MINIREVIEW

Regulation of Nodulation Gene Expression by NodD in Rhizobia

HELMI R. M. SCHLAMAN,t* ROBERT J. H. OKKER, AND BEN J. J. LUGTENBERG

Institute for Molecular Plant Sciences, Leiden University, 2311 VJ Leiden, The Netherlands

INTRODUCTION

Strains of the soil bacteria Rhizobium, Bradyrhizobium, and Azorhizobium spp. can infect plants, leading to a symbiotic interaction in which root nodules, and in the case of Azorhizobium spp. sometimes stem nodules, are formed. In these nodules the bacteria live in a differentiated form, the bacteroid, inside the cells of the host plant, and they fix nitrogen by reducing atmospheric nitrogen to ammonia. The ability of bacterial strains to form effective nodules is limited to certain host plants, usually restricted to plants belonging to the Leguminoseae. For instance, Vicia and Pisum spp. are host plants for Rhizobium leguminosarum biovar (bv.) viciae, Trifolium spp. are hosts for R . leguminosarum bv. trifolii, Medicago spp. are hosts for Rhizobium meliloti, Glycine spp. are hosts for Bradyrhizobium japonicum, and the tropical legume Sesbania rostrata is the host for Azorhizobium caulinodans.

A number of bacterial genes are important for the symbiosis. Among these are the nodulation genes, designated nod and nol. The organization of these genes in operons is very similar in Rhizobium and Bradyrhizobium spp. (Fig. 1). In the fast-growing species of Rhizobium the nod genes are localized on a large socalled Sym (symbiosis) plasmid, whereas in *Bradyrhizobium* and *Azorhizobium* spp. the nod genes are located on the chromosome. Initially, the nod genes were classified as common or host-specific nodulation (hsn) genes, which are, respectively, those interchangeable for nodulation function between different species or those involved in the host specificity of nodulation. This strict dichotomy is not clear for all nod and nol genes, however. The common nod genes comprise nodA, $-B$, $-C$, $-I$, and $-J$, all located in one operon, of which *nodABC* are essential for nodulation. Another essential gene is nodD, of which one or more alleles are present, depending on the rhizobial species (see below). The nodD gene behaves as a common nod gene for nodulation on some host plants, while in other cases it represents an important determinant of host specificity (18, 57). Several hsn genes are common to all Rhizobium spp., e.g., nodFE, nodL, and nodM. Many others, however, are present only in a particular set of rhizobial species or biovars, e.g., nodO in R. leguminosarum bv. viciae, nodH and $nodPQ$ in R. meliloti, and $nodZ$ in B. japonicum. In addition to these *nod* genes there are several recently characterized genes (designated nod or nol) which are regulated in the same way as nod genes but for which the effect on symbiosis is not yet clear.

The biochemical functions of only some of the Nod proteins are established. It is known that most of them are involved in the synthesis of extracellular bacterial signal compounds (31, 55). Apparently, more than one species of these factors are synthesized (55). These signal compounds have the general structure of a tetra- or pentamer of N-acetylglucosamines to which a variable acyl chain is linked (31, 55). The common nod genes are involved in the synthesis, and probably also the secretion, of the backbone structure. Several hsn genes are involved in the synthesis or addition of various extra moieties to this backbone (for a review, see reference 52).

THE nodD GENE

In R. leguminosarum bv. viciae and trifolii only one nodD gene is present, whereas other rhizobia carry more nodD alleles. Up to four *nodD* genes have been reported for R. meliloti; these are designated nodD1, nodD2, nodD3, and syrM. The nodD gene product is the transcriptional activator of the other nod genes (see below). However, it can also act as a repressor of transcription, as illustrated by the strong negative autoregulation observed in R. leguminosarum bv. viciae and trifolii (41, 53). Furthermore, the expression of rhiA, localized on the Sym plasmid of R. leguminosarum bv. viciae and coding for an abundant 24-kDa protein, is under negative control of NodD (11). On the basis of homology, NodD has been classified as ^a member of the LysR family of transcriptional regulators (19) (Fig. 2). Most of these act as transcriptional activators; some are repressors. All of these proteins require an inducing compound for activation. Although the cellular processes in which they act are very diverse, the proteins nevertheless share many common features. Their properties can be summarized as follows. (i) They are medium-sized proteins, 32 to 36 kDa. (ii) They have a helix-turn-helix DNA-binding motif in their N termini (19). The highest sequence conservation resides in this part of the proteins. (iii) They lack sequence homology in the C-terminal part. (iv) They are very often subject to negative autoregulation. (v) Their transcription frequently reads divergently from the genes which they control. (vi) Characteristics of in vitro binding to target DNA sequences are usually not changed by the presence or absence of inducers. (vii) For several of these proteins, mutants which activate transcription independent of inducing compounds have been described, suggesting a conformational change upon binding of inducers. (viii) They contain ^a common motif in their DNA target sites, designated the LysR motif (16).

^{*} Corresponding author.

t Present address: Institute for Molecular Plant Sciences, Clusius Laboratory, Leiden University, Wassenaarseweg 64, ²³³³ AL Leiden, The Netherlands.

FIG. 1. Genetic organization of nod genes in R. leguminosarum bv. viciae (a), R. leguminosarum bv. trifolii (b), R. meliloti (c), and B. japonicum (d). The genes are presented as arrows which point according to the direction of their transcription. Common nod genes are indicated with black arrows, host-specific nod genes are indicated with shaded arrows, and the nodD genes are indicated with white arrows. nol genes, unknown open reading frames (ORF), and other nod loci are indicated with dotted arrows. Black triangles indicate the positions of nod boxes.

On the basis of sequence data, it is assumed that DNA binding occurs at the N termini of the proteins and that interaction with inducer molecules occurs at the C-terminal part. However, results with double mutants (4) and with hybrid nodD genes (56) demonstrated that the C-terminal part of NodD is also involved in DNA binding, suggesting that NodD does not consist of two separate functional domains. A comparable situation appears to exist for NahR (43), a LysR-type protein which shows strong sequence similarity to NodD (Fig. 2) (44).

TRANSCRIPTIONAL REGULATION OF nod GENES

Except for most *nodD* genes, the *nod* and *nol* genes are not transcribed in bacteria grown in the usual laboratory media. To induce their expression the following are required: (i) the NodD protein, the positive transcriptional regulator of the inducible nod genes; (ii) a nod box, a conserved DNA sequence upstream of the inducible nod genes which is essential for promoter function; and (iii) an inducer, usually a flavonoid from the root exudate of the host plant. Inducers for most fast-growing rhizobia usually are flavones and flavanones, whereas inducers for Bradyrhizobium spp. are often isoflavones. Plants also release flavonoids which can act as anti-inducers (9, 12). Interestingly, the nodD1 genes of B. japonicum (61) , R. leguminosarum bv. phaseoli (7), and Rhizobium fredii (1) are also preceded by a nod box sequence. For the former two species, the nodDi transcription levels are enhanced in the presence of NodDl protein and certain flavonoids independently of other nod genes $(8, 51)$. The expression of nodD3 and syrM in R. meliloti is strongly interwoven in a complex way (28, 34, 42).

The expression of the inducible nod genes during symbiosis starts in the rhizosphere. The activity of the nod products leads to the production of extracellular bacterial signal compounds which in turn induce a wide range of plant responses, e.g., root hair deformation, meristematic activity in the cortex, and induction of some early nodulins (for a review, see references 37 and 52). When the bacteria have entered the host plant root, they multiply in the infection thread and are subsequently released into the cytoplasm of the newly formed meristematic cells, where they differentiate into bacteroids. Bacteroids are a differentiated form of

FIG. 2. Phylogenetic relationships among members of the LysR family of transcriptional regulator proteins as deduced by the program PAUP (59), version 3.Oo for Macintosh. All of these sequences are available in the data bases and have been published. D, NodD sequences from A. caulinodans (azorhiz); B. japonicum (brady); R. fredii (fredii); R. leguminosarum bv. viciae (leg and sym1, two different strains), trifolii (trif), and phaseoli (phas); and R. meliloti (mel; 1021 and AK41 are two different strains). Other abbreviations: cifre, Citrobacter freundii; ecoli, Escherichia coli; entcl, Enterobacter cloacae; salty, Salmonella typhimurium. The sequence of AraC, to which NodD formerly was proposed to be homologous (50), was chosen as an outgroup (59). The position of AntO in this order of relationship is open to discussion since its function as an H^+/Na^+ antiport differs largely from that of the other proteins.

the bacteria which fix nitrogen and are unable to convert to bacteria. When the bacteria are released from the infection thread, the expression of the inducible nod genes stops and that of nodD decreases (46, 49).

Initially, the favored model of transcriptional activation of the inducible *nod* genes was one in which flavonoids enter the bacterial cytoplasm, where they bind to NodD protein and activate the protein through a conformational change. The activated NodD subsequently binds to the nod box, and because of this binding, the transcription of the respective genes is induced. The following observations made it necessary, however, to revise this model. (i) The NodD protein of R. leguminosarum bv. viciae is localized in the cytoplasmic membrane (48). (ii) Flavonoids are probably hardly present in the cytoplasm, but are thought to shuttle through the

cytoplasmic membrane since the molecules are alternately protonated and deprotonated (39, 40). (iii) In vitro, NodD can bind to the nod boxes also in the absence of flavonoids $(13, 20, 29)$. (iv) Other proteins bind to the *nod* boxes as well, and they might be involved in the regulation of transcription from these promoters (16, 29). In the following paragraphs the various elements of the model of transcriptional activation of the nod genes are discussed; the NodD-mediated part of transcriptional activation will be discussed in more detail.

NodD as a membrane protein. In R. leguminosarum bv. viciae, NodD is an amphipathic cytoplasmic membrane protein, presumably inserted only in the inner monolayer (48). In R. meliloti, however, substantial amounts of NodDl and NodD3 are present in the soluble fraction of ^a biochemical preparation (29, 32). By using computer analysis, a hydrophobic α -helix has been predicted for the presumed membrane-integrated part of NodD. This part contains three and four Pro residues for R. leguminosarum bv. viciae NodD and R. meliloti NodDl, respectively (48); Pro residues are known to break α -helices (6). It should be noted that Pro residues are found in membrane-located α -helices of many membrane proteins that function as receptor subunits or as transporters (for ^a review, see reference 62). For SyrM of R. meliloti a potential membrane-integrated helix domain also is predicted (28).

Binding of flavonoids to NodD and activation of NodD in the membrane. In vivo, the presumed interaction between NodD and flavonoids is likely to occur in the cytoplasmic membrane, since both partners are localized in this compartment (40, 48). This suggests that an analysis of the presumed binding is highly complicated. Indeed, a direct binding of flavonoids to NodD has not been shown, due to technical difficulties since flavonoids stick to all kinds of materials, including proteins (38). Nevertheless, results with mutant nodD genes $(3, 22, 35, 56)$, analysis of inducible *nod* gene transcription in an isogenic background with nodD genes from various sources (18, 57), and an enhanced binding of nod box DNA by ^a 35-kDa protein in the presence of flavonoid inducers (16) together strongly suggest that NodD functions as ^a specific receptor for flavonoids. As stated above, NodD does not contain separate functional domains for DNA binding and flavonoid interaction. It was initially suggested from several studies with mutants that flavonoid binding occurs in the C-terminal part of the protein (3, 17, 22, 35), but this was not supported by the results of other NodD mutant studies (4, 56).

Since flavonoids are required for activation of the NodD protein, they presumably induce a conformational change in the protein. This notion is supported by the fact that it is possible to construct mutant and hybrid NodD proteins which activate the transcription of the inducible nod genes independent of flavonoids (3, 54).

Translocation of NodD from the membrane. We suggest that NodD is localized in the cytoplasmic membrane to facilitate binding of flavonoids. Consistent with this is the observation made with R . meliloti, in which NodD has been localized mainly in the cytosol, that migration to the cytoplasmic membrane occurs only when appropriate flavonoids are added to the cell (29). Binding of NodD to nod box DNA occurs by a soluble form of NodD in R. meliloti (13) and also in R. leguminosarum bv. viciae, although a minor fraction of cytoplasmic-membrane-located NodD can bind to nod boxes as well (45). Other proteins which have a reversible association with the membrane, similar to NodD, have been described. These are designated amphitropic proteins (5), and NodD presumably is such ^a membrane protein. In R.

meliloti, ^a chaperonelike protein homologous to GroEL of Escherichia coli is necessary for the transcriptional activation by NodD (33). It is feasible that this protein is necessary for the translocation of NodD from the cytoplasmic membrane to keep it in a proper, soluble conformation. In this respect, it might be relevant that a 59-kDa protein was copurified with NodDl from the cytosol of R. meliloti, since GroEL is ^a 60-kDa protein (13).

Binding of NodD to nod boxes. The specific binding of NodD to nod box DNA has been well established in vitro (13, 16, 20, 29). The nod box DNA region protected by NodD is identical in the presence and absence of flavonoids (14, 29). Comparable results are found for many proteins belonging to the LysR family. However, studies done with NahR demonstrate that differences in binding to the regulated promoter sequence are detectable only when the analyses are performed in vivo and not in vitro (23). For R. meliloti $AK41$ (29) and A. caulinodans (16) it has been reported that NodD has an higher affinity for the nod box in the presence of inducer than in its absence. An altered binding was not observed by others, however (13, 20).

In Rhizobium spp. the nod box is composed of three hyperconserved parts (53), whereas in B. japonicum the nod box sequence can be divided into four hyperconserved boxes (61). Recently, the presence of two inverted repeats with the sequence $A-T-C-N₉-G-A-T$ within all known nod boxes was made evident (16). Such a structure favors the hypothesis that NodD binds as ^a tetramer to the nod box, as was also suggested by studies with nod box deletion mutants (61) . Consistent with this are data from studies of R. *meliloti* in which one or more nodD genes were mutated and subsequently analyzed for inducing capacity, which revealed that NodD probably binds to the *nod* box as a dimer or a tetramer (21). This notion is further supported by the presence of a receiver module in the N-terminal half of NodD (35) which might be involved in multimerization of the protein (25). Two other members of the LysR family, CysB (36) and NahR (43), bind to their DNA-binding sites as tetrameric proteins.

Additional factors involved in expression of nod genes. A repressor of nod gene transcription, designated NolR, is present in many R. meliloti strains but not in the wellinvestigated strain 1021 (29, 30). NolR binds to the nodD1 and nodD2 promoter regions and not to any of the inducible nod promoters (29), and its major role is proposed to be in regulation of *nodD1*, *nodD2*, and *nodD3* transcription (30). Strong evidence for the presence of a repressor protein in R. leguminosarum bv. viciae is lacking (30), although nolRhomologous DNA can be detected on Southern blots under low-stringency conditions (27). In contrast, an additional protein which binds to the nodF box acts as an activator rather than as a repressor (45). This same protein or another one may also bind to nod box sequences of nodA and nodM, but not to those of nodO. In A. caulinodans at least three other proteins, smaller than NodD, were found to bind to nod box DNA, but their function is unknown (16).

Combined nitrogen represses *nodABC* transcription in both R. meliloti and B. japonicum (10, 60). The expression of R. meliloti nodD3, but not that of nodDl (10), and of B. japonicum nodD1 (60) is under negative control of NH_4^+ . In the latter case, neither NifA nor NtrC appears to be involved, but two binding sites for NtrC are found upstream of nodD3 in R. meliloti (26). At ^a ¹⁰ mM concentration of NH_4^+ , 40 and 20% inhibition of *nodD1* and *nodABC* expression, respectively, occurs in *B. japonicum* (60), whereas at least 30 mM NH_4^+ is required for measurable inhibitory effects in R. meliloti (10).

Transcriptional activation of inducible nod genes. The mechanism by which NodD induces transcription is still not understood. In R. meliloti nod promoter activity correlates with in vitro NodD DNA binding (15). RNA polymerase may be facilitated to bind to the promoter region which is located downstream from the binding site of NodD. Such a mechanism, e.g., by bending of the DNA helix, has been proposed for the members of the LysR family (19), although strong experimental data supporting this notion are still lacking. There is evidence, however, for bending of nod box DNA by NodD1 in R. meliloti (15). This problem will likely be resolved only when an in vitro system for transcriptional activation of the inducible nod genes is available. In vivo studies on NodD-nod box interaction should be undertaken in the near future.

Decrease of transcription of nod genes. In bacteroids, the inducible nod genes are not transcribed (46, 49), and their expression stops after the bacteria have been released from the infection thread into the plant cytoplasm (46). This phenomenon has been analyzed biochemically in R. leguminosarum bv. viciae and apparently is caused by ineffective binding of NodD in bacteroids to nod boxes, because of either a conformational change of the protein or its presence in another complex (47). Since high-level constitutive expression of the inducible nod genes in bacteroids results in Fix⁻ nodules $(3, 24)$, the expression of these genes is undesirable in bacteroids. Moreover, the transcription of nodD is reduced in bacteroids (46, 49). In bacteroids of R. leguminosarum bv. viciae the level of nodD expression is around 35% of that of free-living cells, and this reduction may be caused by a bacteroid-specific repressor protein (47). In R. meliloti neither nodD1 nor nodD3 is transcribed, whereas the expression of $syrM$ is enhanced in bacteroids (49, 58).

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NITROGEN FIXATION AND NodD PROTEIN

The role of NodD in bacteroids is poorly understood, since it appears not to be used for nod gene induction and thus flavonoid sensing. However, several relevant observations suggest that NodD is in some way linked to the process of nitrogen fixation. (i) When plants are infected with rhizobia containing the hybrid gene nodD604, which activates the transcription of nod genes independent from flavonoids, normal nodulation occurs but the levels of nitrogen fixation can be significantly higher (46, 54). This is not caused by ^a continuous expression of the inducible nod genes within the bacteroids (46). (ii) The syrM gene in R. meliloti is the least-conserved nodD-like gene known (Fig. 2) (2, 28), and it can therefore be assumed that the conformation of SyrM is different from that of the other NodD proteins. While the expression of the nodD genes is much lower in bacteroids than in free-living cells (46, 49), the reverse appears to be the case for the transcription of $syrM$: it is very low in free-living cells, grown aerobically or microaerobically, but high in nitrogen-fixing bacteroids (49, 58). (iii) In addition, the expression of *nodD3* of R. meliloti appears to be controlled by the general system for nitrogen-regulated gene expression NtrB-NtrC (26).

Despite these data, no molecular interaction of NodD with nif and/or fix genes is known, nor do we have any idea whether more proteins and/or factors are involved.

J. BACrERIOL.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Gerard Muyzer, Department of Biochemistry, Leiden University, for his assistance in constructing the phylogenetic tree of members of the LysR family and Joan Bennett for reading the manuscript.

This work was supported by The Netherlands Foundation of Chemical Research, with financial aid from The Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research.

REFERENCES

- 1. Appelbaum, E. R., D. V. Thompson, K. Idler, and N. Chartrain. 1988. Rhizobium japonicum USDA 191 has two nodD genes that differ in primary structure and function. J. Bacteriol. 170:12-20.
- 2. Barnett, M. J., and S. R. Long. 1990. DNA sequence and translational product of a new nodulation-regulatory locus: SyrM has sequence similarity to NodD proteins. J. Bacteriol. 172:3695-3700.
- 3. Burn, J., L. Rossen, and A. W. B. Johnston. 1987. Four classes of mutations in the nodD gene of Rhizobium leguminosarum which affect its ability to autoregulate and/or to activate other nod genes in the presence of flavonoid inducers. Genes Dev. 1:456-464.
- 4. Burn, J. E., W. D. Hamilton, J. C. Wootton, and A. W. B. Johnston. 1989. Single and multiple mutations affecting properties of the regulatory gene nodD of Rhizobium. Mol. Microbiol. 3:1567-1577.
- 5. Burn, P. 1988. Amphitropic proteins: a new class of membrane proteins. Trends Biochem. Sci. 13:79-83.
- 6. Chou, P. Y., and G. D. Fasman. 1978. Prediction of the secondary structure of proteins from their amino acid sequence. Adv. Enzymol. 47:45-148.
- 7. Davis, E. O., and A. W. B. Johnston. 1990. Analysis of three nodD genes in Rhizobium leguminosarum biovar phaseoli: nodD1 is preceded by nodE, a gene whose product is secreted from the cytoplasm. Mol. Microbiol. 4:921-932.
- 8. Davis, E. O., and A. W. B. Johnston. 1990. Regulatory functions of the three nodD genes of Rhizobium leguminosarum biovar phaseoli. Mol. Microbiol. 4:933-941.
- Djordjevic, M. A., J. W. Redmond, M. Batley, and B. G. Rolfe. 1987. Clovers secrete specific phenolic compounds which either stimulate or repress nod gene expression in Rhizobium trifolii. EMBO J. 6:1173-1179.
- 10. Dusha, I., A. Bakos, A. Kondorosi, F. De Bruijn, and J. Schell. 1989. The Rhizobium meliloti early nodulation genes (nodABC) are nitrogen-regulated: isolation of a mutant strain with efficient nodulation capacity on alfalfa in the presence of ammonium. Mol. Gen. Genet. 219:89-96.
- 11. Economou, A., F. K. L. Hawkins, J. A. Downie, and A. W. B. Johnston. 1989. Transcription of rhiA, a gene on a Rhizobium leguminosarum bv. viciae Sym plasmid, requires $rhiR$ and is repressed by flavanoids that induce nod genes. Mol. Microbiol. 3:87-93.
- 12. Firmin, J. L., K. E. Wilson, L. Rossen, and A. W. B. Johnston. 1986. Flavonoid activation of nodulation genes in Rhizobium reversed by other compounds present in plants. Nature (London) 324:90-92.
- 13. Fisher, R. F., T. T. Egelhoff, J. T. Mulligan, and S. R. Long. 1988. Specific binding of proteins from Rhizobium meliloti cell-free extracts containing NodD to DNA sequences upstream of inducible nodulation genes. Genes Dev. 2:282-293.
- 14. Fisher, R. F., and S. R. Long. 1989. DNA footprint analysis of the transcriptional activator proteins NodDl and NodD3 on inducible nod gene promoters. J. Bacteriol. 171:5492-5502.
- 15. Fisher, R. F., and S. R. Long. Interactions of NodD at the nod box: NodD binds to two distinct sites on the same face of the helix and induces ^a bend in the DNA. J. Mol. Biol., in press.
- 16. Goethals, K., M. Van Montagu, and M. Holsters. 1992. Conserved motifs in a divergent nod box of Azorhizobium caulinodans ORS571 reveal ^a common structure in promoters regulated by LysR-type proteins. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 89:1646-1650.
- 17. Gy6rgypal, Z., and A. Kondorosi. 1991. Homology of the ligand-binding regions of Rhizobium symbiotic regulatory pro-

tein NodD and vertebrate nuclear receptors. Mol. Gen. Genet. 226:337-340.

- 18. Györgypal, Z., E. Kondorosi, and A. Kondorosi. 1991. Diverse signal sensitivity of NodD protein homologs from narrow and broad host range rhizobia. Mol. Plant Microbe Interact. 4:356- 364.
- 19. Henikoff, S., G. W. Haughn, J. M. Calvo, and J. C. Wallace. 1988. A large family of bacterial activators. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 85:6602-6606.
- 20. Hong, G.-F., J. E. Burn, and A. W. B. Johnston. 1987. Evidence that DNA involved in the expression of nodulation (nod) genes in Rhizobium binds to the product of the regulatory gene nodD. Nucleic Acids Res. 15:9677-9690.
- 21. Honma, M. A., M. Asomaning, and F. M. Ausubel. 1990. Rhizobium meliloti nodD genes mediate host-specific activation of nodABC. J. Bacteriol. 172:901-911.
- 22. Horvath, B., C. W. B. Bachem, J. Schell, and A. Kondorosi. 1987. Host-specific regulation of nodulation genes in Rhizobium is mediated by a plant-signal, interacting with the nodD gene product. EMBO J. 6:841-848.
- 23. Huang, J., and M. A. Schell. 1991. In vivo interactions of the NahR transcriptional activator with its target sequences: inducer mediated changes resulting in transcription activation. J. Biol. Chem. 266:10830-10838.
- 24. Knight, C. D., L. Rossen, J. G. Robertson, B. Wells, and J. A. Downie. 1986. Nodulation inhibition by Rhizobium leguminosarum multicopy nodABC genes and analysis of early stages of plant infection. J. Bacteriol. 166:552-558.
- 25. Kofoid, E. C., and J. S. Parkinson. 1988. Transmitter and receiver modules in bacterial signaling proteins. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 85:4981-4985.
- 26. Kondorosi, A. 1991. Overview on genetics of nodule induction: factors controlling nodule induction by Rhizobium meliloti, p. 111-118. In H. Hennecke and D. P. S. Verma (ed.), Advances in molecular genetics of plant-microbe interactions, vol. 1. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, The Netherlands.
- 27. Kondorosi, E. (CNRS, Gif-sur-Yvette, France). Personal communication.
- 28. Kondorosi, E., M. Buire, M. Cren, N. Iyer, B. Hoffmann, and A. Kondorosi. 1991. Involvement of the syrM and nodD3 genes of Rhizobium meliloti in nod gene activation and in optimal nodulation of the plant host. Mol. Microbiol. 5:3035-3048.
- 29. Kondorosi, E., J. Gyuris, J. Schmidt, M. John, E. Duda, B. Hoffmann, J. Schell, and A. Kondorosi. 1989. Positive and negative control of nod gene expression in Rhizobium meliloti is required for optimal nodulation. EMBO J. 8:1331-1341.
- 30. Kondorosi, E., M. Pierre, M. Cren, U. Haumann, M. Buire, B. Hoffmann, J. Schell, and A. Kondorosi. 1991. Identification of NoIR, ^a negative transacting factor controlling the nod regulon in Rhizobium meliloti. J. Mol. Biol. 222:885-896.
- 31. Lerouge, P., P. Roche, C. Faucher, F. Maillet, G. Truchet, J.-C. Promé, and J. Dénarié. 1990. Symbiotic host-specificity of Rhizobium meliloti is determined by ^a sulphated and acylated glucosamine oligosaccharide signal. Nature (London) 344:781- 784.
- 32. Long, S. R. (Stanford University). Personal communication.
- 33. Long, S. R., R. F. Fisher, J. Ogawa, J. Swanson, D. W. Erhardt, E. M. Atkinson, and J. S. Schwedock. 1991. Rhizobium melioti nodulation gene regulation and molecular signals, p. 127-133. In H. Hennecke and D. P. S. Verma (ed.), Advances in molecular genetics of plant-microbe interactions, vol. 1. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, The Netherlands.
- 34. Maillet, F., F. Debellé, and J. Dénarié. 1990. Role of the nodD and syrM genes in the activation of the regulatory gene nodD3, and of the common and host-specific nod genes of Rhizobium meliloti. Mol. Microbiol. 4:1975-1984.
- 35. McIver, J., M. A. Djordjevic, J. J. Weinman, G. L. Bender, and B. G. Rolfe. 1989. Extension of host range of Rhizobium leguminosarum biovar trifolii due to point mutants in nodD that result in alterations in regulatory function and recogni tion of inducer molecules. Mol. Plant Microbe Interact. 2:97- 106.
- 36. Miller, B. E., and N. M. Kedrich. 1987. Purification of the $\csc B$

protein from Salmonella typhimurium. J. Biol. Chem. 262:6006-6009.

- 37. Nap, J.-P., and T. Bisseling. 1990. Developmental biology of a plant-prokaryote symbiosis: the legume root nodule. Science 250:948-954.
- 38. Recourt, K. (Leiden University, Leiden, The Netherlands). Personal communication.
- 39. Recourt, K. 1991. Flavonoids in the early Rhizobium-legume interaction. Ph.D. thesis. Leiden University, Leiden, The Netherlands.
- 40. Recourt, K., A. A. N. Van Brussel, A. H. M. Driessen, and B. J. J. Lugtenberg. 1989. Accumulation of a nod gene inducer, the flavonoid naringenin, in the cytoplasmic membrane is caused by the pH-dependent hydrophobicity of naringenin. J. Bacteriol. 171:4370-4377.
- 41. Rossen, L., C. A. Shearman, A. W. B. Johnston, and J. A. Downie. 1985. The nodD gene of Rhizobium leguminosarum is autoregulatory and in the presence of plant exudate induces the nodA,B,C genes. EMBO J. 4:3369-3373.
- 42. Rushing, B. G., M. M. Yelton, and S. R. Long. 1991. Genetic and physical analysis of the nodD3 region of Rhizobium meliloti. Nucleic Acids Res. 19:921-927.
- 43. Schell, M. A., P. H. Brown, and S. Raju. 1990. Use of saturation mutagenesis to localize probable functional domains in the NahR protein, ^a LysR-type transcription activator. J. Biol. Chem. 265:3844-3850.
- 44. Schell, M. A., and M. Sukordhaman. 1989. Evidence that the transcription activator encoded by the Pseudomonas putida nahR gene is evolutionarily related to the transcription activators encoded by the Rhizobium nodD genes. J. Bacteriol. 171:1952-1959.
- 45. Schlaman, H. R. M. 1992. Regulation of nodulation gene expression in Rhizobium leguminosarum biovar viceae. Ph.D. thesis. Leiden University, Leiden, The Netherlands.
- 46. Schlaman, H. R. M., B. Horvath, E. Vigenboom, R. J. H. Okker, and B. J. J. Lugtenberg. 1991. Suppression of nodulation gene expression in bacteroids of Rhizobium leguminosarum biovar viciae. J. Bacteriol. 173:4277-4287.
- 47. Schlaman, H. R. M., B. J. J. Lugtenberg, and R. J. H. Okker. The NodD protein does not bind to the promoters of inducible nodulation genes in bacteroids of Rhizobium leguminosarum biovar viciae. Submitted for publication.
- 48. Schlaman, H. R. M., H. P. Spaink, R. J. H. Okker, and B. J. J. Lugtenberg. 1989. Subcellular localization of the nodD gene product in Rhizobium leguminosarum. J. Bacteriol. 171:4686- 4693.
- 49. Sharma, S. B., and E. R. Signer. 1990. Temporal and spatial regulation of the symbiotic genes of Rhizobium meliloti in planta revealed by Tn-5-gusA. Genes Dev. 4:344-356.
- 50. Shearman, C. A., L. Rossen, A. W. B. Johnston, and J. A. Downie. 1986. The Rhizobium leguminosarum nodulation gene $nodF$ encodes a polypeptide similar to acyl-carrier protein and is regulated by nodD plus ^a factor in pea-root exudate. EMBO J. 5:647-652.
- 51. Smit, G., V. Puvanesarajah, R. W. Carlson, W. M. Barbour, and G. Stacey. 1992. Bradyrhizobium japonicum nodDI can be specifically induced by soybean flavonoids that do not induce the nodYABCSUIJ operon. J. Biol. Chem. 267:310-318.
- 52. Spaink, H. P. Rhizobial lipo-oligosaccharides: answers and questions. Plant Mol. Biol., in press.
- 53. Spaink, H. P., R. J. H. Okker, C. A. Wiffelman, E. Pees, and B. J. J. Lugtenberg. 1987. Promoters in the nodulation region of the Rhizobium leguminosarum Sym plasmid pRLlJI. Plant Mol. Biol. 9:27-39.
- 54. Spaink, H. P., R. J. H. Okker, C. A. Wijffelman, T. Tak, L. Goosen-De Roo, E. Pees, A. A. N. Van Brussel, and B. J. J. Lugtenberg. 1989. Symbiotic properties of rhizobia containing a flavonoid-independent hybrid nodD product. J. Bacteriol. 171: 4045-4053.
- 55. Spaink, H. P., D. M. Sheeley, A. A. N. Van Brussel, J. Glushka, W. S. York, T. Tak, 0. Geiger, E. P. Kennedy, V. N. Reinhold, and B. J. J. Lugtenberg. 1991. A novel highly unsaturated fatty acid moiety of lipo-oligosaccharide signals determines host

specificity of Rhizobium. Nature (London) 354:125-130.

- 56. Spaink, H. P., C. A. WiJffelman, R. J. H. Okker, and B. E. J. Lugtenberg. 1989. Localization of functional regions of the Rhizobium nodD product using hybrid nodD genes. Plant Mol. Biol. 12:59-73.
- 57. Spaink, H. P., C. A. Wiffelman, E. Pees, R. J. H. Okker, and B. J. J. Lugtenberg. 1987. Rhizobium nodulation gene nodD as a determinant of host specificity. Nature (London) 328:337- 339.
- 58. Swanson, J., J. Mulligan, and S. R. Long. Regulation of syrM and nodD3 in Rhizobium meliloti. Genetics, in press.
- 59. Swofford, D. L., and G. J. Olson. 1990. Phylogeny reconstruc-

tion, p. 411-501. In D. M. Hillis and C. Moritz (ed.), Molecular systematics. Sinauer Associates Inc. Publishers, Sunderland, Mass.

- 60. Wang, S.-P., and G. Stacey. 1990. Ammonia regulation of nod genes in Bradyrhizobium japonicum. Mol. Gen. Genet. 223:329- 331.
- 61. Wang, S.-P., and G. Stacey. 1991. Studies of the Bradyrhizobium japonicum nodDI gene promoter: a repeated structure for the *nod* box. J. Bacteriol. 173:3356-3365.
- 62. Williams, K. A., and C. M. Deber. 1991. Proline residues in transmembrane helices: structural or dynamic role? Biochemistry 30:8919-8923.