DNA Sequence of the Common Nodulation Genes of *Bradyrhizobium elkanii* and Their Phylogenetic Relationship to Those of Other Nodulating Bacteria

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A 6.6-kb BamHI fragment containing the common nodulation genes of Bradyrhizobium elkanii USDA94 was identified by southern hybridization using the common nod genes of B. japonicum as a probe. This fragment was cloned and sequenced. Analysis of the sequence showed open reading frames highly homologous to nolA, nodD2, nodD1, and nodKABC from other bradyrhizobial sources. The sequence showed higher homology to the common nod genes of Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia) than to those from B. japonicum. The open reading frame identified between nodD1 and nodA in the B. elkanii sequence was far more similar to nodK from Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia) than to nodY from B. japonicum. The molecular phylogeny of nodD and nodAB from many sources was analyzed. The genetic distance between the nod genes is far greater than the distance between the 16S rRNA and nifH genes. The differences between the nod genes among the species of Rhizobium is as great as that between Bradyrhizobium and Rhizobium. The host range of the microsymbiont was found to be a better predictor of the similarities of the common nod genes than the 16S rRNA or nifH genes. We propose two groups of nod genes among the rhizobia and bradyrhizobia, based on molecular phylogenetic analysis: those which nodulate legumes of temperate origin in the tribes Vicieae or Trifolieae and those which nodulate legumes of tropical origin in the tribe Phaseoleae.

While a great deal is known regarding the genetics of the Glycine max symbiont Bradyrhizobium japonicum, little is known regarding the genetics of the newly reclassified species B. elkanii (Anonymous 1993; Kuykendall et al. 1992), formerly referred to as B. japonicum group II. Although both species effectively nodulate soybean, they differ dramatically in their physiology and host range. In contrast to B. japonicum, strains of B. elkanii produce the foliar-chlorosis-inducing compound rhizobitoxine (Minamisawa 1989), make

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MPMI Vol. 7, No. 5, 1994, pp. 564-572 ©1994 The American Phytopathological Society significant amounts of indoleacetic acid in nodules (Kaneshiro and Nicholson 1990) and in culture (Minamasawa and Fukai 1991), and fail to express uptake hydrogenase activity in soybean nodules (Keyser et al. 1982; Minamisawa 1989). Exopolysaccharide profiles of the two species also differ (Minamisawa 1989). The two species have been shown to be genetically distinct as demonstrated by DNA:DNA hybridization experiments (Hollis et al. 1981), restriction fragment length polymorphism of nif and nod regions (Minamisawa 1990; Stanley et al. 1985), and 16S rRNA sequence (Young et al. 1991).

Soybeans nodulated by *B. elkanii* have been shown to have depressed plant growth and yield compared to plants nodulated by *B. japonicum* (Vasilas and Fuhrmann 1993). The economic impact of this yield reduction may be significant, since strains of *B. elkanii* are predominant in soils of the southern United States and are common inoculum strains in Brazil (Keyser et al. 1984; Rumjanek et al. 1993). Yield data together with the ability of *B. elkanii* to produce rhizobitoxine points to an inefficient symbiotic relationship between *B. elkanii* and soybean.

Differences in the host ranges of B. japonicum and B. elkanii have also been demonstrated. Strains of B. elkanii are distinct from B. japonicum in their ability to nodulate at low frequency "nonnodulating" rjl soybeans and their ineffective nodulation of Rj4 soybeans (Devine et al. 1990). In contrast, most B. japonicum strains effectively nodulate soybeans carrying the Rj4 allele, and all those tested are completely excluded by lines containing both ril alleles (Clark 1957; Devine et al. 1990; Devine and Breithaupt 1980; Payne and Pueppke 1985; Pueppke and Payne 1987). Unlike strains of B. japonicum, strains of B. elkanii are capable of initiating nodules on Arachis hypogaea (Devine et al. 1983). The inefficient nodulation of soybean and the ability to nodulate additional legume hosts has been used to argue that B. elkanii possesses a symbiotic homology for a legume host other than sovbean (Devine et al. 1983).

In addition to the many physiological differences between *B. japonicum* and *B. elkanii* the two species also produce a different spectrum of lipooligosaccharide nodulation signals, often referred to as Nod factors, which are required for nodulation to occur (Carlson *et al.* 1993) and important in controlling host range in other symbiotic systems (Dénarié *et al.* 1992). Strains of *B. japonicum* produce up to five Nod factors in detectable quantities, all consisting of a modified chitin pentasaccharide containing a 2-*O*-methylfucose residue

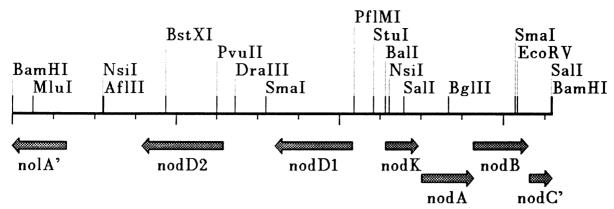


Fig. 1. Organization of common nodulation genes in *Bradyrhizobium elkanii*. Organization derived from nucleotide sequence analysis of a 6.59-kb *Bam*HI fragment from *B. elkanii* USDA94. Selected restriction sites derived from the nucleotide sequence are also shown. The *nolA* and *nodC* genes are labeled with a prime mark, as these genes are not complete in this *Bam*HI fragment. The distance between tick marks is 500 bp.

(Carlson *et al.* 1993). In contrast, *B. elkanii* strain USDA 61 produces 10 detectable Nod factors, including eight metabolites which are distinctly different from those produced by *B. japonicum* (Carlson *et al.* 1993). It is not known how these differences in Nod metabolite production influence host range in *B. elkanii*.

Much is known about the genetics of nodulation in several rhizobial and bradyrhizobial species, including the structures Nod factors produced by these systems. In rhizobia and bradyrhizobia, the common nodulation genes, nodABC, are transcribed divergently from nodDI under the control of a conserved nod box. In bradyrhizobia an additional gene of unknown function, designated nodY in B. japonicum (Nieuwkoop et al. 1987; Banfalvi et al. 1988) and nodK in Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia) (Scott, 1986), has been found upstream of nodA. In addition, strains of B. japonicum possess nolA, which is downstream of nodD2. The nolA gene is essential for nodulation of soybean genotypes which exclude serocluster 123 strains of B. japonicum (Sadowsky et al. 1991). In many rhizobial systems nodulation genes are functionally and spatially linked.

To begin the genetic analysis of the genetics of nodulation by *B. elkanii*, a 6.6-kb region of the *B. elkanii* genome containing the common *nod* genes was isolated and sequenced. Detailed genetic information from *B. elkanii* might also help clarify its phylogenetic relationship to *B. japonicum* and other members of the genus *Bradyrhizobium*. Our results suggest that *B. elkanii* may be more closely related to *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*) than to *B. japonicum*.

With our sequence data of the common *nod* genes of *B. elkanii*, the sequences of *nodD1* and *nodAB* from up to 11 species are now available. We present in this paper a molecular phylogeny of the common *nod* genes, which includes considerably more data than were available for previous *nodD* comparisons and shows a comparison of *nodAB* sequences. The molecular phylogeny of nodulation is compared to that of the 16S rRNA and *nifH* genes.

RESULTS

Organization of common nod genes in B. elkanii.

A 6.59-kb BamHI fragment of DNA from B. elkanii USDA94 which hybridizes to the common nod genes of B.

Fig. 2. BESTFIT comparison of deduced amino acid sequences of NodK proteins from *Bradyrhizobium elkanii* (upper line) and from a *Bradyrhizobium* sp. that nodulates *Parasponia* (lower line). The two proteins are 63.2% similar and 51.0% identical.

japonicum USDA110 was cloned and sequenced. Based on its high homology to analogous genes from either B. japonicum or Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia), the BamHI fragment contains most of nolA, all of nodD2, nodD1, nodK, nodA, and nodB, and a small portion of the 5' end of nodC (Fig. 1). The organization of these genes is very similar to that found in Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia) and B. japonicum. The nolA and nodD2 genes in B. elkanii are upstream of nodD1 and in the same direction of transcription as nodD1, as they are in B. japonicum.

Homology to common *nod* genes from *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*).

The most striking feature of the analysis of these DNA sequence data is the high degree of homology between the common *nod* regions of *B. elkanii* USDA94 and *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*) ANU289. Over 3,833 bp spanning from *nodD1* to *nodC*, the two strains share 86.7% identity at the nucleotide level. This high degree of homology is also evident at the amino acid level.

Presence of nodK in B. elkanii.

A unique feature of *nod* gene organization in *Bradyrhizo-bium* sp. (*Parasponia*) is the presence of *nodK*, which is 408 bp downstream of *nodD1* and 42 bp upstream of *nodA*. The *nod* region of USDA94 contains an open reading frame 407 bp downstream of *nodD1* and 42 bp upstream of *nodA* which is 51% identical and 63.2% similar at the protein level to *nodK* from *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*) (Fig. 2). Because of its similarity to *nodK* from *Bradyrhizobium* sp.

(Parasponia) and its nearly identical location with respect to other nod genes, we have tentatively called this gene nodK in B. elkanii. However, the homology between the two nodK genes is far less than the homology observed between the nodD1 and nodABC genes of B. elkanii and Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia) (Table 1). The homology observed between the two nodK genes is far greater than that observed between nodK of B. elkanii and nodY of B. japonicum (Table 1). The extent of this homology is similar to that between nodY of B. japonicum and nodK of Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia).

The nolA and nodD2 sequences in B. elkanii.

Another interesting feature of this sequence is the very high homology of nolA from B. japonicum and B. elkanii (Table 1). The two NolA proteins show 93.6% similarity and 89.0% identity. This is almost as highly conserved as the NodA and NodD1 proteins from these two species (Table 1). The nodD2 gene in B. elkanii has high homology to that in B. japonicum (Table 1). The nodD2 genes shared 81.3% similarity and 70.4% identity between these two species. The nolA and nodD2 genes have not been described in Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia).

The nod boxes of B. elkanii.

The nucleotide sequences of *nodD1* and *nodA nod* boxes of *B. elkanii* USDA94 are 5'-CGTACGACCAATAGCCA-TCGTGGCATACCTAATTCATTTTCCAAAC-3' and 5'-ATCCATCGTGTGGATGTGTTCTATCGAAACA-ATCGATTTACCAAAC-3', respectively.

As in *B. japonicum*, a conserved *nod* box sequence was found upstream of *nodK* in *B. elkanii*. Alignment of the *nod* box sequences immediately upstream of *nodA*, *nodK*, or *nodY* (hereafter referred to as *nodA nod* boxes) shows that these sequences are more highly conserved than the *nodD1 nod* boxes (Wang and Stacey 1991). The *nodA* box showed very high homology among the bradyrhizobia. The *nodA* nod box of *B. elkanii* is 93.6 and 100% homologous to the *nodA* boxes of *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*) and *B. japonicum*, respectively. The high homology observed between the putative *nodA nod* box in *B. elkanii* and the classical 47-bp *nod* box consensus (Wang and Stacey 1991) is good evidence that this sequence serves as a promoter function in other rhizobia and bradyrhizobia. As in *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*), the *nodA nod* box is 349 bp upstream of *nodK*, which is some-

Table 1. Sequence similarity and identity between the proteins coded by the common *nod* genes of *Bradyrhizobium elkanii* and those of *B. japonicum* (Bj) and *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*) (BspP)

nod gene	Similarity (%)		Identity (%)	
	Bj	BspP	Bj	BspP
A	95.7	95.7	91.0	91.0
В	83.9	93.2	75.6	89.5
C	a	87.8		81.1
D1	95.1	96.1	90.1	94.5
D2	81.3		70.4	
K	49.2 ^b	63.2	31.1 ^b	51.0
nolA	93.6		89.0	

^a Not determined because insufficient sequence data are available from *B. japonicum* or *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*) to make the comparison.

what more than the 181 bp between the start codon of nodY and the nodA nod box in B, japonicum.

As is the case with the entire sequence of the common *nod* region, the *nodD nod* box from *B. elkanii* is more similar to *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*) than it is to *B. japonicum*. The *nodD1* box is 89.4 and 72.3% homologous to the *nodD1* boxes of *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*) and *B. japonicum*, respectively.

Phylogeny of common *nod* genes from rhizobial, azorhizobial, and bradyrhizobial sources.

Phylogenetic trees of nodD (including nodD1, nodD2, and nodD3), nodA, and nodB were constructed (Figs. 3-5) from the sequences in the databases. The evolutionary distance of these genes among the species shown is far greater than that of the 16S rRNA and nifH genes among the same species (Figs. 3-6). Also, the phylogenetic relationships of the nod genes differ from those discerned from 16S rRNA and nifH sequences. For example, 16S rRNA gene sequences show that R. fredii is very closely related to R. meliloti (Fig. 6A). The nifH comparison also shows that R. fredii is more closely related to other rhizobia than it is to the bradyrhizobia (Fig. 6B). However, the nod genes of R. fredii are more homologous to the bradyrhizobia than they are to R. meliloti (Figs. 4B and 5). Also, the common *nod* genes of *R. leguminosarum* bv. viceae and R. leguminosarum bv. trifolii are as distant from each other as are *nod* genes between other species within the same genus (Figs. 3–5).

We examined the phylogeny of the available *nodD* sequences with respect to the domains described by Györgypal *et al.* (1991). Our data show that the phylogeny of the 3' end of *nodD*, which includes approximately 650 bp, closely matches the host range of the bacteria. In contrast, the 300 bp at the 5' end of *nodD* is intermediate between the host range of the bacteria and the phylogenetic pattern of their 16S rRNA genes (Figs. 4 and 6A).

DISCUSSION

Similarity of nod gene organization among bradyrhizobia.

The common nodulation genes of B. elkanii are organized in a manner very similar to that of B. japonicum and Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia). The nodD2 and nolA genes are found downstream of nodD1 and are in the same orientation as nodD1. This is identical to the organization of these genes in B. japonicum. The distances between the nolA, nodD2, and nodD1 genes in B. elkanii are also very similar to those found in B. japonicum. The organization of the nodD1 and nodKABC genes in B. elkanii is identical to that of Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia) and is very similar to that of B. japonicum. To date, nolA and nodD2 have not been described in Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia). All bradyrhizobia examined to date possess an open reading frame upstream of nodA which is presumably part of the common nod gene operon. In B. elkanii and Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia) this gene is referred to as nod K.

Homology of nod genes in Bradyrhizobium.

The sequence data presented in this paper demonstrate the close phylogenetic relationship between the putative *nod* genes of *B. elkanii* and *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*).

^b Comparison between NodY of B. japonicum and NodK of B. elkanii.

Since the 16S rRNA sequence of the *Parasponia* bradyrhizobia is not available and only a partial 16S rRNA sequence is available in *B. elkanii*, it is not known whether these two groups are closely linked phylogenetically.

The common *nod* genes of three bradyrhizobia, *B. japonicum*, *B. elkanii*, and *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*), have been sequenced, and all show an open reading frame of unknown function between *nodD1* and *nodA*. In *B. japonicum*, this gene is referred to as *nodY*. The *nodK* gene, which has very little homology to *nodY*, has been found only in *Parasponia* bradyrhizobia and *B. elkanii*. However, the *nodK* sequences of these two groups also differ.

The *nodD1* genes among the bradyrhizobia are very similar, which is not surprising, because of their essential role in nodulation. Göttfert *et al.* (1992) have shown that *nodD2* is not essential for nodulation in *B. japonicum*. As mutations in *nodD2* have no effect on nodulation, it is not surprising that the *nodD2* sequence is less highly conserved than the *nodD1* and *nodABC* sequences. However, it is possible that *nodD2* plays a role in nodulation of host species not examined by Göttfert *et al.* (1992).

The discovery of *nolA* in *B. elkanii* was surprising, since Sadowsky *et al.* (1991) observed little or no hybridization homology between the *B. japonicum nolA* and total DNA from several strains of *B. elkanii*, including USDA94. Given the very high sequence homology between *nolA* of *B. elkanii* and *nolA* of *B. japonicum*, hybridization between these genes would be expected.

Homology of the *nod* boxes among rhizobia, bradyrhizobia, and azorhizobia.

In contrast to the genetic organization in *Rhizobium* species, the *nodD1* gene in *B. japonicum* is preceded by a *nod*

box which functions to regulate its own expression (Banfalvi et al. 1988; Goethals et al. 1992; Wang and Stacey 1991). In B. elkanii, a putative nod box is present which shares exact homology to that found in B. japonicum and is located nearly the same distance from the putative nodD1 start codon. Although not identified before, a putative nodD nod box is also present in Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia), as shown by sequence homology. The presence of a nodD nod box in all three bradyrhizobial groups examined to date suggests that inducible expression of nodD is a common characteristic in bradyrhizobia. As the nodA nod box of B. elkanii is 100% homologous to that of B. japonicum, it contains the 9-bp consensus repeat four times, as described by Wang and Stacey (1991). The nodA nod box sequence of B. elkanii is also in agreement with the proposal by Goethals et al. (1992) that the A-T-C-N₀-G-A-T sequence is the binding site for the NodD protein.

Phylogeny of nodulation genes.

We present phylogenetic trees of *nifH* and 16S rRNA genes in addition to phylogenetic trees of four common *nod* genes so that the reader can readily see the differences in evolutionary paths of these genes among the species for which *nod* genes have been sequenced. More extensive phylogenetic trees of *nifH* and 16S rRNA genes, which show relationships in many bacterial species, are available in the literature (Yanagi and Yamasato 1993; Young 1992, 1993).

Earlier analyses of the molecular phylogeny of *nod* genes included *nodD* comparisons (Györgypal *et al.* 1991; Schlaman *et al.* 1992; Young and Johnston 1989). The analyses by Györgypal *et al.* (1991) and Young and Johnston (1989) included only *nodD* sequences from *Rhizobium* species. The analysis by Schlaman *et al.* (1992) included *nodD1*, *nodD2*,

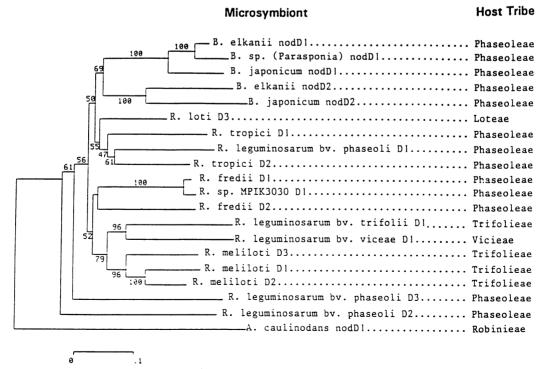
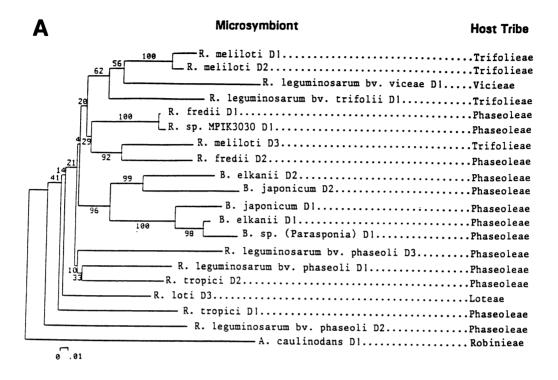


Fig. 3. Phylogenetic trees of *nodD1*, *nodD2*, and *nodD3* from species of *Azorhizobium*, *Bradyrhizobium*, and *Rhizobium*. Each branch is labeled with the species name of a bacterium and the name of the legume tribe nodulated by that species. Confidence levels (%) above each node were generated from 500 bootstrap trees. The distance scale represents the number of changes per sequence position with a median rate of change.

nodD3, and syrM from many sources, but this was done in the context of describing relationships between many transcriptional regulator proteins. This paper describes a molecuslar phylogenetic comparison of nodD and the common nod genes nodAB from azorhizobial, rhizobial, and bradyrhizobial sources with respect to the phylogeny of the host plant.

As described previously by Young and Johnston (1989) for *nodD*, the common *nod* genes mutated at a faster rate than the 16S rRNA gene. This may be reflected by the essential function of a chromosomal gene versus a set of genes which are



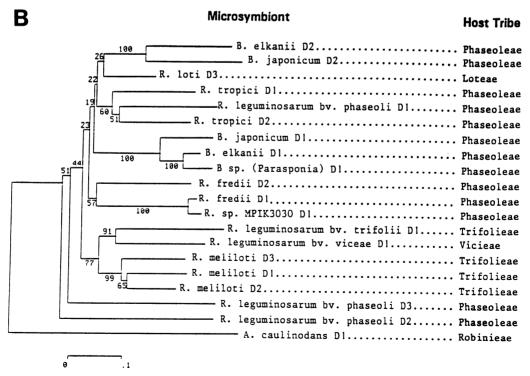


Fig. 4. Phylogenetic trees of the 5' end (A) and the 3' end (B) of nodD1, nodD2, and nodD3 from species of Azorhizobium, Bradyrhizobium, and Rhizobium. Each branch is labeled with the species name of a bacterium and the name of the legume tribe nodulated by that species. Confidence levels (%) above each node were generated from 500 bootstrap trees. The distance scale represents the number of changes per sequence position with a median rate of change.

often plasmid-borne, subject to lateral transfer, and not essential for saprophytic growth.

Also, as previously described by Young (1992, 1993), the *nif* and *nod* genes have also evolved differently. The phylogeny of *nifH* more closely resembles the phylogeny of the 16S rRNA sequences than that of the *nod* genes (Figs. 3–6). Also, the *nifH* sequences are much more highly conserved than the *nod* gene sequences. Conservation of *nifH* is similar to that of the 16S rRNA genes. Presumably, the function of *nifH* is more sensitive to mutation than the *nod* genes are. Rhizobial *nifH* is distinct from bradyrhizobial *nifH*, whereas the *nod* gene phylogeny does not closely follow the taxonomic boundaries of the microsymbionts.

A complicating factor in the evolution of the *nif* and *nod* genes is the possible lateral transfer of Sym plasmids between similar chromosomal backgrounds during evolutionary history. Young (1992) has also suggested that gene duplication may be involved in the phylogeny of *nifH*. The differing paths of phylogeny of *nifH* and the common *nod* genes cannot be explained simply by lateral transfer of Sym plasmids, since both the *nif* and the *nod* regulons are often found nearby on Sym plasmids in *Rhizobium*.

Evolution of *nod* genes correlated with taxonomic divisions within Leguminosae.

The differences among the *nod* genes for the species of *Rhizobium* are as great as those between *Bradyrhizobium* and *Rhizobium*, despite the fact that 16S rRNA sequences clearly justify the distinction between *Bradyrhizobium* and *Rhizo-*

bium. Striking examples of this are found in the relationships between R. meliloti, R. fredii, and R. leguminosarum. For example, the common nod genes of R. leguminosarum bys. viceae and trifolii are far more distant than would be expected for homologous genes within the same species. Also, as shown by the 16S rRNA gene sequences (Fig. 6), R. meliloti and R. fredii are phylogenetically very similar. However, the nodulation genes of these two species are not very similar (Figs. 3-5). The R. fredii nod genes are more similar to those of the bradyrhizobia than to those of R. meliloti. The R. meliloti nod genes are more similar to those of R. leguminosarum than they are to R. fredii. These examples suggest that the phylogenetic relationships of the host legumes may be better predictors of the similarities of the nod genes than the 16S rRNA gene sequence, which is the most commonly used molecular taxonomic character for bacteria (Olsen et al. 1994). These data demonstrate that the evolutionary pressures on nod genes are very different from those imposed on nifH or on essential chromosomal genes such as the 16S rRNA gene.

Györgypal et al. (1991) identified two domains in NodD in Rhizobium. One of these domains is highly conserved and includes the 100 amino acids beginning at the amino terminus. The other domain includes the remaining 200 amino acids, is not as highly conserved, and is probably involved in flavonoid recognition. Györgypal et al. (1991) found that the phylogeny of the second domain matched the pattern of flavonoid specificity of the NodD proteins. Our data also show that the 3' end of nodD which matches the pattern of flavonoid specificity also correlates well with the host range of the

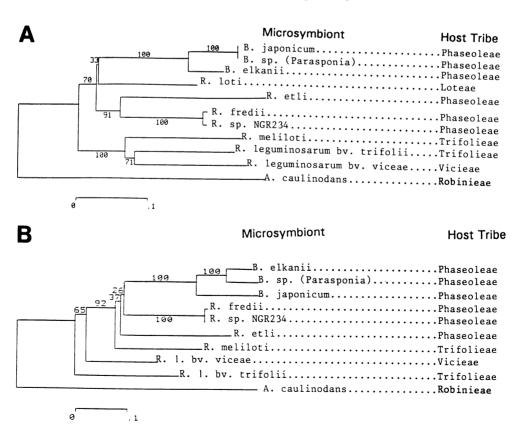


Fig. 5. Phylogenetic trees of nodA (A) and nodB (B) from species of Azorhizobium, Bradyrhizobium, and Rhizobium. Each branch is labeled with the species name of a bacterium and the name of the legume tribe nodulated by that species. Confidence levels (%) above each node were generated from 500 bootstrap trees. The distance scale represents the number of changes per sequence position with a median rate of change.

microsymbiont (Györgypal *et al.* 1991) (Fig. 4B). The 5' end of *nodD* more closely resembles the phylogeny of the 16S rRNA gene than the host range of the bacteria.

The phylogenetic trees of the nodA and the 3' end of nodD(Figs. 4B and 5A) show that there are two major branches among the rhizobia and bradyrhizobia. One of these branches includes B. elkanii, Bradyrhizobium sp. (Parasponia), B. japonicum, R. fredii, Rhizobium sp. NGR234, R. etli, and R. loti. With one exception, all of these species nodulate legumes in the tribe Phaseoleae. The exception is R. loti, which nodulates legumes within the tribe Loteae. This exception can be explained by lateral transfer of the nod genes from an ancestor in common with R. etli. The second branch includes R. meliloti and R. leguminosarum bys. trifolii and viceae. These species nodulate legumes in the tribes Trifolieae and Vicieae. Thus the nod genes among the bradyrhizobia and rhizobia have evolved into two major groups. One group nodulates legumes of tropical origin (Phaseoleae). Legumes of the tribe Loteae can be found in temperate or tropical regions (Allen and Allen 1981). The other group nodulates legumes of temperate origin (Trifolieae and Vicieae). Representatives of the genus Rhizobium are found in both groups. We refer to these two nod gene groups as the Phaseol and Trifol nodulation groups, respectively.

Although the phylogeny of *nodB* does not show these two branches, it clearly shows that the *nodB* genes of *Bradyrhizobium*, *R. fredii*, and *R. etli* are much more closely related than would be expected from their 16S rRNA sequences (Fig. 5B). The *nodB* genes of *R. fredii* and *R. etli* are quite distant from those of *R. leguminosarum*. Thus, the *nodB* sequence phylogeny is well correlated with host range.

We propose that the nod genes of Rhizobium and Bradyrhizobium have evolved as two major groups which are well correlated with the taxonomy of the host legumes but uncorrelated with the taxonomy of the bacteria. The Phaseol and Trifol nodulation groups described above give strong support to the idea of symbiotaxonomy as proposed by Allen and Allen (1981). Although the cross-inoculation groups as originally defined by Fred et al. (1932) are no longer valid for the taxonomic positioning of rhizobia and bradyrhizobia, the nodulation phenotype has evolved with the host plants in a manner reminiscent of the cross-inoculation group concept and independent of the phylogeny of the microsymbionts. For example, R. fredii and B. japonicum are distant relatives within the α-proteobacteria, both of which nodulate Glycine max. However, the nod genes of R. fredii and B. japonicum are of the same lineage, which is quite distinct from that of R. meliloti.

Since the phylogenetic relationship of the *nod* genes seems to reflect the evolutionary pattern of hosts nodulated by the bacterium, the evolution of the host and/or changes in the host's environment may have been involved in applying the selection pressure that shaped the bacterial *nod* genes. More sequence data of the common *nod* genes from other root-nodulating bacteria are necessary to test the concept of distinct nodulation groups based on the taxonomy of the legume hosts.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacteria and culture conditions.

B. elkanii strain USDA94 was maintained on YM (Vincent 1970) with tetracycline (12.5 μg/ml) at 28° C. Escherichia

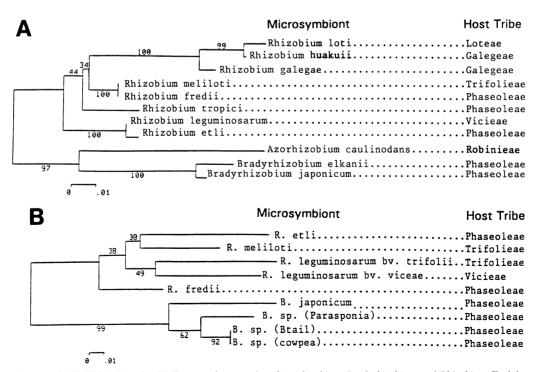


Fig. 6. Phylogenetic tree of 16S rRNA (A) and nifH (B) genes from species of Azorhizobium, Bradyrhizobium, and Rhizobium. Each branch is labeled with the species name of a bacterium and the name of the legume tribe nodulated by that species. Confidence levels (%) above each node are shown which were generated from 500 bootstrap trees. The distance scale represents the number of changes per sequence position with a median rate of change. All 16S rRNA sequences are full-length except those of R. etli and B. elkanii. Among the nifH sequences, those for Bradyrhizobium sp. (Btai1), Bradyrhizobium sp. (cowpea), R. fredii, R. leguminosarum bv. trifolii, and R. leguminosarum bv. viceae are incomplete.

coli strains DH5 α (Sambrook et al. 1989) and XL1-Blue (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) were cultured on Luria-Bertani medium (Sambrook et al. 1989) at 37 $^{\circ}$ C. Where appropriate, antibiotics were added at the following concentrations: ampicillin and kanamycin at 50 μ g/ml, naladixic acid at 20 μ g/ml, and tetracycline at 12.5 μ g/ml.

DNA isolation and manipulations.

Except where otherwise indicated, all DNA isolations and manipulations were performed as described by Sambrook *et al.* 1989. To clone the common *nod* genes from USDA94, the DNA from this strain was totally digested with *BamHI* and separated on an agarose gel. DNA fragments of roughly 6 kb were excised and released by treatement with β-agarase (New England Biolabs, Beverly, MA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. This DNA was then cloned into the *BamHI* site of the broad-host-range vector pDSK519 (Keen *et al.* 1988). Colony hybridizations and Southerns were performed with the ECL kit, following the manufacturer's instructions (Amersham Corp., Arlington Heights, IL). One clone, referred to as pD9445, was found that hybridized to the 3.9-kb *HindIII* fragment of pMJS18 which contains the common *nod* genes of *B. japonicum* (Sadowsky *et al.* 1990).

DNA sequencing and sequence analysis.

The 6.6-kb BamHI fragment of pD9445 containing the putative nod genes was cloned in both orientations into the BamHI site of pBluescript II KS⁺ by a cohesive-end ligation to yield pB94N3 and pB94N13. These were transformed into XL1-Blue competent cells for single-stranded DNA rescue. VCS-M13 was used as the helper phage and was propagated as described by the manufaturer (Stratagene). The singlestrand inserts of pB94N3 and pB94N13 were sequenced by primer walking with the use of the Sequenase 2.0 dideoxy chain termination kit (United States Biochemical Corp., Cleveland, OH). All ambiguities were resolved using dIs in place of dGs according to the manufacturer's instructions. Computer sequence analysis was performed with the programs of the Genetics Computer Group, Inc. (Madison, WI), maintaining their defaults (Devereux et al. 1984). The 6,590base sequence has been assigned GenBank accession number U04609. The nucleotide sequence data of the B. elkanii nod genes are not shown here.

Construction of phylogenetic trees.

The phylogenetic trees were generated by the PILEUP and MEGA programs (Devereux et al. 1984; Kumar et al. 1993). Pairwise distance matrices and phylogenetic trees were calculated using the Jukes-Cantor and Neighbor-Joining algorithms, respectively. Sequences from the following GenBank accession numbers were used in the construction of the phylogenetic trees for 1) the nod genes: M18972, M18971, M73699, X04473, X01649, L06241, M58625, M58626, L01272, L01273, X03721, J03671, X01650, X54215, X54214, M60872, L18897, M81825, X03720, X73362, and U04609; 2) nifH: M10587, J01781, X02478, M36435, L16503, K01620, K02676, and M15401; and 3) the 16S rRNA gene: D12791, D12797, D12793, X67222, D12792, D12798, D12782, L20762, X67221, A65000, X66024. The nodAB sequence from B. japonicum USDA123 was kindly provided by E. Applebaum. Accession number L16503 is an

unidentified and unpublished sequence from *R. fredii* which has very high homology to other *nifH* sequences. Based on this homology, we refer to L16503 as *nifH* from *R. fredii*.

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