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Research on Population Organization and Communication in Microorganisms

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Abstract—This review concentrates on the history of the subfield of microbiology referred to as the population organization- and communication-related research direction (POCRRD). The focal points of POCRRD include intercellular interactions, information exchange between cells, and multicellular structures (colonies, biofilms, flocs, etc.). Special attention in this review is given to the contribution of Russian scientists to the development of POCRRD. In terms of POCRRD, microorganisms are viewed as social creatures that constantly communicate and form supraorganismic, intrinsically heterogeneous systems.

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This work deals with the history of the *population organization- and communication-related research direction* (POCRRD) in microbiology and sums up its conceptual basis. POCRRD places special emphasis on population structures (colonies, biofilms, cell aggregates, and flocs), on the functional specialization of microbial cells (the functional heterogeneity of populations), and on the mechanisms of information exchange between cells in these structures. Although most microbiologists believe that POCRRD was initiated and developed by scientists outside of Russia, the development of this research direction was actually antedated by Russian publications that have not yet received sufficient attention from specialists in the history of science [1].

1. Setting the Historical Stage for the Development of POCRRD

At the turn of the 20th century, the ideas of the biosphere as a coherent whole, a “thin film of life” (E. Suss and V.I. Vernadsky), and of the flora of the planet Earth as a continuous system (L.G. Ramensky) were put forward. It was suggested that evolution results from the formation of symbiotic systems involving several organisms (A.S. Famintsyn, B.M. Kozo-Polyansky, etc.), and parallels between human society and groups of animals (A. Espinas and P.A. Kropotkin) and even of plants (the “phytosociology” school in botany) were drawn. For instance, G.F. Morozov regarded a forest as a “complex organism” and a “social entity” [2]. Pio-

neering works on ecology (e.g., those published by E. Haeckel) and Spencer’s philosophical theory, which holds that the social structures formed by humans derive from those of animals, attracted the attention of researchers to the study of interactions between living organisms.

Of particular importance for the development of POCRRD was research on *microbial ecology*, which dates back to the beginning of the 20th century. The early studies in this field focused on the global biogeochemical role of microorganisms viewed as constituents of natural ecosystems and of the biosphere as a whole (works by S.N. Winogradsky, V.L. Omeliansky, M. Beijerinck, etc.). Although the works of microbial ecologists predominantly dealt with *interspecies interactions* in microorganisms, a large number of studies (conducted by D.M. Novogradsky, N.G. Cholodny, and N.A. Krasil’nikov, among others) were also concerned with processes carried out by single-species populations.

Of considerable interest were studies of the chemical factors produced by microorganisms that influence the development of their cultures. These factors are referred to as autoregulators. In the early 20th century, O. Rahn [3] and W. Penfold [4] revealed that substances triggering the onset of the exponential growth phase accumulate in the culture fluid during the lag phase. This system was analyzed in more detail in the studies of pro- and eukaryotic microorganisms over the course of more than 50 years (overviewed in G.I. El’-Registan’s dissertation [5]).

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It was N.D. Ierusalimsky who succeeded in carrying out the challenging task of theoretically generalizing the knowledge accumulated in this field, although the contributions of other scientists (N.A. Krasil'nikov, V.F. Perfil'ev, etc.) should also be recognized. In 1946–1949, Ierusalimsky [6–8] developed his concept of a bacterial culture as a coherent, organism-like system; this concept was formulated in his dissertation [9] in which the following systemic properties were emphasized:

1. The phenotypic heterogeneity of microbial cultures, which manifests itself in the coexistence of different (geno)types in bacterial populations that have to adapt to various conditions. This phenomenon was described by Ierusalimsky in terms of “adaptive modification.”

2. A culture's capacity to release chemical factors modulating its development and to assess its own density according to the concentrations of these factors (foreshadowing the quorum sensing concept developed in the West only in the 1990s—see the review by I.A. Khmel in this issue 10).

3. A unitary developmental cycle (ontogeny). Ierusalimsky was convinced that a “bacterial culture as a whole undergoes a sequence of certain age-dependent changes, an ontogeny” [11, p. 8].

4. Close relationship between a culture's development and environmental factors: “in order to understand the driving forces of the ontogeny of a bacterial culture, we should take into account that it develops as a coherent system involving cells and environmental conditions” [9, p. 157].

2. Main POCRRD Subfields

The POCRRD aspects in which significant progress was made during the second half of the 20th century are:

Research on the heterogeneity of microbial populations and on the polymorphism of microbial cells. This POCRRD subfield dates back to N.F. Gamaleya's work (1894) [12]. Using LiCl, he obtained various morphological variants of bacterial cells he termed “heteromorphic forms.” In 1920, R. Legroux and J. Magrou [13] revealed differences among the cells of a *Vibrio cholerae* colony. During the 1930s and 1940s, a school of medical microbiologists formed in Russia (M.A. Peshkov, V.D. Timakov, etc.) renowned for their works on L forms of pathogenic bacteria, i.e., forms whose cell wall is defective or lacking (reviewed in monograph [14]). This research paralleled analogous studies conducted abroad [15, 16]. During the second half of the 20th century, researchers succeeded in elucidating various stages of L transformation and describing L forms differing in their morphology and in the degree of completeness and irreversibility of L transformation. Of relevance to this subject are, among others, the works of V.V. Vysotsky et al. [17–19]. Research

was carried out on the formation of phenotypically distinct dissociants (phase dissociants) in microorganisms (see, e.g., [20–22]) whose cells differ in thickness and chemical composition of the cell envelope, growth and metabolite excretion rate, cell resistance to external factors, and the morphology of cells and whole colonies. The studies conducted at the Department of Microbial Physiology of the Biology Faculty of Moscow State University beginning in the late 1970s (see [23–25] and other articles) concentrated on the generation of L forms in cyanobacteria. Since 1983, studies on the heteromorphism of cyanobacteria associated with cells of higher plants (tobacco, nightshade, etc. [26–28]) have been in progress.

Studies conducted by S.G. Smirnov [29–31] at the Ivanovo State Institute of Medicine revealed that microbial populations consist of a number of distinct “cell clusters” including the following: (i) cell clusters that differ in growth and division rate; (ii) clusters of actively dividing, dormant, and spontaneously autolyzing cells; and (iii) cell clusters with different surface potential values. Additional variants of cell clusters (as denoted by Smirnov) were detected in subsequent studies. For example, a microbial biofilm can include two cell clusters, one composed of surface-attached cells and the other of buoyant, “planktonic,” cells [32, 33].

Research on chemical communication factors. In the late 1960s, A.S. Khokhlov et al. detected an A factor (subsequently identified as 3S-isocapryloyl-4S-hydroxymethyl- γ -butyrolactone [34, 35]) in populations of the actinomycete *Streptomyces griseus*. This factor induced streptomycin synthesis and spore formation in *S. griseus* mutants or dissociants that lacked these activities. In the early 1980s, further research on this subject was carried out by a team of Japanese scientists who described the mechanism of operation of the A factor inactivating the repressor of the genes involved in streptomycin synthesis [36, 37]. Since the early 1970s, a research team at the Institute of Microbiology, Russian Academy of Sciences (G.I. El'-Registan, V.I. Duda, V.A. Svetlichnyi, etc.) has investigated microbial autoregulatory factors (reviewed in [38]). They have characterized the self-regulatory systems that are based on factors d_1 (alkylhydroxybenzenes, AHB) functioning as anabiosis autoinducers, and d_2 (unsaturated fatty acids) serving as autolysis autoinducers ([39, 40] and other publications). In the 1970s, P.A. Pshenichnov and his associates from the Institute of Ecology of the Urals Division of the USSR Academy of Sciences published their first articles on the autometabolic regulation of the developmental cycle of an *E. coli* population, paying special attention to the substances that inhibit or stimulate its development [41–43]. The role of autoregulatory factors in *E. coli* populations was also investigated in a series of works by T.Ya. Vakhitov at the Institute of Superpure Preparations in St. Petersburg [44, 45]. In the 1970s, the research teams of J. Hastings and A. Thomas obtained data on the substances produced by marine luminescent

bacteria and pneumococci that induce luminescence and transformation competence, respectively, provided their concentrations are sufficiently high. An integrated concept concerning the operation of communication systems that sense cell density (quorum sensing systems, see review in this issue [10]) was developed in the 1990s.

The authors of this review made their own contribution to this area of experimental research by investigating the regulatory effects of biogenic amines in microbial systems. We established that serotonin stimulates growth, cell aggregation, and extracellular matrix formation in *E. coli* and *Rhodospirillum rubrum*, and promotes cyst formation in the myxobacteria *Polyangium sp.* Its high concentrations suppress membrane potential generation [46, 47]. Subsequently, we demonstrated growth stimulation by dopamine and norepinephrine in *E. coli* and in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Dopamine and serotonin, but not norepinephrine, stimulated the respiratory activity of *E. coli* cells; all three tested amines stimulated yeast respiration [48]. Using high performance liquid chromatography, we detected serotonin in the biomass of bacteria *Bacillus subtilis* and *Staphylococcus aureus*, norepinephrine in *B. subtilis*, *B. cereus*, *Proteus vulgaris*, and *Serratia marcescens*, and dopamine in a majority of the tested prokaryotes [49].

Research on physical communication factors. In the 1920s, the radiation from living cells stimulating the division of other cells was detected by A.G. Gurvich's research team. L.B. Severtsova [50] established that the radiation emitted by yeasts of the genus *Nadsonia* (the donor) enhances the cell density of irradiated cultures of bacteria of the genus *Bacillus* (the acceptor). The works of a number of Russian scientists, e.g., A.Kh. Tambiev and his associates, deal with the effects of millimeter radio waves on growth, colony structure, and enzyme biosynthesis in microorganisms (these data were generalized in the monograph [51]). In 1990, Yu.A. Nikolaev revealed [52] that a *Vibrio costicola* culture emits a signal that stimulates the growth of another culture separated by a quartz glass layer. Subsequently, analogous data were obtained by a team of Japanese microbiologists [53]. Presumably, ultrasound waves are involved in transmitting the signals. Chemical and physical communication factors seem to produce synergistic effects (see review [54]).

Research on social behaviors of microorganisms. In 1972, S.G. Smirnov introduced the concepts of *ethology*, the science dealing with animal behavior, into microbiology. He defined bacterial ethology as *the theory concerned with behavioral patterns of prokaryotes on the cell and population levels*. [31, 55]. Over the course of the last decades, ethological concepts were applied to bacteria in works by A.V. Oleskin [56, 57], J. Shapiro [58], and P. Corning [59]. Of particular interest are the data concerning the coordination of cell behaviors on the population-wide scale, including col-

lective aggression, the isolation of populations from one another, and cooperation. Cell cooperation enables a colony to move as a coherent entity on the substrate surface, as shown by K.N. Sherstobaev (1961) who investigated bacilli [60]. Coordinated movements of cells in a colony were investigated in detail in studies with myxobacteria (see review, [58]).

Research on colony architecture. Studies concerning colony organization were initiated in the 1970–1980s. For example, A.P. Puzyr' and O.A. Mogil'naya [61, 62] used electron microscopy to demonstrate the spatial orderliness of a bacterial colony as a coherent system comprising several ultrastructurally different cell layers. Starting from the mid-1980s, E.O. Budrene investigated the formation of structural patterns in bacterial colonies growing on an agar-containing medium [63, 64]. I.V. Botvinko [65, 66] argued that the extracellular biopolymer matrix performs structure-stabilizing and protective functions in a colony or biofilm. Signal molecules can diffuse in a hydrophilic matrix. J. Shapiro in his classical article "Bacteria as multicellular organisms" [58] considered the myxobacterium *Myxococcus xanthus* growing on a solid medium as a model system. Its starving cells form aggregates (fruiting bodies). Cells therein include the lysing and myxospore-forming subpopulations. Similar morphogenetic processes were revealed, e.g., in *B. subtilis*. On an agarized medium, its colony forms arboreal structures and thereafter films that cover the whole agar surface and contain fruiting bodylike formations [67]. *E. coli* K-12 biofilms form ordered periodic structures; it has been suggested that their formation results from the combined effects of poly- β -1,6-*N*-acetyl-*D*-glucosamine that causes cell adhesion and a hypothetical adhesion autoinhibitor [33]. Studies concerning bacterial adhesins and antiadhesins are in progress at the Institute of Microbiology of the Russian Academy of Sciences [54].

Over the course of the 20th century, research on population organization and communication in microorganisms placed particular emphasis on the **relationships between microbial populations and macroorganisms in the ecosystems** to which they belonged. Microorganisms release signal molecules while interacting with macroorganisms (in the context of symbiotic or parasite–host relationships) or with other microorganisms within the framework of an ecosystem. Evidence is mounting that macroorganisms exert their influence on autoregulatory processes in microorganisms. For instance, the L-canavanine produced by alfalfa plants inhibits quorum sensing systems responsible for exopolysaccharide II and violaceine synthesis by the bacterial symbiont *Sinorhizobium meliloti* [68].

3. An "Interim Report" on the Progress of POCRRD and Its Prospects for the Future

Taken together, the studies conducted in the research area under study convey the message that a microbial population consists of cells that differ in their

properties and functions. They can use chemical and physical (contact and, presumably, distant) communication channels. The communication systems provide for the integrity of the population, despite its lack of a central control agency, enabling microbial cells to display various social behaviors from aggression to cooperation. As a coherent system, a microbial population forms supracellular structures (exemplified by matrix). It is characterized by a unitary ontogeny (as originally termed by N.D. Ierusalimsky). A population is adapted to its life within the framework of an ecosystem and the biosphere as a whole.

POCRRD is related to the *biosocial paradigm* in biology that concentrates on supraorganismic (biosocial) systems ranging from coelenterate colonies to insect societies and ape groups. This paradigm also applies to humankind (biopolitics, see [56]). POCRRD is of considerable practical (clinical and biotechnological) importance. Interestingly, the formation of ordered structures such as biofilms by pathogens enhances their resistance to the host immune system and to antibiotics [69]. Population heterogeneity that manifests itself, e.g., in growth rate differences among microbial cells, makes it possible for a biotechnologist to efficiently select for strains of interest during continuous cultivation [70].

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