# Increases in permeability of *Escherichia coli* outer membrane induced by polycations

Takashi Katsu, Shuichi Yoshimura and Yuzaburo Fujita

Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Okayama University, Tsushima, Okayama 700, Japan

Received 21 November 1983

The action of polycations (such as polylysine and compound 48/80) on *Escherichia coli* was studied with use of Ca<sup>2+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup> and TPP<sup>+</sup> ion-selective electrodes. Rapid efflux of Ca<sup>2+</sup> was observed when a polycation was added in cell suspension. The polycation treatment promoted a drug-inducing K<sup>+</sup> release from the cytoplasmic membrane. TPP<sup>+</sup> uptake was also increased by addition of a polycation. Without the polycation treatment, the uptake of TPP<sup>+</sup> was largely suppressed due to a permeability barrier of the outer membrane. The results show that a polycation disrupted the permeability barrier of the outer membrane.

Polycation

Polylysine

Compound 48/80

Ion-selective electrode

Outer membrane

Membrane permeability

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Gram-negative bacteria have an outer membrane in their cell structure. Many hydrophobic antibiotics or macromolecular proteins (such as lysozyme) cannot permeate through the outer membrane [1]. This permeability barrier of the outer membrane is disrupted when cells are treated with EDTA [1]. It is now well established that LPS is located at the outside of the outer membrane, and divalent cations (e.g. Ca2+ and Mg2+) maintain the outer membrane structure [2]. About half as much as LPS was released by the EDTA treatment from the outer membrane [1,3]. EDTA removes Ca2+ and other divalent cations from the membrane, and this removal presumably triggers the release of LPS and the disruption of the permeability barrier of the outer membrane.

Polymyxin, known as a polycationic amphipathic antibiotics, binds strongly to LPS, and also disrupts the permeability barrier of the outer membrane [2,4]. It seems likely that divalent ca-

Abbreviations: TPP<sup>+</sup>, tetraphenylphosphonium ion; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; PVC, polyvinyl chloride; Mops, 4-morpholinepropanesulphonic acid; FCCP, carbonyl cyanide p-trifluoromethoxyphenylhydrazone

tions at the binding sites are replaced by polymyxin molecules. We have found that polymyxin treatment induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from *E. coli* cells leading to disruption of the outer membrane structure [5]. This result prompted us to investigate the action of other polycations on the outer membrane. It was found that various polycations (such as polylysine and compound 48/80) released Ca<sup>2+</sup> from *E. coli* cells and promoted gramicidininduced K<sup>+</sup> permeability of the cytoplasmic membrane. An increase in TPP<sup>+</sup> uptake was also observed after polycation treatment. These results show that polycations disrupted the permeability barrier of the outer membrane.

## 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The changes in ion fluxe of  $K^+$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $TPP^+$  were measured with ion-selective electrodes (ISEs). These ISEs were constructed by the use of PVC-based membranes as in [6-10]. PVC membranes had the following composition: (a)  $K^+$  ISE [6-8], 1 mg valinomycin, 50  $\mu$ l di(n-octyl)sebacate and 25 mg PVC; (b)  $Ca^{2+}$  ISE [8], 0.9 mg N,N'-di(11-ethoxycarbonylundecyl)-N,N'-4,5-tetramethyl-3,6-dioxaoctane diamide ( $Ca^{2+}$  neutral carrier, ETH 1001), 65  $\mu$ l o-nitrophenyl n-octyl ether and 35 mg

PVC; (c) TPP<sup>+</sup> ISE [9,10], 0.1 mg sodium tetraphenylborate,  $60 \,\mu$ l di(n-octyl)phthalate and 25 mg PVC. The materials dissolved in tetrahydrofuran were poured into a flat Petri dish of 30 mm diameter, and then the solvent was evaporated off at room temperature. The resulting PVC membrane was used as a sensor membrane. The large interference of compound 48/80 with the  $Ca^{2+}$  ISE did not permit precise determination of  $Ca^{2+}$  release by this compound.

The bacterial strain used in this study was *E. coli* W3133, a derivative of K12. The bacteria were grown at 37°C in minimal salt medium [11] supplemented with 1% polypeptone. Cells were harvested in the late exponential phase of growth, washed twice with buffer (50 mM Mops-Tris and 100 mM choline chloride, pH 7.2), and suspended in this buffer at 1 mg cell protein/ml. Protein content was determined as in [12].

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Fig. 1 shows  $Ca^{2+}$  release upon addition of poly(L-lysine) (degree of polymerization = 20). The  $Ca^{2+}$  release was observed immediately after addition of polylysine. The addition of L-lysine (monomer) did not induced any  $Ca^{2+}$  release. The  $Ca^{2+}$  release implies disruption of the outer mem-

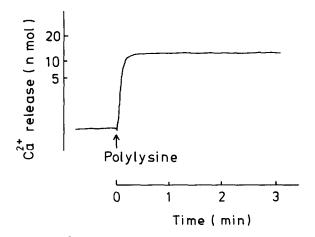


Fig. 1.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from *E. coli* cells upon addition of polylysine. Cell suspension (0.1 ml, 0.1 mg cell protein) was added to buffer solution (2.0 ml) containing 50 mM Mops-Tris (pH 7.2) and 100 mM choline chloride. At arrow, 50  $\mu$ l polylysine (final concentration: 25  $\mu$ g/ml) was added.

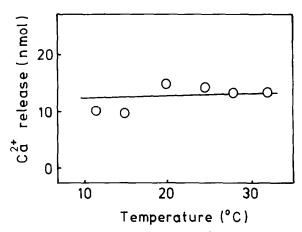


Fig. 2. Temperature dependence of Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from *E. coli* cells. The amount of release was determined from the Ca<sup>2+</sup> efflux within 2 min after polylysine addition.

brane structure, since divalent metal ions (such as Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup>) are essential to maintain the membrane structure [2]. Fig. 2 shows the temperature dependence of Ca<sup>2+</sup> release. A rapid efflux of Ca<sup>2+</sup> was observed irrespective of the temperature. Authors in [3] reported that LPS, existing in the outer membrane, was released when E. coli cells were treated with EDTA, and the rates of the release did not vary at 37 and 0°C. The EDTA treatment causes elimination of Ca2+ and other divalent cations from the outer membrane, triggering the release of LPS and disruption of the permeability barrier of the outer membrane. The Ca<sup>2+</sup> release by polylysine and its temperatureinsensitive nature suggest that polylysine treatment also disrupted the barrier function of the outer membrane.

To determine more directly the effect of polylysine on the outer membrane, we investigated the synergism of polylysine on the action of gramicidin, a channel-forming ionophore [13]. The addition of gramicidin alone to cells was less effective due to the barrier function of the outer membrane. If gramicidin molecules reach the cytoplasmic membrane, pores of diameter 4 Å are formed and thus K<sup>+</sup> is released from the cytoplasmic membrane. Fig. 3 shows an increase in gramicidin-induced K<sup>+</sup> permeability upon addition of polylysine at 37°C. Without polylysine, K<sup>+</sup> release did not take place at this concentration of gramicidin.

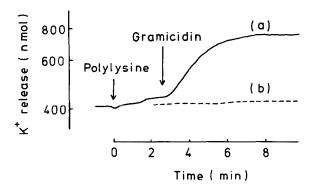


Fig. 3. Gramicidin-induced  $K^+$  permeability change (37°C); (a) and (b) results with and without addition of polylysine, respectively. Cells (0.1 ml, 0.1 mg cell protein) were added to 2.0 ml of 50 mM Mops-Tris (pH 7.2) and 100 mM choline chloride. At the first arrow 50  $\mu$ l polylysine (final concentration:  $25 \mu$ g/ml) was added [(a) only]. Gramicidin (final concentration:  $1 \mu$ M) was added at the second arrow [both (a) and (b)].

The following experiment further demonstrated the disruption of the permeability barrier by polylysine treatment. It is known that the lipidsoluble cation, TPP+, diffuses passively across the membrane depending on the membrane potential [9,10]. Such diffusion of TPP+ does not to a great extent occur without EDTA treatment of cells [14]. The barrier function of the outer membrane hinders penetration of TPP<sup>+</sup> into the cells. Fig. 4 shows an increase in TPP+ uptake upon addition of polylysine. At zero time, an E. coli suspension was added to buffer solution containing 10<sup>-5</sup> M TPP+ and 10 mM sodium lactate. A small TPP+ uptake was observed. When polylysine was added in this suspension, the TPP+ uptake was largely promoted, indicating that polylysine disrupted the barrier function of the outer membrane. Addition of an uncoupler, FCCP, brought about the efflux of the accumulated TPP+. FCCP abolished completely the membrane potential.

Although our experiments demonstrate that polylysine disrupted the permeability barrier of the outer membrane, we found that another polycation, compound 48/80 [7], also enhanced gramicidin-induced K<sup>+</sup> permeability and TPP<sup>+</sup> uptake, similar to the action of polylysine. Thus, we conclude that the disruptive action of a polycation on barrier function took place irrespective of the kind of polycation.

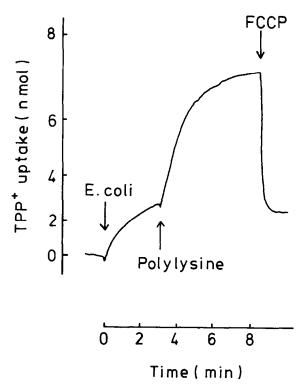


Fig. 4. Uptake of TPP<sup>+</sup> after addition of polylysine. Assay mixtures consisted of 1.0 ml of 50 mM Mops-Tris (pH 7.2), 100 mM choline chloride, 10 mM sodium lactate, and  $10^{-5}$  M TPPC1. At the first arrow,  $50 \mu$ l cell suspension (0.05 mg cell protein) was added. The second arrow indicates the time when  $25 \mu$ l polylysine (final concentration:  $25 \mu$ g/ml) was added, and at the third arrow FCCP (final concentration:  $1 \mu$ M) was added.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

This work was supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (no. 58771621) from the Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture of Japan.

## REFERENCES

- [1] Leive, L. (1974) Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci. 235, 109-129.
- [2] Schindler, M. and Osborn, M.J. (1979) Biochemistry 18, 4425-4430.
- [3] Leive, L., Shovlin, V.K. and Mergenhagen, S.E. (1968) J. Biol. Chem. 243, 6384-6391.
- [4] Storm, D.R., Rosenthal, K.S. and Swanson, P.E. (1977) Annu. Rev. Biochem. 46, 723-763.

- [5] Katsu, T., Yoshimura, S., Tsuchiya, T. and Fujita, Y. (1983) in preparation; presented at the 6th Symposium on Biomembrane-Drug Interaction, Kyoto, Japan, IIA-16.
- [6] Katsu, T., Tanaka, A. and Fujita, Y. (1982) Chem. Pharm. Bull. 30, 1504-1507.
- [7] Katsu, T., Tasaka, K. and Fujita, Y. (1983) FEBS Lett. 151, 219-222.
- [8] Morf, W.E. and Simon, W. (1978) in: Ion-Selective Electrodes in Analytical Chemistry (Freiser, H. ed) vol. 1, pp. 211-286, Plenum, New York.
- [9] Kamo, N., Muratsugu, M., Hongoh, R. and Kobatake, Y. (1979) J. Membrane Biol. 49, 105-121.

- [10] Hosoi, S., Mochizuki, N., Hayashi, S. and Kasai, M. (1980) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 600, 844-852.
- [11] Tanaka, S., Lerner, S.A. and Lin, E.C.C. (1967) J. Bacteriol. 93, 642-648.
- [12] Lowry, O.H., Rosebrough, N.J., Farr, A.L. and Randall, R.J. (1951) J. Biol. Chem. 193, 265-275.
- [13] Pressman, B.C. (1976) Annu. Rev. Biochem. 45, 501-530.
- [14] Hirota, N., Matsuura, S., Mochizuki, N., Mutoh, N. and Imae, Y. (1981) J. Bacteriol. 148, 399-405.