent of community-acquired urinary tract infections (UTI) and 50% of device-associated UTI are caused by uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC) (24), which employ a complex pathogenic cascade in the urinary tract, occupying extracellular and intracellular niches during the course of infection (60). UTI studies in mouse models have identified numerous virulence factors, including adhesins, toxins, iron acquisition systems, capsular structures, flagella, pathogenicity islands, and factors important for biofilm formation (3, 26, 28, 69–71). UPEC strains have genes that encode a multitude of chaperone/usher pathway (CUP) pili (14, 16, 35, 45, 64). The biogenesis, structure, and function of CUP pili have been extensively characterized (67). They typically contain adhesins at their tips that recognize specific receptors with stereochemical specificity (18, 30). For example, FimH, the type 1 pilus adhesin, binds mannosylated uroplakins, as well as N-linked oligosaccharides on β1 and α3 integrins that are expressed on the luminal surface of the bladder epithelium (urothelium) in mice and humans (20, 72, 73). Binding to the luminal surface of human bladder tissue *in situ* has been shown to be dependent on type 1 pili. Further, this binding can lead to bacterial internalization (12, 20, 30, 43, 62, 63, 73). Invading UPEC can be expelled from the host cell (10, 61), or they can “escape” into the cell cytoplasm. Within this intracellular niche, UPEC bacteria undergo a developmental process that culminates in the formation of biofilm-like intracellular bacterial communities (IBCs), comprising 10^6 to 10^7 tightly packed bacteria, which appear to be enclosed in an extracellular matrix (5, 31, 33). Polysaccharides, such as the sialic acid capsule, are also present throughout the IBC and function, in part, to protect the bacteria from neutrophil attack (3). Similar to extracellular biofilms, IBCs are heterogeneous and composed of subpopulations with different gene expression patterns (4). As IBCs enlarge, the eukaryotic cell volume becomes limiting, at which point UPEC cells...
alter their morphology, elongating and fluxing out of the host cell. These filamentous UPEC bacteria are capable of dispersing and reinitiating IBC formation in neighboring cells (31, 39).

One primary host defense that eliminates IBCs is exfoliation, where urothelial cells undergo an apoptosis-like cell death, detach from the underlying transitional epithelium, and are eliminated in the urine (46, 47, 50). Exfoliated bladder epithelial cells containing IBCs have been observed in urine collected from women with recurrent UTI, but not in healthy controls or in cases of UTI caused by Gram-positive pathogens (22, 57), demonstrating that observations from experimental murine infection models reflect human disease outcomes. However, exfoliation exposes underlying cell layers of the urothelium. Subsequent UPEC invasion of these underlying cells in mice results in the formation of additional intracellular structures termed quiescent intracellular reservoirs (QIRs) (47, 50). Mouse models have been used to demonstrate that bacteria in QIRs can contribute to recurrent infection after antibiotic treatment has rendered the urine sterile (46–48). Bacteria in the QIR are dormant, and studies have demonstrated that 17 different antibiotics capable of killing the virulent cystitis isolate UTI89 in vitro or in tissue culture, were unable to eliminate UTI89 from murine bladder tissue during bladder infection (11). These findings indicate that IBC and QIR formation constitute mechanisms that enable rapid bacterial expansion within a protected intracellular niche, shielded from host-mediated defenses and therapeutic interventions, such as antibiotic treatment. Thus, identifying factors that influence IBC formation either by impacting type 1 pili expression or by an independent mechanism will advance our understanding of the regulatory systems that modulate UTI pathogenesis and will elucidate new targets for antivirulence therapy.

Few factors mediating IBC development have been identified thus far; studies have shown that type 1 pili are a critical IBC determinant, as interruption of fim expression after UPEC adherence and invasion of the bladder epithelium results in defects in IBC formation and loss of virulence (70). In addition to type 1 pili, sialic acid capsule has been implicated in IBC formation and UPEC virulence (3). Recent studies have identified the QseC sensor kinase as another IBC effector, as qseC deletion indirectly impacts expression of type 1 pili and interferes with biofilm formation (25, 37). Besides type 1 pili, deletion of qseC also impacts curli and flagella, two other critical UPEC biofilm determinants (37). Flagella have been extensively implicated in biofilm formation by E. coli (55), and several studies have shown that disruption of motility also influences in vivo UPEC virulence (39, 59, 71). Curli have also been shown to be important for E. coli biofilm formation in specific environmental niches, and studies have linked curli amyloid biogenesis to virulence (7, 15). Although the majority of E. coli andSalmonellastrains produce curli optimally at 30°C or lower, many clinical UPEC and E. coli sepsis isolates express curli at 37°C (9, 32). Furthermore, Cegelski and Pinkner et al. demonstrated that low-molecular-weight inhibitors that disrupt curli biogenesis are efficacious in reducing bacterial colonization and IBC formation in a murine model of UTI (15), further linking curli formation to UPEC pathogenesis.

The identification of additional factors that are involved in IBC formation using large-scale in vivo screens has been difficult, partly due to population bottlenecks that arise during in vivo infection, which result in clonal IBC expansion (60). Given the biofilm-like properties of IBCs, we hypothesized that identification of biofilm effectors relevant in several in vitro conditions may provide insights into factors that contribute to fitness within the urinary tract, which would thus surmount the need for large-scale in vivo screening. Thus, we created a transposon mutant library in the virulent cystitis isolate UTI89, which we screened in three biofilm conditions: Luria broth (LB)-polyvinyl chloride (PVC), YESCA (yeast extract-Casamino Acids)-PVC, and YESCA-pellicle. These conditions were chosen, because they all depend on factors that are implicated in UTI virulence. LB-PVC biofilms are type 1 pili dependent, and YESCA-PVC and YESCA-pellicle biofilms are curli dependent. Flagella are important for biofilm formation in all 3 conditions. A total of 170 transposon (Tn) mutants with reproducible niche-specific or broad biofilm differences compared to wild-type (wt) UTI89 were identified. Of these, only the 40 mutants that had altered biofilm phenotypes (increased or reduced) under all conditions tested were considered for further study. They were all analyzed for type 1 pili, curli, and flagellum expression in order to discern whether a given mutation identified potentially new requisites for UPEC biofilm formation. A panel of selected transposon mutants with disruptions in previously uncharacterized genes was found to be significantly attenuated in their ability to cause infection and form IBCs, indicating that at least some of these factors are also corequisites for IBC formation. Further characterization of these effectors will provide valuable insights into the mechanisms that underlie multicellular behavior and virulence in UPEC and will elucidate new targets for the development of antibiofilm agents.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and electrocompetent cells. UTI89 is a human cystitis isolate that is highly virulent in a mouse model of UTI (47). UTI89 was made electrocompetent after overnight growth in Luria broth (LB) medium lacking salt (no-salt LB) at 37°C with shaking. One milliliter of the overnight culture was used to inoculate 500 ml of prewarmed (37°C) no-salt LB and incubated aerobically at 37°C, with shaking until it reached an A600 of 0.6 to 0.75, at which point the culture was chilled on ice for 15 min. Bacterial cells were pelleted at 8,000 rpm for 10 min, washed 2 times, first in 75 ml of ice-cold 10% glycerol and then in 50 ml of ice-cold 10% glycerol, and resuspended in 1 ml of ice-cold 10% glycerol. The resulting electrocompetent cells had a transformation efficiency of 107 to 109 CFU/µg of DNA. Nonpolar gene deletions were performed using the λ Red recombinase method (49).

Transposon mutagenesis. Transposon mutagenesis was performed by electrotransporating 260 ng of the EZ-Tn5 <R6K<ori/KAN-2>-Tp transposone kit (Epicentre) in 100 µl of UTI89 electrocompetent cells according to the manufacturer’s instructions (Epicentre), followed by a 60-min recovery in SOC medium (0.5% yeast extract, 2% tryptone, 10 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl2, 10 mM MgSO4, and 20 mM glucose) at 37°C. The entire transposition reaction was then diluted 1:10,000 and plated in 100-µl aliquots on LB-kanamycin plates to select for clones that contained a successful transposition event.

Transposition mapping. Transposon mutations were mapped using multiple-round PCR (6) and primer Inv-1 (ATGGCTCATAAACCCCTTGTATT) or Inv-2 (GAACATTTTGCTGAGTGAGTAC). The resulting amplicons were purified (Qiagen) and sequenced using the KAN-2 FP-1 forward and KAN-2 RP-1 reverse primers (Epicentre).

Biofilm assays. Transposon mutants were grown logarithmically in 3 ml LB and normalized to an optical density at 600 nm (OD600) of 1. The cultures were then diluted 200-fold in fresh LB or yeast extract-Casamino Acids (YESCA) medium and used to seed biofilm plates. Biofilm assays in LB and YESCA media at room temperature were performed in 96-well PVC plates as previously described (34) and quantitatively measured 48 h postseeding, using crystal violet (52). Biofilm production for each mutant
was normalized to the wt UTI89 OD₆₆₀ reading, which was set at 100% for every run. Statistical analyses of three independent experiments were performed on all assays, using paired Student’s t test (P < 0.05, considered significant). Pellicle formation assays in YESCA medium were performed in 48-well polystyrene plates at 30°C and qualitatively assessed at 48 h postseeding.

Motility assays. Motility assays were performed as previously described (71). Briefly, bacteria were incubated statically in LB for 18 h. Swimming was assessed in 0.25% LB agar–0.001% 2,3,5-triphenyltetrazolium chloride. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 7 h. Motility was evaluated by measuring the motility diameters. Experiment was repeated 5 times with triplicate plates for each strain.

HA assays. Bacteria were grown statically for 18 h and normalized to an OD₆₆₀ of 1 in 1X phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Hemaggulination (HA) assays were set up as described previously (29), using guinea pig red blood cells (RBCs) normalized to an OD₆₆₀ of 2. For assessment of S-pilus-mediated adhesion, normalized RBCs were desialylated prior to the HA analysis as follows: normalized RBCs (OD₆₆₀ of 2.0) were centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 7 min, resuspended in 1 ml of 1X PBS, and incubated with slow rocking at 37°C for 2 h in the presence of 10 μl neuraminidase (50 mU; EY Labs)–100 mM sodium acetate (pH 5.5) or 10 μl of 100 mM sodium acetate (pH 5.5) (untreated control). At the end of the incubation period, the RBCs were centrifuged as described above to remove the enzyme and buffer, and the treated and untreated control RBCs were resuspended to an OD₆₆₀ of 2.0 in 1X PBS.

Immunoblot analyses. For type 1 pili, cells were grown statically in LB for 18 h at 37°C and normalized to an OD₆₆₀ of 1. Prior to processing for SDS-PAGE, samples were treated with 1 M HCl to dissociate pilin subunits, boiled for 5 min, and neutralized with 1 M NaOH prior to electrophoresis. Membranes were probed with antisera raised against type 1 pilin (54) at a 1:3,000 dilution.

Mouse infections. Female C3H/HeN mice (Harlan) that were 7 to 9 weeks old were transurethrally infected with 10⁷ CFU of isolate UTI89, using the EZ-Tn5 <R6Kg/oriTn5-KAN-2>Tn4 “transposon” (23). Of the 44,386 transposon mutants obtained using this method, we were able to manually screen 6,144 (1X coverage) for defects in three different biofilm conditions that are dependent on three factors that are implicated in UPEC virulence to different degrees: surface-associated biofilm on the walls of polynyl chloride (PVC) plates during static growth in room temperature LB (type 1 pili dependent) or YESCA broth (curli dependent) and floating pellicle biofilm formation during static growth in YESCA broth at 30°C (curli dependent) (Fig. 1A). In addition to type 1 pili and curli being critical determinants in the LB and YESCA biofilm assays, respectively, flagellum formation is also known to be important in all three biofilm conditions. Biofilm formation on the walls of PVC plates was measured at 48 h postinoculation using the crystal violet colorimetric method of O’Toole et al. (52) and normalized to values obtained for wild-type (wt) UTI89. The formation of floating pellicle biofilms on the liquid-air interface of YESCA broth at 30°C was scored visually, given a score of 0 to 4, with 4 being wt and 0 being “no pellicle” (see also Table S2 in the supplemental material).

Our initial screen identified a total of 234 biofilm mutants with altered biofilm properties in one or more of the conditions tested. Of the 234 mutants, 55 gave false-positive results and were discarded and 9 could not be maintained in culture, leaving a total of 170 transposon (Tn) mutants with consistently reproducible niche-specific or broad biofilm differences compared to the wt
UTI89 isolate (Fig. 1B; see Table S1 in the supplemental material). Of these, a total of 63 mutants exhibited altered biofilm characteristics in all three conditions tested. These mutants with broad biofilm alterations were selected for further analysis after validating that the biofilm defects observed for each mutant were not attributed to significant growth defects (data not shown). Using nested PCR and a combination of transposon-specific primers, we were able to map 54 of the 63 transposition events, identifying 40 chromosomal loci with nonpolar or polar gene disruptions (Table S2). Functional analysis classified the 40 biofilm-related genes in 6 general categories, encompassing motility/attachment, LPS synthesis/modification, metabolism and cell maintenance, as well as regulatory or hypothetical functions (Fig. 2). Mutants with the most significant quantifiable differences in biomass belonged to the metabolism and hypothetical function group (Fig. 2C and F), while mutants with more dramatic architectural differences belonged to the motility/attachment and lipopolysaccharide (LPS) synthesis modification groups (Fig. 2A and B; see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). To validate our observations, we selected a panel of transposon mutations from the LPS synthesis/modification, metabolism and hypothetical function groups, which disrupted novel biofilm effectors (Tn::C3813-purH, Tn::cvpA, Tn::plsX, Tn::carB, Tn::visC, and Tn::rfe) and created clean, nonpolar deletions in isolate UTI89, which we tested for their biofilm properties in LB-PVC and YESCA-PVC. Indeed, all mutants exhibited similar phenotypes, as those exhibited by the corresponding Tn mutants (Fig. S2). These analyses also demonstrated that in the case of Tn::C3813-purH, the biofilm defect was attributed to purH disruption, as deletion of UTI89_C3813 imparted no biofilm defects, while the UTI89/purH strain exhibited a biofilm phenotype identical to that of the bacteria with Tn::C3813-purH (Fig. S2). In future studies, we will be generating clean gene deletions for each factor identified in our screen to determine polar effects and further characterize the contribution of each factor to UPEC biofilm formation.

**Assessment of type 1 pilus, curli, and flagellum production in mutants with generalized biofilm defects.** Type 1 pili, curli, and...
flagella are key niche-specific determinants of the three biofilm conditions we used for our transposon library screening (Fig. 1A). Although mutations in the fim operon encoding type 1 pilus abolish LB-PVC biofilms, they were not found to significantly affect YESCA-PVC biofilms. Accordingly, of the 170 transposon mutants with consistently reproducible niche-specific or broad biofilm differences compared to wt UTI89, 12 were in the fim operon and disrupted type 1 pilus, impacting biofilm formation in LB-PVC and pellicle (2/3 conditions tested [see Table S1 in the supplemental material]). Mutant strains with mutations in fim while defective in LB biofilms still produce YESCA biofilms. Similarly, we identified 2 Tn mutants with disruptions in the curli operon encoding curli, and these abolished YESCA, but not LB PVC, biofilms (see Table S1 in the supplemental material). Thus, mutations in the fim and curli operons were not analyzed further in this study, as we carried through only the 40 mutants that had defects in all 3 biofilm conditions tested. However, since type 1 pili, curli, and flagella have known contributions to the various three biofilm conditions tested, we investigated the impact of each of these 43 mutations on the expression of each of these organelles in order to assess the novelty of the mutation versus a secondary effect on one of these known factors.

(i) Swimming motility. We assessed swimming motility on soft agar plates (0.03%) for each mutant, compared to the wt UTI89 isolate, over a 7-h incubation period. In this assay, the 9 nonmotile mutants disrupted for flagellar assembly or regulation (22.5% of the total [see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material]) served as controls (Fig. 3A). Of the remaining 31 Tn mutants tested, 2 exhibited increased motility (Tn::rfaGQ and Tn::ylbF-arcC [Fig. 3]), while 13 exhibited reduced motility. These reduced motility mutants were the Tn::rfe (LPS [Fig. 3B]); Tn::pyrE, Tn::mdh, Tn::trkH, Tn::pyrF-sui, and Tn::nuoLK (metabolism [Fig. 3C]); Tn::sar, Tn::qseC, and Tn::spoT (regulators [Fig. 3D]); Tn::greB and Tn::pgm (cell maintenance [Fig. 3E]); and Tn::visC and Tn::yfiLR (hypothetical/other [Fig. 3F]) mutants. We have previously reported that deletion of qseC results in downregulation of motility by reducing the expression of flhDC. Similar analysis on the clean visC deletion mutant demonstrated no significant changes in flhDC or flIC expression (data not shown), suggesting that the effect on motility in this mutant occurs at the posttranscriptional level. We are currently studying the cause of the loss of motility in the nonmotile biofilm mutants. Taken together, the swimming motility assays indicate that approximately 50% of mutants with biofilm defects did not impact motility, suggesting that the corresponding factors influence biofilm formation by affecting an alternate pathway.

(ii) Type 1 pili. Next, we measured type 1 pilus by the ability of each mutant to mediate mannose-sensitive hemagglutination (MS-HA) (29). Expression of type 1 pili can be evaluated by the ability of UPEC to agglutinate guinea pig red blood cells (RBCs) via recognition of mannosylated receptors by the FimH adhesin. Type 1 pilated UTI89 typically produces an HA titer (log2) of 8 to 9 (29). The addition of mannose competitively inhibits type 1 pilus-mediated adhesion. Under the conditions tested, wt UTI89 typically expresses primarily type 1 pili. The addition of soluble α-mannose (2%) inhibits the HA reaction by competitively binding FimH and blocking bacterial binding to the mannosylated erythrocytes, thereby reducing the HA titer to 0 or 1 (29). The expression of other pilus systems can mediate hemagglutination that is mannose-resistant HA (MR-HA) (37). We thus used HAs in the presence and absence of α-mannose to assess the effects of each Tn mutation on expression of type 1 (MS-HA) and other adhesins (MR-HA). We detected significant reduction in type 1 pilus-mediated HA in only 8/40 mutants (20%), with the Tn::mdh, Tn::qseC, Tn::visC, and Tn::ylbF-arcC mutants exhibiting the most significant defects (HA < 7 [Fig. 4]). Interestingly, the Tn::qseC, Tn::mdh, and Tn::visC mutants were also defective in motility, a surprising observation given that motility and type 1 pilus expression are typically inversely related (40). We are currently investigating this phenomenon. In order to validate the HA results, we performed Western blot analyses on a subset of Tn mutants with different HA titers (Tn::visC, Tn::rfe, Tn::yfiLR, Tn::visC, Tn::rfe, Tn::visC, Tn::arcC, and Tn::ylbF-arcC), probing for the major pilus subunit, FimA. Indeed, FimA protein levels in each mutant corresponded to the recorded HA (see Fig. S3 in the supplemental material), with the Tn::visC and Tn::ylbF-arcC mutants producing miniscule amounts of FimA, while the Tn::rfe, Tn::yfiLR, and Tn::C1545 mutants produced wt levels of FimA protein (Fig. S3). Numerous regulatory factors control expression of type 1 pili, including three major repressors that alter the orientation of the invertible fim promoter element (1, 2, 13, 34). It is possible that disruption of visC and ylbF-arcC impact expression and/or function of regulatory elements, thus affecting the phase variation of the fim promoter, or fim gene transcription. Future studies are aimed at addressing these possibilities.

Interestingly, our HA analyses revealed that 18 mutants (45% of all mutants) had induced slight to moderate MR-HA (Fig. 4; see Table S1 in the supplemental material), indicative of induction of other adhesive organelles besides type 1 pili. We have previously shown that in the absence of the qseC sensor kinase, the observed MR-HA is attributed to upregulation of S-pili (25, 37). To examine whether S-pili were responsible for the induced MR-HA in the Tn mutants with MR-HA, we assessed HA, using RBCs treated with Arthrobacter ureafaciens neuraminidase to remove sialic acid, the putative receptor of S-pili (36). Desialylation of RBCs should abolish binding via S-pili, thus reducing the MR-HA to 0 or 1, unless other CUPs or adhesins are responsible for the observed MR-HA. Our assay revealed that in 16 out of the 18 mutants with MR-HA, desialylation of RBCs abolished MR-HA (see Fig. S4 in the supplemental material), indicating that disruption of the corresponding factors somehow induces the upregulation of S-pili. The 2 Tn mutants (Tn::rsrH and Tn::rfe mutants) that continued to exhibit MR-HA in the absence of sialic acid may have other adhesins that are upregulated or unmasked upon disruption of these factors, similar to what has previously been described (8, 27, 58, 65).

(iii) Curli. The ability of the different Tn mutants to form curli was evaluated on YESCA agar plates, using Congo red (CR) uptake as a proxy to wt curli production. We detected no significant curli defects in the majority of mutants (30/40, or 75% [see Fig. S5 in the supplemental material]). These findings suggest that the majority of biofilm defects observed in the Tn mutants during growth in YESCA are not attributed to defective curli expression. Notably, of the 10 mutants with strikingly altered CR uptake, 6 belong to metabolic/cell maintenance processes (Tn::pgm, Tn::greB, Tn::rsrH, Tn::ygiX, Tn::mdh, and Tn::carB), while 3 (Tn:: waaW, Tn::waaA, and Tn::cypA) belong to the LPS modification pathway or have hypothetical or uncharacterized functions. In addition to a defect in curli production, altered CR uptake may also point to a defect in cellulose or poly-β-1,6-N-acetyl-β-glucosamine.
Clustering analysis of mutants with generalized biofilm defects. Our in vitro assays probing for type 1 pili, curli, and flagella indicated that the majority of Tn mutants that had defects in all three biofilm conditions tested did not have significant defects in production of these organelles. To further investigate these results, we used a clustering approach to assess whether there were

FIG 3 Motility properties of broad biofilm effectors. (A to F) Bar graphs depicting average motility diameters (in millimeters) of the different Tn mutants compared to the wt UTI89 after 7 h growth in soft LB agar (0.25%). Average motility diameters were calculated using data from 3 independent experiments. Statistical analyses were performed using unpaired, two-tailed Student’s t test, with P < 0.05 considered significant. *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.005; ***, P < 0.0003.
FIG 4 HA properties of broad biofilm effectors. (A to F) Bar graphs showing the HA properties of each Tn mutant compared to those of the wt UTI89 in the presence and absence of 4% D-mannose. Expression of type 1 pili can be evaluated by the ability of UPEC to agglutinate guinea pig red blood cells (RBCs) via recognition of mannosylated receptors by the FimH adhesin. The addition of mannose competitively inhibits type 1 pilus-mediated adhesion. Under the conditions tested, wt UTI89 typically expresses primarily type 1 pili; thus, the addition of mannose drops agglutination to an HA of 0 to 1. The small degree of agglutination remaining in the wt strain is attributable to some expression of S-pili. However, upon the addition of mannose, the HA of several Tn mutants did not drop to the typical 0 to 1, suggestive of additional pili systems that may be upregulated in these systems. The graphs depict average HA titers from 2 independent experiments. Statistical analyses were performed using unpaired, two-tailed Student's t test, with $P < 0.05$ considered significant. *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.005$; ***, $P < 0.0003$. 

Identification of UPEC Biofilm Effectors
correlations between the pattern of biofilm phenotypes observed, based on quantitative biofilm defects under the three conditions tested, and the pattern of MS-HA, MR-HA, curli and flagellar phenotypes exhibited by each of the mutants. We first grouped all mutants based on biofilm severity and sorted them according to the effect of each mutation on the expression of type 1 pili (measured by MS-HA), curli (measured by CR uptake), or flagella (measured by motility). Architectural mutants with biofilm accumulation between 85% and 115% of the wild type were clustered as wt. Using this method, we discovered that most of the mutations that affected curli- and type 1-dependent biofilm formation did not always affect expression of those corresponding organelles. Thus, in these cases, these unique mutants may have led to the discovery of new factors that are important under these biofilm conditions. Also, loss or gain of motility did not strongly correlate with loss or gain of biofilm formation in the different mutants (Fig. 5). Specifically, we found that some nonmotile mutants had increased biofilm formation, while others exhibited strong biofilm defects (Fig. 5). These results have elucidated new genes and pathways possibly involved in initial adherence and intercellular aggregation, independent of type 1 pili, curli, and flagella, but which are important in type 1- and curli-dependent biofilms. Increased LB-PVC biofilm (Fig. 5, bottom quadrant) correlated with higher or wt levels of MS-HA (Fig. 5), but loss/reduction of LB-PVC biofilm did not have a strong correlation with reduced MS-HA (Fig. 5). Similarly, loss/reduction of CR uptake did not always correlate with reduced YESCA-PVC or pellicle biofilm (Fig. 5).

Taken together, these findings demonstrate that type 1 pili and curli are necessary but not sufficient for LB-PVC and YESCA-PVC/pellicle formation, respectively, and point toward other factors that are critical for proper biofilm formation under these conditions. In addition, the fact that these mutants express wt levels of type 1 pili and flagella, both of which have been extensively associated with initial adherence (38, 52, 55), supports the idea that the disrupted factors are corequisites for biofilm formation or may be involved at a stage in biofilm formation that is likely after initial adherence. Further studies investigating the stage at
which these factors become important will provide more insights into the mechanisms that underlie multicellularity under the conditions tested.

Type 1 pilus-independent in vivo fitness defects in UTI. The role of biofilm determinants other than type 1 pili in IBC formation is largely unknown. Thus, we tested the in vivo fitness of a panel of Tn mutants (Tn::visC, Tn::ylbF-arcC, Tn::C1545-46, Tn::yfiLR, and Tn::rfe mutants) that exhibited a variety of biofilm defects and type 1 piliation phenotypes from wt to nonpiliated on the basis of the results of MS-HA and Western blot analysis (Fig. 5; see Fig. S2 in the supplemental material). Female C3H/HeN mice were then transurethrally inoculated with $10^7$ CFU GFP-expressing strains of UTI89 or Tn::visC, Tn::yfiLR, Tn::C_1545-46, Tn::ylbF-arcC, and Tn::rfe mutant strains. The Tn::wt mutant, a transposon mutant with no biofilm defects, was included to control for any transposon-mediated effects. Bladder CFU and IBC numbers were monitored at 16 h postinfection (hpi), marking the end of the first IBC cycle at which time bacteria are found in late-stage IBCs or in the process of filamentation and dispersal (31). IBCs were enumerated by confocal microscopy as described previously (37). As expected, the Tn::wt strain colonized the bladder and formed IBCs at levels comparable to those of the wt UTI89 (Fig. 6A to C). All Tn mutants tested had at least 10-fold-lower bladder titers compared to wt UTI89 (Fig. 6A) and formed significantly fewer IBCs (Fig. 6B and C), with the exception of the Tn::C1545-46 mutant. The Tn::rfe mutant appeared to be mostly extracellular (Fig. 6C), with very few IBCs observed at 16 h postinfection. In order to validate these observations, we used two clean deletion
mutants that had different effects on type 1 pilus expression: UTI89ΔvisC (reduced type 1 pili) and UTI89Δrfe (no effects on type 1 pilus expression). Introduction of these clean deletion mutants in mice and monitoring of CFU and IBC formation revealed that both mutants were significantly impaired in their ability to form IBCs (Fig. 6D), consistent with the results obtained using the transposon mutants. These observations are striking in that we have now discovered a panel of UPEC factors that affect IBC formation independent of type 1 pilus expression and when mutated attenuate virulence. Further analysis of such type 1 pilus mutation independent of type 1 pilus expression and when mutated form IBCs (Fig. 6D), consistent with the results obtained using the mutants in mice and monitoring of CFU and IBC formation revealed type 1 pili expression. Introduction of these clean deletion mutants further.

Concluding remarks. Collectively, our studies have elucidated an inventory of UPEC factors that impact biofilm formation either by interfering with known, critical biofilm determinants or by yet uncharacterized mechanisms. In vivo analysis using a murine model of acute cystitis revealed that a randomly selected panel of biofilm mutants with variable defects in type 1 pilus expression was equally attenuated in their ability to cause infection and form IBCs. These factors not only constitute potential drug target candidates for antibiofilm therapeutics but can be extensively utilized as molecular scalpels for extending the characterization of biofilm development. Further analysis of the pathways to which all these novel factors belong will elucidate molecular mechanisms involved in UPEC biofilm formation in vitro and in vivo and will advance our efforts in preventing or disassembling UPEC biofilms within the host.

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