

Bioreporters in microbial ecology

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Bioreporters are effective research tools for gaining an understanding of a microbe's perception of the world. Fitted with a fusion of an environmentally responsive promoter to a suitable reporter gene, a bacterial or fungal bioreporter is able to communicate its metabolic or transcriptional behavior in a habitat, and furnish us with information on the chemical, physical or biological properties of its immediate surroundings. This review details recent developments in the use of such bioreporters in microbial ecology. Emphasis is placed on reporter genes that allow detection in individual microbial cells, as they provide a high-resolution description of the habitat under investigation. In an outlook on the future of bioreporter technology, this review stresses the need to interpret the activity of a bioreporter within the context of its biology.

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Abbreviation

GFP green fluorescent protein

Introduction

From the perspective of a bacterium 2 µm in length, the surface of a matchbook represents an area roughly the size of Rhode Island, or the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. To the same bacterium, an Italian espresso compares in volume to Lake Baikal, the largest freshwater lake on Earth, while a hot air balloon takes on the proportions of Earth itself. This contrast in world view should make obvious the fact that we cannot afford to neglect the element of scale as we try to understand the behavior of bacteria and other microbes. There is a limited understanding of how microbes perceive their immediate environment, or changes to it, on a scale that is most relevant to them. How do physical, chemical and biological conditions vary along distances of 1, or 10, or 100 or more micrometers, and how do they affect a microbe's behavior? An exciting approach to address these questions involves the use of reporter gene technology. In simple terms, a reporter gene is the molecular equivalent of the sort of tagging device that wildlife biologists use to monitor animals in their natural habitat. If designed properly and with minimal impact on the organism, such a device can provide useful information concerning the physiology and

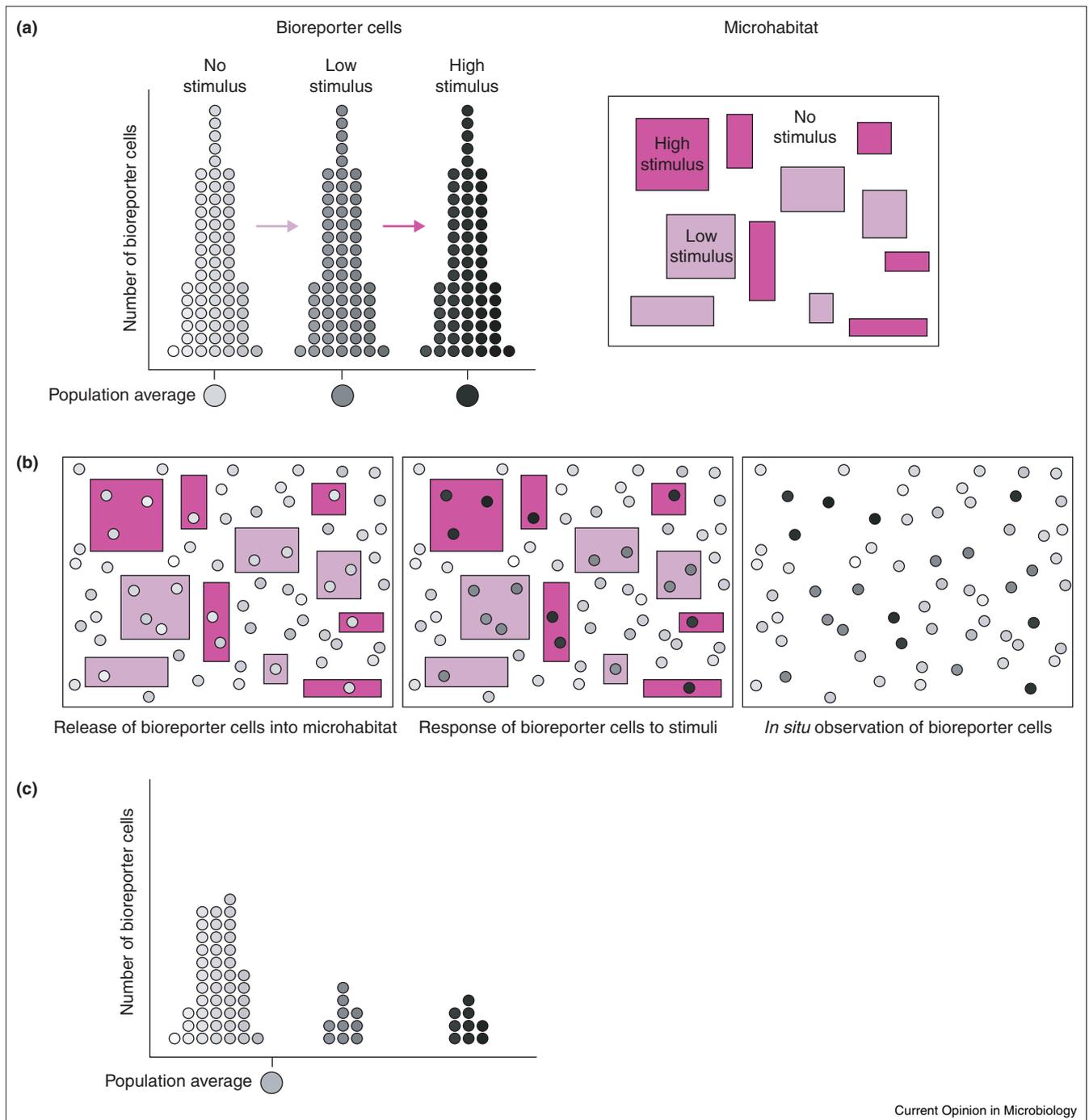
activity of the organism under investigation, such as heart rate [1], body temperature [2] or muscle movement [3]. Similarly, reporter genes award the microbial ecologist with useful information on the activity of individual microbes. What's more, this information may help us gain an understanding of how microbes perceive their habitat in terms of chemical, physical and biological stimuli. In this review, we present a short synopsis of recent developments in the application of reporter genes in microbial ecology. We limit our discussion to the uses of reporter genes for habitat exploration [4] by which so-called bioreporter cells are released into a habitat with the task to report on their exposure to a specific stimulus. The focus will be mostly on reporter genes that allow the monitoring of individual microbial cells, as these have proven instrumental for describing habitats at the resolution of micrometer dimensions.

Bioreporters and reporter genes

The principle of bioreporting is illustrated in Figure 1. Most bioreporters used in microbial ecology today are products of genetic engineering by which an environmentally or metabolically responsive promoter is fused to a suitable reporter gene and introduced into an appropriate microbial host either on a plasmid or as a stable chromosomal insertion. Changes in the abundance of the corresponding reporter protein are indicative of changes in the transcriptional activity of the promoter and, thus, of changes in the stimulus to which that promoter is responsive. Stimuli can be either chemical (for example, nutrients [5•,6•], metals [7] or antibiotics [8•]), physical (for example, ultraviolet light [9], temperature [10] or water potential [11]), or biological (for example, the signal molecule *n*-acylhomoserine lactone [12•,13], which bacteria use to monitor their population density [14•]). Metabolically responsive promoters are also commonly used, namely to monitor a microbe's growth rate [15,16] or its deficiency in an essential resource such as carbon [17••], oxygen [18], nitrogen [19] or phosphorus [20]. For a comprehensive overview of promoters that have been used in conjunction with reporter genes, we refer the reader to reviews by Hansen and Sørensen [21], Daunert *et al.* [22], and Köhler *et al.* [23].

The most commonly used reporter genes are those which code for green fluorescent protein (GFP), bacterial luciferase, firefly luciferase, β-galactosidase, β-glucuronidase, catechol 2,3-dioxygenase and the ice nucleation protein, InaZ. Each reporter protein has its advantages and disadvantages, and for a comparison of these and other reporter proteins, we refer the reader to recent reviews by Loper and Lindow [24], and Daunert *et al.* [22]. The one property we would like to single out in this review in *Current Opinion in Microbiology* is whether or not the abundance of a reporter protein can be detected and quantified in a single microbe. GFP owes much of its popularity to its easy

Figure 1



The utility of bioreporters for microbial exploration of a microhabitat. **(a)** We start with a population of bioreporter cells for which it has been established in culture that they exhibit elevated reporter gene activity in response to a known metabolic, physical, chemical or biological stimulus. For many bioreporters, reporter gene activity is proportional to the magnitude of the stimulus (no, low or high exposure, in this example). Bioreporter activity is expressed as the abundance of reporter protein averaged over the entire population, or on a cell-to-cell basis (for example, in a histogram). The bioreporter can be used to search a microhabitat for the stimulus to which it is responsive. As symbolized by the coloring, there may be variation within the habitat in terms of stimulus magnitude, but this variation is essentially unknown. **(b)** Following

release of the bioreporter cells into the habitat, and after a defined period of time or at different time intervals, bioreporter cells can be examined for reporter protein directly in their natural surroundings, that is, if both the reporter protein and the habitat allow. Note that the coloring in the final panel has been removed to indicate that variation in stimulus exposure is not an observable feature, but instead the kind of information that we try to infer from the bioreporters' behavior. **(c)** Alternatively, or in addition, cells may be recovered from the habitat and analyzed for reporter activity. Depending on the reporter gene that is being used, this activity is expressed as an average over all the bioreporters recovered from the habitat, or as a distribution of reporter activity among individual bioreporter cells. Obviously, the latter is inherently more informative.

detection in individual cells by epifluorescence and confocal laser scanning microscopy [25–27], and its amenability to quantitative single-cell analysis using image cytometry [5**,7] or flow cytometry [27,28]. β -galactosidase activity can also be measured in individual cells, using chromogenic [29] and fluorogenic substrates [30] or by immunofluorescence [17**,31]. Luciferase has been detected in individual bacteria [32], but low resolution has hampered its use for analysis in single-cell bioreporters. The ability to measure reporter protein in individual cells enhances the information that can be obtained from a bioreporter, as is illustrated in Figure 1. First, it allows *in situ* observation by microscopy that may provide a spatial context within which bioreporter activity can be understood. Second, it creates the opportunity to assess variation within the bioreporter community and, thus, within the habitat. In the following sections, we discuss each of these in greater detail.

***In situ* observation of bioreporters**

Judging from a sizable number of recent journal covers, one would get the impression that *in situ* observation is a favorite pastime of microbial ecologists. Certainly, a reporter protein such as GFP has proven to be a powerful tool to relate the activity of a microbe to its actual location. At least two reports have clearly documented how relevant micrometer distances are for a microbe's perception of its surroundings. In a study by Møller *et al.* [33], *Pseudomonas putida* bioreporters in a toluene-fed flow-chamber biofilm reported the presence of benzoate only when they were located less than several micrometers away from colonies of an *Acinetobacter* sp. that were presumed to be leaking benzoate as an intermediate of toluene metabolism. Furthermore, induction appeared to spread with the direction of the flow in narrow bands approximately 100 μm wide, suggesting that no perpendicular diffusion of benzoate occurred over these distances to nearby bioreporter cells. In a more recent study, Jaspers *et al.* [34**] showed substantial differences in the availability of alkanes to bioreporter cells along millimeter distances from a fixed alkane source. Other research groups have linked the activity of single reporter cells to microscopic differences in habitat topography. On bean leaves, for example, both sugar consumption [5**,6*] and plasmid transfer [35] seemed to be taking place preferentially near stomata, at the junctions of epidermal cells, or in the cracks between veins. Rapid growth of a bioreporting *P. putida* inoculant on barley roots was limited spatially to sloughing sheath cells and temporally to the first day after inoculation [16].

There are several issues with the interpretation of *in situ* observations. In many instances, it is probably fair to ask how representative such observations are within the larger context of the habitat under investigation. Another problem often overlooked with *in situ* observation of reporter activity is its bias towards those bioreporter cells that are actively reporting. Non-reporting cells may easily escape detection, resulting in an overestimation of the number of reporting cells. Also, it may be just as

interesting to know why certain bacteria are not reporting, and whether it can be explained by their whereabouts. This bias towards actively reporting cells can be avoided by marking the bioreporter cells with an independently expressed fluorescent protein such as DsRed [36], or by making the bioreporter cells visible using fluorescent *in situ* hybridization [33,37]. A third problem inherent to *in situ* observation is the difficulty in adequately determining the abundance of reporter protein. Actual quantification of reporter content in individual bioreporter cells *in situ* has, to the best of our knowledge, not been done, although Møller *et al.* [33] were able to estimate the proportion of bioreporting cells at different depths within a biofilm. β -galactosidase activity cannot be easily measured *in situ*, owing to the need to permeabilize the bioreporter cells and/or provide them *in situ* with substrate. GFP does not share this requirement, but inconsistencies in habitat structure may cause problems with microscope focusing, uneven excitation of the cells, or interference from background fluorescence.

***Ex situ* analysis of reporter protein abundance in bioreporter cells**

Many of the problems associated with *in situ* observation of bioreporter cells can be overcome by analyzing bioreporter cells after they are recovered from the habitat. Unfortunately, not all habitats permit such a recovery, and a major drawback of this approach is that any correlation between the location and activity of a bioreporter is lost in the process. However, *ex situ* interrogation is free from habitat interference and amenable to any kind of manipulation that is required for measurement of reporter protein abundance. Furthermore, because many more cells can be interrogated simultaneously, bioreporter data become more statistically representative of the population as a whole.

For the interpretation of *ex situ* bioreporter data, it makes a notable difference whether reporter activity is expressed as a population average or for individual cells. An average value is perfectly adequate to describe microbial behavior when all or most bioreporters in the habitat under study are expected to behave in the same way or encounter uniform conditions (such as *Salmonella typhimurium* within the vacuolar microenvironment of a macrophage [38], or *Yersinia pestis* in the phagolysosome [39]). If, however, the habitat is less homogeneous, an average value becomes inevitably less informative and possibly misleading. This is illustrated in Figure 1c, which shows that the existence of two small subpopulations of actively reporting bioreporter cells cannot be inferred from the low average reporter activity. An interesting situation occurs when heterogeneity becomes so extreme that only a very small fraction of the cells is positively reporting. In case of a GFP-based bioreporter, this would necessitate the interrogation of many more individual cells, which may not always be practical. For such situations, the InaZ reporter protein presents an ideal alternative. Although its activity cannot be expressed on a single-cell basis, InaZ exhibits an

Figure 2

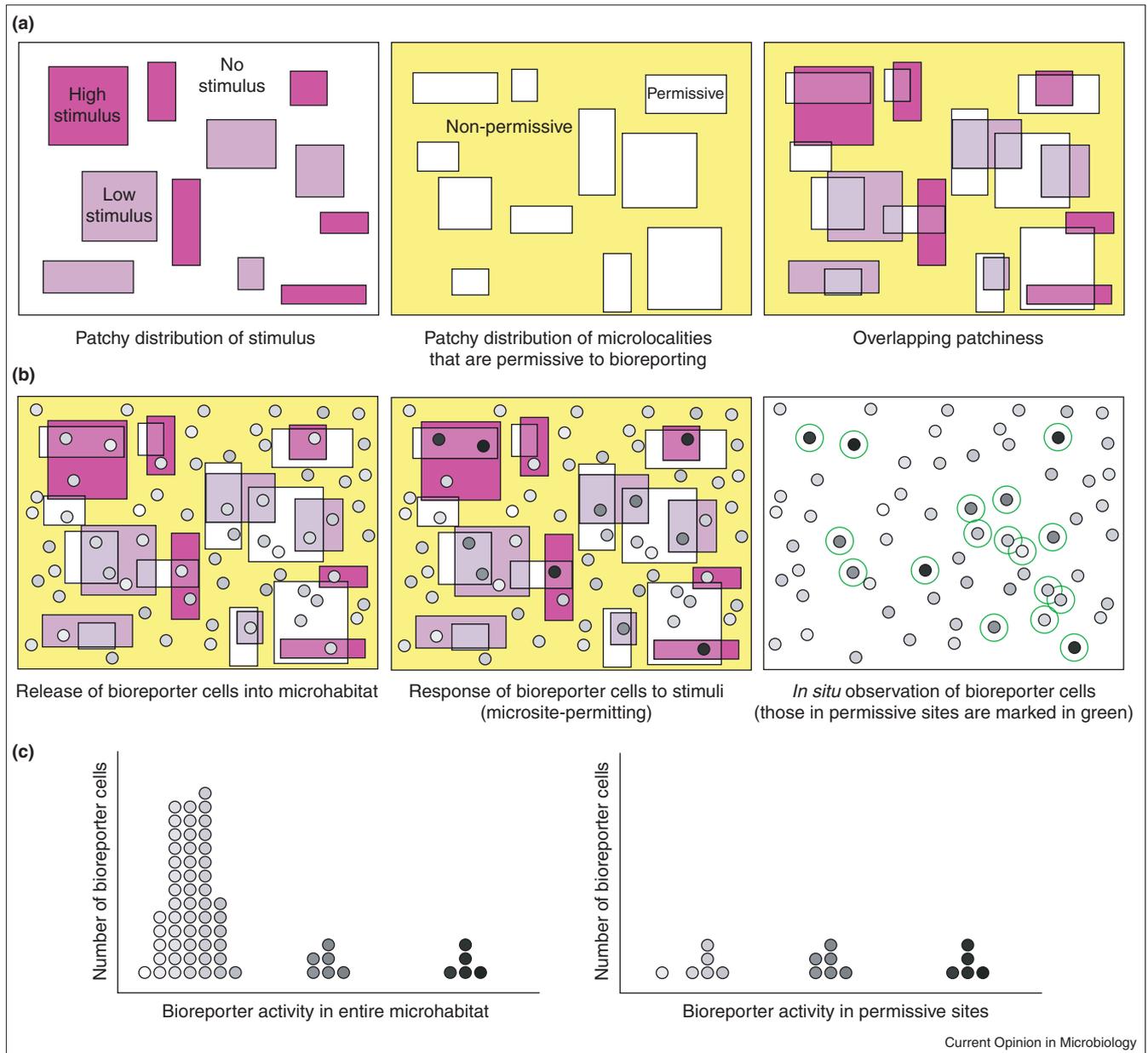


Illustration of the need for contextual interpretation of bioreporter data. **(a)** The microhabitat under investigation may be variable not only in stimulus magnitude, but also in the availability of microsites that are permissive to bioreporting. Outside these sites, the cells are exposed to conditions that prevent them from producing reporter protein even when they are exposed to the stimulus. Examples of such conditions are lack of nutrients or exposure to toxicants, which may render cells metabolically less active or non-active, but also, for example, the suppression of reporter gene expression owing to catabolite repression. **(b)** Upon release and establishment of the bioreporter in the habitat, reporter

activity becomes a combined function of both stimulus exposure and site permissiveness. **(c)** Analysis of all bioreporters may correctly identify cells that were exposed to the stimulus, but their numbers are an underestimate, given that there might have been an unknown number of apparently non-reporting cells that had been exposed to the stimulus but were located in non-permissive sites. Cells that reside in permissive sites may be identified by different criteria, for example, in the case of metabolic status on cell size, ribosome content or energy levels. Comparative analysis of only bioreporter cells from permissive sites presents an accurate estimate for the variability in stimulus presentation in such sites.

exponential relationship between abundance and ice nucleation activity [24], so that it remains detectable even at very low numbers of reporting cells [6*]. This property has been exploited in several bioreporter applications using *inaZ* reporter fusions [40–44].

A recent study by Joyner and Lindow [7] demonstrates the advantage of a single-cell reporter like GFP for the recognition of heterogeneous activity within a population of bioreporters. The authors described a strain of *Pseudomonas syringae* that carries a fusion of the iron-regulated *pvd*

promoter to the gene for GFP and fluoresces when Fe³⁺ becomes scarce. Previous analyses of bioreporters with the *pcd* promoter fused to the *inaZ* reporter gene [45] had revealed that the average *P. syringae* cell on bean plant surfaces had access to low but non-limiting concentrations of Fe³⁺. From the distribution of GFP content in individual bioreporter cells, however, it was obvious that this average was, in fact, a combination of a few very fluorescent cells and many dim cells, suggesting that, within the population of plant colonists, there existed considerable differences in the availability of iron. Such observations of heterogeneity have been made in other habitats and for other environmental stimuli as well. For example, *Erwinia herbicola* cells experience highly different levels of sucrose and fructose on bean plant leaves [5•,6•]. Hansen *et al.* [8•] took a bioreporter approach to search soil microcosms for the presence of oxytetracycline produced *in situ* by a strain of *Streptomyces rimosus*, and showed that only a subset of the GFP-based *Escherichia coli* reporter cells was exposed to the antibiotic. Likewise, *Pseudomonas* bioreporter cells varied considerably in their reporting of carbon limitation [17••] and metabolic activity [16] in soil and rhizosphere habitats, respectively.

Obvious and obscure sources of heterogeneity in bioreporter activity

Apparently, it is not uncommon to observe heterogeneity in the activity of bioreporters recovered from habitats. This leaves us with a compelling question. Does this heterogeneity truthfully reflect spatial and/or temporal heterogeneity in the stimulus that we set out to measure? Surely, there is no reason to assume that variability exists only for that one stimulus, and not for all the other stimuli that the bioreporter is likely to experience. What if variation in the latter would affect bioreporter performance? A scenario in which a habitat is patchy with respect to microlocalities that do and do not permit the bioreporter to function properly is illustrated in Figure 2. Such sites must exist, at least in habitats for which it has been observed that a substantial fraction of bioreporter cells is metabolically challenged and, as such, may not be able to report. As Figure 2 clearly shows, different estimates of habitat variation are obtained when activity of bioreporters is or is not related to their metabolic status. Such contextual evaluation of bioreporter data will have to become an important component of future bioreporter applications. This holds true not only for applications that are aimed to describe microbial perception of a habitat, but also for those that use reporter genes for the demonstration of habitat-specific gene expression. A few precedents for such multiparameter approaches to relate a reporter activity of a cell to other activities in which it might be engaged have already been set. We [5••] used a combination of fluorescent *in situ* hybridization and inducible GFP expression to show that the presence of sugars on bean leaf surfaces was a key determinant for foliar growth of *E. herbicola*. Normander *et al.* [35] showed that plasmid exchange among bacteria on plant surfaces, as visualized by a GFP-based reporter

system, was not limited by the metabolic activity of donor and recipient populations, based on incorporation rates of leucine *in situ*. Koch *et al.* [17••] used a double reporter for carbon and nitrogen limitation in soil, and showed that the amendment of straw changed the soil habitat from carbon- to nitrogen-limited.

Aspects of bioreporter biology other than the ones above should also be considered. For example, it is a misconception that reporter abundance is a function only of promoter activity. We have recently described a mathematical model that helps understand how parameters such as growth rate and protein stability also affect the reporter content of individual bacteria [46•]. The predictions of the model are remarkably intuitive. For example, a decrease in growth rate or increase in reporter stability may cause an increase in reporter protein abundance without changes in promoter activity. Integration of this type of modeling approach will undoubtedly prove essential for the interpretation of bioreporter data from complex environments.

Conclusions

Without question, bioreporters have become popular and useful tools in microbial ecology. They provide us with a line of communication to a world of micrometer dimensions. As we continue to make use of their services and try to understand what it is that they are trying to convey, we need to stay aware that bioreporters have a biology, and that their bioreporting skills should be understood within the ramifications of that biology. Sports journalist Red Smith once said that a “reporter has one of the toughest jobs in the world — getting as near to the truth as possible is a terribly tough job.” [47]. We wish to argue that, in microbial ecology, this responsibility lies not with the bioreporter but with the microbial ecologist, whose greatest challenge it is to translate bioreporter data into a meaningful account of the microbe’s biology and its perception of the world.

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