

Az. 45270_a

April 2021

Statement of the ZKBS on the suitability of *Escherichia coli* K12-derived strains as part of biological safety measures according to § 8 para. 1 GenTSV

1. General Information

With the entry into force of the amendment to the Genetic Engineering Safety Regulation (GenTSV) in March 2021, it is necessary that, in accordance with § 7 para. 5 GenTSV, the continued existence of already recognised biological safety measures (here: vector and recipient systems) is confirmed by the Central Committee on Biological Safety. Section 8 para. 1 of the amended GenTSV specifies the conditions under which the classification of a recipient organism can be recognised as part of a biological safety measure. These conditions are met if 1. a scientific description and a taxonomic classification of the recipient organism are available, 2. the recipient organism is not pathogenic for humans, animals or plants and does not exhibit any environmentally hazardous properties, 3. the recipient organism can only be multiplied under conditions that are rarely or not at all encountered outside genetic engineering facilities and 4. the recipient organism engages in only minimal horizontal gene exchange with other species.

This statement examines and evaluates whether strains derived from the original *Escherichia coli* K-12 isolate (*E. coli* K12-derived strains) meet the abovementioned conditions.

The *E. coli* K12-derived strains were already recognised as a biological safety measure (recipient organism) in the "Guidelines for protection against hazards from *in vitro* recombinant nucleic acids" in force since 1978 (most recently in the 5th revised version of 1986). This was also continued in the 1st Genetic Engineering Act of 1990. In the decades of widespread use of *E. coli* K12-derived strains as a biological safety measure, they have proven to be safe without exception.

1.1 Scientific description

The species *E. coli* belongs to the *Enterobacteriaceae* family. The family includes Gramnegative, non-sporulating, chemoorganotrophic, facultative anaerobic rods. *E. coli* belongs to the microbiome of the large intestine of almost all warm-blooded mammals. Some pathogenic members of the species can cause severe diseases in humans and animals [1].

E. coli K-12 is a strain isolated from a stool sample of a convalescent diphtheria patient in 1922. The strain was included into the collection of the Bacteriology Department of Stanford University in 1925 under the designation "K-12" [2]. Derivatives of the *E. coli* K-12 strain have been used for genetic studies since the 1940s. The original K-12 strain is lambda-lysogenic and contains the F factor. The phage lambda was later removed by UV radiation and the F factor by segregation [3]. Today's *E. coli* K12-derived strains contain neither the phage lambda nor the F factor unless these have been subsequently reintroduced. For 100 years, *E. coli* K12 and K12-derived strains have been cultivated exclusively outside the natural

habitat. For about 70 years, *E. coli* K12 and K12-derived strains were kept exclusively on agar plates or in stab cultures before the use of cryopreservation became established. Therefore, the bacteria are adapted to existence in complex media. As a result of permanent cultivation, spontaneous mutations arose in the strains [4]. For instance, they had lost K- and O-antigens after 30 years of cultivation [5, 6]. The spontaneous and introduced mutations of *E. coli* K12-derived strains are diverse and well characterised, making the strains versatile in basic research and biotechnology. So for instance, mutants with auxotrophies contribute to low survival in the environment and strains with a defect in the *recA* gene show a marked reduction in DNA repair mechanisms and recombination ability of the bacterial genome. The genomes of several *E. coli* K12-derived strains are completely sequenced [7–9].

E. coli K12 and its diverse derivatives are scientifically very well characterised model organisms with a taxonomically clear classification.

1.2 Pathogenic potential of E. coli K12 strains

Pathogenic E. coli strains are primarily associated with gastrointestinal disease symptoms. In the E. coli K12 strain, most virulence factor genes are absent that are present in intestinal and extraintestinal pathogenic E. coli strains (IPEC and ExPEC) or also individually or in combination in apathogenic isolates (ECOR strains). In pathogenic E. coli strains, virulence factor genes are usually arranged in the form of pathogenicity islands in large blocks. These can be located in the chromosome, on plasmids, or on the genome of bacteriophages. Corresponding chromosome segments, plasmids or prophages are not present in E. coli K12 [10]. Genes for most adhesins as well as for toxins, O-antigens, glycocalyx proteins, invasins and other virulence factors are missing [10, 11]. E. coli K12 is unable to attach to the mucosa of the intestinal epithelium since no adhesins for this purpose are expressed, the production of O-antigens is impaired, and no capsule is formed. If E. coli K12 derivatives were accidentally ingested orally by laboratory personnel or accidentally entered its bloodstream, then they would not establish themselves or would be rapidly recognised and eliminated by the body's own immune system [11]. A long residence time or a permanent colonisation of humans and animals with E. coli K12 is therefore excluded. Symptoms of disease following oral ingestion of E. coli K12-derived strains have not occurred in volunteers or in laboratory animals [12-14]. No health hazard is observed in the mouse model after peritoneal injection of 10⁶ colonyforming units of E. coli K12 derivatives. Seven days after injection, no living bacteria were detected in the organs [12]. For E. coli wild-type strains from patient blood samples, the median lethal dose when administered intravenously in the mouse model is 10⁵ live bacteria. It takes 10³ -10⁴ times more bacteria for *E. coli* K12-derived strains to achieve a mortality of 30 - 40 % [15]. An accidental injection of a relevant quantity of E. coli K12 derivatives that is hazardous to health is not to be expected in genetic engineering work, so that there is no hazard potential.

Certain pathogenic *E. coli* strains are able to multiply outside the normal host. For example, the EHEC strain *E. coli* O157:H17 multiplies on irrigated and/or damaged plants [16, 17]. However, this or other *E. coli* strains do not cause plant diseases [18–20]. Likewise, *E. coli* K12-derived strains do not show pathogenicity to plants [21].

E. coli K12 and K12-derived strains are apathogenic and thus pose no risk to humans, animals, or plants.

1.3 Multiplication ability of E. coli K12 outside genetic engineering facilities

The survivability of *E. coli* K12-derived strains in the intestine has been tested in numerous studies in humans and animals. At the latest 6 days after oral administration, *E. coli* K12-derived strains are no longer detectable in the human intestine [13, 14, 22, 23]. In mice, *E. coli*

K12-derived strains also do not establish permanently in the intestine [24]. It is also not possible for *E. coli* K12-derived strains to colonise the intestines of germ-free rats [25].

Multiple studies with soils, surfaces and water samples further show that E. coli K12-derived strains cannot survive in the environment either. In nonsterile soils, E. coli K12-derived strains did not survive for more than 28 days [21, 26–28]. Wild-type E. coli, on the other hand, survive in soil until the end of an 80-day study period [29]. In the event of a release of E. coli K12derived strains as aerosols, a survival time of up to a maximum of 2 hours in air can be assumed [30]. Depending on the material, sedimented bacteria survive on surfaces for up to 20 days (wooden surfaces), but on average no longer than 24 hours [30]. When E. coli K12derived strains are distributed on lettuce plants through sprinkler systems, no E. coli can be detected after a maximum of 7 days [21]. Pathogenic E. coli wild types, on the other hand, multiply on lettuce plants and are still detectable until the end of an 30-day study period [17]. It is assumed that E. coli K12-derived strains cannot attach to the plant surface since they do not express curli fimbriae [31]. If the release of E. coli K12-derived strains takes place in lotic ecosystems, the survival time is a maximum of 15 days. When the release takes place in streams near the inlet of treated wastewater, the bacteria survive for a maximum of 10 days [28, 32, 33]. When released into lentic ecosystems, E. coli K12-derived strains survive up to 16 days. If culture media are also discharged into the water body, the bacteria can be detected in the water body for up to 10 weeks [34]. In marine ecosystems, E. coli K12-derived strains survive up to 6 days at 15 °C water temperature [35]. In general, the survival time of the bacteria decreases with increasing water temperature in both salt and fresh water [32, 35]. The presence of E. coli in water does not lead to colonisation of the gastrointestinal tract of fish [36].

In summary, the data show that *E. coli* K12-derived strains can only survive for a short time in soils, in aerosols, on surfaces, on plants as well as in water bodies. Permanent establishment in the environment does not occur.

1.4 Horizontal gene transfer from E. coli K12-derived strains to other organisms

Horizontal gene transfer in bacteria can occur through processes such as transformation, transduction, conjugation, and mobilisation of genetic material. These molecular mechanisms have been extensively studied [37]. The frequency of horizontal gene transfer events from *E. coli* K12-derived strains to endemic bacterial species has been studied in numerous *in vitro* experiments. Rare gene transfer from *E. coli* to eukaryotic cells has so far only been shown in special laboratory experiments and does not represent a natural process [38].

1.4.1 Transformation

E. coli K12, like *E. coli* in general, is not able to actively take up DNA from the environment and thus does not exhibit a natural competence that is present in numerous other bacterial species [39]. DNA only enters *E. coli* cells under experimental conditions that make the outer and inner membrane of the bacteria permeable, e.g., by using physical (electroporation) or chemical (Ca^{2+} shock) methods. While the natural habitat of *E. coli* may contain other bacterial species with a natural competence for DNA uptake, it is improbable that free DNA from dead *E. coli* K12 cells will be taken up by such bacterial species in the intestine, as DNA is rapidly degraded there [39, 40].

1.4.2 Transduction

Various transducing phages have been used in genetic studies of *E. coli* K12-derived strains. Of particular importance are the phages lambda and P1.

The temperate phage lambda was already present in the original *E. coli* K-12 isolate. During the lysogenic cycle, the integration of the lambda DNA occurs at a specific site into the host DNA. After induction, in rare cases, the excision of the prophage can be imprecisely, so that genes adjacent to the integration site (*bio*- or *gal*-operon) are integrated in the genome of the phage. Such phage particles are transducing and transfer *bio*-genes or *gal*-genes. Thus, the prophage lambda belongs to the special transducing phages that only transfer specific bacterial DNA segments [41]. No transducing phage particles are formed during the lytic cycle when a host is infected with lambda. The phage lambda has a very narrow host range. Despite the fact that the lambda receptor maltoporin is also present in other Gram-negative bacterial species, only *E. coli* strains are infected due to the accessibility of the receptor through the LPS composition [42]. The lambda phage is thus not relevant for horizontal gene transfer events to other bacterial species.

Of greater importance for horizontal gene transfer is the temperate phage P1, which is characterised by a broad host range. Besides *E. coli*, phage P1 can infect *Shigella dysenteriae*, *Klebsiella aerogenes*, *Citrobacter freundii*, *Erwinia amylovora*, *Proteus mirabilis* and other bacterial species [43]. After a lytic multiplication cycle, 0.3 - 0.5 % of P1 phage particles are transducing. The production of transducing particles is not coupled to the induction of a prophage. Transducing phage particles contain only DNA of bacterial origin (chromosome or plasmid DNA). Phage P1 is one of the generally transducing phages and transfers DNA segments of approx. 100 kbp.

1.4.3 Conjugation and mobilisation

Bacterial conjugation is a process starting with a physical cell contact between donor and recipient and a subsequent transfer of a DNA single strand (ssDNA). In contrast to the recipient, the donor carries a conjugative plasmid. Conjugative plasmids have genes and sequences that are essential for DNA transfer (mob, tra, oriT). An example of a conjugative plasmid is the F factor. The tra operon of the F factor encodes the proteins involved in conjugation. Other conjugative plasmids have homologues of the tra genes. With the help of the F pilus, direct cell-cell contact is established between donor (F^+) and recipient (F^-) and, after retraction of the pilus, a stable conjugation pair ("mating pair") is produced. Subsequently, the relaxase Tral generates a single-strand break at the origin of the transfer (oriT) of the F factor. The Tral relaxase then unwinds the dsDNA. The TraD protein ("Coupling Protein") actively transports the now linear ssDNA of the F factor through a complex pore consisting of Tra proteins into the cytoplasm of the recipient (typeIV secretion, [44]). Meanwhile, rolling circle replication of the F factor takes place in the donor. In the recipient, the ssDNA recirculates and the complementary DNA strand is synthesised [45]. F plasmids with a mutation in traD are no longer conjugative but can still mobilise mobilisable plasmids with their own gene for a "coupling protein".

Non-conjugative plasmids that have an *oriT* and mobilisation genes (*mob*) can be transferred in the presence of a conjugative helper plasmid. However, not every mobilisable plasmid is mobilised by every conjugative plasmid. The ColE1 plasmid found in *E. coli* is a representative of plasmids that can be mobilised by the F factor and plays a major role in molecular biology. The *mob* gene products form a relaxation complex and the ssDNA of the ColE1 plasmid can now be transferred to a recipient by the transfer machinery of the F factor.

In addition to the described cases of conjugation, in which conjugative or mobilisable plasmids are transferred to recipients, chromosomal DNA can also be transferred by conjugation if conjugative plasmids are integrated in the chromosome of the donor. In the case of the F factor, integration into the host chromosome occurs via recombination between insertion elements (IS elements) of the F factor and those in the host chromosome. After integration, the F factor no longer controls its own replication. This does not affect the function of the tra operon. If a donor with integrated F factor meets an F⁻ recipient, conjugation is triggered as in an F⁺ cell and DNA transfer is initiated at the *oriT*. Since the F factor is now part of the chromosome, chromosomal genes can also be transferred after the transfer of F factor DNA. Through homologous recombination, these can be integrated into the chromosome in the recipient. Such strains are called high frequency of recombination (Hfr) strains. Sometimes integrated F factors can be excised from the chromosome. In individual cases, the excision proceeds imprecisely due to illegitimate recombination events, so that chromosomal genes are included in the released F factor. Such a strain is called F-prime (F') [46]. The integration of the F factor into the chromosome as well as the excision are RecA-dependent. By choosing E. coli K12-derived strains with a mutated recA gene, the spontaneous formation of Hfr and F' strains can be significantly reduced in genetic engineering with the F factor [47]. Other conjugative plasmids, such as the IncP plasmid RP4, may also be present chromosomally integrated, either through naturally occurring integration processes or as a consequence of genetic engineering.

Mobilisation of a plasmid without *mob* and *oriT* is also possible if a cointegrate is formed in the donor cell by recombination between the non-mobilisable and the conjugating plasmid. This chimeric plasmid can be transferred to a recipient by conjugation. Here, the cointegrate can be resolved by recombination [48, 49].

Conjugative plasmids with a broad host range are of significance for horizontal gene transfer by conjugation. These plasmids can induce contact with cells of different species. Furthermore, they are able to replicate in recipients of other species and escape their modification and restriction system for the elimination of foreign DNA [50]. The IncP plasmid RP4 is an important representative of conjugative plasmids with a broad host range and the ability to mobilise. It can replicate in almost all alpha, beta and gamma proteobacteria [50, 51]. Because of this property, it is used in genetic engineering to mobilise plasmids with an *oriT* to various Gramnegative bacterial species. The F factor, on the other hand, is a plasmid with a narrow host range that can only replicate in some species of the *Enterobacteriaceae* family. It is therefore of little importance for horizontal gene transfer [52, 53].

1.4.4 Reported horizontal gene transfer events

The frequency of horizontal gene transfer events from *E. coli* K12-derived strains to endemic bacterial species was investigated in different environments. No transfer of conjugative plasmids from *E. coli* K12-derived strains to other bacterial species in the gut has been documented [54, 55]. In comparison, wild-type *E. coli* strains are able to transfer conjugative resistance plasmids in the animal gut to *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* ser. Typhimurium [56].

Furthermore, the horizontal gene transfer of *E. coli* K12-derived strains in soil was investigated. A transfer of a conjugative RP4 derivative from *E. coli* K12-derived strains to *Sinorhizobium fredii* could only be observed at high cell densities of 10⁶ to 10⁹ donor and recipient cells per g sterile soil [57]. In nonsterile soil, transfer of RP4 by *E. coli* K12-derived strains to the endemic Gram-negative bacteria *Pseudomonas putida, Burkholderia cepacia* and *Pseudomonas fluorescens* could be detected [58]. Mobilisation of non-conjugative plasmids in *E. coli* K12-derived strains to other soil bacteria has not been observed [59]. In sterile seawater, transfer

of RP4 from *E. coli* K12-derived strains to *Pseudomonas fluorescens, Aeromonas hydrophila, Pseudomonas cepacia* und *Enterobacter cloacae* was observed [60].

2. Recommendation

According to § 8 para. 1 GenTSV, *Escherichia coli* K12-derived strains are recognised as part of a biosafety measure in which neither conjugative plasmids with broad host range and ability to mobilise nor generally transducing prophages with broad host range are present.

3. Reasoning

E. coli K12-derived strains fulfil the prerequisites of § 8 GenTSV for recognition as recipient organisms for biological safety measures. They are scientifically very well described. Neither are *E. coli* K12-derived strains pathogenic for humans, animals or plants, nor can the bacteria multiply or become permanently established in the gut or on plants. The survival of *E. coli* K12-derived strains outside of genetically engineered facilities has been well studied and it has been shown that the bacteria can only survive for short periods of time in soils, aerosols, surfaces, and waters. *E. coli* K12-derived strains do not pose a risk to the legal assets according to § 1 para. 1 GenTG due to their low survivability in the environment and their apathogenicity. Horizontal gene transfer from *E. coli* K12-derived strains to bacteria in humans and in the environment is generally very low.

However, the very low gene transfer potential does not apply to those *E. coli* K12-derived strains in which conjugative plasmids with a broad host range and ability to mobilise, and generally transducing prophages with a broad host range, are present. Thus, the possibility of horizontal gene transfer for these *E. coli* K12 variants is no longer considered to be low. Recipient strains with e.g. RP4 plasmid and/or P1 prophages are thus not recognised as a biological safety measure.

Information on whether individual *E. coli* K12-derived strains are suitable as biosafety recipient strains according to the criteria set out in this statement will be collected and made available in <u>the biosafety recipient strain database</u> maintained by the ZKBS administrative office.

Literature

- 1. **Brenner DJ, Farmer III JJ** (2015). *Enterobacteriaceae*. p. 1–24. *In* Whitman WB (ed), Bergey's Manual of Systematics of Archaea and Bacteria, vol. 2015. Wiley, New York.
- 2. **Bachmann BJ** (1972). Pedigrees of some mutant strains of *Escherichia coli* K-12. *Bacteriol Rev* **36**(4):525.
- 3. Jacob F, Wollman EL (1961). Sexuality and the genetics of bacteria. Academic Press, New York
- 4. **Bachmann BJ** (1996). Derivations and genotypes of some mutant derivatives of *Escherichia coli* K-12. p. 2460–88. *In* Frederick Carl Neidhardt, Roy Curtiss (ed), *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella*: Cellular and Molecular *Biology*. ASM Press, Washington D.C.
- 5. **Orskov I, Orskov F** (1960). The H antigen of the "K12" strain. A new *E. coli* H antigen: H48. *Acta Pathol Microbiol Scand* **48**:47.
- 6. **Orskov F, Orskov I** (1961). The fertility of *Escherichia coli* antigen test strains in crosses with K 12. *Acta Pathol Microbiol Scand* **51**:280–90.
- 7. Durfee T, Nelson R, Baldwin S, Plunkett G, Burland V, Mau B, Petrosino JF, Qin X, Muzny DM, Ayele M, Gibbs RA, Csörgo B, Pósfai G, Weinstock GM, Blattner FR (2008). The complete genome sequence of *Escherichia coli* DH10B: insights into the biology of a laboratory workhorse. *J Bacteriol* **190**(7):2597–606.
- 8. **Anton BP, Raleigh EA** (2016). Complete Genome Sequence of NEB 5-alpha, a Derivative of *Escherichia coli* K-12 DH5α. *Genome Announc* **4**(6):e01245-16.

- Hayashi K, Morooka N, Yamamoto Y, Fujita K, Isono K, Choi S, Ohtsubo E, Baba T, Wanner BL, Mori H, Horiuchi T (2006). Highly accurate genome sequences of *Escherichia coli* K-12 strains MG1655 and W3110. *Mol Syst Biol* 2:2006.0007.
- 10. van Ijperen C, Kuhnert P, Frey J, Clewley JP (2002). Virulence typing of *Escherichia coli* using microarrays. *Mol Cell Probes* **16**(5):371–8.
- 11. **Mühldorfer I, Hacker J** (1994). Genetic aspects of *Escherichia coli* virulence. *Microb Pathog* **16**(3):171–81.
- 12. Chart H, Smith HR, La Ragione RM, Woodward MJ (2000). An investigation into the pathogenic properties of Escherichia coli strains BLR, BL21, DH5α and EQ1. *J Appl Microbiol* **89**(6):1048–58.
- 13. Levy SB, Marshall B, Rowse-Eagle D, Onderdonk A (1980). Survival of *Escherichia coli* host-vector systems in the mammalian intestine. *Science* **209**(4454):391–4.
- 14. **Smith HW** (1975). Survival of orally administered *E. coli* K12 in alimentary tract of man. *Nature* **255**(5508):500–2.
- 15. Levy SB, SULLIVAN N, Gorbach SL (1978). Pathogenicity of conventional and debilitated Escherichia coli K12. *Nature* 274(5669):395–6.
- 16. **Simko I, Zhou Y, Brandl MT** (2015). Downy mildew disease promotes the colonization of romaine lettuce by *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 and Salmonella enterica. *BMC Microbiology* **15**(1):19.
- 17. Solomon EB, Pang H-J, Matthews KR (2003). Persistence of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 on Lettuce Plants following Spray Irrigation with Contaminated Water. *J Food Prot* **66**(12):2198–202.
- 18. Toth IK, Pritchard L, Birch PRJ (2006). Comparative genomics reveals what makes an enterobacterial plant pathogen. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* **44**:305–36.
- 19. Delaquis P, Bach S, Dinu L-D (2007). Behavior of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 in leafy vegetables. *J Food Prot* **70**(8):1966–74.
- Seo S, Matthews KR (2012). Influence of the Plant Defense Response to Escherichia coli O157:H7 Cell Surface Structures on Survival of That Enteric Pathogen on Plant Surfaces. Appl Environ Microbiol 78(16):5882–9.
- 21. **Fonseca JM, Fallon SD, Sanchez CA, Nolte KD** (2011). *Escherichia coli* survival in lettuce fields following its introduction through different irrigation systems. *J Appl Microbiol* **110**(4):893–902.
- 22. Anderson ES (1975). Viability of, and transfer of a plasmid from, *E. coli* K12 in the human intestine. *Nature* **255**(5508):502–4.
- Williams PH (1977). Plasmid transfer in the human alimentary tract. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 2(2):91–
 5.
- 24. Freter R, Brickner H, Fekete J, Vickerman MM, Carey KE (1983). Survival and implantation of *Escherichia coli* in the intestinal tract. *Infect Immun* **39**(2):686–703.
- 25. Wells CL, Johnson WJ, Kan CM, Balish E (1978). Inability of debilitated *Escherichia coli* χ 1776 to colonise germ-free rodents. *Nature* **274**(5669):397–8.
- 26. Walter MV, Barbour K, McDowell M, Seidler RJ (1987). A method to evaluate survival of genetically engineered bacteria in soil extracts. *Curr Microbiol* **15**(4):193–7.
- 27. **Devanas MA, Rafaeli-Eshkol D, Stotzky G** (1986). Survival of plasmid-containing strains of *Escherichia coli* in soil: effect of plasmid size and nutrients on survival of hosts and maintenance of plasmids. *Curr Microbiol* **13**(5):269–77.
- 28. Bogosian G, Sammons LE, Morris PJ, O'Neil JP, Heitkamp MA, Weber DB (1996). Death of the *Escherichia coli* K-12 strain W3110 in soil and water. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **62**(11):4114.
- 29. Cools D, Merckx R, Vlassak K, Verhaegen J (2001). Survival of *E. coli* and *Enterococcus* spp. derived from pig slurry in soils of different texture. *Appl Soil Ecol* **17**(1):53–62.
- Marshall B, Flynn P, Kamely D, Levy SB (1988). Survival of *Escherichia coli* with and without ColE1:Tn5 after aerosol dispersal in a laboratory and a farm environment. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 54(7):1776–83.
- 31. Jeter C, Matthysse AG (2005). Characterization of the Binding of Diarrheagenic Strains of *E. coli* to Plant Surfaces and the Role of Curli in the Interaction of the Bacteria with Alfalfa Sprouts. *Mol Plant Microbe Interact* **18**(11):1235–42.
- 32. Flint KP (1987). The long-term survival of *Escherichia coli* in river water. *J Appl Bacteriol* **63**(3):261–70.
- 33. Chao WL, Feng RL (1990). Survival of genetically engineered *Escherichia coli* in natural soil and river water. *J Appl Bacteriol* **68**(4):319–25.
- 34. Brettar I, Höfle MG (1992). Influence of ecosystematic factors on survival of *Escherichia coli* after large-scale release into lake water mesocosms. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **58**(7):2201.

- 35. Sørensen SJ (1991). Survival of *Escherichia coli* K12 in seawater. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 85(2):161–7.
- 36. Del Rio-Rodriguez RE, Inglis V, Millar SD (1997). Survival of *Escherichia coli* in the intestine of fish. *Aquac Res* **28**(4):257–64.
- 37. **Dreiseikelmann B** (1994). Translocation of DNA across bacterial membranes. *Microbiol Rev* **58**(3):293–316.
- 38. Lacroix B, Citovsky V (2016). Transfer of DNA from Bacteria to Eukaryotes. mBio 7(4).
- 39. Lorenz MG, Wackernagel W (1994). Bacterial gene transfer by natural genetic transformation in the environment. *Microbiol Rev* 58(3):563–602.
- 40. Maturin L, Curtiss R (1977). Degradation of DNA by nucleases in intestinal tract of rats. *Science* **196**(4286):216.
- 41. Morse ML, Lederberg EM, Lederberg J (1956). Transduction in *Escherichia Coli* K-12. *Genetics* **41**(1):142–56.
- 42. Schwartz M, Le Minor L (1975). Occurrence of the bacteriophage lambda receptor in some enterobacteriaceae. *J Virol* **15**(4):679–85.
- 43. **Yarmolinsky MB, Sternberg N** (1988). Bacteriophage P1. p. 291–438. *In* Richard Calendar (ed), The bacteriophages, 1st ed. Plenum Press, New York.
- 44. Lawley TD, Klimke WA, Gubbins MJ, Frost LS (2003). F factor conjugation is a true type IV secretion system. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* **224**(1):1–15.
- 45. Frost LS, Ippen-Ihler K, Skurray RA (1994). Analysis of the sequence and gene products of the transfer region of the F sex factor. *Microbiol Rev* 58(2):162–210.
- 46. Scaife J (1967). Episomes. Annu Rev Microbiol 21(1):601–38.
- 47. Cullum J, Broda P (1979). Chromosome transfer and Hfr formation by F in rec+ and recA strains of *Escherichia coli* K12. *Plasmid* **2**(3):358–65.
- 48. **Dionisio F, Zilhão R, Gama JA** (2019). Interactions between plasmids and other mobile genetic elements affect their transmission and persistence. *Plasmid* **102**:29–36.
- 49. **Kilbane JJ, Malamy MH** (1980). F factor mobilization of non-conjugative chimeric plasmids in *Escherichia coli*: General mechanisms and a role for site-specific *recA*-independent recombination at oriV1. *J Mol Biol* **143**(1):73–93.
- 50. Jain A, Srivastava P (2013). Broad host range plasmids. FEMS Microbiol Lett 348(2):87-96.
- 51. Datta N, Hedges RW (1972). Host ranges of R factors. *Microbiology* 70(3):453–60.
- 52. **Guiney DG** (1982). Host range of conjugation and replication functions of the *Escherichia coli* sex plasmid Flac: Comparison with the broad host-range plasmid RK2. *J Mol Biol* **162**(3):699–703.
- 53. **Zhong Z, Helinski D, Toukdarian A** (2005). Plasmid host-range: restrictions to F replication in *Pseudomonas. Plasmid* **54**(1):48–56.
- 54. Marshall B, Schluederberg S, Tachibana C, Levy SB (1981). Survival and transfer in the human gut of poorly mobilizable (pBR322) and of transferable plasmids from the same carrier E. coli. *Gene* **14**(3):145–54.
- 55. Levy SB, Marshall B (1981). Risk assessment studies of *E. coli* host-vector systems. *Recomb DNA Tech Bull* **4**:91–8.
- 56. **Guinée PAM** (1965). Transfer of multiple drug resistance from *Escherichia coli* to *Salmonella typhi murium* in the mouse intestine. *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek* **31**(1):314–22.
- 57. Richaume A, Angle JS, Sadowsky MJ (1989). Influence of soil variables on *in situ* plasmid transfer from *Escherichia coli* to *Rhizobium fredii*. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **55**(7):1730.
- 58. Sørensen SJ, Schyberg T, Rønn R (1999). Predation by protozoa on *Escherichia coli* K12 in soil and transfer of resistance plasmid RP4 to indigenous bacteria in soil. *Appl Soil Ecol* **11**(1):79–90.
- Bogosian G, Kane JF (1991). Fate of Recombinant *Escherichia coli* K-12 Strains in the Environment. p. 87–131. *In* Neidleman SL, Laskin AI (ed), Advances in Applied Microbiology, vol. 36. Academic Press, New York.
- 60. Sørensen SJ (1993). Transfer of plasmid RP4 from *Escherichia coli* K-12 to indigenous bacteria of seawater. *Microb Releases* 2(3):135–41.