COMPARATIVE METABOLISM OF CARBOHYDRATES IN THE PSEUDOMONADS

by

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A THESIS

submitted to

OREGON STATE COLLEGE

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

June 1958

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The understanding and love of my wife has made this thesis possible.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

To Professors Chih H. Wang and Campbell M. Gilmour for their tolerant guidance, advice, and help.

To my parents, whose encouragement and understanding made reaching this goal possible.

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COMPARATIVE METABOLISM OF CARBOHYDRATES IN THE PSEUDOMONADS

INTRODUCTION

An understanding of the processes whereby carbohydrates are utilized for biosynthesis and energy production in living cells is a prerequisite to the understanding and control of life processes. The marked increases
in knowledge in this field gained over recent years have
been due largely to the development of new physical and
chemical techniques and to the advent of radioactive
tracers. With these advances in methodology it has become
more feasible to explore metabolic patterns in the intact
cell and thus avoid the possibility of overlooking systems
which may be destroyed when the cell is disrupted.

Many attempts to clarify the processes of assimilation and dissimilation, or metabolism, of carbohydrates were made during the nineteenth century. However, it was not until, at the turn of the century, Eduard Buchner demonstrated fermentation in cell-free yeast preparations that a practical approach to the study of carbohydrate metabolism was made available (25, p.180). The isolation of hexose-diphosphate by Harden and Young was the beginning of work by Embden, Meyerhof, Parnas, Warburg, and others which eventually led to the description of glycolysis, the pathway by which glucose is degraded to lactate in muscle or to CO2 and ethanol in yeast. Although for

many years glycolysis was considered to be the major pathway for glucose catabolism in living things, the finding by Harrison of glucose dehydrogenase in liver and by Warburg and Christian (2, p.203) of a glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase in yeast suggested that glycolysis was not the sole mechanism for glucose dissimilation. Since that time other pathways for glucose degradation have been found in the presence or absence of the glycolytic sequence. The findings of Horecker and others (31, pp.141-178) indicate that glucose may be degraded via a cyclic mechanism involving the phosphates of hexose, pentose, sedoheptulose, triose, and tetrose. Observations by De-Moss, Bard, and Gunsalus, and Gunsalus and Gibbs (17, pp. 98-99) suggest that glucose degradation in Leuconostoc mesenteroides proceeds via 6-phosphogluconate to CO2, ethanol, and lactate by mechanisms entirely different from those of glycolysis. Finally, studies by Entner and Doudoroff (15, pp.853-862) indicate that in Pseudomonas saccharophila, glucose may be degraded via 2-keto-3-deoxy-6-phosphogluconate in another non-glycolytic pathway. The possibility that glucose may be dissimilated via other unknown pathways is still relatively unexplored.

The reaction sequences mentioned above are all pathways for which glucose is the substrate. As such, these pathways may be referred to as primary pathways of glucose

breakdown. Although primary pathways function in providing energy, they do not provide a great variety of the intermediates for the biosynthesis of cellular material (25, p.182). It has been generally observed, however. that in non-fastidious organisms other sequences of reactions may provide intermediates for synthesis of amino acids and produce more energy from the products of primary glucose dissimilation (24, pp.988-995). These reaction sequences usually have as their initial substrate acetate, which arises from the decarboxylation of pyruvate formed via primary degradation pathways. Thus, the acetateutilizing pathways have been termed "secondary" pathways of glucose catabolism. Three general mechanisms have been proposed for such secondary pathways. The Knoop-Thunberg condensation (2, pp.489-490) is thought to involve the union of two moles of acetate to yield succinate, fumarate, malate, and oxalacetate successively. Decarboxylation of oxalacetate and the resulting pyruvate produces a single mole of acetate which may then combine with another mole of acetate and go around the cycle again. The tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA cycle) involves the condensation of acetate and oxalacetate to form citrate which enters a cyclic series of reactions to reform oxalacetate. Recent reports indicate that variations may occur in the TCA cycle, however, when organisms are grown on acetate

(23, pp.988-995). As outlined for Pseudomonas aeruginosa by Campbell, Smith, and Eagles (10, p.594), and for Ps. KB1 by Kornberg and Madsen (22, pp.651-653), iso-citrate may be split by iso-citratase to form succinate and glyoxylate. The significance of this reaction appears to be twofold. Glyoxylate thus produced may serve as a glycine precursor or source of C1 fragments; or, according to Wong and Ajl (36, pp.1013-1014) the combination of glyoxylate and acetate to form malate may serve as an additional source of C4 units to replace those drained off for biosynthesis. Finally, acetate may also enter a non-cyclic pathway which involves its conversion to glycolate, glyoxylate, formyl, and eventually CO2. The function of this pathway is thought to be to provide a source of C1 and C2 fragments for the synthesis of glycine, purines, and pyrimidines (7, pp.372-376). In addition, reactions which involve condensation of Cg and C1 units, generalized under the heading of CO2 fixation, may play an important role in providing C4 compounds for biosynthesis (2, p.450).

Although the study of carbohydrate metabolism in animal or plant tissues has been productive, the use of bacteria for this purpose has several advantages. The ease
of obtaining large quantities of cells is, of course, obvious. The fact that bacteria may be studied under what

might be considered normal conditions is in distinct contrast to the drastic changes in environment to which higher plant or animal tissues must be subjected for study. In general, higher reaction rates are observed with bacteria, probably reflecting in part the relatively unhampered diffusion of substances to and away from the cell. Finally, bacteria display a diversity of metabolic reactions hitherto not found in other forms of life.

Carbohydrate metabolism in the organisms grouped under the family <u>Pseudomonadaceae</u> has been demonstrated to be comprised of unique catabolic pathways. These organisms, usually found in soil or in fresh or sea water, have been noted for the variety of materials they may use as carbon and energy sources. Pseudomonads are generally gram negative, straight rods which are motile by virtue of single or tufted polar flagella (8, p.88). Usually they are aerobic and many of them produce fluorescent, watersoluble pigments.

As early as 1941, Lockwood, Tabenkin, and Ward (27, pp.51-61) had reported on the possible use of <u>Pseudomonas</u> and <u>Phytomonas</u> species for commercial production of gluconate and 2-ketogluconate. Since these compounds are not involved in glycolysis it was apparent that in these organisms a pathway for glucose degradation other than glycolysis was present. Further investigations of glucose

catabolism in Ps. aeruginosa (12, pp.49-50) and Ps. fluorescens (20, pp.743-751) indicated that glucose dissimilation in these organisms proceeded through gluconate, 2ketogluconate, alphaketoglutarate, and pyruvate. The continued oxidation of glucose and the formation and utilization of pyruvate in the presence of fluoride provided evidence against the participation of the glycolytic pathway in the pseudomonads (39, p.222). Considerable insight into the metabolism of Pseudomonas was gained when Entner and Doudoroff (15, pp.853-862) identified the pathway of glucose catabolism in Ps. saccharophila with the aid of arsenite, azide, and iodoacetate blocking techniques and radioactive tracers. In this pathway, glucose is degraded via 6-phosphogluconate and 2-keto-3-deoxy-6-phosphogluconate to pyruvate, the carboxyl group of which is derived from C-1 and C-4, and the methyl group of which is derived from C-3 and C-6 of glucose. Shortly thereafter, Wood and his co-workers (39, pp.222-233) described a similar pathway in Ps. fluorescens which functioned concurrently with a pentose cycle pathway. Further indications of Entner-Doudoroff (E-D) and pentose-involving pathways in pseudomonads were found by Lewis et al. (26, pp.273-286) and Gibbs and DeMoss (16, pp.689-694). In the organism studied by the latter two authors, Zymomonas motilis (formerly Ps. lindneri), although the E-D sequence apparently was

functioning, the products of pyruvate decarboxylation were reduced to ethanol. This is in contrast to <u>Ps. saccharophila</u> wherein secondary glucose degradation pathways are present by which acetate or the products of pyruvate decarboxylation are oxidized to CO₂ or converted to cell material (36, pp.187-193). That acetate oxidation probably proceeds via the TCA or similar cycle in other pseudomonads is indicated by the findings of Campbell and Stokes (10, pp.853-858), Barret and Kallio (3, pp.517-525), and Kornberg and Krebs (24, pp.988-995).

With the finding of unique pathways of glucose catabolism in certain pseudomonads, interest has become focused on the occurrence and relative importance of these pathways in other members of this group. Existing methods of estimating the participation of pathways in glucose catabolism in microbial systems may be classified into three categories. They are (1) those based on the relative specific activities of fermentation products produced by organisms utilizing specific Cl4-labeled glucose substrates (7, pp.6093-6097), (2) those based on the specific activity of CO₂ produced during metabolism of specific Cl4-labeled substrates (22, pp.703-713), and (3) those based on the per cent radiochemical recovery in the respiratory CO₂ of organisms growing on specific Cl4-labeled glucose substrates (32, pp.1869-1874). The first of these

methods requires that fermentation products be produced in quantities large enough to be collected and analyzed, a requisite which is not fulfilled by many organisms. second method is useful in determining the relative contributions of labeled substrate carbons to the respiratory CO2; however, computation of pathways participation by this method requires information which is often not readily available. The last method which gives the pathways participation directly, based on the amount of glucose utilized, requires only the accurate recovery of respiratory CO2, and is thus well suited for application to a large number of organisms. The application of this method has been reviewed in the recent publication by Wang et al. (33). The approach consists essentially of determining the respiratory patterns of glucose catabolism in an organism by determining the relative rates at which various C14-labeled carbon atoms of glucose are converted to CO2. The results so obtained provide information which is sufficient to identify and estimate the relative importance of pathways of glucose catabolism functioning in the organism under study.

In the present study the basic catabolism of five pseudomonads will be covered. Radiorespirometric data obtained from Z. motilis, Ps. saccharophila, and Ps. reptilivora (formerly Ps. fluorescens, 18) provided

reference patterns for organisms in which glucose was known to be catabolized via the E-D pathway alone, the E-D pathway followed by the TCA cycle, or the E-D pathway and TCA cycle operating in conjunction with a pentose-involving pathway, respectively. In addition to the above organisms, Ps. aeruginosa and Ps. KBl were chosen for study because of interesting findings in previous investigations concerning their intermediary metabolism which had not revealed their overall picture of glucose catabolism (12, pp.49-50; 23. pp.651-653). By comparing the reference patterns mentioned above with those obtained from Ps. aeruginosa and Ps. KBl, insight was gained into the mechanisms of glucose catabolism in these two organisms and, on the basis of assumptions which will be discussed later, the proportion of glucose catabolized via each pathway found to be operative was estimated.

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

Cultures and Cultural Conditions

The origin and cultural conditions for each organism used in this study are given in Table I. The medium employed in each tracer experiment was identical to that used in obtaining the cell crop with the exception that Cl4-labeled substrates were used to replace the non-isotopic carbon source. In all experiments, conditions were used which were optimum for growth in the hope that the catabolic rates thus observed might represent more closely those prevailing in normal cells.

C14-labeled Substrates

Glucose 1-, 2-, and 6-Cl4 were obtained from the National Bureau of Standards through the kind cooperation of Dr. H. Isbell. Glucose 3,4-Cl4 was prepared from rat liver glycogen according to the method of Wood, Lifson, and Lorber (38, pp.475-489). Gluconic acid 1-, 2-, 3,4-, and 6-Cl4, prepared from the correspondingly labeled glucose compounds according to the method of Moore and Link (30, pp.293-311), were generously and kindly supplied by Mr. Dallas E. Jones. All labeled substrates were adjusted to approximately equal specific activity before use.

Table I

ORGANISMS AND CULTURAL CONDITIONS USED IN THIS STUDY

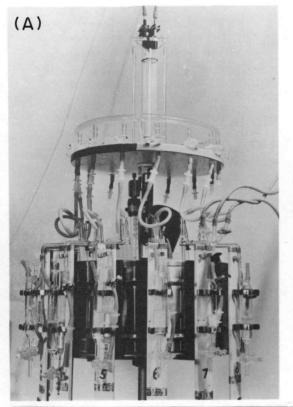
Organism	Strain	Basal medium	Reference			
Zymomonas motilis	NRRL B-806	Tryptone, yeast extract, 0.03 M phosphate, pH 6.7	16, p.689			
Pseudomonas saccharophila	G*	NH ₄ Cl, salts, 0.03 M phosphate, MgSO ₄ , traces FeCl ₃ and CaCl ₂	35, p.178			
Pseudomonas reptilivora	NRRL B-6bs	(NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ , 0.05 M phosphate, KCl, MgSO ₄ , trace MnSO ₄ , FeSO ₄ , yeast extract	21, p.5142			
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	ATCC 9027	As for Ps. reptil- ivora, but without yeast extract	9, p.166			
Pseudomonas KB1	,	As for Ps. aeruginosa	23, p.651			

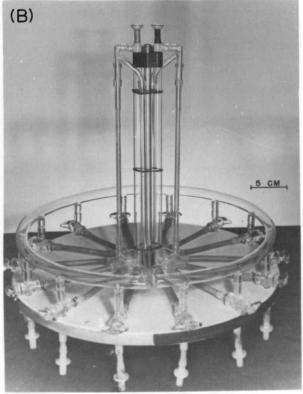
^{*}Obtained from the wild strain by streaking on glucose agar.

Time Course Experiments

The radiorespirometric experiments were carried out in apparatus designed for micro scale operation. The advantages of performing experiments of this type on a micro scale include ease of operation as well as economy in cells and substrate requirements. In addition, the use of small numbers of cells results in cell constituents of sufficient specific activity to permit radioautographic analyses after the utilization of as little as 0.5 microcurie of labeled substrate. The apparatus used for the experiments described herein is shown in Figure la. It consists of a flow control system (Figure 1b) and a number of incubation flask-CO2 trap assemblies (Figure 1c) mounted on Warburg manometer holders. The gas flow control system is made up of two semicircular bypass manifolds each of which is connected to a separate flowmeter (The Manostat Corporation no. 9142). Sweeping gas may be routed directly through the manifold or indirectly via the flowmeter into the flasks via polyethylene connectors (A). This arrangement provides for uniform gas flow rates through each individual flask during the experiment, and also permits the use of different incubation atmospheres in each of the two 7-flask sets.

As is shown in Figure 1c, the incubation flask-CO2 trap assemblies are mounted on Warburg manometer holders





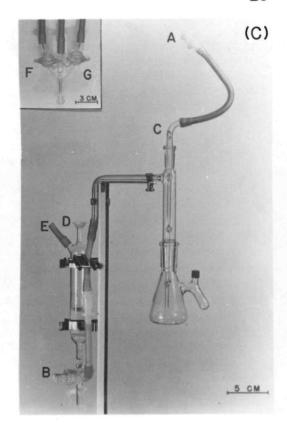


Figure 1. Radiorespiro-metry apparatus.

- (a) Whole assembly.
 (b) Gassing manifold.
 (c) Incubation flask and CO2-trap assembly.

to enable shaking of the incubation flasks at controlled temperatures. Each assembly consists of an incubation flask (50 ml.) with a tip-in sidearm, a connecting head (Standard Taper 19/38), a sparging tube (Standard Taper 10/30) and a CO₂ trap, which is essentially a sintered glass filter equipped with a three way stopcock (B). The incubation flask is connected to the CO₂ trap through two pieces of gum rubber tubing joined by a polyethylene connector for ease in dissembling. The gas flow rate may be adjusted by means of a screw clamp or needle valve mounted appropriately on the rubber tubing.

During an experiment, the sparging tube C is joined to the gassing manifold with a polyethylene connector. Usually 10 ml. of 0.5 N CO₂-free NaOH are placed in the trap. Experiments designed to test the absorption efficiency of the trapping system have indicated that the CO₂ produced by organisms metabolizing glucose while suspended in a buffered medium (pH 6.7) was quantitatively trapped at an air flow rate of 41 ml. per minute. As an experiment progresses, the trap solution is replaced periodically by the following procedure. A dispensing head (insert, Figure 1c) is connected to the ball joint D, stopcock B is turned to disconnect the incubation flask and connect the trap to the delivery arm, and the trap contents are allowed to flow into an Erlenmeyer flask.

A pinchclamp is applied to position E and the trap solution is forced out into the sample container by applying pressure from a hand pump connected to the center of the dispensing head. Stopcock B is now turned diagonally to block all of its openings, the pinchclamp is removed from E, and 5-10 ml. of CO₂-free water are introduced into the trap through stopcock F. The rinsing water is forced out of the trap through stopcock B as before, stopcock B is closed, and 10 ml. of fresh NaOH are introduced into the trap by opening stopcock G. Stopcock B is now turned to reconnect the incubation flask to the CO₂ trap. The entire sampling operation requires about one minute per flask.

In a typical radiorespirometric experiment using the apparatus just described, identical quantities of specifically labeled substrates are added separately to the incubation flask sidearms. Ten ml. aliquots of an appropriate cell suspension are added to the main compartments of the incubation flasks and the flasks are connected to the CO₂ trap assemblies. The assemblies are placed on the Warburg bath at the desired temperature and the sparging tube inlets are connected to the gassing manifold. Upon adjustment of the gas flow rate to 41 ml. per minute, the CO₂ traps are charged with NaOH and the substrates tipped into the culture compartments. For aerobic experiments air is

used as the sweeping gas to avoid artifacts which might arise with the use of CO₂-free air or oxygen (35, p.184). For anaerobic experiments a mixture of 0.5 per cent CO₂ in nitrogen is usually employed. At hourly intervals, the trap solutions are replaced and the carbonate therein is precipitated as BaCO₃ by the addition of 1 N BaCl₂-NH₄Cl solution. By following the radiochemical recovery in the CO₂, it is possible to determine the point of substrate exhaustion and from this to estimate the termination point of the experiment. Culture purity tests revealed that no contamination occurred in experiments continued for six to 12 hours. Upon termination of the experiment, the cells and medium are separated by centrifugation and subsequently processed for radioactivity assay.

Radioactivity Measurements

The respiratory CO₂ samples obtained during an experiment in the form of barium carbonate are mounted onto aluminum planchets by centrifugation and assayed for radio-activity with a thin window Geiger-Meuller counter. Determinations are made to a standard deviation of two per cent and corrected for background and self-absorption in the conventional manner. The activities of substrates, cells, and media are determined by wet combustion to CO₂ (13, pp. 1225-1226; 19, pp.1503-1504) and counted as BaCO₃ as above.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In four of the five organisms with which the present study is concerned, the catabolism of glucose is complexed by the concurrent operation of both primary and secondary pathways. The interpretation of radiorespirometric data obtained from such organisms would be facilitated if the patterns produced either by the primary or secondary pathways of catabolism could be examined separately. Consequently, in developing an approach to the study of carbohydrate metabolism with the radiorespirometric method it appeared reasonable first to examine systems wherein only a single catabolic route was functioning before attempting to interpret patterns resulting from combinations of both primary and secondary glucose degradation routes. This may be achieved in two ways. The first of these is the selection of an organism which is known to have only a single stage of glucose utilization, and the second is supplying a key intermediate such as acetate, which may be catabolized only by secondary utilization pathways. Data obtained in this manner may then serve as reference patterns for determining pathways in organisms whose catabolic pathways are unknown. The findings to be presented here are the results of at least three identical radiorespirometric experiments for each organism and are reproducible to a maximum deviation of 10 per cent.

The radiorespirometric patterns for glucose catabolism in Z. motilis are presented in Figure 2. Studies by other workers (16, pp.689-694) indicate that glucose dissimilation in this organism proceeds via the E-D sequence alone to yield CO2, ethanol, and small amounts of lactic acid. To facilitate comparison, all of the patterns to be presented here have been plotted on the basis of relative time units against per cent interval recovery. One relative time unit (RTU) is defined as the time required for all of the administered substrate to be consumed. The rapid and nearly complete conversion of glucose C-1 to CO2 shown in Figure 2 undoubtedly reflects the degree to which pyruvate, arising from glucose, is decarboxylated, while the negligible recovery of C-2 and C-6 in CO2 are indications that, in Z. motilis, the products of pyruvate decarboxylation are not oxidized. Evidently, Z. motilis, requiring preformed amino acids for growth, does not possess a secondary catabolic pathway, and the products of primary glucose breakdown are reduced to ethanol.

The data obtained from glucose 3,4-C¹⁴ (Figure 2, Table II) represent the average recovery of C-3 and C-4 in the CO₂. As such, one cannot compare them directly to data obtained from the singly labeled substrates. It is possible, however, to calculate the contribution of either

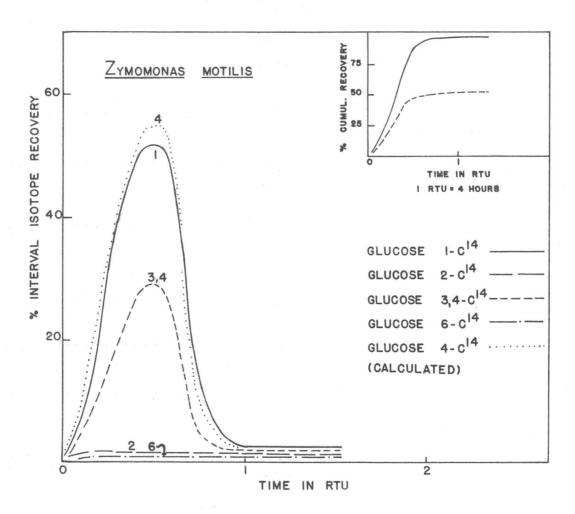


Figure 2. Radiorespirometric pattern. Zymomonas motilis growing on glucose.

Table II

CUMULATIVE HOURLY C1402 RECOVERIES

C14-LABELED GLUCOSE SUBSTRATES

Zymomonas motilis							Pseudomonas saccharophila				
Hour	1	4*	2	3.4	_6_		1	4*	2	3,4	6_
				7 99	_		40	40	3.0	972	2
1	34	34	0	17	0		40	40	12	23	6
2	86	94	0	47	0		83	85	21	48	11
3**	99	102	0	51	0		90	91	26_	53	15
4	99	102	0	51	0		91	95	36	57	19
5							91	100	39	61	22

^{*}Calculated. See equation (1).

^{**}Point taken as 1 RTU.

C-3 or C-4 alone in this case, since it is known that, in line with the fact that no secondary pathway of glucose oxidation is present, C-3 of glucose does not appear in the COo but is recovered almost quantitatively in the methyl carbon of ethanol (16, p.693). Under these considerations, it is apparent that the recoveries of glucose 3.4-C14 represent only the conversion of C-4 of glucose to CO; hence, multiplying the interval isotope recoveries in the CO2 from glucose 3.4-Cl4 by a factor of two should indicate the C1402 yield from C-4. The calculated interval CO, recoveries from this carbon are indicated by the dotted line in Figure 2, and are in good agreement with those observed for C-l of glucose. It is thus apparent that the assumption that C-1 and C-4 of glucose are converted to CO2 at equal rates and to equal extents via the E-D or similar sequence is well supported.

The interpretation of radiorespirometric data from Ps. saccharophila (Figures 3 and 4) is complicated by the fact that glucose is degraded both via both primary and secondary pathways in this organism. The nature of the secondary degradation pathways alone is revealed by the radiorespirometric patterns obtained with specific Cl4-labeled pyruvate and acetate as substrates. Studies by Baddiley et al. (1, pp.771-776) indicate that, with growing organisms in which the TCA cycle is present, C-2 of

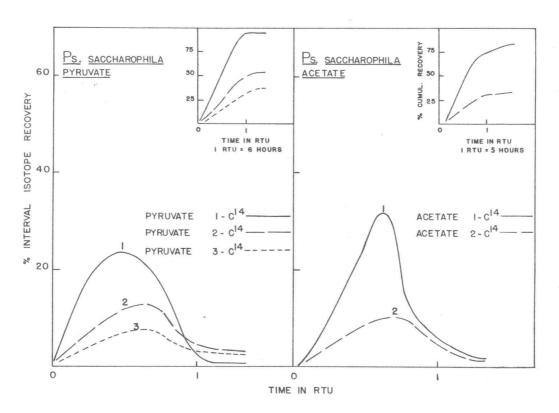


Figure 3. Radiorespirometric patterns. Pseudomonas saccharophila growing on pyruvate or acetate.

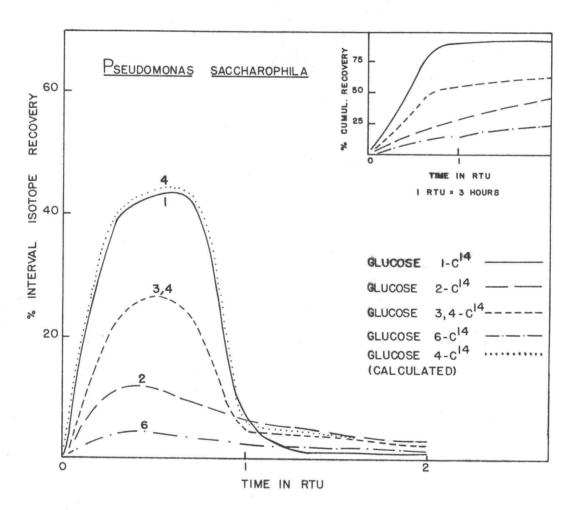


Figure 4. Radiorespirometric pattern. Pseudomonas saccharophila growing on glucose.

acetate is conserved for cellular biosynthesis in contrast to C-1 which appears in the CO₂ in relatively large quantities. The ratio of acetate C-1 to acetate C-2 in CO₂ generally approaches a value of 2. Therefore, the high ratio of acetate C-1 to acetate C-2 observed from Ps. saccharophila is taken as an indication that TCA cycle mechanisms are probably involved in acetate oxidation, and that acetate is utilized in biosynthetic functions. The actual extent of growth of Ps. saccharophila and the other organisms used in this study on glucose, pyruvate, and acetate may be seen in Table III. The higher recoveries of acetate C-2 over C-1 in the cells of Ps. saccharophila also support the above conclusions (Table IV).

The high rate of conversion of C-1 of pyruvate to CO₂ as compared to the successively lower rates of conversion of C-2 and C-3 are most likely the result of extensive pyruvate decarboxylation giving rise to acetate or its derivatives. Reference to Table V indicates that not all of pyruvate C-1 appears in CO₂, and this fact suggests that some pyruvate may have undergone transamination or entered into CO₂ fixation reactions. With over 90 per cent of pyruvate C-1 rapidly appearing as CO₂, it follows that most of C-2 and C-3 of pyruvate are converted to C-1 and C-2 of acetate, respectively. This presumption is supported by the finding that C-2 of pyruvate is recovered

Table III

INITIAL AND FINAL CELL WEIGHTS

		Final cell we	ight (mg. ± aver	erage deviation	
Organism	Initial weight (mg.)	Glucose*	Pyruvate*	Acetate*	
Zymomonas motilis	1.9	2.9 ± 0.1			
Pseudomonas saccharophila	11.2	15.3 ± 0.8	14.5 ± 0.2	13.9 ± 0.3	
Pseudomonas reptilivora	6.0	10.3**	6.7 ± 0.4	4.6**	
Pseudomonas aeruginosa	10.9	14.5 ± 0.5	11.5 ± 0.0	8.8 ± 0.7	
Pseudomonas KB1	6.0	13.1 ± 1.0	-		

^{*100} micromoles

^{**}Single flask

Table IV
FINAL PER CENT ISOTOPE RECOVERIES

		Per cent recovery*					
Organism	Substrate	co 2	Cells	Medium	Total**		
Zymomonas	Glucose 1-Cl4	99	1	4	92		
motilis	Glucose 2-Cl4	0	1	61	62		
	Glucose 3,4-Cl4	51	2	30	82		
	Glucose 6-Cl4	0	3	47	50		
	Glucose U-C14	27	0	41	68		
Pseudomonas saccharophila	Glucose 1-Cl4	91	8	4	103		
	Glucose 2-Cl4	43	50	7	100		
	Glucose 3,4-C ¹⁴	63	39	7	109		
	Glucose 6-Cl4	28	57	18	103		
	Glucose U-Cl4	30	50	8	88		
	Pyruvate 1-C14	95	3	10	108		
	Pyruvate 2-C14	54	10	32	96		
	Pyruvate 3-C14	39	35	27	101		
	Acetate 1-C14	79	14	95	95		
	Acetate 2-Cl4	3 7	58	88	88		

^{*}At termination of experiment (5 hours).
**No attempt made to recover volatiles.

Table V

CUMULATIVE HOURLY C1402 RECOVERIES

C14-LABELED GLUCOSE SUBSTRATES

14	23	3,4	6	1	4*	2	3,4	6_	1	4*	2	3,4	6
14	23	10	unicus Abrahistorian accomitis da la com					**************************************	***************************************	***********		annochmun.	
		TO	17	40	31	19	21	11	27	26	15	19	11
49	53	46	43	70	55	36	34	21	60	55	34	40	25
57	57	52	47	83	58	43	41	28	69	57	38	44	31
60	59	54	48	86	57	46	44	31_	70	58	39	45	32
61	61	55	49	88	59	48	46	33	71	59	40	46	33
63	61	56	49	-					71	59	40	46	33
		61 61	61 61 55	61 61 55 49	61 61 55 49 88	61 61 55 49 88 59	61 61 55 49 88 59 48	61 61 55 49 88 59 48 46	61 61 55 49 88 59 48 46 33	61 61 55 49 88 59 48 46 33 71	61 61 55 49 88 59 48 46 33 71 59	61 61 55 49 88 59 48 46 33 71 59 40	61 61 55 49 88 59 48 46 33 71 59 40 46

^{*}Calculated. See equation (1).

^{**}Point taken as 1 RTU in column where underlining occurs.
Underlined values used for estimation of pathways.

in the CO₂ to a greater extent than C-3, a relationship which is expected if acetate arising from pyruvate were oxidized via the TCA cycle (32, p.1870). Also in line with this concept is the greater recovery of C-3 over C-2 of pyruvate in the cells (Table IV).

that the ratio of pyruvate C-2 to C-3 in the CO₂ should be comparable to that of acetate C-1 to C-2. Such is not the case, however, an observation which may be partially rationalized by the suggestion that, in the case of pyruvate, energy is obtained both from the decarboxylation step and from subsequent TCA cycle oxidation of acetate, resulting in more C₂ units being incorporated into cellular material. With acetate, however, both energy-producing and biosynthetic reactions are competing for substrate. Consequently, C-1 of acetate is combusted to CO₂ by extensive operation of TCA cycle processes and a greater ratio of C-1 to C-2 of acetate appears than that observed for pyruvate C-2 to C-3.

The establishment of patterns to be expected from the secondary catabolic pathways in <u>Ps. saccharophila</u> facilitates the interpretation of radiorespirometric data obtained from this organism on glucose (Figure 3). Since, in <u>Ps. saccharophila</u>, glucose is known to be catabolized via the same primary pathway as found in <u>Z. motilis</u>

(17. p.99), some resemblance between the two patterns is expected. Thus, in both cases, rapid and nearly complete conversion of C-1 to CO2 is observed. In the E-D sequence, pyruvate formed from glucose derives its carboxyl carbon from C-1 and C-4, its carbonyl carbon from C-2 and C-5, and its methyl carbon from C-3 and C-6. In Ps. saccharophila the carboxyl and methyl carbons of acetate arising from the decarboxylation of pyruvate should thus correspond to C-2 and C-6 of glucose. The radiorespirometric pattern from these carbon atoms (Figure 4) resembles that given in Figure 3 for C-2 and C-3 of pyruvate and thus is in support of this contention. The recovery of glucose 3.4-Cl4 in the CO2 is higher, however, in relation to that from glucose 1-C14 than was observed in the case of Z. motilis. This results from the fact that both C-3 and C-4 of glucose are contributing to the CO2 in the case of Ps. saccharophila (although by different pathways), while in Z. motilis, only C-4 contributes. To confirm the prediction that C-1 and C-4 should appear equally in the CO2 from Ps. saccharophila, the contribution from C-4 alone must be calculated. If the scheme proposed by Entner and Doudoroff (15, p.851) is accepted, C-3 and C-6 should be equivalent in metabolic behavior at the level of pyruvate. Thus, the recovery of C-3 in the CO2 can be represented by that of C-6, and

where G represents the per cent recovery of isotope from glucose labeled as indicated by the subscripts. As is shown in Figure 4 and Table II, the calculated C-4 recoveries in the CO₂ agree with those from C-1 and so tend to bear out the above assumptions.

After establishing the type of patterns to be expected from microorganisms in which the E-D sequence alone, or the E-D sequence in conjunction with the TCA cycle were functioning, the patterns given by an organism in which a pentose pathway was present in addition to the E-D sequence and TCA cycle were examined. The radiorespirometric data for such an organism, Ps. reptilivora, are shown in Figures 5 and 6 and in Tables V and VI. patterns for pyruvate and acetate resemble closely those obtained from Ps. saccharophila, and thus support the contention that acetate or its derivatives is metabolized via the TCA cycle in this organism (3, pp.517-525). It may be noted that growth did not occur in Ps. reptilivora on acetate, a finding which was of interest in view of the fact that Lewis et al. (26, pp.273-286) trapped this substance to identify and estimate the importance of pathways involved in glucose catabolism in this organism. This lack of growth in the acetate experiment is probably the cause of the relatively low ratio of acetate C-1 to C-2 found in

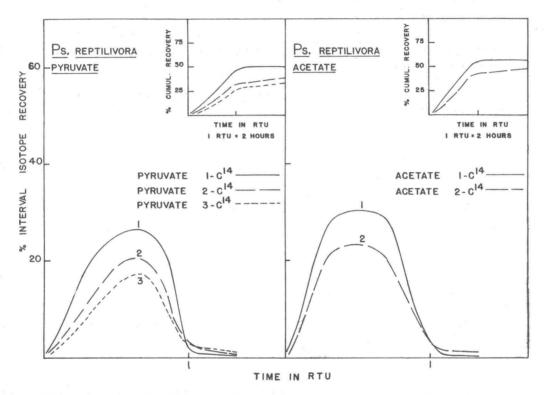


Figure 5. Radiorespirometric pattern. <u>Pseudomonas</u> reptilivora utilizing pyruvate or acetate.

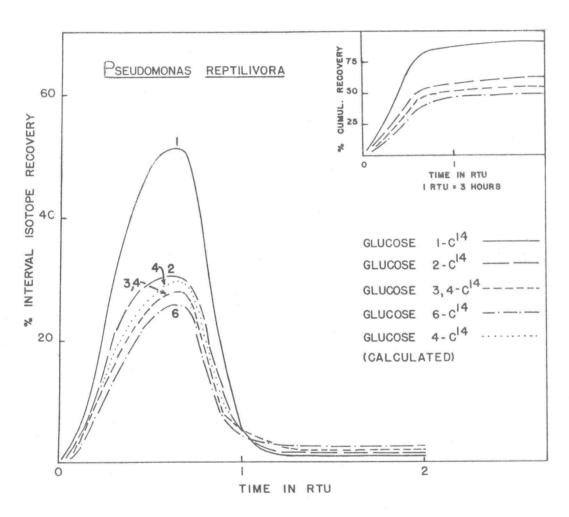


Figure 6. Radiorespirometric pattern. <u>Pseudomonas</u> reptilivora growing on glucose.

Table VI

FINAL PER CENT ISOTOPE RECOVERIES

Pseudomonas reptilivora

	Per cent recovery*							
Substrate	CO 2	Cells	Medium	Total*				
Glucose 1-C ¹⁴	87	10	10	107				
Glucose 2-Cl4	61	32	13	106				
Glucose 3,4-014	56	36	11	103				
Glucose 6-Cl4	49	40	10	99				
Glucose U-C ¹⁴	63	34	9	105				
Pyruvate 1-C14	70	8	10	88				
Pyruvate 2-Cl4	38	28	37	103				
Pyruvate 3-C14	32	30	45	107				
Acetate 1-C14	79	12	3	94				
Acetate 2-Cl4	62	29	8	99				

^{*}At termination of experiment (6 hours).

^{**}No attempt made to recover volatiles.

the respiratory CO2. The acetate activity found in the cells (Table VI) probably indicates that partial oxidative assimilation and exchange occurred under these conditions.

reptilivora to grow on acetate even though this compound is apparently an intermediate in glucose oxidation. The recent review by Kornberg and Krebs (24, pp.988-995) and the paper by Wong and Ajl (37, pp.1013-1014) indicates that the ability of an organism to utilize acetate as a sole source of carbon and energy may be related to its content of malate synthetase. This enzyme is presumably essential for the production of C4 units to be channeled into biosynthesis as supplements for those oxidized in energy production via the TCA cycle. Since malate synthetase is absent in organisms not grown on acetate, it appears likely that the failure of glucose-grown Ps. reptilivora to grow on acetate may be due to a lack of this enzyme.

The radiorespirometric patterns obtained from Ps.

reptilivora growing on labeled glucose are somewhat different from those given by organisms displaying only the

E-D pathway and the TCA cycle. Although comparable rates
of conversion of C-1 and C-3,4 to CO2 are evident in both

Ps. reptilivora and Ps. saccharophila, marked increases
may be seen in the recovery of C-2 and C-6 in the former

organism. The data from pyruvate and acetate experiments have indicated that TCA cycle sequences are operative in Ps. reptilivora. Inasmuch as C-2 and C-6 of glucose are equivalent to the carboxyl and methyl of acetate, respectively, (Figure 13) in the E-D sequence, it is likely that part of the recovery in the CO₂ from C-2 and C-6 is the result of acetate oxidation via the TCA cycle. This presumption is supported by the higher recovery of glucose C-2 over C-6 in the CO₂ and the corollary of glucose C-6 recoveries over C-2 in the cells (Table VI).

The findings of Lewis and her collaborators (26, p.285) indicate that in <u>Ps. reptilivora</u> E-D and TCA cycle processes operate concurrently with a pentose-involving pathway, and it will be of value to illustrate how radio-respirometric data may be interpreted to illustrate this point.

In assessing the contribution of the pentose pathway in <u>Ps. reptilivora</u> it is necessary first to estimate the contribution of C-4 of glucose to the CO₂. This may be done using equation (1) under the following assumptions:

- (a) Only the E-D pathway, in conjunction with the TCA cycle, and the pentose pathway participate in glucose catabolism.
- (b) In the E-D sequence followed by the TCA cycle, C-1, C-2, and C-3 of glucose are equivalent to C-4, C-5, and C-6 at the level of pyruvate.

(c) The conversion of C-3, C-4, C-5, and C-6 to CO2 via extensive pentose cyclic processes is not significant.

The values calculated for C-4 recovery in the CO2 from Ps. reptilivora are presented in Table VI and plotted in Figure 6. The relative height of the C-1 curve over the calculated C-4 curve indicates the extent to which pentoseinvolving processes are contributing to glucose catabolism in addition to the E-D pathway. The recoveries of C-4 in the CO2 may be taken as indices of the decarboxylation of pyruvate arising via the E-D pathway and, as such, should represent the limiting values for recovery of C-2 of glucose via the E-D and TCA cycle route. Since the conversion of C-2 of glucose proceeded at a higher rate than C-4, it is probable that pentose cycle mechanisms were also contributing to the conversion of this carbon to CO2. If it is assumed that the ratios of CO2 recoveries from C-1 to C-2 of pyruvate, where pyruvate is the sole substrate, may be used to estimate the same ratio for pyruvate derived from glucose via the E-D pathway, the maximum fraction of C-2 of glucose appearing in the CO2 via pentose cycle mechanisms may be estimated.

Let P = the per cent recovery in the CO₂ of the pyruvate carbon atom indicated by the subscript. Let G = the per cent recovery in the CO2 of the glucose carbon atom indicated by the subscript.

Then, assuming for glucose catabolized via the E-D pathway and TCA cycle

$$\frac{G_4}{G_2} = \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

(3)
$$G_2$$
 via pentose = G_2 observed - $(G_4) \frac{P_2}{P_1}$

The value for C-2 of glucose converted to CO2 via the pentose pathway is 26 per cent when estimated by equation (3) above.

The radiorespirometric data may also be used to estimate the relative importance of each pathway assumed to be present in <u>Ps. reptilivora</u>. From the assumptions upon which equation (1) is based, it follows that for every mole of glucose catabolized via the pentose pathway, a mole of C-l is converted to CO₂. For every mole of glucose catabolized by way of the E-D pathway, a mole of C-l and C-4 are converted to pyruvate carboxyl. Since C-l and C-4 presumably behave identically after the level of pyruvate in the E-D pathway,

(4) Per cent of administered glucose catabolized via = G₁ - G₄ the pentose pathway

where G is the cumulative per cent recovery in the CO₂ of the carbon indicated by the subscript. It is important to note here, that unless the quantity of glucose actually utilized is known, the amount metabolized via the E-D pathway cannot be estimated. This results from the fact that not all of the pyruvate arising from glucose via this pathway is decarboxylated, and hence the recovery of C-4 of glucose is not stoichiometrically related to the glucose consumed via the E-D pathway. If, however, the cumulative recovery data used in equation (4) are taken at 1 RTU (point of glucose exhaustion as indicated by low interval recovery in the CO₂ from C-1 of glucose), then equation (4) becomes

(5) Per cent of utilized glucose catabolized via = G₁ - G₄ the pentose pathway

By the use of recoveries at 1 RTU, the need for determining glucose chemically among a number of other reducing substances is eliminated. The validity of equation (5) is, of course, limited by the amount of intact hexonic acid derived from glucose which remains in the medium. This source of error is indicated by the recovery of C-1 of glucose in the medium, and amounts to a maximum of 10 per cent, as shown in Tables VI and VII. By taking into account assumption (a) on page 35, wherein

Total glucose Glucose via catabolized E-D pathway + Glucose via pentose pathway

Table VII
FINAL PER CENT ISOTOPE RECOVERIES

		Per cent recovery*						
Organism	Substrate	c o 2	Cells	Medium	Total*			
Pseudomonas	Glucose 1-C14	88	9	1	98			
aeruginosa	Glucose 2-Cl4	48	38	3	89			
	Glucose 3,4-Cl4	46	34	6	86			
N	Glucose 6-C14	33	43	6	82			
	Glucose U-C14	47	38	5	90			
	Pyruvate 1-C14	70	10	17	97			
	Pyruvate 2-014	40	26	16	82			
	Pyruvate 3-Cl4	37	32	22	91			
	Acetate 1-014	85	10	1	96			
	Acetate 2-C14	63	36	3	102			
Pseudomonas KB1	Glucose 1-C ¹⁴	71	9	2	82			
	Glucose 2-C14	40	40	2	83			
	Glucose 3,4-C14	46	39	5	89			
	Glucose 6-Cl4	33	47	3	83			
	Glucose U-C14	43	31	3	77			

^{*}Duration of experiments 6 hours.

^{**}No attempt to recover volatiles.

then

(6) Per cent of utilized Per cent of utiglucose catabolized = 100 - lized glucose catabvia the E-D pathway olized via the
pentose pathway

Calculated on this basis, 72 per cent of the glucose utilized by Ps. reptilivora was catabolized via the E-D pathway with the remainder going via the pentose route.

Having obtained reference patterns for organisms in which glucose is catabolized via the E-D pathway alone (Z. motilis), the E-D pathway in conjunction with the TCA cycle (Ps. saccharophila), and the E-D pathway and TCA cycle plus a pentose-involving pathway (Ps. reptilivora), attention was focused on Ps. aeruginosa and Ps. KBl, organisms whose primary pathways of glucose catabolism were unknown. The radiorespirometric patterns for Ps. aeruginosa growing on acetate and pyruvate (Figure 7) are similar to those of Ps. saccharophila and Ps. reptilivora. Findings by Campbell and others (11, p.594) indicate that Ps. aeruginosa catabolizes acetate via a modified TCA cycle in which glyoxylate and succinate are produced by the action of "aconitase" on cis-aconitate. It is to be noted here that no growth occurred on acetate, possibly reflecting, as discussed earlier, a lack of enzymes required for biosynthesis of C4 from C2 units. As with Ps. saccharophila and Ps. reptilivora, the rapid conversion

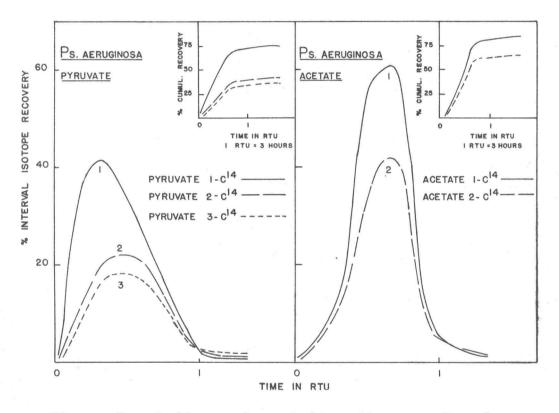


Figure 7. Radiorespirometric patterns. <u>Pseudomonas</u> aeruginosa utilizing pyruvate or acetate.

of pyruvate C-1 to CO₂ and the conservation of C-3 over C-2 for cellular material, as indicated by the cell recoveries (Table VII), indicates that pyruvate is probably a major intermediate in glucose catabolism.

With glucose as the sole substrate (Figure 8), both Ps. aeruginosa and Ps. KBl (Figure 9) produce radiorespirometric patterns similar to those from Ps. reptilivora (Figure 6). The high rates of C-1 over calculated C-4 recoveries probably reflect, as with Ps. reptilivora, the extent of pentose pathway participation in glucose catabo-The conversions of C-2 of glucose to CO2 via the pentose pathway, as estimated by equation (3), are for Ps. aeruginosa, 13 per cent, and for Ps KB1, assuming the same ratio for pyruvate C-1 to C-2 as in Ps. aeruginosa, five per cent. Calculation of the pathways participation (Table IX) indicated that in Ps. aeruginosa, 71 per cent of the administered glucose was catabolized via the E-D pathway, whereas in Ps. KBl, 87 per cent of the glucose was catabolized via the E-D pathway. It is of interest to note that, although the extent of pentose pathway participation for both Ps. aeruginosa and Ps. reptilivora is essentially the same, the proportion of C-2 of glucose converted to CO2 via the pentose pathway is higher for Ps. reptilivora. It therefore appears that in Ps. reptilivora,

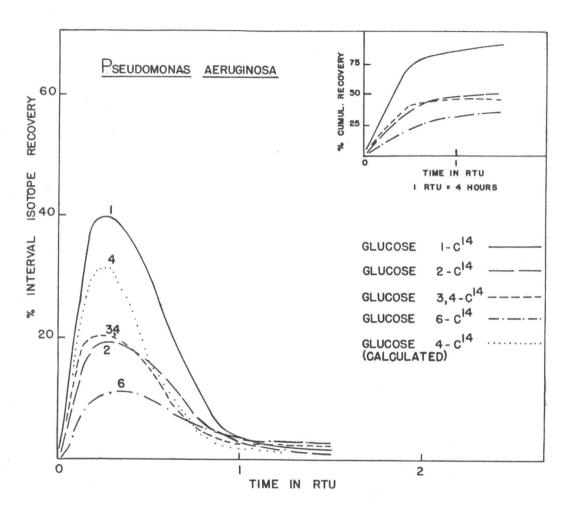


Figure 8. Radiorespirometric pattern. Pseudomonas aeruginosa growing on glucose.

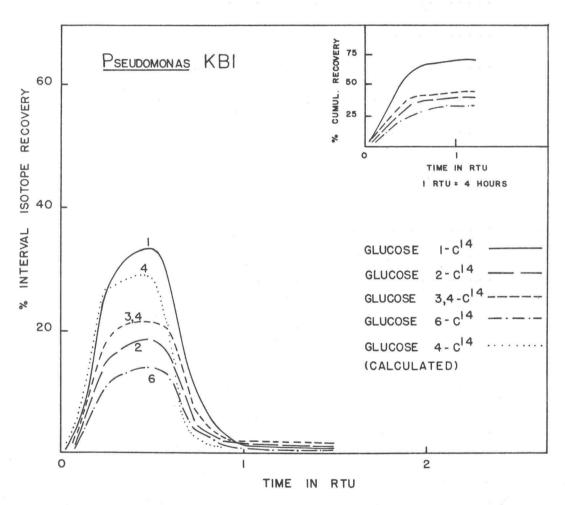


Figure 9. Radiorespirometric pattern. <u>Pseudomonas</u> KBl growing on glucose.

more glucose is diverted into pentose cycle pathways than in the other organisms studied.

In attempting to gain further insight into the carbohydrate metabolism of the pseudomonads, radiorespirometric patterns were obtained for Ps. reptilivora, Ps. aeruginosa, and Ps. KBl growing on Cl4-labeled gluconate substrates. By the use of these substrates it was hoped to determine whether gluconate was actually equivalent to glucose, as suggested by Wood (39, p.232) for a pseudomonad having two primary pathways of glucose degradation. The patterns obtained with gluconate are shown in Figures 10, 11, and 12. In comparison to the patterns from glucose, those from gluconate all showed essentially the same extent of conversion of C-1 to CO2. The recovery of C-2 and C-6 of gluconate, however, was lower than that observed for glucose in Ps. reptilivora, equal to that observed for glucose in Ps. aeruginosa, and higher than that observed for glucose in Ps. KBl. Moreover, in all three organisms, the recoveries of C-3,4 of gluconate in the CO2 were higher than recoveries of the corresponding carbons of glucose. In view of the finding by Campbell, Linnes, and Eagles that equal growth of Pseudomonas aeruginosa occurs on glucose and gluconate, the significance of this change in radiorespirometric pattern apparently does not lie in the differences in energy producing

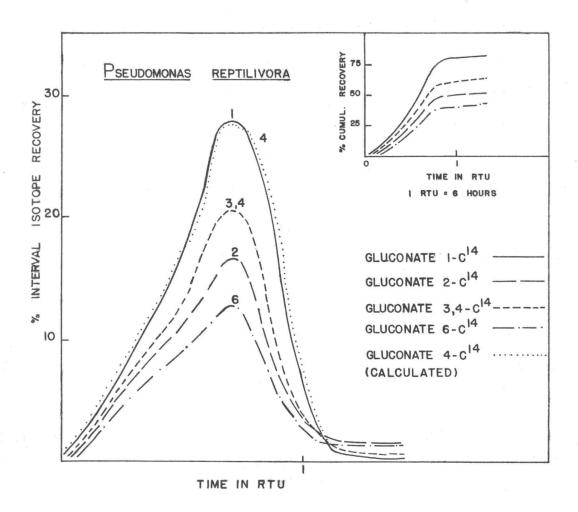


Figure 10. Radiorespirometric pattern. <u>Pseudomonas</u> reptilivora growing on gluconate.

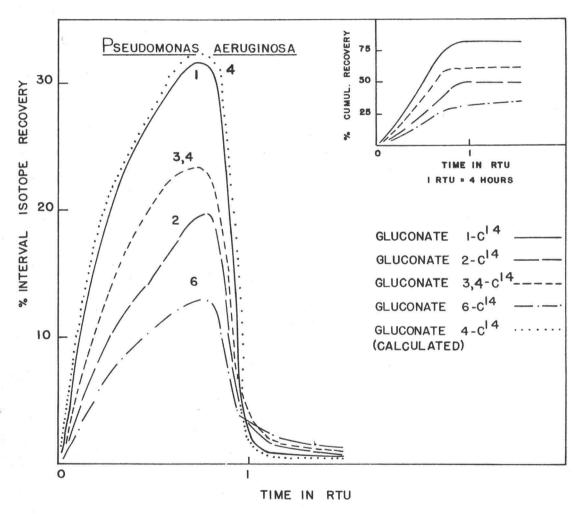


Figure 11. Radiorespirometric pattern. <u>Pseudomonas</u> <u>aeruginosa</u> growing on glucose.

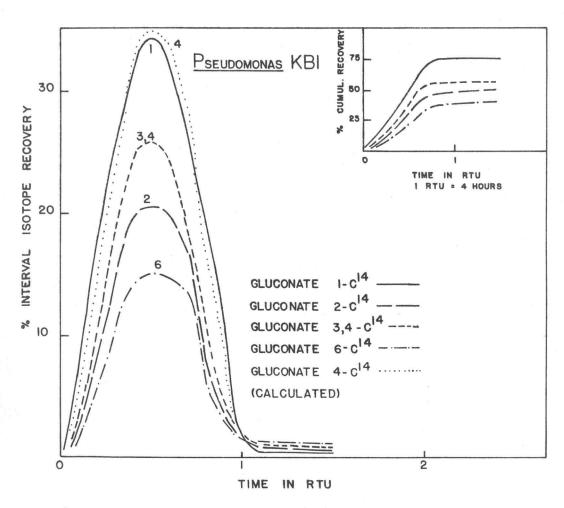


Figure 12. Radiorespirometric pattern. <u>Pseudomonas</u> KBl growing on gluconate.

potentiality of the two substrates. Moreover, Wood's scheme for the pathways of carbohydrate catabolism in Pseudomonas fluorescens indicates that the patterns obtained from gluconate should be identical to those from glucose. The trend for the radiorespirometric patterns observed with gluconate to resemble those of Ps. saccharophila on glucose, however, suggests that gluconate is catabolized via the E-D route in preference to the pentose pathway. If this implication were true, then the gluconate C-4 recoveries in the CO2 estimated by equation (1) should agree with the observed recoveries of gluconate C-1. The closeness of the observed values for C-4 in the CO2 are indicated in Figures 10, 11, and 12 and in Table VIII, and thus lend credence to the hypothesis that gluconate is catabolized in these organisms mainly via the E-D sequence.

In summary, a schematic diagram of the pathways of carbohydrate catabolism in pseudomonads, modified from the scheme presented by Wood (39, loc. cit.) to account for our findings, is presented in Figure 13. The reactions which are germain to each organism studied in the present work are coded as indicated in the legend. The route of glucose catabolism for Z. motilis and Ps. saccharophila proceeds through the E-D pathway alone up through the stage of pyruvate decarboxylation. In Z. motilis, the

Table VIII

CUMULATIVE HOURLY C1402 RECOVERIES

C14-LABELED GLUCONATE SUBSTRATES

	Pseu	domon	as re	ep ti li	vora	Ps	Pseudomonas aeruginosa				Pseudomonas KB1				
Hour	1	4*	2	3,4	6	_1	4*	2	3,4	_6_	1	4*	_2_	3,4	6
1	6	8	5	6	4	22	21	10	14	7	21	16	10	13	8
2	17	18	13	14	10	50	55	25	36	17	50	56	31	39	22
3**	35	36	25	28	20	84	90	45	60	30	74	73	46	54_	35
4**	63	64	42	49	33	86	91	48	62	33	75	73	48	55	37
5	80	79	48	59	39	87	91	48	62	33	75	74	49	56	38
6**	82	82	50	61	41			-							
7	83	82	50	61	47	400 0		-	-	***	-				•

^{*}Calculated. See equation (1).

^{**}Point taken as 1 RTU in column where underlining occurs.

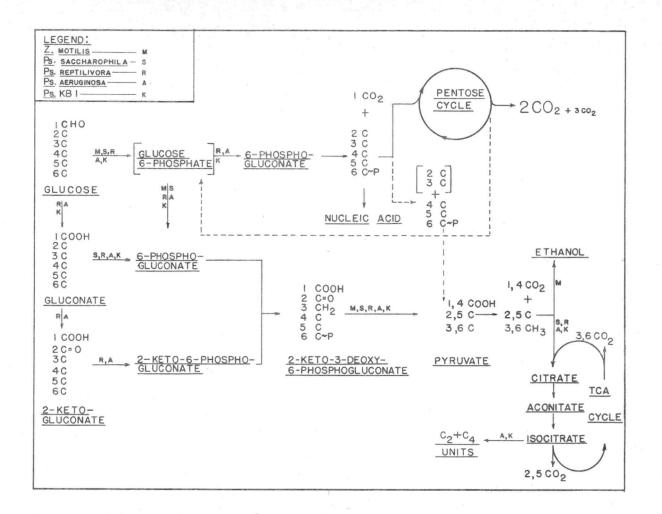


FIGURE 13. PATHWAYS OF CARBOHYDRATE CATABOLISM IN THE PSEUDOMONADS.

products of this step are reduced to ethanol since no mechanism is available for oxidizing them further, whereas in Ps. saccharophila, the acetate arising from pyruvate is converted to CO2 and cell material probably via the TCA cycle. In Ps. aeruginosa and Ps. KBl, the data indicate that primary degradation of glucose proceeds via a combination of E-D or E-D like routes as well as pentoseinvolving pathways, as has been indicated for Ps. reptilivora by Lewis et al. (26, p.234). The undefined fate of pentose carbon is indicated by the dashed arrows. Reports by Bernstein and Sweet (4, p.153; 5, p.190) show that the pentose of nucleic acid may be derived directly from glucose-derived pentose as indicated, while the scheme presented by Lewis et al. (26, p.277) suggests that ketolase cleavage may result in C2 and C3 units from pentose. Acetate arising via this latter route would have as its carboxyl carbon C-3 of glucose and as its methyl carbon, C-2. If the C3 unit representing C-4, C-5, and C-6 of glucose were in equilibrium with triose arising by way of the E-D pathway, the net result in the radiorespirometric pattern would be similar to that from the E-D pathway, with the exception that C-4, as calculated from equation (1) would be somewhat higher than C-1 because of the higher conversion of C-3 of glucose to CO2 as compared to C-6. The latter effect would result, of course, from the

identity of C-3 of glucose with acetate carboxyl instead of acetate methyl as is the case with glucose C-6. The type of pattern described above was found with Ps.

aeruginosa growing on gluconate and the above sequence is an alternate possibility to explain the pattern obtained on that substrate.

Secondary pathways of carbohydrate catabolism in Ps.

saccharophila, Ps. reptilivora, and Ps. KBl all proceed
through acetate or its derivative through the TCA cycle.

The routes for additional C2 and C4 unit synthesis in Ps.

aeruginosa and Ps. KBl differ, as indicated by the findings of Campbell, Smith, and Eagles (11, p.594) and Kornberg and Medsen (13, p.653) and are portrayed in Figure 13 as indicated by these authors.

A summary of the various fates of glucose carbon in the organisms studied in the present work is shown in Table IX. Equations used for the estimation of glucose utilized via the pentose pathway and for glucose entering the pentose cycle are discussed on pages 35-40. The estimations of the amount of glucose converted to acetate via the E-D pathway are based on the premise that C-l of glucose is converted to CO₂ by Z. motilis and Ps. saccharophila only via pyruvate decarboxylation, and that this holds true for C-4 of glucose in Ps. reptilivora, Ps. aeruginosa, and Ps. KBl. The amount of acetate thus

Table IX THE FATE OF GLUCOSE IN THE PSEUDOMONADS

Fate of catabolized glucose	Zymomonas motilis	Pseudomonas saccharophila		Pseudomonas aeruginosa	Pseudomonas KB1
Per cent catabolized via pentose pathway	0	0	28	29	13
Per cent catabolized via E-D pathway	100	100	72	71	87
Per cent catabolized via pentose cycle (maximum)	-	,	26	13	5
Per cent converted to acetate via E-D path-way*	0	90	57	57	57
Per cent acetate de- rived via E-D pathway combusted to CO2**		40	82	69	54

^{*}Indicated as minimum per cent by glucose C-4 recovery.

**Computed by dividing per cent glucose converted to
acetate by recovery in CO2 of C-6 of glucose.

indicated represents a minimum value and is low to the extent of the CO2 fixation that occurs in these organisms. Values obtained for the per cent of acetate combusted to CO2 are based on the premise that C-6 of glucose is converted to CO2 only via the TCA cycle in all of the organisms studied. The relatively high combustion efficiencies found with acetate in the four pseudomonads having a TCA cycle serve to support the contention that much of the substrate carbon diverted into the pentose pathway is incorporated into cell material. The differences and similarities between pseudomonads made evident in Table IX indicate that radiorespirometry is a useful tool for detecting differences between organisms as closely related as Ps. reptilivora and Ps. aeruginosa (8, p.90) on a more fundamental basis than those heretofore used in classification.

SUMMARY

Mechanisms of carbohydrate catabolism in five pseudomonads have been investigated by determining the relative rates at which specific C14-labeled substrate carbon atoms were converted to CO2 in growing cultures. Insofar as this newly devised method involves studying respiratory characteristics by the use of radioactive tracers, it has been termed the "radiorespirometric" method. Identification of pathways by means of radiorespirometry lies in the fact that, in growing organisms, the rate of conversion to CO2 of various glucose carbon atoms is determined by the nature and relative importance of the catabolic pathways operative in a given organism (32, pp.1869-1874). present work, reference patterns were obtained for the Entner-Doudoroff (E-D) pathway alone from Zymomonas motilis (16, pp.689-694) for the E-D pathway and tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle from Pseudomonas saccharophila (15. pp.853-862), and for the E-D pathway and TCA cycle operating concurrently with a pentose-involving pathway from Pseudomonas reptilivora (26, pp.273-286). The degradation of glucose via the E-D pathway alone or in conjunction with the TCA cycle was found to produce equal rates of conversion of C-1 and C-4 of glucose to CO2. Glucose degradation via a combination of the E-D pathway, TCA

cycle, and pentose pathway, however, resulted in the conversion of C-1 of glucose to CO2 at a higher rate than C-4. Upon comparing the above patterns with those from two pseudomonads whose pathways of glucose catabolism were unknown, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Pseudomonas KBl, it was concluded that glucose was catabolized via a combination of the E-D, pentose, and TCA cycle sequences in the latter two organisms. The use of Cl4-specifically labeled gluconate as substrate to determine the equivalence of glucose and gluconate in organisms possessing a pentoseinvolving pathway resulted in patterns that resembled those obtained from Pseudomonas saccharophila growing on glucose. Thus gluconate appeared to be catabolized only via the E-D route in organisms in which glucose was degraded by both E-D and pentose pathways. Estimations of the participation of pentose-involving and E-D pathways based on cumulative C1402 recoveries indicates that the E-D pathway was the major route of glucose catabolism in all of the pseudomonads examined.

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