

## Bacteriophage Diversity in the North Sea

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In recent years interest in bacteriophages in aquatic environments has increased. Electron microscopy studies have revealed high numbers of phage particles ( $10^4$  to  $10^7$  particles per ml) in the marine environment. However, the ecological role of these bacteriophages is still unknown, and the role of the phages in the control of bacterioplankton by lysis and the potential for gene transfer are disputed. Even the basic questions of the genetic relationships of the phages and the diversity of phage-host systems in aquatic environments have not been answered. We investigated the diversity of 22 phage-host systems after 85 phages were collected at one station near a German island, Helgoland, located in the North Sea. The relationships among the phages were determined by electron microscopy, DNA-DNA hybridization, and host range studies. On the basis of morphology, 11 phages were assigned to the virus family *Myoviridae*, 7 phages were assigned to the family *Siphoviridae*, and 4 phages were assigned to the family *Podoviridae*. DNA-DNA hybridization confirmed that there was no DNA homology between phages belonging to different families. We found that the 22 marine bacteriophages belonged to 13 different species. The host bacteria were differentiated by morphological and physiological tests and by 16S ribosomal DNA sequencing. All of the bacteria were gram negative, facultatively anaerobic, motile, and coccoid. The 16S rRNA sequences of the bacteria exhibited high levels of similarity (98 to 99%) with the sequences of organisms belonging to the genus *Pseudoalteromonas*, which belongs to the  $\gamma$  subdivision of the class *Proteobacteria*.

The marine bacterial community is responsible for a considerable portion of primary production and regeneration of nutrients in the microbial loop and is associated with a great variety of marine bacteriophages (5, 12). These phages are capable of infecting a large portion of the bacterioplankton (32, 34). It is assumed that as part of the marine food web, bacteriophages play important quantitative and qualitative roles in controlling marine bacterial populations (8, 24, 34, 39, 45). The phenotypic diversity and genotypic diversity of the phage populations are related to the interaction between phages and their host organisms, which provides a tool for understanding the interaction itself (13). To estimate the influence of marine bacteriophages on the diversity of bacterioplankton, we investigated phage diversity. The virus species concept proposed by Murphy et al. (37) delineates seven different families of bacteriophages based on morphological criteria and provides criteria for new phage species based on several traits, such as DNA homologies, serological data, protein profiles, and host ranges.

In this paper, we describe the diversity and genetic relationships of marine phages based on investigations of 22 representatives from 85 phage-host systems (35, 36) collected between 1988 and 1992 from waters around an island, Helgoland, located in the North Sea. All of the phages were virulent and formed plaques on their host bacteria. We assigned the phages to different virus families, species, and strains based on morphology, DNA homology, and host range. Furthermore, we characterized the phenotypic and genotypic features of the host bacteria.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Bacterial strains, phages, and media.** Bacterial strains and bacteriophages were kindly provided by K. Moebus, Biologische Anstalt Helgoland, Helgoland, Germany. They were isolated from North Sea water collected at one location near Helgoland, an island in the North Sea belonging to Germany. The bacterial strains were grown as described by Moebus and Nattkemper (33). Phage lysates were prepared by the overlay agar technique (31). Confluent lysis was generated, and the phages were eluted with 10 ml of SM buffer per plate after incubation for 1 h at room temperature (47). Phage stocks were stored at 4°C.

**Phage-host cross-reaction test.** Two-layer agar plates containing a 10-ml bottom layer and a 3-ml soft agar upper layer were used for the phage-host cross-reaction test; the soft agar layer contained ca.  $10^8$  bacteria (34). Phage lysates were dotted in a dilution series from  $10^9$  to  $10^6$  onto the upper layer immediately after solidification in order to distinguish between a clear lysis reaction caused by plaque formation and inhibition of the bacterial lawn. After incubation overnight at 18°C in the dark, plaque formation was evaluated.

**Electron microscopy of phages.** High-titer phage stocks (lysates) were prepared for electron microscopy. Lysates were allowed to adsorb for 1 min to picroform- and carbon-coated 400-mesh wide copper grids. Then the grids with the adhering phage lysates were washed three times with distilled water. Negative staining was performed with 2% (wt/vol) uranyl acetate for 40 s (19, 20). Micrographs were obtained at a primary magnification of  $\times 40,000$  by electron microscopy (Zeiss model EM 10 A microscope). The dimensions of phages were estimated by determining the mean values for 30 particles of each phage; catalase was used as an internal length calibration standard (46).

**Buoyant density of phage particles.** Phage buoyant density was determined by  $\text{CsCl}_2$  gradient centrifugation by using the method of Espejo and Canelo (15).

**Isolation of phage DNAs and labeling of DNA probes.** Stocks (200 ml) of phages were prepared as described above. DNAs were isolated by using the general methods described by Sambrook et al. (42). Purified phage DNAs were labeled with a nonradioactive digoxigenin labeling kit (Boehringer, Mannheim, Germany) as recommended by the manufacturer and were used as probes in subsequent DNA-DNA hybridization experiments.

**DNA-DNA hybridization on nylon membranes.** For dot blot hybridization whole-phage DNA (5 to 10  $\mu\text{l}$ ) was dotted onto a nylon membrane and fixed with UV light (wavelength, 312 nm; 7 min). For restriction fragment DNA-DNA hybridization the phage DNA was digested with restriction enzyme *Hind*III (Boehringer) for 90 min at 37°C. After gel electrophoresis in 0.8% (wt/vol) agarose gels, the DNA pattern was transferred to nylon membranes (Hybond N; Amersham, Braunschweig, Germany) by Southern blotting (43), and the DNA was used as target DNA. DNA-DNA hybridization was carried out at 68°C for 16 h. Hybridization was detected as recommended by the manufacturer (Boehringer). Positive hybridization signals occurred after 1 to 4 h of incubation with 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolylphosphate toluidinium (salt) and nitroblue tetrazo-

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lium (salt) (70%). The levels of DNA homology between previously described phages and phages used in this work were not determined.

**Determination of GC content of phage DNA.** The GC content of phage DNA was determined as described by Marmur and Doty (29).

**Morphology and physiology of host bacteria.** Morphological and physiological tests were performed as described by Moaledj (30). Cell morphology (size, shape, arrangement) was determined by phase-contrast microscopy (magnification,  $\times 1,250$ ) after 1 to 2 days of incubation at 18°C. The media used for the physiological tests were adapted so that they fulfilled the salt requirements of marine bacteria. Gram reaction, catalase and oxidase production, and motility tests were performed with freshly prepared liquid cultures, while the cultures used to test oxidation and fermentation of glucose, saccharose, and lactose (1%, wt/vol) were incubated for up to 14 days before analysis.

**PCR amplification of the 16S rRNA gene.** Bacterial DNA was isolated by the method of Anderson and McKay (2), modified for genomic DNA by omitting the NaOH step. The extracted DNA was used as target DNA in PCR (41) to amplify the 16S ribosomal RNA coding regions. The primers used for the 500-bp fragment examined were 27f (5'-AGAGTTTGATC[A/T]TGGCTCAG-3') and 519r (5'-G[A/T]ATTACCGCGG[C/G]TJGCTG-3') (26). The sequences of the primers used for the nearly complete 16S rRNA gene (GM3F and GM4R; *Escherichia coli* positions 8 to 1507) have been published by Muyzer et al. (38). PCR amplification was performed with a model 480 DNA thermal cycler (Perkin-Elmer Cetus) as described by Muyzer et al. (38). To increase the specificity of amplification and to reduce the formation of spurious by-products, a "touch-down" PCR (14) was performed (65 to 55°C, 20 cycles). Aliquots (5  $\mu$ l) of the amplification products were analyzed by electrophoresis in 2% (wt/vol) agarose gels, which were stained with ethidium bromide (0.5  $\mu$ g/ml).

**DNA sequencing of PCR products and comparative sequence analysis.** PCR products that were 500 bp long were purified with glasmilk (Bio-Rad). DNA sequencing was performed with a model ABI 377 sequencer by using a PRISM Ready Dye Deoxy terminator kit and Perkin-Elmer *Taq* polymerase according to the instructions of the manufacturer (ABI, Foster City, Calif.). The sequences of whole 16S ribosomal DNA fragments were determined by the method described by Buchholz-Cleven et al. (10). All sequences were aligned with sequences obtained from the Ribosomal Database Project (27) or GenBank (3). Sequence alignment was performed with the sequence editor SEQAPP (21). A phylogenetic tree was created by using the neighbor-joining algorithm and maximum likelihood as a model for evolution (PAUP test, version 6.3, developed by David Swofford). A bootstrap analysis (100 replicates) was used to validate the reproducibility of the branching pattern of the tree.

**Nucleotide sequence accession numbers.** The sequences obtained in this study have been deposited in the GenBank database under accession no. AF069653 through AF060667.

## RESULTS

**Selection of phages for detailed investigation.** To select a group of phages that were representative of the 85 phages isolated, phage-host cross-reaction tests were performed with the phages and 70 bacterial isolates obtained from North Sea water. The phages were assigned to sensitivity group I (SG I), SG II, and SG III on the basis of their hosts. A total of 62 (73%) of the 85 bacteriophages were highly host specific and members of SG I; these phages were found to be reproduced only by their original hosts. Sixteen phages (19%) had host ranges consisting of 2 to 10 bacteria and were members of SG II, and seven phages (8%) had broad host ranges consisting of 11 to 36 bacterial isolates and were members of SG III. A total of 22 bacteriophages were selected for further investigation. Seven of these phages belonged to SG I, nine belonged to SG II, and six were assigned to SG III.

**Morphological diversity.** The phenotypic diversity of the 22 bacteriophages was examined by electron microscopy. The phages were identified by using morphological criteria outlined by the International Committee of Taxonomy of Viruses (37) and the species concept of Ackermann et al. (1). Morphological studies revealed that all of the phages examined had tails and thus belong to the order *Caudovirales*. The icosahedral heads of the phages had diameters between 50.2 and 99.3 nm. The phages could be assigned to three virus families. Eleven of the phages belonged to the family *Myoviridae*, which contains phages that have icosahedral heads and long contractile tails; seven phages were assigned to the family *Siphoviridae*, which contains phages that have icosahedral heads and long flexible

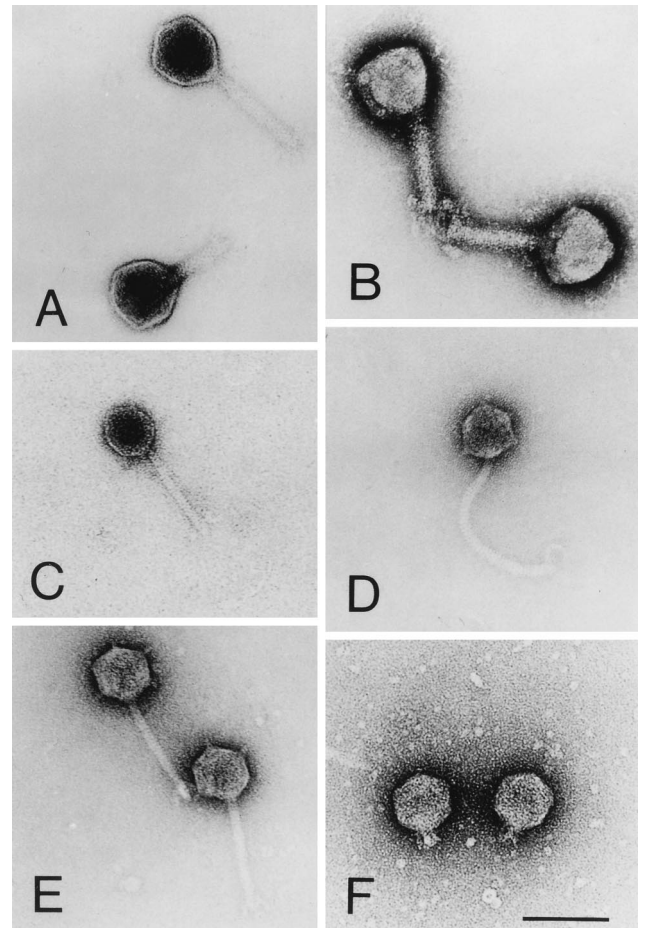


FIG. 1. Phages belonging to three different families and their morphotypes. (A) *Myoviridae*, morphotype 1: head without antennae and short appendages on the tail (phage H106/1). (B) *Myoviridae*, morphotype 2: collarlike structure between the head and the tail and short appendages on the tail (phage H7/2; 15). (C) *Siphoviridae*, morphotype 1: head and tail without appendages (phage 10-77a). (D) *Siphoviridae*, morphotype 2: knoblike appendages on the head and tail with a hook at the end (phage 11 68c). (E) *Siphoviridae*, morphotype 3: knoblike appendages on the head and tail with short appendages (phage H105/1). (F) *Podoviridae*, morphotype 1 (phage H100/1). Bar = 100 nm.

tails; and four phages, which had icosahedral heads and short tails, belonged to the family *Podoviridae*. The phages belonging to the *Myoviridae* were further divided into two different morphotypes on the basis of different appendages, such as collars, antennae, or tail fibers; the four morphotype 1 phages had a collarlike structure between the head and the tail (Fig. 1B), whereas the seven morphotype 2 phages had no special appendages (Fig. 1A).

Similarly, the seven bacteriophages belonging to the *Siphoviridae* were subdivided into three different morphotypes. The single morphotype 1 phage had no additional appendages on its head or tail (Fig. 1C). The single morphotype 2 phage was particularly striking because it had a hook at the end of its tail (Fig. 1D). The remaining five phages, which had knoblike appendages on their heads, belonged to morphotype 3 (Fig. 1E). All four phages belonging to the *Podoviridae* were morphotype 1 phages with no special appendages (Fig. 1F). The buoyant densities of the phages investigated were between 1.49 and 1.54  $\text{g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$ .

**Bacteriophage host ranges.** The results of our morphological characterization of the phages were related to phage host





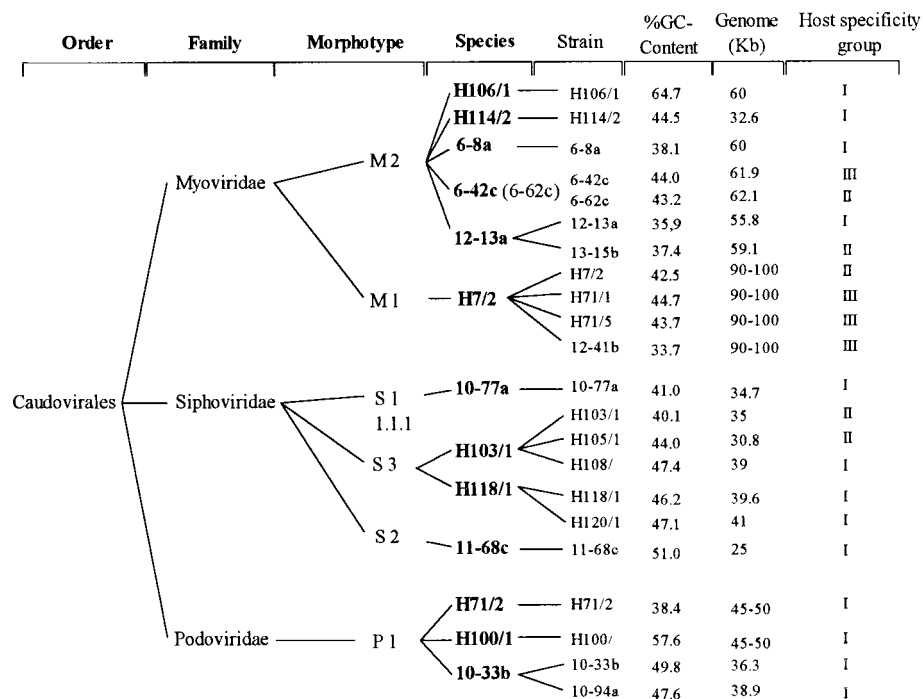


FIG. 5. Arrangement of 22 phages as members of an order, families, morphotypes, and species. Phage density data, GC contents of DNAs, and host range groups are also shown.

and some species formerly classified as members of the genus *Vibrio* (e.g., *Vibrio marinus*) (18, 40) are now thought to be closely related to the *Pseudoalteromonas* group.

Although we investigated only a small part of the marine bacterial community, we established that there is great genetic variation in the infectious marine bacteriophages, which leads to high levels of species and strain diversity. It is likely that with in future studies increased genetic diversity among phages will be discovered, especially in groups of bacteria belonging to the "silent majority" of marine bacteria that have not been cultured yet.

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