# Molecular Cloning, Sequencing, and Expression of the Glutamine Synthetase II (glnII) Gene from the Actinomycete Root Nodule Symbiont Frankia sp. Strain Cpll

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In common with other plant symbionts, Frankia spp., the actinomycete  $N_2$ -fixing symbionts of certain nonleguminous woody plants, synthesize two glutamine synthetases, GSI and GSII. DNA encoding the Bradyrhizobium japonicum gene for GSII (glnII) hybridized to DNA from three Frankia strains. B. japonicum ginII was used as a probe to clone the ginII gene from a size-selected KpnI library of Frankia strain CpI1 DNA. The region corresponding to the Frankia sp. strain CpI1 glnII gene was sequenced, and the amino acid sequence was compared with that of the GS gene from the pea and ginII from B. japonicum. The Frankia ginII gene product has a high degree of similarity with both GSII from B. japonicum and GS from pea, although the sequence was about equally similar to both the bacterial and eucaryotic proteins. The Frankia glnII gene was also capable of complementing an *Escherichia coli*  $\Delta g lnA$  mutant when transcribed from the vector lac promoter, but not when transcribed from the Frankia promoter. GSII produced in E. coli was heat labile, like the enzyme produced in Frankia sp. strain CpI1 but unlike the wild-type  $E.$  coli enzyme.

In bacteria, glutamine synthetase (GS) plays dual roles in providing glutamine for biosynthesis and in assimilating ammonia. Escherichia coli GS is regulated at the transcriptional level by the Ntr (nitrogen regulation) system and at the posttranslational level through an adenylylation cascade in which each of 12 identical subunits is reversibly adenylylated (34). As the enzyme is progressively adenylylated, it becomes increasingly sensitive to feedback inhibition by metabolites downstream from glutamine (1). This pattern of GS regulation is repeated in most members of the family Enterobacteriaceae and in many other bacteria.

Several exceptions to the enteric model of GS structure and regulation have been reported. For example, GSs in Anabaena and Bacillus spp. are not adenylylated (16, 31, 49), and short-term regulation occurs through feedback inhibition by metabolites that originate from glutamine and, in the case of Bacillus spp., by glutamine itself. A novel hexameric enzyme from Bacteroides fragilis has little DNA or protein sequence similarity with other GSs and lacks an adenylylation site (19).

Multiple GSs have been found in several bacteria. Two similar GSs found in the thermophile Bacillus caldolyticus are regulated in a complementary fashion (51, 52). Two GSs in plant symbionts from the families Rhizobiaceae (including Rhizobium, Bradyrhizobium, Agrobacterium, and Phyllobacterium spp.) and Frankiaceae are dissimilar and are regulated in response to the nitrogen source (14, 17). In members of the *Rhizobiaceae*, total GS activity is modulated by the differential transcription of glnA (GSI) and glnII (GSII) (12, 15, 35). Like the enteric GS, GSI is regulated by adenylylation, but it is expressed constitutively (12). GSII resembles eucaryotic GSs; it is an octamer of identical subunits and *glnII* is expressed from an Ntr-like promoter during nitrogen limitation (15, 26, 35). In the plant symbiotic actinomycete Frankia sp. strain Cpll, the pattern of GS regulation resembles that found in members of the Rhizobiaceae. Both GSI and GSII are produced; GSI is a classic GS in the sense that it is regulated by adenylylation, and GSII is biochemically similar to rhizobial GSIIs (17). GSII appears to be specifically synthesized in response to nitrogen starvation or in response to growth on a poor nitrogen source, such as glutamate, in culture, whereas GSI is constitutively present under all conditions tested (48).

To date, no role has been assigned to GSII in either group of organisms that would help explain its apparent persistence in plant symbionts. We show here that GSII from Frankia sp. strain Cpll is similar in its DNA and protein sequence to the GS from Pisum sativum (pea) and GSII from Bradyrhizobium spp. Our results indicate that GSII is common among Frankia strains and, together with companion papers (4, 22), show that GSII is generally widespread among actinomycetes.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains, plasmids, and growth conditions. The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1. All Frankia strains were grown as described previously, except that Ail7 and HFPCcI3 were grown on propionate- rather than succinate-containing medium (29). E. coli strains were grown on Luria medium (27) with 0.2% glucose or on M9 minimal medium (25). Ampicillin was added to <sup>a</sup> final concentration of 100  $\mu$ g/ml.

Preparation of DNA. Plasmid DNA from E. coli strains was prepared by the boiling lysis method (20). DNA from Frankia strains was prepared by a modification of the method of Ligon and Nakas (24) or by a modification of the method of Stauffer et al. (43).

Restriction endonuclease analysis, electrophoresis of DNA, and hybridization conditions. Restriction endonucleases were purchased from Bethesda Research Laboratories, Inc., Gaithersburg, Md., and used as recommended by the manufacturer. DNA was fractionated on 0.4% agarose (genomic digests) or 0.8% agarose (plasmids) and transferred to nitro-

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TABLE 1. Plasmids, Frankia strains, and E. coli strains used in this study

Strain or plasmid	Relevant characteristics	Reference or source	
Frankia spp.			
Ai17	Isolated from alder (Alnus in- cana subsp. rugosa)	6	
Cpl1	Isolated from sweet fern (Comptonia peregrina)	9	
HFPCcI3	Isolated from casuarina (Ca- suarina cunninghamiana)	54	
E. coli			
<b>JM105</b>	supE endA sbcB15 hsdR4 rpsL thi $\Delta (lac$ -proAB) (F' traD36 $probAB^+$ lac $I^q$ lac $Z\Delta M15$ )	53	
YMC11	thi endA hsr ∆lacU169 hut $C_{\text{Klebs}}^a \Delta(glnG\text{-}glnA)$	3	
<b>Plasmids</b>			
pBJ196A	$Apr$ ; B. japonicum glnII in pBR322	10	
pFR101	Ap <sup>r</sup> ; Frankia CpI1 glnII in pUC19	This study	
pFR121a	Ap <sup>r</sup> ; <i>Frankia</i> CpI1 glnII with truncated 5' regions in pUC19	This study	
pUC18, pUC19		30	

<sup>a</sup> Klebsiella hutC gene.

cellulose filters (Millipore Corp., Bedford, Mass.) by the method of Southern (42). Hybridization was done by standard methods with approximately 10<sup>7</sup> cpm of  $[\alpha^{-32}P]$ dCTPlabeled probe per ml of hybridization solution (25).

Genomic size-selected library construction. A size-selected library was made from Frankia sp. strain Cpll DNA by excising the region of agarose gels corresponding to the 4.6-kilobase-pair (kbp) band of the KpnI restriction enzyme digest of Cpll DNA. DNA was isolated by the freezesqueeze method (46) followed by phenol-chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation. The fragments were ligated (21) into alkaline phosphatase-treated pUC19 that had been digested with KpnI. Competent E. coli JM105 cells were prepared and transformed by the method of Dagert and Ehrlich (13) with cells washed in 100 mM  $MgCl<sub>2</sub>$  prior to calcium chloride treatment. Insert-bearing clones were screened by hybridization with the insert from pBJ196A carrying the *Bradyrhizobium glnII* gene. Screening was performed on dot blots of DNA from individual clones grown in 96-well microdilution plates, lysed with <sup>1</sup> M NaOH, transferred by dot blot vacuum manifold to nitrocellulose membranes, and treated by the method of Landers (23). prepared and transformed by the method of Langert and<br>
Ehrlich (13) with cells washed in 100 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> prior to<br>
calcium chloride treatment. Insert-bearing clones were<br>
screened by hybridization with the insert from pBIJ

Subcloning. DNA restriction fragments were fractionated in 1.0% low-melting-point agarose (NuSieve; FMC Corp., Rockland, Maine) and ligated in agarose to appropriately digested vector (45).

Complementation of E. coli  $\Delta g$ lnA. To express the glnII gene, a construct was made by deleting the region <sup>5</sup>' to the start of the putative Frankia glnII gene on the 1.6-kbp SalI fragment (44). This construct was directionally subcloned into the HindIII and Sall sites of pUC18 and pUC19. The resulting transformants were checked for the presence of the construct by restriction digest. The expression plasmid was termed pFR12la in pUC19 and pFR12lb in pUC18. Approximately <sup>50</sup> bp of Frankia DNA upstream of the start of similarity with *Bradyrhizobium glnII* is present in pFR121a and pFR12lb along with the entire Frankia glnII region.

DNA sequence analysis. DNA sequencing was done by the



FIG. 1. Southern blot of Frankia sp. strain CpIl, CcI3, and Ail7 DNA hybridized to  $[\alpha^{-32}P]$ dCTP-labeled B. japonicum glnII DNA. Lanes a, b, and <sup>c</sup> correspond to CpIl, CcI3, and Ail7 DNA, respectively.

dideoxynucleoside triphosphate chain termination method of Sanger et al. (37), with  $\left[\alpha^{-35}S\right]dATP\alpha S$  as label and templates prepared from subclones made in pUC plasmids. Sequencing reactions were done with T7 DNA polymerase by following the protocol supplied by the manufacturer (Pharmacia, Inc., Piscataway, N.J.). Since Frankia DNA has about a  $70\%$  G+C content (2), sequencing reactions were done with 7-deaza-2'-dGTP and sometimes 7-deaza-2' dITP to relieve band compressions. E. coli JM105 was used as the recipient strain. Software for analyzing the DNA sequences included the IBI-Pustell program for the IBM and IBI-MacVector program for the Apple Macintosh computer (IBI, New Haven, Conn.).

GS assay. GS was assayed by the  $\gamma$ -glutamyltransferase method (5), modified as described previously (17). Heat lability of the enzyme in E. coli extracts was tested at  $60^{\circ}$ C as described previously (48). Protein was determined by the Bradford dye-binding assay (8).

#### RESULTS

Cloning of the Frankia glnII gene. Significant sequence similarity between Bradyrhizobium japonicum glnII DNA and Frankia DNA was observed by Southern blot analysis (Fig. 1). Total genomic DNA from Frankia sp. strains CpIl,



FIG. 2. Physical map and sequencing strategy for the Frankia sp. strain CpI1 glnII region. The boxed area represents the glnII gene. The arrows represent the templates and direction of sequencing. Restriction endonuclease site abbreviations: S, Sall; Sm, SmaI.



CcI3 and Ail7 was digested with KpnI and SstI, fractionated by electrophoresis in 0.4% agarose, denatured, and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes. The 2.1-kbp SalI insert of plasmid pBJ196A containing the B. japonicum glnII gene was used as a probe. The hybridization conditions used (45% formamide and 40°C) should allow hybridization with about a 40% mismatch. The hybridization patterns of the putative  $gln II$  gene varied with the strain (Fig. 1). KpnI digests yielded single 4.6-, 8.4-, and 2.5-kbp bands from CpIl, CcI3, and Ail7, respectively. SstI gave single 2.9- and 6.5-kbp bands from Cpll and CcI3, respectively, and two bands of 4.3 and 2.9 kbp from Ail7. We decided to clone the 4.6-kbp fragment from the KpnI digest of Cpll.

Size-selected libraries were screened for the presence of glnII hybridizable DNA. Although conventional colony hybridizations failed to yield any clones hybridizing to B. japonicum glnII, several positive clones were readily identified from dot blots of DNA made from individual clones of the size-selected library. One plasmid, designated pFR101, was selected for further study. The insert from pFR101 was about 4.6 kbp and hybridized to the same bands on genomic blots of Cpll and CcI3, as did the insert from pBJ196A (data not shown).

The putative Frankia glnII gene was localized to a 1.6-kbp Sall fragment in the pFR101 insert by hybridization with  $gln II$  from pBJ196A. The SalI fragment and adjacent regions were further subcloned and sequenced by dideoxynucleotide sequencing by using the strategy shown in Fig. 2; the entire gene was sequenced in the sense direction at least twice, and about 60% of the gene was sequenced in the antisense direction.

The Frankia glnII DNA and protein sequences are presented in Fig. 3. The gene is 1,056 bp in length and corresponds to 352 amino acids. Using the sequence of the Bradyrhizobium glnII as a guide, we tentatively identified the start of the coding region of Frankia glnII as corresponding exactly to the start of the region of sequence similarity with Bradyrhizobium glnII. The start codon in this alignment is GTG. The use of this codon for translational initiation is not unusual, since about 18% of characterized streptomycete genes begin with GTG rather than ATG (38). A consensus ribosome-binding sequence (5'-GGAG-3') began 12 bases <sup>5</sup>' to the GTG start codon. Two TGA stop codons separated by a single alanine codon were found in-frame beginning at position 1057 downstream from the start.

GS requires ATP for its activity. The putative ATPbinding site, Lys-Pro-Ile-Pro-Gly-Asp-Trp-Asn-Gly-Ala-Gly-Ala-His- $Thr$  is shown in Fig. 3; it resembles the consensus ATP-binding site, Lys-X-X-X-X-Gly-X-X-Gly-X-Gly-X-Lys-Thr (where X is any amino acid) found for several ATPbinding proteins (50). This region of GSII is highly conserved with similar regions found in virtually all GS proteins analyzed to date (19). Also indicated in Fig. 3 is a possible substrate-binding site, Asp-Arg-Gly-Ala-Ser-Val, that closely resembles a sequence, Asp-Arg-Gly-Ala-Ser-Ile-Val, near the Lys-27 residue in bovine glutamate dehydrogenase that has been implicated in binding  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate (33, 47). Of interest is the presence of two Arg residues that are conserved in other GSs (19) in and near this sequence; ADP-ribosylation of specific Arg residues inactivates eucaryotic GSs (28), so these residues may play a role in the active site of Frankia GSII.

A sequence with similarity to Ntr promoters was identified at position  $-31$  before the start of translation. The putative promoter has the sequence (5'-GTCGCAC...... GTGCA-3'), which is quite similar to the consensus Ntr promoter (5'-

TABLE 2. Summary of codon usage for Frankia sp. strain CpI1 glnII

Codon	Amino acid	Count (%)	Codon	Amino acid	Count (%)
TTT	Phe	0(0.0)	ATT	Ile	0(0.0)
TTC	Phe	10(2.8)	ATC	<b>Ile</b>	18(5.1)
<b>TTA</b>	Leu	0(0.0)	<b>ATA</b>	Ile	0(0.0)
<b>TTG</b>	Leu	2(0.6)	ATG	Met	9(2.5)
<b>TCT</b>	Ser	0(0.0)	ACT	Thr	1(0.3)
<b>TCC</b>	Ser	3(0.8)	<b>ACC</b>	Thr	17 (4.8)
<b>TCA</b>	Ser	1(0.3)	ACA	Thr	0(0.0)
<b>TCG</b>	Ser	7(2.0)	<b>ACG</b>	Thr	7(2.0)
<b>TAT</b>	Tyr	1(0.3)	AAT	Asn	0(0.0)
<b>TAC</b>	Tyr	11(3.1)	AAC	Asn	10(2.8)
<b>TAA</b>	End	0(0.0)	AAA	Lys	0(0.0)
<b>TAG</b>	End	0(0.0)	AAG	Lys	14 (4.0)
<b>TGT</b>	Cys	0(0.0)	<b>AGT</b>	Ser	1(0.3)
<b>TGC</b>	Cys	8(2.3)	AGC	Ser	4(1.1)
<b>TGA</b>	End	1(0.3)	AGA	Arg	0(0.0)
<b>TGG</b>	Trp	12(3.4)	AGG	Arg	0(0.0)
<b>CTT</b>	Leu	0(0.0)	<b>GTT</b>	Val	0(0.0)
<b>CTC</b>	Leu	6(1.7)	<b>GTC</b>	Val	16(4.5)
<b>CTA</b>	Leu	0(0.0)	<b>GTA</b>	Val	0(0.0)
<b>CTG</b>	Leu	11(3.1)	<b>GTG</b>	Val	5(1.4)
<b>CCT</b>	Pro	1(0.3)	GCT	Ala	0(0.0)
CCC	Pro	12(3.4)	GCC	Ala	21 (5.9)
<b>CCA</b>	Pro	1(0.3)	GCA	Ala	1(0.3)
CCG	Pro	14(4.0)	GCG	Ala	11 (3.1)
<b>CAT</b>	<b>His</b>	0(0.0)	GAT	Asp	0(0.0)
CAC	<b>His</b>	6(1.7)	GAC	Asp	20(5.7)
CAA	Gln	0(0.0)	GAA	Glu	0(0.0)
CAG	Gln	12(3.4)	GAG	Glu	25(7.1)
<b>CGT</b>	Arg	4(1.1)	<b>GGT</b>	Gly	5(1.4)
$_{\rm CGC}$	Arg	8(2.3)	$_{\rm GGC}$	Gly	28 (7.9)
<b>CGA</b>	Arg	0(0.0)	<b>GGA</b>	Glv	2(0.6)
CGG	Arg	6(1.7)	GGG	Glv	1(0.3)

CTGGCAC.....TTGCA-3') identified from enteric organisms and Bradyrhizobium spp. (12).

Codon usage. The coding region for the Frankia glnII gene had <sup>a</sup> G+C content of 68.7%, which agrees with an estimated total G+C content of 68.4 to 72.1% for Frankia strains in general (2). The genetic code permits the use of G or C in the third position in codons for all 20 amino acids and in the first position for Arg and Leu; no choice exists in the second position. Forty-one codons were used in the Frankia glnII sequence (Table 2). Of all codons used, 94.8% had either <sup>a</sup> G or C in the third position. All of the Arg codons and <sup>17</sup> of 19 Leu codons began with C. Thus, there is a strong bias toward the use of G and C in the first and third positions, <sup>a</sup> circumstance which is not unusual for organisms with a high G+C content. In the second position, 49.8% of the codons had either an A or T. The absence of extreme bias in the inferred second position provides strong evidence that the reading frame determined by sequence comparison with B. japonicum glnII is correct (7).

Comparison with Bradyrhizobium and P. sativum GSs. Considerable amino acid sequence similarity was noted between Frankia GSII and homologous proteins from B. japonicum and P. sativum (Fig. 4). The matrix patterns reveal that the regions of highest sequence similarity are in analogous positions in both the pea and bradyrhizobial enzymes. The total numbers of identical amino acids found when the CpI1 glnII product was compared with the B. japonicum and pea proteins were 155 of 352 (44%) and 167 of 352 (47.4%), respectively. The pea (357 residues) and Cpll (352 residues) sequences were somewhat longer than the B.



FIG. 4. Protein matix plots showing amino acid similarity between Frankia sp. strain CpI1 GSII (x axis) and GS from P. sativum (A) and GSII from B. japonicum (B). Matrices were plotted by Pustell Matrix Analysis (32) with a pam250 scoring mitrix. Parameters: window size, 8; minimum percent score, 60% similarity.

japonicum sequence (329 residues), so recalculating the percent identity when using conserved regions only gave 155 of 316 (49%) and 167 of 320 (52%) for B. japonicum and pea, respectively. Basing the calculation on the length of the genes from B. japonicum and pea gave 155 of 329 (47.1%) and 167 of 357 (46.8%), respectively. Calculating a percent similarity by categorizing amino acids into functionally similar groups (on the basis of charge and hydropathy) and using only conserved regions gave 188 of 316 (59.5%) and 206 of 320 (64.4%), respectively. Therefore, in any method of calculation the sequences from  $B$ . *japonicum* and pea were about equally similar to those from Frankia CpI1, with a slightly higher value for pea.

**Expression of Frankia glnII.** Plasmid pFR101 failed to complement the E. coli  $\Delta g$ lnA strain YMC11. The glnII genes from B. japonicum and Rhizobium meliloti are similarly not expressed from their own promoters in E. coli (12, 41). When pFR12la and pFR12lb were transformed into E. coli YMC11, pFR12la but not pFR12lb complemented the E. coli  $\Delta g lnA$  mutant when grown on M9 medium, indicating

that glnII expression was being mediated by the lac promoter. The  $\gamma$ -glutamyltransferase assay showed that cells transformed with pFR12la had substantial GS activity (Table 3). Unlike wild-type GS activity from E. coli K-12, the

TABLE 3. Sensitivity of cloned Frankia sp. strain Cpll GSII to heat treatment

<b>Extract source</b>	Heat treatment <sup>a</sup>	Sp act <sup>b</sup>
E. coli YMC11		O
E. coli YMC11(pFR121a)		2.10
		0
$E.$ coli $K-12$		0.243
		0.254

<sup>a</sup> Extracts were heated to 60°C for <sup>5</sup> min, allowed to cool to room temperature, and then placed on ice until assay.

 $\gamma$  Specific activity is given in micromoles of  $\gamma$ -glutamylhydroxamate formed per minute per milligram of protein at 30°C.

activity in YMC11 containing pFR12la was heat labile, thus confirming the presence of GSII. Complementation was strongly enhanced by the addition of isopropyl-B-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) to the medium (data not shown), further indicating that the gene was being transcribed from the *lac* promoter on pUC19.

### DISCUSSION

On the basis of the nucleotide sequence analysis, the complementation of the E. coli  $\Delta g ln A$  strain YMC11, and the characteristics of the enzyme when expressed in E. coli, we conclude that the coding region isolated from the Frankia size-selected library corresponds to the GSII enzyme that was described previously from Frankia strain Cpll (17). The presence of hybridizing bands in two other Frankia strains, one from Alnus incana subsp. rugosa and the other from Casuarina cunninghamiana, strongly implies that GSII is widespread among Frankia strains. We have also found hybridizing bands from the related nonsymbiotic soil actinomycete Geodermatophilus (18; data not shown), and we note that glnII has been cloned and sequenced from at least two Streptomyces species  $(4, 22)$ . The finding of glnII sequences in several actinomycetes suggests that GSII is generally widespread among this group of organisms.

The presence of GSII genes in actinomycetes and in members of the *Rhizobiaceae* raises several important questions. The first question concerns the role of GSITs in general metabolism. Their primary role seems to be that of ammonia assimilation during nitrogen limitation (48). This general role is suggested by in-depth studies on  $gInII$  expression in  $B$ . japonicum, R. meliloti, and Agrobacterium tumefaciens, in which transcriptional control is exerted by the  $ntrC$  (NR1) gene product of the Ntr system (15, 26, 35); the Ntr system itself is involved in global responses to nitrogen starvation (34). The physiological behavior of GSII in Frankia sp. strain Cpll resembles that of an Ntr-controlled enzyme (48), and the identification of a putative Ntr-like promoter in the Frankia glnII gene described above supports the proposal that Frankia spp. possess the essentials of an Ntr system. Further characterization of the transcriptional regulation of  $gln II$  in Frankia sp. strain CpI1 is necessary before the extent to which comparisons can be made with the Ntr system in gram-negative organisms becomes clear.

Another question concerns the role of GSII in plant symbioses. The discovery of GSII first in members of the Rhizobiaceae and then in Frankia spp., which are also plant root nodule symbionts, implied a role in symbiotic function (14, 17). In light of present knowledge, however, the limitation of GSII to plant symbionts seems more apparent than real, perhaps because relatively few 'studies have been published on the nitrogen metabolism of actinomycetes and related organisms; those that have been published have not indicated the presence of a second 'glutamine synthetase (39). Therefore, GSII may have no special function in symbiotic organisms aside from assimilating ammonia under nitrogen-poor conditions. Evidence for this view comes from studies with rhizobial and bradyrhizobial mutants defective in GSI and/or GSII synthesis. Different Nod phenotypes have been observed depending on the organism. Mutants of R. meliloti 104A14 or R. meliloti 1021 with mutations in glnA or glnII, or double mutants lacking both GSs, are fully functional in symbiosis  $(15, 41)$ , as are mutants of R. meliloti 1021 lacking a third GS encoded by the  $glnT$  locus (15). A. tumefaciens mutants with mutations in either glnII or glnA are similarly unaffected in their virulence (35).

Double mutants (ginA, ginII) of B. japonicum that are  $G\ln^-$  are also Nod<sup>-</sup> (12), suggesting that *Bradyrhizobium*  $G\ln$ <sup>-</sup> strains may be unable to obtain glutamine from the host, in contrast to glnA glnII double mutants of *. meliloti* 1021, which are  $GIn^-$  Fix<sup>+</sup>. The latter observation may indicate either that the  $g/nT$  locus is involved in synthesizing glutamine in symbiosis or that  $R$ . *meliloti* is able to obtain glutamine from the host plant (15). In any case, GSII in these organisms seems not to be specific for the symbiotic state, but rather to be involved during growth on poor nitrogen sources (12). The enzyme may yet have some less specific role in symbiosis; GSII may reflect a type of nitrogen metabolism that predisposed certain bacteria to form plant symbioses.

Another question that arises concerns the origin of GSII. A proposal suggesting that *glnII*, the gene encoding GSII (10), was transferred to procaryotes from plants has been recently questioned on the basis that the protein sequence similarities between GSII from bacteria and the GSs from plants and from mammals are proportional to the phylogenetic divergence of these major groups (40). The observation that the Frankia GSII protein sequence has about as much similarity with the pea GS as with the bradyrhizobial GSII argues that the enzyme is highly conserved among procaryotes and eucaryotes and that a recent gene transfer between bradyrhizobia and frankiae is unlikely. A comparison of the Frankia and Streptomyces sequences may shed additional light on the relationships between GSII-like proteins.

It may be argued that GSII was a normal part of the ancestral procaryotic ammonia-assimilating enzyme complement and that members of the Rhizobiaceae and actinomycetes are among the few bacterial groups to maintain both enzymes. Support for this view is provided by a preliminary finding that  $glnA$  and  $glnH$  are separated by about 500 bp in Frankia sp. strain CpIl (D. A. Rochefort, T. J. Hosted, and D. R. Benson, unpublished data). It is unlikely that  $glnA$  and  $gInII$  could have come together during the course of evolution. No such linkage has been found in  $B$ . *japonicum* (11), R. meliloti (15), or A. tumefaciens (35, 36).

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