Transfer of Conjugative Plasmids and Mobilization of a Nonconjugative Plasmid between Streptomyces Strains on Agar and in Soilt

FATEMEH RAFII AND DON L. CRAWFORD*

Department of Bacteriology and Biochemistry, Institute for Molecular and Agricultural Genetic Engineering, University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho 83843

Received 19 November 1987/Accepted 15 March 1988

The conjugative plasmid pUJlOl and its conjugative nondeletion derivatives pIJ303 and pU211 were tested for their transferability between strains of Streptomyces on laboratory media and in the soil environment. Their roles in the mobilization of the cloning vector plasmid pIJ702, a nonconjugative deletion derivative of pLJ101, were also examined. Biparental and triparental crosses were performed on agar slants and in sterile soil between the plasmid donor Streptomyces lividans and several recipient Streptomyces strains previously isolated from soil. Conjugative plasmids were transferred to seven recipients in slant crosses and to three recipients in soil. Plasmids isolated from recipients showed restriction fragment patterns identical to that of the original plasmid in S. lividans. Plasmid pIJ303 was transferred less frequently in soil than on slants, and the frequency of transfer was higher at 30°C than at the other temperatures examined. Transconjugant Streptomyces strains differed in their ability to maintain pIJ303. The nonconjugative plasmid pIJ702 was mobilized on agar slants into S. coelicolor 2708, which already contains a self-transmissible plasmid. Plasmid pU702 was also mobilized into S. flavovirens, Streptomyces sp. strain 87A, and S. parvulus on slants and in sterile soil after triparental crosses with two donors, one containing pIJ702 and the other containing either pUJlOl or p1J211. The presence of a conjugative plasmid donor was required for the transfer of pIJ702 to S. parvulus 1234, S. flavovirens 28, and Streptomyces sp. strain 87A. Plasmid pIJ702 was always transferred in its normal, autonomous form. Chromosomal recombination also occurred in transconjugants after the transfer of pIJ702. This is the first report of gene transfer between Streptomyces strains in soil.

Genetically engineered Streptomyces species may someday play important roles in the industrial production of useful polypeptides (19, 21) and in the decomposition and bioconversion of organic materials (7, 20). There currently is a high level of interest in the use of Streptomyces species in cloning experiments. Streptomyces strains express many foreign genes well, and molecular cloning techniques with Streptomyces species are well developed (9, 10, 12). In addition, many Streptomyces species are important antibiotic producers, and the techniques for their growth in industrial facilities are well known (1).

It is possible that recombinant Streptomyces strains may be either purposefully or inadvertently released into the soil environment, from which their parental strains were originally derived. Because of concern over the introduction of genetically altered bacteria into the environment (4, 13), an evaluation of the potential for the transfer of manipulated genes from these recombinant Streptomyces strains to other native soil microorganisms is needed. Mobilization of nonconjugative plasmids has been well documented in gramnegative bacteria (6, 17, 22). The transfer of extrachromosomal genetic materials between members of the genus Streptomyces has also been shown in laboratory growth media (15, 18). However, little is known of the potential for gene transfer between Streptomyces strains in soil.

We examined ^a system which seems representative of those which might allow environmental gene transfer between Streptomyces species. To investigate whether plasmid mobilization might occur, the effects of a conjugative plasmid on the mobilization of a nonconjugative plasmid were assessed. The ability of plasmid DNA to be mobilized between different species of Streptomyces on agar and in soil was demonstrated. Chromosomal recombination was also observed.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and plasmids. Streptomyces lividans 3042, containing plasmid pIJ303 and carrying a thiostrepton resistance gene; S. lividans 3063, containing plasmid pIJ211 and carrying a neomycin resistance gene; S. lividans 2930, containing plasmid pIJ101; S. lividans TK150, containing plasmid pIJ702 and carrying a thiostrepton resistance gene and a tyrosinase gene; S. lividans TK23 and TK24; and S. coelicolor 2708 and 2709 were kindly provided by D. A. Hopwood (John Innes Institute, Norwich, England). S. parvulus 1234 and S. griseus 10137 were from the American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, Md.). S. setonii 75Vi2; S. viridosporus T7A; S. flavovirens 28; S. sioyaensis P5; S. albogriseolus 201; and Streptomyces sp. strains 87A, 138, 177, and 523 were isolated from soil in our previous work (2, 3). Streptomyces sp. strain SR10 is a protoplast fusiongenerated recombinant from our laboratory (20). The strains used in this study and their antibiotic resistances are summarized in Table 1.

Media and culture conditions. All of the cultures were grown on yeast extract-malt extract agar (YMA) slants at 30°C until sporulation (5). Spore suspensions were prepared from slants in sterile water. For plasmid isolations, cultures were grown in yeast extract-malt extract-sucrose (YEME) medium containing 5 mM $MgCl₂$ (9). The following antibiotics were used in the media at the indicated concentrations, in

^{*} Corresponding author.

t Paper no. 87517 of the Idaho Agricultural Experiment Station.

TABLE 1. Antibiotic sensitivities of the Streptomyces strains used for establishment of crosses

Strain	Sensitivity to ^a :		
	Thiostrepton	Neomycin	Clindamycin
S. lividans 3042	R	S	МS
S. lividans 2930	S	S	MS
S. lividans 3063	S	R	МS
S. lividans TK150 ^b	R	S	МS
S. lividans TK24 ^b	S	S	MS
<i>S. coelicolor</i> 2708 and 2709	S	S	R
<i>S. griseus</i> 10137	S	S	R
S. setonii 75Vi2	MS	МS	R
S. viridosporus T7A	S	S	R
S. albogriseolus 201	S	S	R
S. parvulus 1234	S	S	R
<i>Streptomyces</i> sp. strain SR10	S	S	R
S. siovaensis P5	S	S	R
<i>Streptomyces</i> sp. strain 177	S	S	R
<i>Streptomyces</i> sp. strain 523	S	S	R
Streptomyces sp. strain 138	S	S	R
<i>Streptomyces</i> sp. strain 87A	s	S	R
S. flavovirens 28	S	S	R

 a^a Abbreviations: R, resistant; S, sensitive; MS, most cells were sensitive.

 b S. lividans TK150 and TK24 were also streptomycin resistant.

micrograms per milliliter: streptomycin, 50; thiostrepton, 25; clindamycin, 4; spectinomycin, 100; and neomycin, 10. Thiostrepton and clindamycin were generous gifts from the Squibb Institute for Medical Research (Princeton, N.J.) and The Upjohn Co. (Kalamazoo, Mich.), respectively. Each strain, except S. lividans TK150 and 3042, was grown on YMA slants without antibiotics; S. lividans TK150 and 3042 were grown on thiostrepton-containing media. Spores were collected and stored frozen at -20° C in 20% glycerol (9). Viability counts were performed routinely on each strain.

Crosses on agar slants. Spores were mixed on YMA slants without antibiotics by the procedures of Hopwood et al. (9). After adequate growth and spore formation, the spores were scraped from the slants and plated onto selective medium. The types of crosses which were established are shown in Tables 2 to 4.

Inoculation of soil with the crosses. A Palouse silt loam soil from the University of Idaho campus was sterilized by the procedure of Trevors and Oddie (26). Sterile soil was inoculated with approximately $10⁶$ spores of each donor per g of soil and 10^6 or 10^7 spores of plasmid-free recipients. The soil moisture content was adjusted to 60% of its water-holding capacity. The soil samples were then incubated at 30°C unless otherwise specified.

DNA preparations. Plasmid DNA was isolated from mycelia by the alkaline sodium dodecyl sulfate procedure of Hopwood et al. (9), with some modification (16). The mycelia were lysed, first partially with lysozyme and then completely with sodium dodecyl sulfate-alkali. Chromosomal DNA was removed by potassium acetate precipitation; protein was digested with proteinase K (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, Mo.) and removed by phenol-chloroform extraction. Plasmid DNA was precipitated with alcohol. In some cases, the DNA was purified further on cesium chloride-ethidium bromide gradients, precipitated again with alcohol, and dialyzed against Tris hydrochloride buffer (pH 7.5)-i mM EDTA.

Restriction enzyme digestion and agarose gel electrophoresis. Restriction enzymes were purchased from Bethesda Research Laboratories (BRL; Gaithersburg, Md.), and digestion was carried out under the conditions recommended by BRL. A horizontal system for submerged gels (model 5; BRL) was used for agarose gel electrophoresis at an agarose concentration of 0.8%. After electrophoresis, the DNA bands were stained with ethidium bromide and photographed (16).

DNA labeling. A nonradioactive nucleic acid detection system (BluGENE; BRL) was used to label the plasmid pIJ303 DNA with biotin by nick translation according to the instructions of BRL.

Southern blot hybridization. After visualization, denaturation, and renaturation of DNA, the DNA was transferred by capillary transfer to ^a nylon filter (Hybond-N; Amersham Corp., Arlington Heights, Ill.) for ¹⁴ ^h (23). The DNA was cross-linked to the nylon filter by subjecting the filter to UV irradiation for ³ min. The nylon filter was then incubated in the prehybridization buffer containing formamide at 42°C for 2 h, and then in the hybridization buffer containing biotinlabeled pIJ303 for 12 to 18 h according to the instructions of BRL. After hybridization, the nylon filter containing DNA was washed, treated with streptavidin-alkaline phosphatase conjugate, and then developed with Nitro Blue Tetrazolium and 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolylphosphate according to the instructions supplied by BRL for the development of biotinlabeled DNA in the nucleic acid detection (BluGENE) system.

Colony hybridization. The method of Hopwood et al. (9) was used for the transfer of Streptomyces colonies to nitrocellulose filters and the subsequent release of the DNA with lysozyme. The filter was baked in a vacuum oven and then hybridized with ^a biotin-labeled DNA probe. The method for development of hybridized DNA on the filter was the same as that described above for Southern blot hybridization.

RESULTS

Transfer of plasmids. The transfer of plasmids was determined by plating the progeny of crosses on a selective medium containing appropriate antibiotics. Prior to crossing, all of the strains were tested for their sensitivities to the different antibiotics. Most of the *Streptomyces* strains tested were clindamycin resistant and thiostrepton and neomycin sensitive (Table 1). S. lividans 3042 and TK150 were partially resistant to clindamycin. Thiostrepton and clindamycin antibiotics were selected for use in plates in which the progeny of most of the crosses were grown.

Although most strains used in this study were thiostrepton sensitive, S. setonii produced some thiostrepton-resistant colonies that became evident following exposure to this antibiotic. S. lividans TK24 and S. lividans TK150(pIJ702) had chromosomal genes encoding streptomycin resistance. This resistance differentiated them from S. lividans 3042, which was sensitive to streptomycin. The selective media used for plating the progeny of crosses from Table 2, in which S. lividans 3042(pIJ303) (pIJ303 carries a thiostrepton resistance gene) was a plasmid donor, were YMA-thiostrepton, YMA-clindamycin, and YMA-clindamycin-thiostrepton. YMA-clindamycin, YMA-neomycin, and YMAneomycin-clindamycin plates were used for plating the progeny of some crosses (see Tables ² and 4) in which S. lividans 3063, containing plasmid 211 (carrying a neomycin resistance gene), was used as a plasmid donor. In addition to the media mentioned above, YMA-streptomycin plates were used for plating the progeny of crosses from Tables ³ and 4 in which S. lividans TK150 (which has streptomycin and thiostrepton resistance genes on the chromosome and plas-

TABLE 2. Crosses established between S. lividans ³⁰⁴² (pIJ303) carrying the thiostrepton resistance gene or S. lividans 3063 (pIJ211) carrying the neomycin resistance gene as donors and recipients that lacked the plasmid^{a}

Thiostrepton-sensitive recipients ^b	Development of thiostrepton-resistant transconjugants
Streptomyces sp. strain SR10	
	\div
	$+$

^a Crosses with S. griseus and S. coelicolor were also made but failed because of the lack of growth of one of the strains in the crosses.

 b All thiostrepton-sensitive recipients were crossed with S. lividans 3042, the thiostrepton-resistant donor.

 ϵ S. lividans 3063 containing plasmid pIJ211 was substituted for S. lividans 3042 in some crosses.

mid, respectively) was a donor (Table 3) or one of the donors (Table 4). In different combinations, these media allowed the differentiation of donors, recipients, and transconjugants.

After S. lividans 3042 was crossed with S. lividans TK24, S. parvulus, S. setonii, S. flavovirens, and Streptomyces sp. strain 523 (Table 2), thiostrepton-resistant colonies developed. Plasmid pIJ303 was isolated from thiostrepton-resistant colonies of S. lividans, S. parvulus, S. flavovirens, Streptomyces sp. strain 523, and some of the S. setonii colonies. Occasionally, thiostrepton-resistant colonies of S. setonii developed prior to plasmid transfer. Plasmid DNA from S. setonii transconjugants was digested with the restriction enzyme SalI, and in all cases showed a fragment pattern identical to that of the original plasmid pIJ303 from S. lividans 3042. The DNA fragments from agarose gels were transferred to a nylon filter (Hybond) and allowed to hybridize with biotin-labeled DNA from pIJ303. The two DNAs shared considerable sequence homology (Fig. 1). The amount of S. setonii DNA isolated, and therefore the intensity of the bands, was lower. Since equal amounts of

TABLE 3. Crosses between S. lividans TK150 (pIJ702) carrying the thiostrepton resistance gene and various other strains of Streptomyces

Thiostrepton-sensitive recipient ^a	Development of thiostrepton-resistant transconjugants containing pIJ702	
Streptomyces sp. strain SR10		
Streptomyces sp. strain 523		

 a All thiostrepton-sensitive recipients were crossed with S. lividans TK150, the thiostrepton-resistant donor.

Strains containing pIJ303 were thiostrepton resistant.

^a For all crosses, S. lividans 2930 was used as the mobilizing strain and S. lividans TK150 was used as the thiostrepton-resistant donor.

 b S. lividans 3063 was substituted for S. lividans 2930 in similar crosses.

mycelium were used for DNA extraction, pIJ303 in S. setonii has a lower copy number.

Neomycin-resistant colonies also developed in some strains, including Streptomyces sp. strains 87A and 138, when S. lividans 3063 was substituted for S. lividans 3042 in the cross from Table 2. Similarly, plasmid pIJ211 was isolated from these colonies. The frequency of transfer of plasmids was calculated by comparing the number of colonies of transconjugants that grew on thiostrepton-containing medium with the number of colonies of the recipient strains that grew on clindamycin-containing medium. Thus, we reported transformation frequencies as the proportion of recipients that acquired plasmids after crossing (15). The transfer frequencies are shown in Table 5. The frequency of transfer of plasmids was the highest (83%) for intraspecies transfer between strains of S. lividans. S. lividans TK24 carries a streptomycin resistance gene on the chromosome which makes it distinguishable from S. lividans 3042, which lacks this gene. In S. parvulus, 30% of the colonies changed from being plasmid-free to containing transconjugants after it was crossed with S. lividans 3042. Since some of the colonies of S. setonii naturally developed resistance to

FIG. 1. Southern blot hybridization of plasmid pIJ303 subjected to electrophoresis on an agarose gel and transferred to a filter (Hybond). The filter was probed with biotin-labeled pIJ303. Lanes ¹ and 3, Plasmid pIJ303 isolated from S. setonii after it was crossed with S. lividans 3042 (undigested and digested with Sall, respectively); lanes 2 and 4, control plasmid pIJ303 isolated from S. lividans 3042 (undigested and digested with Sall, respectively).

TABLE 5. Transfer frequency of ^a conjugative plasmid from S. lividans 3042 to different Streptomyces species on slants

Strain ^a	Transfer frequency $(\%)^b$
	30
	83
	6
	254

^a The strains were crossed with S. lividans 3042.

^b Transfer frequency is reported as the proportion of recipients that carried a plasmid containing the thiostrepton resistance gene at the conclusion of the crossing.

thiostrepton, the frequency of transfer of plasmids to S. setonii could not be calculated, but it was less than 2.54%.

The transfer of plasmid pIJ303 from S. lividans 3042 to other strains of Streptomyces was also studied in sterile soil in a cross similar to those described in Table 2. The frequency of transfer was lower in sterile soil than on slants. Plasmid transfer from S. lividans 3042 to a plasmid-free strain, S. lividans TK24, occurred in soil at 25, 30, and 37°C. The frequency of transfer was highest at 30°C (Table 6), which was the optimal growth temperature for both the donor and the recipient.

The transfer of plasmids from donors to recipients was confirmed by colony hybridization (Fig. 2) and by isolation of plasmids from streptomycin- and thiostrepton-resistant colonies. In S. parvulus, plasmid transfer in sterile soil occurred with a much lower frequency than it did on agar slants. The ratio of transconjugants to recipients for S. parvulus was approximately 1% in the sterile soil versus 30% on agar slants. Plasmid pIJ303 was isolated from thiostrepton-resistant S. parvulus colonies that developed on thiostrepton-containing medium in crosses with S. lividans in sterile soil at 25, 30 , and 37°C. The plasmid restriction digest pattern was compared with that of plasmid pIJ303, and the comparison showed that homology was always conserved (Fig. 3). After S. setonii was crossed with S. lividans in sterile soil, many thiostrepton-resistant colonies developed, but the isolation of plasmids from these colonies always failed. The frequency of transfer, which was less than 2.54% in slant crosses, may have been undetectable in soil. The presence of naturally occurring thiostrepton-resistant colonies made the detection of plasmid-containing colonies difficult. Plasmid pIJ303 was also transferred to S. flavovirens 28 in sterile soil.

TABLE 6. Frequency of transfer of conjugative plasmid pIJ303 in sterile soil at different incubation temperatures

Cross ^a	Incubation time (days)	Temperature (C)	Transfer frequency $(\%)^b$
$10 \times$ TK24 \times 3042	12	37	37.5
$TK24 \times 3042$	12	37	12.0
$10 \times$ TK24 \times 3042	12	30	70.0
$10 \times$ TK24 \times 3042	12	25	23.0
$TK24 \times 3042$	12	25	16.0
$10 \times$ TK24 \times 3042	18	30	68.0

^a Designations: the number of spores added to the soil for the recipients was 10 times greater than the number of spores for the donor; TK24, S. lividans TK24; 3042, S. lividans 3042.

b Transfer frequency is reported as the proportion of recipients that carried a plasmid containing a thiostrepton resistance gene at the conclusion of the crossing.

FIG. 2. Colony hybridization of S. lividans TK24 after it was crossed with S. lividans 3042 in sterile soil. Biotin-labeled plasmid pIJ303 was used as a probe. All of the colonies that were transferred to nitrocellulose paper and that grew had a positive reaction with plasmid pIJ303.

Results of biparental crosses involving donors containing nonconjugative plasmids. The types of crosses made involving donors containing nonconjugative plasmids are shown in Table 3. Some of the strains used in the crosses contained conjugative plasmids; for instance, S. coelicolor carries plasmid SCP1 (12). S. parvulus DLC1 and one of the S. setonii strains carried plasmid pIJ303. Since both plasmids pIJ303 and pIJ702 carried the thiostrepton resistance gene, the selection of transconjugants that mobilized pIJ702 in

FIG. 3. Agarose gel electrophoresis of plasmid pIJ303 isolated from S. lividans 3042 and S. parvulus 1234 after it was crossed with S. lividans 3042 on agar slants or in sterile soil. Lanes ¹ and 6, pIJ303 isolated from S. lividans 3042 (digested with Sall and undigested, respectively); lanes ² through 5, pIJ303 isolated from S. parvulus 1234 after crosses with S. lividans 3042 on agar medium (lane 2) and in sterile soil incubated at 25, 30, and 37°C and digested with Sall (lanes 3, 4, and 5, respectively); lanes 7 through 9, undigested pIJ303 isolated from S. parvulus 1234 after crosses with S. lividans 3042 on agar (lane 7) and in sterile soil incubated at 25 and 30°C (lanes ⁸ and 9, respectively).

FIG. 4. Agarose gel electrophoresis of plasmid pIJ702 digested with Sall. S. lividans TK150, S. coelicolor 2708, and S. flavovirens 28 were the sources for the plasmids in lanes 1, 2, and 3, respectively. S. coelicolor 2708 acquired plasmid pIJ702 after it was crossed with S. lividans TK150. S. flavovirens 28 acquired plasmid pIJ702 following triparental cross with S. lividans 2930 containing plasmid pIJlOl and S. lividans TK150 containing plasmid pIJ702.

these two strains was based on the production of dark pigmentation that developed because of the tyrosinase gene on pIJ702. However, after the progeny of the crosses were plated, dark pigment-producing S. setonii and S. parvulus were not readily detectable. Since the melanin gene is not always expressed (8), the detection of transconjugants with mobilized pIJ702 was difficult.

In the biparental cross between S. coelicolor and S. lividans, the growth of S. coelicolor was suppressed, except for that of a few colonies. These colonies were selected for use in subsequent crosses with S. lividans TK150. Thiostrepton-resistant S. coelicolor colonies that developed after these crosses carried plasmid pIJ702 (Fig. 4). The frequency of transfer of pIJ702 was lower than that of the conjugative plasmid (10^{-3}) . There was no evidence of the transfer of nonconjugative plasmids to any other strains in biparental crosses, since no thiostrepton-resistant colonies developed either on agar slants or in crosses in sterile soil.

Results of triparental crosses. By using S. lividans 3042, 5. lividans 2930, or S. lividans 3063 as a donor of a conjugative plasmid; S. lividans TK150 as a donor of a nonconjugative plasmid; and plasmid-free recipients, several crosses were established (Table 4). Spores from these crosses were plated onto four different media. In these crosses, we expected to see not only the transfer of the self-transmissible plasmid but also the mobilization and transfer of pIJ702. S. lividans 2930 and 3063 carried plasmids pIJlOl and pIJ211, respectively. pIJ101 is a native plasmid without an antibiotic resistance gene, and pIJ211 was constructed by adding a neomycin resistance gene to pIJlOl. These two plasmids have all of the genes except the thiostrepton resistance gene and the melanin gene present in pIJ702. If plasmid pIJlOl or plasmid pIJ211 mobilized plasmid pIJ702, the new cells carrying plasmid pIJ702 would become thiostrepton resistant.

Thiostrepton-resistant colonies developed in triparental crosses between S. setonii, S. lividans TK150, and S. lividans 3042, but none of these colonies yielded a plasmid. S. flavovirens 28 produced a black diffusible pigment, which is characteristic of this species, on YMA agar. In the

triparental crosses S. lividans 2930(pIJ101) \times S. lividans TK150 \times *S. flavovirens*, some colonies, at a frequency of 3 \times 10⁻⁵, developed on YMA containing thiostrepton and produced black pigment. These colonies were transferred to YMA-thiostrepton and were then grown in YEME broth containing thiostrepton. Plasmid DNA was isolated from these colonies and then digested with Sall. The plasmids had fragment patterns identical to that of plasmid pIJ702 after restriction (Fig. 4). This indicates that pIJ702 is mobilized into S. flavovirens by plasmid pIJ101. Using the same procedures, we have also shown the mobilization of pIJ702 into Streptomyces sp. strain 87A by plasmid pIJ211. Strain 87A was isolated from soil in our laboratory (2).

In the cross of S. lividans $3063 \times S$. lividans TK150 $\times S$. parvulus in sterile soil, one colony with the yellow pigment characteristic of S. parvulus grew on thiostrepton-containing medium after the progeny were plated. This colony was picked and inoculated into YEME broth containing $25 \mu g$ of thiostrepton per ml. Plasmid pIJ702 was isolated from the culture derived from this colony. In this three-way cross, neomycin-resistant colonies of S. parvulus containing pIJ211 also developed. The frequency of mobilization of plasmid pIJ702 by plasmid pIJ101 in S. parvulus in soil was 3×10^{-5} .

Following the transfer of plasmid pIJ303 or pIJ702 to S. flavovirens, colonies that developed on thiostrepton-containing medium had pigments characteristic of both parents in the cross. This probably indicates chromosomal recombination between the Streptomyces strains in the crosses (12).

DISCUSSION

The transfer of conjugative plasmids and the mobilization of nonconjugative plasmids has been shown in gram-negative bacteria (17, 22, 24, 26). Plasmid-mediated conjugation in the genus Streptomyces is genetically and perhaps structurally simpler than that in gram-negative bacteria such as Escherichia coli (15). In the present study, the presence of a thiostrepton or neomycin resistance gene on plasmids pIJ303, pIJ702, and pIJ211 provided a selection method for the recognition of plasmid-carrying transconjugants. These selections were employed for the determination of plasmid transfer. The presence and the identity of plasmids in confirmed transconjugants were always verified by plasmid isolation and comparison of the restriction patterns of the plasmids from the transconjugants with those of plasmids from donors. An identical restriction pattern of a plasmid isolated from a transconjugant and a plasmid isolated from the donor indicated that the plasmid was not modified after transfer to the transconjugant, at least for the restriction enzyme employed. Thus, this could not include base deletions, inversions, or additions that may have occurred in sections of DNA other than recognition sites for Sall. Hybridization of plasmids from donors with those from recipients showed that homology was conserved. Kieser et al. (15) also noted the stability of Streptomyces plasmids but reported an occasional deletion in the derivative of plasmid pIJ101 on transfer.

A high copy number of pIJ303 was maintained in transconjugants after transfer of the plasmid for most, but not all, of the recipients. The lower intensity of DNA bands on the agarose gel for S. setonii transconjugants indicated a lower yield of plasmid DNA in S. setonii than in S. lividans. This difference could be interpreted as being due to the fact that pIJ303 has a low copy number in S. setonii. Plasmid pIJ303 was unstable in S. setonii and was lost on transfer. This is in agreement with the finding of Kieser et al. (15), who noted that plasmid stability after transfer varies in different hosts.

The frequency of transfer of plasmids from S. lividans 3042 varied in different strains and was the highest in S. lividans TK24. Kieser et al. (15) previously reported that the frequency of transfer of conjugative plasmids ranges between 2 and 100%.

The frequency of transfer also varied depending on the temperature of incubation. This may be attributed to the better growth of donors and recipients at 30°C. Some of the Streptomyces species that were crossed with S. lividans 3042 (pIJ303) have, so far, not been shown to acquire conjugative plasmids. This finding is in agreement with the observation of Kieser et al. (15) that this self-transmissible plasmid does not transfer to all Streptomyces species in crosses with S. lividans. However, transfer followed by the instability of plasmids in transconjugants may also be a reason for the low transfer frequency observed in our study.

The mobilization of the nonconjugative plasmid pIJ702 on slant crosses was observed at a much lower frequency than was the transfer of conjugative plasmids. Mobilization was expected to occur in all of the species of Streptomyces that acquired the conjugative plasmid; but it was only observed in S. flavovirens, S. parvulus, S. coelicolor, and Streptomyces sp. strain 87A. Mobilization of pIJ702 may have occurred without detection in crosses between S. parvulus, S. setonii containing pIJ303, and S. lividans containing pIJ702. Selection of colonies containing mobilized genes in these crosses was based on the expression of the melanin gene of pIJ702, which is not always adequately expressed (8).

We found that the presence of ^a conjugative plasmid is necessary for transfer of the nonconjugative plasmid pIJ702. Crosses between plasmid-free recipients and donors containing nonconjugative plasmids yielded no transconjugants. We agree with Kieser et al. (15) and Hopwood et al. (12) that the wild-type pIJ101, or as was seen in our study, its nondeleted derivatives and several unrelated plasmids, promotes the transfer of transfer-defective pIJ101 derivatives. The frequency of mobilization on slants was similar to values reported for plasmid pIJ350 (5×10^{-3}) (15) on slants. Plasmid pIJ350 is identical to pIJ702, except for the presence of the thiostrepton resistance gene in pIJ702 (14). The frequency of mobilization of pIJ702 into S. parvulus 1234 in sterile soil (3×10^{-5}) was much lower than that on agar for S. flavovirens 28 (5 \times 10⁻³).

After mobilization, pIJ702 was present in its normal autonomous form rather than as a recombinant intermediate with a conjugative plasmid. Kieser et al. (15) reported in vivo recombination between plasmid pIJ303 and plasmid pIJ24, a nonconjugative derivative of pIJ101. However, they also noticed that nontransferable derivatives of pIJ101 were transferred, under the influence of a mobilizing plasmid, in their normal autonomous form. In addition to the mobilization of plasmid pIJ702, chromosomal transfer also occurred. In the present study, the presence of a red pigment in some of the colonies of otherwise yellow pigment- or black pigment-producing S. parvulus and S. flavovirens after plasmid transfer from S. lividans indicated chromosomal fertility. This is also in agreement with the observation that transferable Streptomyces plasmids promote fertility when they are present in one parent in a cross with a plasmid-free recipient (11). A specific region of the plasmid is involved in promoting chromosomal fertility. The integration of plasmid DNA into the donor chromosome and the subsequent spread of the donor marker has been well established in Streptomyces species (11, 12).

In this study we have also shown the transfer of pIJ303 and the mobilization of pIJ702 from one strain of Streptomyces to another in sterile soil. The mobilization of pIJ702 in soil indicates that recombinant Streptomyces strains, if released into soil, may in turn transfer nonconjugative plasmids containing foreign genes to Streptomyces strains native to soil. Previously (25, 26), the transfer of plasmids in soil has been reported only in gram-negative bacteria. This is the first report of the transfer of genetic materials between Streptomyces strains in soil. The frequency of transfer of plasmids was always lower in sterile soil than on agar slants. One reason for the higher frequency of transconjugants on agar slants may be the relatively better growth and hyphal interaction of the Streptomyces strains on agar medium. It has been postulated (11) that the transfer of plasmids from donors to recipients requires mycelial fusion between the donor and the recipient. The physical separation of mycelia in soil makes plasmid transfer less frequent than that on agar slants. In some cases, plasmid transfer was observed in crosses on agar slants but not in sterile soil. The lack of detection of transconjugants in the soil is attributed to the low frequency of transfer of plasmids from S. lividans to these strains. Studies of transfer in the more competitive environment of nonsterile soil remain to be completed.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was supported in part by research agreement CR-813486-01-0 from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Environmental Research Laboratory, Corvallis, Oreg. (Ramon Seidler, project officer) and by the Idaho Agricultural Experiment Station.

Our thanks are extended to D. A. Hopwood for cultures, J. B. Sutherland for help in reviewing this manuscript, The Upjohn Co. for supplying clindamycin, and the Squibb Institute for Medical Research for supplying thiostrepton.

LITERATURE CITED

- 1. Crandall, L. W., and R. L. Hamill. 1986. Antibiotics produced by Streptomyces: major structural classes, p. 335-403. In S. W. Queener and L. E. Day (ed.), The bacteria: ^a treatise on structure and function, vol. 9. Antibiotic-producing Streptomyces. Academic Press, Inc., Orlando, Fla.
- 2. Crawford, D. L. 1978. Lignocellulose decomposition by selected Streptomyces strains. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 35: 1041-1045.
- 3. Crawford, D. L., and J. B. Sutherland. 1979. The role of actinomycetes in the decomposition of lignocellulose. Dev. Ind. Microbiol. 20:143-151.
- 4. Dean-Ross, D. 1986. Release of genetically engineered organisms: hazard assessment. ASM News 52:572-575.
- 5. Dekleva, M. L., J. A. Titus, and W. R. Strohl. 1985. Nutrient effects on anthracycline production by Streptomyces peucetius in a defined medium. Can. J. Microbiol. 31:282-294.
- 6. Gealt, M. A., M. D. Chai, K. B. Alpert, and J. C. Boyer. 1985. Transfer of plasmids pBR322 and pBR325 in wastewater from laboratory strains of Escherichia coli to bacteria indigenous to the waste disposal system. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 49:836- 841.
- 7. Ghangas, G. S., and D. B. Wilson. 1987. Expression of a Thermomonospora fusca cellulase gene in Streptomyces lividans and Bacillus subtilis. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 53:1470- 1475.
- 8. Hintermann, G., M. Zatchej, and R. Hutter. 1985. Cloning and expression of the genetically unstable tyrosinase structural gene from Streptomyces glaucescens. Mol. Gen. Genet. 200:422-432.
- Hopwood, D. A., M. G. Bibb, K. F. Chater, T. Kieser, C. J. Bruton, H. M. Kieser, D. J. Lydiate, C. P. Smith, J. M. Ward, and H. Shrempf. 1985. Genetic manipulation of Streptomyces: a laboratory manual. John Innes Foundation, Norwich, England.
- 10. Hopwood, D. A., and K. F. Chater. 1982. Cloning in Streptomyces: systems and strategies, p. 119-145. In J. K. Lettow and A. Hollaender (ed.), Genetic engineering: principles and methods,
- 11. Hopwood, D. A., T. Kieser, D. J. Lydiate, and M. J. Bibb. 1986. Streptomyces plasmids: their biology and use as cloning vectors, p. 159-220. In S. W. Queener and L. E. Day (ed.), The bacteria: a treatise on structure and function, vol. 9. Antibiotic producing Streptomyces. Academic Press, Inc., Orlando, Fla.
- 12. Hopwood, D. A., D. J. Lydiate, and F. Malpartida. 1985. Conjugative sex plasmids of Streptomyces, p. 615-634. In D. R. Helinski (ed.), Plasmids in bacteria. Plenum Publishing Corp., New York.
- 13. Jain, R. K., and G. S. Sayler. 1987. Problems and potential for in situ treatment for environmental pollutants by engineered microorganisms. Microbiol. Sci. 4:59-63.
- 14. Katz, E., C. J. Thompson, and D. A. Hopwood. 1983. Cloning and expression of the tyrosinase gene from Streptomyces antibioticus in Streptomyces lividans. J. Gen. Microbiol. 129:2703- 2714.
- 15. Kieser, T., D. A. Hopwood, H. M. Wright, and C. J. Thompson. 1982. pIJ101, a multicopy broad host-range Streptomyces plasmid: functional analyses and development of DNA cloning vectors. Mol. Gen. Genet. 185:223-238.
- 16. Maniatis, T., E. F. Fritsch, and J. Sambrook. 1982. Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- 17. McPherson, P., and M. A. Gealt. 1986. Isolation of indigenous wastewater bacterial strains capable of mobilizing plasmid pBR325. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 51:904-909.
- 18. Morino, T., K. Takagi, T. Nakamura, T. Takita, H. Saito, and H. Takahashi. 1986. Studies of cosmid transduction in Strepto-

myces lividans and Streptomyces parvulus. Agric. Biol. Chem. 50:2493-2497.

- 19. Murooka, Y., T. Ishizaki, 0. Nimi, and N. Maekawa. 1986. Cloning and expression of a Streptomyces cholesterol oxidase gene in Streptomyces lividans with plasmid pIJ702. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 52:1382-1385.
- 20. Pettey, T. M., and D. L. Crawford. 1984. Enhancement of lignin degradation in Streptomyces spp. by protoplast fusion. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 47:439-440.
- 21. Pulido, D., J. A. Vara, and A. Jimenez. 1986. Cloning and expression in biologically active form of the gene for human interferon alpha ² in Streptomyces lividans. Gene 45:167-174.
- 22. Says, D. J., 0. Ogunseitan, G. S. Sayler, and R. V. Miller. 1987. Potential for transduction of plasmids in a natural fresh water environment: effect of plasmid donor concentration and natural microbial communities on transduction in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 53:987-995.
- 23. Southern, E. 1975. Detection of specific sequences among DNA fragments separated by gel electrophoresis. J. Mol. Biol. 98: 503-517.
- 24. Stotzky, G., and H. Babich. 1986. Survival of, and genetic transfer by, genetically engineered bacteria in natural environments. Adv. Appl. Microbiol. 31:93-133.
- 25. Trevors, J. T., T. Barkay, and A. W. Bourquin. 1987. Gene transfer among bacteria in soil and aquatic environments. Can. J. Microbiol. 33: 191-198.
- 26. Trevors, J. T., and K. M. Oddie. 1986. R-plasmid transfer in soil and water. Can. J. Microbiol. 32:610-613.