

Genetic Regulation of Nitrogen Fixation in Rhizobia

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INTRODUCTION

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The ability to convert atmospheric dinitrogen ammonia is strictly limited to prokaryotes. However, within this group of organisms, nitrogen fixation is observed in a large number of species belonging to both prokaryotic kingdoms, *Archaeobacte-*

ria and *Eubacteria* (418). As well as free-living diazotrophs (e.g., *Klebsiella*, *Azotobacter*, and *Rhodobacter* spp.), many bacteria living in close association (e.g., *Azospirillum* spp. [120]) or in an intimate intracellular symbiosis with their host plant(s) can fix dinitrogen. The latter group of symbiotic diazotrophs includes species of the three rhizobial genera *Rhizobium*, *Bradyrhizobium*, and *Azorhizobium* (hereafter collectively referred to as the rhizobia). Together with two additional genera, *Agrobacterium* and *Phyllobacterium*, they constitute the family *Rhizobiaceae* of the α subdivision of the proteobacteria, (119, 418).

The free-living diazotroph *Klebsiella pneumoniae* has been regarded as a paradigm for the analysis of biological nitrogen fixation. Genetic, biochemical, and physiological studies done on the *K. pneumoniae* nitrogen fixation system have revealed a number of basic concepts that are common to many diazotrophs (for reviews, see references 60, 85, 126, 169, and 257). Moreover, these studies also contributed significantly to a better understanding of bacterial gene expression in general. Nitrogen fixation has also been studied extensively in various other diazotrophs such as *Azotobacter* spp. (40, 201), photosynthetic bacteria (213, 314), cyanobacteria (56, 157, 158), *Azospirillum* spp. (120), rhizobia (27, 87, 96, 102, 163), and methanogenic bacteria (235).

The interaction between the two partners performing symbiotic nitrogen fixation is initiated by a molecular dialog which has been studied extensively over the last years (for reviews, see references 99, 133, 142, 212, and 340). Flavonoids or isoflavonoids secreted by the host plants induce the expression of a number of nodulation (*nod*) genes in the cognate rhizobial bacteria. The products of *nod* genes are enzymes involved in the biosynthesis of species-specific, substituted lipooligosaccharides, called Nod factors (98, 315). These signal compounds, which are released by induced rhizobial cells, elicit the curling of plant root hairs and division of meristematic cells, eventually leading to the formation of root nodules. Rhizobial cells, which are attracted to host plants by chemotaxis, attach to root hairs and start to infect plant tissue inside a host-derived infection thread that progressively penetrates into the root cortex (46, 170, 202, 351). Subsequently, the bacterial cells are released into plant cells, where they further divide and differentiate physiologically and sometimes also morphologically into so-called bacteroids that will eventually reduce atmospheric nitrogen to ammonia. The fixed nitrogen is used by the plant as the nitrogen source, and in turn, photosynthates and amino acids are provided to the bacteroids as carbon, energy, and nitrogen sources (413).

Rhizobial genes required for symbiotic nitrogen fixation include those involved in Nod factor synthesis, nodule development, synthesis of the nitrogen-fixing apparatus, and bacteroid metabolism. On the other hand, a number of plant genes (nodulin genes) whose expression is specifically induced in root tissue as a consequence of the interaction with rhizobia are also known (for reviews, see references 329 and 395). Hence, the formation of effective (i.e., nitrogen-fixing) root nodules requires a coordinated temporal and spatial expression of both plant and bacterial genes (96, 135, 170). During the early stages of symbiosis, this is brought about by the exchange of highly specific chemical signals as described above. At a later stage, expression of certain bacterial genes is coordinated, together with nodule morphogenesis, via the decreasing oxygen concentrations to which infecting bacteria are exposed (393, 417). The combined effects of specialized plant cells acting as an oxygen diffusion barrier and an abundant nodulin, leghemoglobin, which reversibly binds oxygen, result in a very low concentration of free oxygen (3 to 30 nM) within infected nodule tissue

(see references 86, 165, and 179 and references therein). This is a factor of about 10^4 to 10^5 times lower than the $\sim 250 \mu\text{M}$ dissolved-oxygen concentration present in standard aerobic cultures. In response to this dramatic physiological switch, rhizobia initiate the expression of both nitrogen fixation genes and genes whose products relate to the altered environmental conditions, e.g., genes encoding a high-affinity terminal oxidase (165).

This review is focused on the genetics and functions of regulatory elements involved in the control of nitrogen fixation in three representative rhizobial species, *Rhizobium meliloti*, *Bradyrhizobium japonicum*, and *Azorhizobium caulinodans*. They were chosen for this comparison because they possess distinct regulatory circuitries and because comparable data are available. Relevant information on other rhizobial species (e.g., *Rhizobium leguminosarum* bv. *viciae*, *R. leguminosarum* bv. *trifolii*, and *R. leguminosarum* bv. *phaseoli*) will also be mentioned where appropriate. Typical host plants for *R. meliloti* and *B. japonicum* are the agronomically important plants alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*) and soybean (*Glycine max*), respectively. The symbiosis between *A. caulinodans* and its typical host, the tropical legume *Sesbania rostrata*, is unique in the sense that nodules are elicited not only on the roots but also on stems (for a review, see reference 87). Furthermore, *A. caulinodans*, unlike *R. meliloti* and *B. japonicum*, is able to grow in pure culture with molecular dinitrogen as the sole nitrogen source (109). Thus, *A. caulinodans* shares features of both free-living and symbiotic diazotrophs.

The first part of this review will present an overview on the organization of nitrogen fixation genes in *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans*. In the second part the regulatory genes and their products, functions, and interactions in species-specific regulatory networks will be described. Finally, the third section will briefly review cumulative evidence indicating that the regulatory function of these networks extends beyond nitrogen fixation genes.

ORGANIZATION AND FUNCTION OF NITROGEN FIXATION GENES IN *R. MELILOTI*, *B. JAPONICUM*, AND *A. CAULINODANS*

Genomic Organization of *nif* and *fix* Gene Clusters

Symbiotic nitrogen fixation genes in the broadest sense can be divided into *nod*, *nif*, and *fix* genes. The *nod* gene products are required for the early steps in nodule formation and will not be considered here (for reviews, see references 142 and 212). Rhizobial *nif* genes are structurally homologous to the 20 *K. pneumoniae* *nif* genes (19), and it is inferred that a conserved *nif* gene plays a similar role in rhizobia as in *K. pneumoniae*. At least nine different rhizobial *nif* genes have been identified so far in *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* (Table 1). The term "*fix* gene" is used for genes that are essential for nitrogen fixation but do not have a homologous counterpart in *K. pneumoniae*. This general definition has three consequences. First, *fix* genes represent a very heterogeneous class including, e.g., genes involved in development and metabolism of bacteroids. Second, genes originally termed *fix* genes may have to be renamed later when the functions of the corresponding gene products have become known. Third, genes that were identified originally in the context of symbiotic nitrogen fixation may also play a role in other processes not related to nitrogen fixation or may even be present in nondiazotrophs, making the term "*fix* gene" rather inappropriate. Conversely, it is evident that gene products involved in central cellular functions may at the same time play an essential role in

TABLE 1. *nif* and *fix* genes identified in *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, or *A. caulinodans* and their known or proposed functions^a

Gene	Product and/or (proposed) function	Reference(s) ^b		
		Rm	Bj	Ac
<i>nif</i> genes ^c				
<i>nifH</i>	Fe protein of nitrogenase	381	137	285
<i>nifD</i>	α subunit of MoFe protein of nitrogenase	75, 326	196	94, 108, 284
<i>nifK</i>	β subunit of MoFe protein of nitrogenase	75, 326	379	94, 108, 284
<i>nifE</i>	Involved in FeMo cofactor biosynthesis	249	6	285
<i>nifN</i>	Involved in FeMo cofactor biosynthesis	4, 5	6	
<i>nifB</i>	Involved in FeMo cofactor biosynthesis	57	136, 287	108
<i>nifS</i>	Cysteine desulfurase (421); activation of sulfur for metallocluster synthesis?		116	
<i>nifW</i>	Unknown function; required for full activity of FeMo protein			18, 200
<i>nifX</i>	Unknown function		163	
<i>nifA</i>	Positive regulator of <i>nif</i> , <i>fix</i> , and additional genes	58, 403	377	278, 304
<i>fix</i> genes				
<i>fixABCX</i>	Unknown function; required for nitrogenase activity; FixX shows similarity to ferredoxins	115	153, 154	18
<i>fixNOQP</i>	Microaerobically induced, membrane-bound cytochrome oxidase	42	299	242
<i>fixGHIS</i>	Redox process-coupled cation pump?	194	299	244
<i>fixLJ</i>	Oxygen-responsive two-component regulatory system involved in positive control of <i>fixK</i> (Rm, Bj, Ac) and <i>nifA</i> (Rm)	82	13	198
<i>fixK/fixK₂</i>	Positive regulator of <i>fixNOQP</i> (Rm, Bj, Ac), <i>nifA</i> (Ac), <i>rpoN₁</i> , and "nitrate respiration" (Bj); negative regulator of <i>nifA</i> and <i>fixK</i> (Rm)	28	14	199
Rm <i>fixK'</i>	Reiterated, functional copy of <i>fixK</i>	28		
Bj <i>fixK₁</i>	<i>fixK</i> homolog of unknown function; not essential for nitrogen fixation		15	
<i>fixR</i>	Unknown function; not essential for nitrogen fixation		377	
<i>nfrA</i>	Regulation of <i>nifA</i>			197

^a Abbreviations: Rm, *R. meliloti*; Bj, *B. japonicum*; Ac, *A. caulinodans*.

^b Wherever possible, citations refer to publications that include sequence data of the relevant rhizobial gene; see the text for additional references.

^c See reference 85 for a detailed list of all 20 *K. pneumoniae nif* genes.

symbiosis, although the corresponding genes have not been named *fix* genes. Examples of such genes which are not further discussed in this article include the *dct* genes involved in dicarboxylic acid transport (96) or the glycine-biosynthetic gene *glyA* of *B. japonicum* (322).

The *nif* and *fix* genes of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* are organized in distinct clusters whose structure and genomic location are species specific (Fig. 1). Generally, linkage between nitrogen fixation genes in rhizobia is not as tight as in *K. pneumoniae*, in which 20 adjacent *nif* genes are organized in eight operons within ca. 24 kb of DNA (19).

R. meliloti carries two extremely large plasmids (megaplas-mids) of about 1,400 kb (pSym-a or megaplasmid 1) and 1,700 kb (pSym-b or megaplasmid 2) (25, 59, 173, 181, 321, 352). Both cluster I (*nifHDKE*, *nifN*, *fixABCX* *nifA* *nifB* *frdX*) and cluster II (*fixLJ*, *fixK*, *fixNOQP*, *fixGHIS*) (Fig. 1A) are located on megaplasmid 1 (31, 83). The cluster II genes map at about 220 kb downstream of the *nifHDKE* operon and are transcribed in opposite orientation to it. Interestingly, a functional duplication of the region spanning *fixK* and *fixNOQP* is present at ca. 40 kb upstream of *nifHDKE* (308). A cluster of *nod* genes including the common *nod* genes (*nodABC*) is located in the 30-kb region between *nifE* and *nifN* (238). Additional genes required for an effective symbiosis are located on megaplasmid 2 (see references 173, 181, 230, 309, 310, and 402 and references therein) and on the chromosome (114, 173).

B. japonicum and apparently also *A. caulinodans* do not have plasmids. Hence, the *nif* and *fix* (and *nod*) genes are located on the chromosome in these organisms, and they are organized as depicted in Fig. 1B and C. In *B. japonicum* three clusters of *nif* and *fix* genes have been characterized by now and, in addition, a *fixK*-like gene (*fixK₁*) was identified at a fourth locus. Recently, a correlated physical and genetic map of the circular *B. japonicum* chromosome was established and its size was

estimated to be ca. 8,700 kb (219). Cluster II of *B. japonicum*, which includes the *fixRnifA* operon, *fixA*, and at least 11 *nod* genes (not shown in Fig. 1B), is located at a distance of ca. 240 kb away from cluster I, which contains the nitrogenase structural genes. Cluster III, harboring *fixLJ*, *fixK₂*, and the *fixNOQP* operon, maps at ca. 770 kb away from cluster II. Hence, in *B. japonicum* all known *nif* and *fix* genes required for symbiotic nitrogen fixation and the common *nod* genes are located within about 1,000 kb on the chromosome. Moreover, additional gene regions that are involved in nodulation (*nodVW* [143]) or whose expression is induced under symbiotic conditions (*rpoN₁* [217], *groESL₃* [128], and *ndp* [406]) are present close to or within this segment of the *B. japonicum* chromosome (219). One might speculate that the symbiotic region of *B. japonicum* was located originally on a plasmid similar to the Sym plasmids of *R. meliloti* and became then part of the chromosome by integration at one stage during evolution. Alternatively, the symbiotic plasmids of *R. meliloti* (and other rhizobia) may have evolved by excision of a chromosomal region. In *A. caulinodans* four clusters of *nif* or *fix* genes and two additional loci carrying single nitrogen fixation genes (*nifB*, *nfrA*) have been characterized; however, their relative positions on the chromosome are not known (Fig. 1C) (94, 108, 198–200, 296).

The structural *nif* and *fix* genes known to date in *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* and their known or proposed functions will be briefly described next, whereas the regulatory *nif* and *fix* genes will be discussed in greater detail further below.

nif Genes

The *nifD* and *nifK* genes specify the α and β subunits, respectively, of the $\alpha_2\beta_2$ FeMo protein (component I or

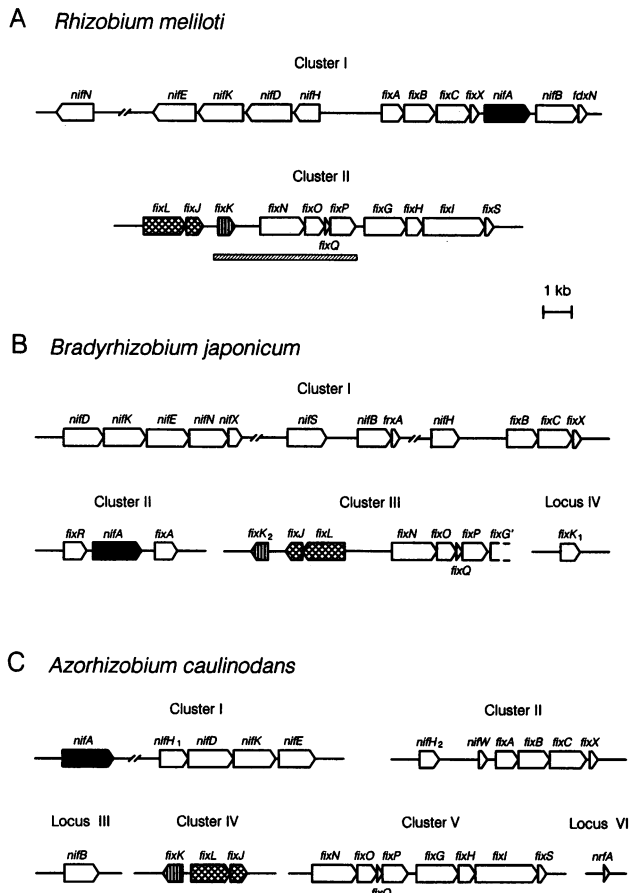


FIG. 1. Organization of *nif* and *fix* gene clusters in *R. meliloti* (A), *B. japonicum* (B), and *A. caulinodans* (C). Several known ORFs associated with some of the *nif* or *fix* genes are not shown here. In *R. meliloti* both clusters of *nif* and *fix* genes are located on the megaplasmid pSym-a, whereas in *B. japonicum* and *A. caulinodans* all of the depicted genes are present on the chromosome. Homologous regulatory genes are marked by identical patterns. The hatched bar below cluster II of *R. meliloti* refers to a region which is duplicated on the megaplasmid. For details and references, see the text and Table 1.

dinitrogenase; $M_r \approx 220,000$). The homodimeric Fe protein (component II or dinitrogenase reductase; $M_r \approx 60,000$) is encoded by *nifH*. In *R. meliloti* the *nifHDK* genes are organized in an operon along with *nifE*, whereas *nifHDK* and *nifE* in *A. caulinodans* form two separate transcriptional units (94, 249). In *B. japonicum* the *nifH* gene is located 17 kb downstream of the *nifDKENX* operon (6, 131, 163). In *A. caulinodans* a second *nifH* gene (*nifH*₂) that differs in only six nucleotides from *nifH*₁ was found in cluster II upstream of the *fixABCX* genes (285). This is reminiscent of *R. leguminosarum* bv. phaseoli, which possesses three identical, functional copies of *nifH* (303). No *nifN*-like gene has been described in *A. caulinodans* so far. On the basis of complementation data, the *nifB* gene of *R. meliloti* was suggested to form part of a *nifA-nifB-fdxN* transcriptional unit. However, no relevant transcript data are available, and DNA sequence data imply that the *nifB* gene is transcribed at least partly from its own -24/-12 promoter (57, 209). The same promoter type was also found upstream of the *B. japonicum* *nifB* gene, which is cotranscribed with the *fixA* gene (117, 287). The transcriptional organization of the *A. caulinodans* *nifB* gene is not known.

Synthesis of the FeMo cofactor of component I requires the products of the *nifE*, *nifN*, and *nifB* genes; however, the exact biochemical functions of the respective proteins are not known (see reference 84 and references therein). Interestingly, the amino acid sequences of the NifE and NifN proteins show a significant similarity to those of NifD and NifK, respectively. It was suggested that the *nifEN* genes originated from duplication of the *nifDK* genes and that the NifEN complex may provide a scaffold for FeMo cofactor biosynthesis (47).

Recently, NifS of *Azotobacter vinelandii* was purified and shown to be a pyridoxal phosphate-containing dimeric desulfurase ($M_r \approx 87,500$) that catalyzes the formation of L-alanine and elemental sulfur by using L-cysteine as a substrate (421). This finding and the fact that NifS is required for full activity of both components of nitrogenase suggested that the released sulfur is used for the synthesis of nitrogenase metalloclusters.

The function of the *nifW* gene (originally termed *nifO* [200]) located upstream of the *fixA* gene in *A. caulinodans* is not clear. Mutations in the homologous genes of *K. pneumoniae* (19, 37, 294) and *Azotobacter vinelandii* (186, 187) lead to a reduced activity of the FeMo protein, whereas *A. caulinodans* *nifW* mutants show a complete lack of nitrogenase activity (18, 200).

Downstream of the *nifB* genes of both *R. meliloti* and *B. japonicum* are the genes *fdxN* and *fixA*, respectively, encoding ferredoxin-like electron transfer proteins. In contrast to *fixA* of *B. japonicum*, the *R. meliloti* *fdxN* gene is absolutely essential for nitrogen fixation (117, 209, 250). Another ferredoxin-like protein is encoded by *fixX*; this gene is located downstream of *fixC* in all three rhizobial species discussed here.

fix Genes

fixABCX. The *fixABCX* genes were originally identified in *R. meliloti* (75, 115, 301, 326) and later also in *B. japonicum* (136, 153), *A. caulinodans* (18, 200), *R. leguminosarum* bv. viciae (149), *R. leguminosarum* bv. trifolii (182), and *R. leguminosarum* bv. phaseoli (264). They are organized in a single operon in all species except *B. japonicum*, in which *fixA* and *fixBCX* form distinct transcriptional units present in clusters II and I, respectively. The *B. japonicum* *fixBCX* operon includes a proximal open reading frame (ORF35), which is not essential for nitrogen fixation activity but whose translation significantly stabilizes *fixBCX* mRNA (154).

Mutations in any one of the *fixABCX* genes of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* completely abolish nitrogen fixation. It has been proposed that the *fixABCX* gene products might be involved in electron transport to nitrogenase (115, 153). Support for this hypothesis came from the finding that FixX contains five conserved cysteines of which three are arranged in a Cys-X-X-Cys-X-X-Cys cluster typical of ferredoxins (49). However, results from in vitro nitrogenase assays with crude extracts prepared from wild-type, *fixC*, and *fixB* *A. caulinodans* cells indicate that at least the FixB and FixC proteins are probably not involved in the direct electron transfer to nitrogenase (200). The FixB proteins of *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans* show significant similarity to the α subunits of rat and human electron transfer flavoproteins (18), and FixC of *A. caulinodans* displays some local similarity to human electron transfer flavoprotein-ubiquinone oxidoreductase (141). Thus, it remains to be resolved whether the *fixABCX* genes in rhizobia are involved in a redox process that is indirectly related to nitrogen fixation. Interestingly, a cluster of four ORFs homologous to the *fixABCX* genes has been identified recently in *Escherichia coli* by systematic sequencing. However, no functional data on these putative genes are available yet (419).

fixNOQP. The *fixNOQP* genes were first described in *R. meliloti* as a duplicated *fix* region that is linked to the regulatory genes *fixLJ* and *fixK* and whose expression is induced under symbiotic conditions (31, 83, 308). Homologous genes were then identified in *B. japonicum* (299), *A. caulinodans* (242, 243), and *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* (180a). They are probably organized in an operon in all three species. *R. meliloti* mutant strains deleted for both *fixNOQP* regions and *B. japonicum fixNOQP* mutants are defective in symbiotic nitrogen fixation, whereas a corresponding mutant of *A. caulinodans* retained 50% of wild-type nitrogenase activity under both symbiotic and free-living conditions (242, 243, 299, 308). In addition, *B. japonicum* mutants are affected in bacteroid development and exhibit a decreased whole-cell oxidase activity when grown microaerobically or anaerobically. The predicted amino acid sequences of the FixNOQP proteins imply that they constitute a membrane-bound, cytochrome *c*-containing heme/copper cytochrome oxidase (193, 243, 299). It is postulated that this oxidase complex is required to support bacteroid respiration under conditions of low oxygen present in root nodules (165, 299).

fixGHIS. Four tightly linked genes, named *fixGHIS*, have been identified by mutational analysis and subsequent DNA sequence determination downstream of the *fixNOQP* operon in cluster II of *R. meliloti* (194). On the basis of hybridization experiments, homologous genes seem to exist in various members of the genus *Bradyrhizobium*, in *A. caulinodans*, and in *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* and bv. *phaseoli*. In fact, partial DNA sequence analysis confirmed the presence of *fixG*, *fixI*, and probably *fixH* downstream of *fixP* in *A. caulinodans*, and there is at least a *fixG*-like gene present at an analogous position in *B. japonicum* (244, 299). *R. meliloti* mutant strains carrying transposon insertions in *fixG*, *fixH*, or *fixI* are unable to fix nitrogen. On the other hand, Tn5 insertions in *fixG* or *fixI* of *A. caulinodans* result in only a reduced symbiotic nitrogen fixation activity and affect nitrogenase activity only marginally under free-living conditions. On the basis of the deduced amino acid sequences, all four *fixGHIS* gene products are predicted to be transmembrane proteins. FixG is likely to be involved in a redox process, because it contains two cysteine clusters typical of iron-sulfur centers present in bacterial ferredoxins. FixI is homologous to the catalytic subunit of bacterial and eukaryotic ATPases involved in cation pumping. It is speculated that FixI is a symbiosis-specific cation pump whose function is coupled to a redox reaction catalyzed by the FixG subunit (194). Clearly, further biochemical analysis is required to define the function of the *fixGHIS* gene products in rhizobial nitrogen fixation.

fixR. In *B. japonicum* a gene termed *fixR* is located upstream of the regulatory *nifA* gene, and the two genes form an operon (377). No *fixR*-like gene has been described so far in other rhizobia, but interspecies hybridization experiments indicate the existence of homologous DNA regions in other slow-growing rhizobia and in the nonsymbiotic bacterium *Rhodopseudomonas palustris* (375). The predicted FixR gene product of ca. 30 kDa in molecular mass is not essential for nitrogen fixation by *B. japonicum*, as shown by nonpolar mutations in *fixR* (377). It shows significant similarity to the NodG protein of *R. meliloti* and also to human and rat steroid dehydrogenases (24), which implies that FixR is involved in an oxidation-reduction process. The fact that FixR is encoded in an operon along with *nifA* raises the possibility that FixR is involved in the redox-dependent activation and inactivation of the NifA protein. However, no experimental data are available yet to support this hypothesis.

REGULATION OF *nif* AND *fix* GENE EXPRESSION

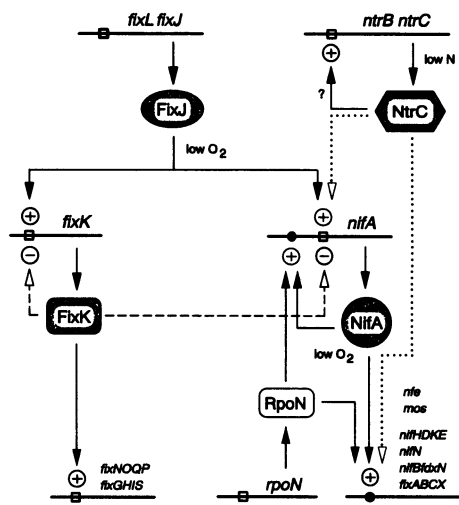
Regulatory Cascades in *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans*

In view of the high energy demands of nitrogen fixation (up to 40 mol of ATP may be required in vivo for the reduction of 1 mol of dinitrogen to ammonia [169]) and the marked oxygen sensitivity of nitrogenase, it makes perfect sense that all diazotrophs studied so far have evolved sophisticated regulatory mechanisms that guarantee a tight control of nitrogenase synthesis. The expression of nitrogen fixation genes is controlled by cascades of hierarchically organized regulatory genes. Their concerted action enables the bacteria to sense optimal environmental conditions required for nitrogen fixation and to transmit this information to the level of gene expression. Similar principles are known from the regulation of bacterial developmental processes such as sporulation in *Bacillus subtilis* (122) or cell type differentiation in *Caulobacter crescentus* (279). Some free-living diazotrophs such as *Rhodobacter capsulatus*, *Rhodospirillum rubrum*, *Azospirillum lipoferum*, or *Azospirillum brasilense* are able to down-regulate the activity of nitrogenase at the posttranslational level in response to the presence of combined nitrogen (for a review, see reference 239). This control is based on the reversible ADP-ribosylation of nitrogenase reductase. A similar "switch off-on" mechanism also operates in *A. caulinodans* (221) but is not further discussed here.

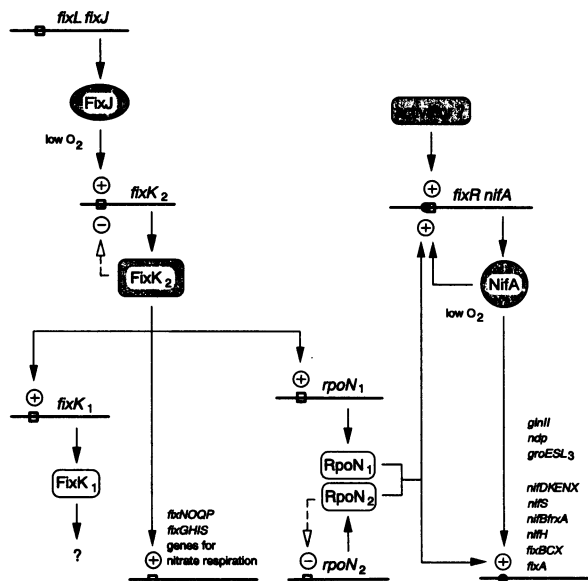
Environmental nitrogen and oxygen conditions are critical signals for the regulation of *nif* gene expression in *K. pneumoniae*. This dual physiological control is mediated via the general nitrogen regulatory system (*ntr*) and the *nif*-specific regulatory genes, *nifLA* (257). By contrast, expression of nitrogen fixation genes in symbiotic diazotrophs is regulated predominantly in response to the cellular oxygen conditions. The lack of a strict nitrogen control mechanism probably relates to the physiological conditions under which symbiotic nitrogen fixation takes place. Bacteroids are already provided with combined nitrogen by their host plant while fixing nitrogen. Thus, it seems reasonable to uncouple symbiotic nitrogen fixation from nitrogen control. Nevertheless, elements of an *ntr*-like system are also found in rhizobia; however, their regulatory role in nitrogen fixation is different from that in *K. pneumoniae*. *A. caulinodans* is exceptional among rhizobia in being able to fix nitrogen both symbiotically and in pure culture. Accordingly, nitrogen control does play an important role for free-living nitrogen fixation specifically in this bacterium, and components of the *ntr* system are also partly relevant for symbiosis.

Figures 2A to C depict current models of regulatory circuitries involved in the regulation of nitrogen fixation of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans*, respectively. The individual components will be discussed in detail in the following sections. It is obvious that all three organisms use largely identical regulatory elements (FixL, FixJ, FixK, NifA, RpoN); however, these are integrated into different, species-specific networks. Two regulatory cascades which are present in all three species control different groups of target genes. The cascade including NifA controls expression of the nitrogenase structural genes and genes encoding accessory functions by means of their RpoN-dependent $-24/-12$ promoters. Thus, this type of regulation is analogous to the situation in *K. pneumoniae*. On the other hand, the FixLJ and FixK proteins of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* constitute a distinct regulatory cascade which may be specific for symbiotic diazotrophs since no functionally homologous proteins have been found in free-living diazotrophs. A common function of this cascade

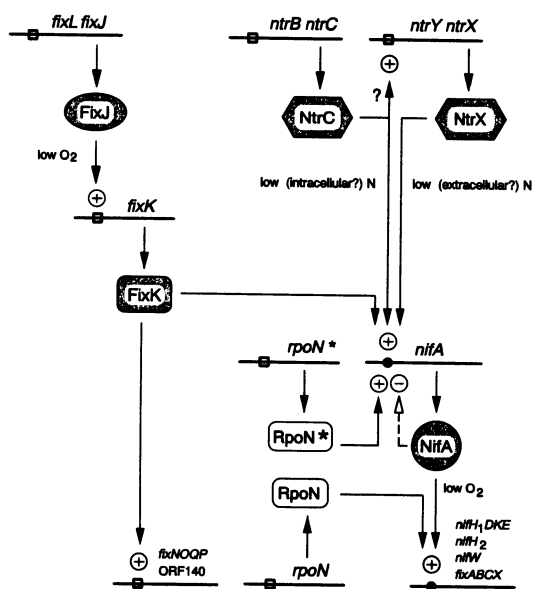
A *Rhizobium meliloti*



B *Bradyrhizobium japonicum*



C *Azorhizobium caulinodans*



concerns the regulation of the *fixNOQP* genes, whereas it differs substantially with respect to its involvement in *nifA* regulation. In *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans*, FixJ and FixK, respectively, act as direct positive regulators of *nifA*. By contrast, *nifA* expression in *B. japonicum* is largely independent of the FixLJ-FixK cascade and there exists only a loose linkage between the two mentioned cascades via the FixLJ-FixK₂-dependent regulation of one of two *rpoN* genes. Similarly, the significance of the nitrogen response regulator NtrC with regard to the regulation of nitrogen fixation varies among *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans*. No such role has been attributed to NtrC of *B. japonicum*, whereas NtrC of *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans* contributes to the regulation of *nifA*, albeit at different levels of biological significance.

FIG. 2. Comparative models of *nif* and *fix* gene regulation in *R. meliloti* (A), *B. japonicum* (B), and *A. caulinodans* (C). Homologous regulatory proteins are symbolized identically in panels A, B, and C. Solid arrows and open arrowheads with dashed lines indicate positive and negative regulation, respectively. Dotted lines with open arrowheads denote NtrC-mediated activation of the *R. meliloti* *nifHDKEN*, *nifBfixdN*, and *fixABCX* promoters which is observed in free-living, aerobically growing cells under nitrogen-limiting conditions but which is of no relevance for symbiotic nitrogen fixation. Solid circles indicate σ^{54} -dependent -24/-12-type promoters, whereas open boxes indicate other promoters. Key references describing substantial components of the models presented include 28, 39, 82, 103, 319, 373, 396, and 403 for *R. meliloti*; 13-15, 127, 217, 376, and 377 for *B. japonicum*; and 198, 199, 278, 295, 296, 304, and 362 for *A. caulinodans*. For additional references and further details, see the text.

FixLJ

Identification of *fixLJ* genes. The *fixLJ* genes of *R. meliloti* were originally identified genetically by their requirement for the transcriptional activation of the *fixNOQP* and *fixGHIS* operons as well as for the *nifA* gene under low-oxygen conditions (82, 83, 308). Subsequently, homologous genes were cloned from *B. japonicum* (13) and *A. caulinodans* (198), and recent reports indicate that similar genes are also present in *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* (180a) and in the genus *Frankia*, the nitrogen-fixing symbiont of actinorhizal plants (277). Recently, a two-component regulatory pair, RegBA, and an activator protein, PrrA, have been shown to be involved in oxygen regulation of photosynthesis genes of *Rhodobacter capsulatus* and *Rhodobacter sphaeroides*, respectively (32, 121, 297, 346). However, neither RegA nor PrrA belongs to the FixJ subclass of regulators (see below), and RegA is not involved in oxygen regulation of the *Rhodobacter capsulatus* *nifHDK* operon.

The rhizobial *fixLJ* genes encode proteins of ca. 55 kDa (FixL) and 22 kDa (FixJ), and corresponding proteins of the three rhizobial species are about 50% identical. DNA sequence analysis of the *fixLJ* genes of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* strongly implies that these genes are organized in an operon in all three species; however, no

transcript-mapping data are available. Similarly, only limited information is available on a possible regulation of the *fixLJ* genes. The *fixLJ* operon in *B. japonicum* was found to be expressed both under aerobic and anaerobic conditions, albeit at slightly different levels (13). Null mutations in *fixL* or *fixJ* of *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans* result in the formation of symbiotically inefficient (Fix^-) nodules, and nitrogenase activity in free-living *A. caulinodans* mutant cells is drastically diminished (31, 82, 198, 396). Similarly, *fixLJ* mutants of *B. japonicum* show a loss of about 90% wild-type symbiotic nitrogen fixation activity and are unable to grow anaerobically with nitrate as the terminal electron acceptor, suggesting a regulatory role of FixLJ also in nitrate respiration (13).

Structure and function of FixL and FixJ. The FixL and FixJ proteins are members of the ubiquitous two-component regulatory systems that enable bacteria to respond to environmental or cytoplasmic signals with specific cellular activities (8, 82, 320). Typically, signal sensing and transduction include autophosphorylation at a conserved histidine residue in the C-terminal domain of the sensor protein and transfer of the phosphate to an aspartate residue in the N-terminal region of the cognate response regulator protein (for reviews, see references 45, 289, 290, 363, and 364). On the basis of sequence similarities, many of the response regulators and cognate sensors can be classified into either the NtrC-, OmpR- or FixJ-type subfamily (8, 364). Other members of the FixJ subfamily include the NodV-NodW (143), NarX-NarL (361), UhpB-UhpA (414), RcsC-RcsB (368), DegS-DegU (166, 220), ComP-ComA (407, 408), and BvgS-BvgA (17) regulatory pairs.

The FixL and FixJ proteins of *R. meliloti* have both been purified after overproduction in *E. coli* (139). Purification and subsequent characterization of FixL were facilitated by the use of a truncated, soluble form of FixL (FixL*) lacking 126 N-terminal amino acids. The apparent molecular masses of the native FixL* and FixJ proteins are 93 and 50 kDa, respectively, which is in good agreement with the predicted values for dimeric forms of FixL* (86 kDa) and FixJ (46 kDa) (139).

(i) **FixL.** The FixL protein of *R. meliloti* (505 amino acids) is a membrane-bound, oxygen-regulated hemoprotein kinase/phosphatase which can be dissected into three functional domains (97, 139, 140, 140a, 236, 266). The N-terminal domain, of ca. 120 amino acids, contains four membrane-spanning segments as suggested by hydrophathy analysis and the use of *fixL-phoA* fusions (236). This portion of the protein is dispensable for both in vivo and in vitro FixL activity (97, 236). The FixL protein of *A. caulinodans* also shows a hydrophobic N terminus, but no hydrophobic segments are present in the corresponding region of *B. japonicum* FixL (13, 198).

The central domain of *R. meliloti* FixL, from amino acids 127 to 260, contains one heme moiety per monomer and binds oxygen (140a, 266). Two of three histidine residues present in this domain (His-138 and His-194) are conserved in FixL of *B. japonicum* and *A. caulinodans*, suggesting a possible role in heme binding. However, replacement of His-138 by glutamine did not alter the spectral properties of FixL*, which makes it unlikely that His-138 is directly involved in heme ligation (265). Interestingly, a region exhibiting homology to the central domain of FixL was recently identified in the N terminus of the *Azotobacter vinelandii* NifL protein which is involved in oxygen regulation of *nif* gene expression (41). However, no evidence is available that NifL is a hemoprotein, too.

The C-terminal domain of the FixL proteins (amino acids 260 to 505 in *R. meliloti* FixL) corresponds to the most highly conserved domain of the sensor proteins of two-component systems. A truncated derivative of the *R. meliloti* FixL protein

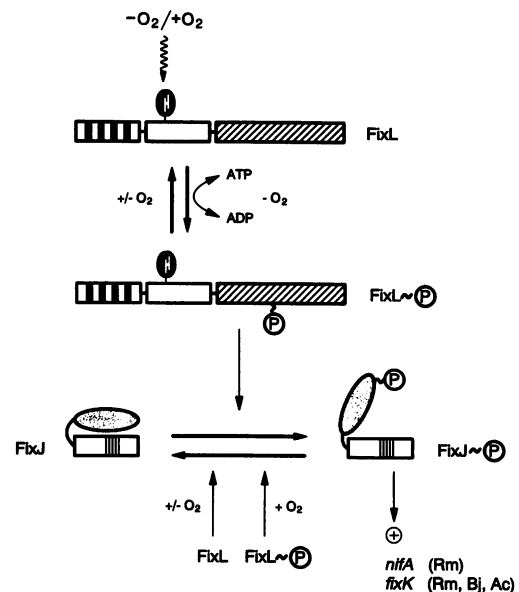


FIG. 3. Model of FixLJ-mediated oxygen control of *nifA* expression in *R. meliloti* (Rm) and expression of *fixK* in *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum* (Bj), and *A. caulinodans* (Ac). For details and references, see the text. Four membrane-spanning segments in the N-terminal domain of the sensor kinase protein FixL are indicated by vertical black bars. Oxygen sensing or the sensing of microaerobiosis requires the heme moiety (H) attached to the central, cytoplasmic domain of FixL. The C-terminal domain (hatched) corresponds to the most highly conserved domain of sensor proteins of two-component regulatory systems and includes the autophosphorylation site of FixL. The nonphosphorylated N-terminal domain (shaded) of the FixJ protein masks the transcriptional activation function of the C-terminal domain (open box) which contains a putative helix-turn-helix DNA-binding motif (vertical lines inside box). Phosphorylation of the N-terminal domain by FixL-phosphate induces a conformational change in the protein, thereby releasing the inhibitory effect of the N-terminal domain. Control by oxygen occurs at two levels. Low-oxygen conditions stimulate the autophosphorylation activity of FixL and repress the phosphatase activity of FixL-phosphate (but not that of FixJ), which together results in increased levels of phosphorylated FixJ under these conditions. Conversely, FixJ-phosphate accumulation is efficiently prevented under high-oxygen conditions by the decreased autophosphorylation of FixL and the stimulated phosphatase activity of FixL-phosphate. Note that the phosphoryl transfer from FixL-phosphate to FixJ is not affected by the oxygen conditions.

corresponding to the C-terminal domain exhibits in vitro autophosphorylation and FixJ kinase activity, although these activities are lower than those observed with FixL* (266). Replacement of the conserved His-285 by glutamine abolishes both activities, supporting the idea that His-285 is the site of autophosphorylation (265). FixL* autophosphorylation (but not the reverse reaction or the phosphotransfer reaction to FixJ) is specifically stimulated by low oxygen tension, and this regulation requires the heme-binding domain. FixL* also possesses phosphatase activity. In contrast to nonphosphorylated FixL*, this activity is suppressed under anaerobic conditions when FixL* is phosphorylated (Fig. 3) (140, 237, 266).

(ii) **FixJ.** The FixJ proteins of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* are very similar in size (204, 205, and 211 amino acids, respectively) and consist of two functional domains of comparable homology (ca. 50% identity). The N-terminal regulatory domain contains four conserved amino acid residues (Asp-10, Asp-11, Asp-54, and Lys-104 in *R. meliloti* FixJ)

which are characteristic for two-component response regulators (290). An aspartic acid residue corresponding to Asp-54 in FixJ has been shown to be the phosphorylation site in the CheY, VirG, and NtrC proteins (190, 330, 331). Phosphorylation of FixJ at Asp-54 has not yet been demonstrated directly; however, two FixJ mutant proteins containing amino acid substitutions at positions thought to be located near Asp-54 in the FixJ tertiary structure (Glu-12 to Gly, Thr-82 to Ile) are severely affected in their ability to be phosphorylated by FixL* (410). Unexpectedly, replacement of Asp-54 by Asn resulted in a FixJ mutant protein whose transcriptional activity was only marginally affected both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (311). Moreover, its activity was strongly stimulated via phosphorylation by a soluble form of FixL independently of the oxygen conditions, suggesting that this particular FixJ mutant protein can be phosphorylated at an alternative residue. However, it is not known yet whether this type of phosphorylation also occurs in the wild-type FixJ protein and, if so, whether it is of biological relevance to *R. meliloti*.

Recently, four mutant *R. meliloti* FixJ proteins which showed increased activation of the *R. meliloti nifA* promoter in *E. coli* were described (409). All of them had amino acid exchanges in a region of the N-terminal domain which is likely to be involved in phosphorylation. Further biochemical analysis revealed that one of the mutant proteins (Gly-83 to Glu), although less efficiently phosphorylated than wild-type FixJ, is more resistant to dephosphorylation by FixL*. This could mean that this particular amino acid position plays a role in an effective interaction between FixL and FixJ.

The C-terminal domain of FixJ shares homology with a number of transcriptional activators and also with the C-terminal part of σ factors which interact with the -35 region of bacterial promoters (195). On the basis of the latter observation, one might speculate about similar activation mechanisms of FixJ-like activators and σ factors. The region with most pronounced homology includes a putative helix-turn-helix motif likely to be involved in sequence-specific promoter recognition. The functional role of this motif is supported by the effect of site-directed mutations introduced into the second (recognition) helix which drastically reduce the *in vivo* activity of the resulting *R. meliloti* FixJ mutant proteins (195). On the basis of results obtained from *in vivo* activity tests with individually expressed domains of *R. meliloti* FixJ, Kahn and Ditta (195) proposed a model for the regulation of FixJ activity (Fig. 3). In the nonphosphorylated state, the N-terminal domain of FixJ masks the transcription activation function of the C-terminal domain. Phosphorylation of the N-terminal portion by FixL induces a conformational change, thereby relieving the inhibitory effect of the N-terminal domain. Upon dephosphorylation, the transcription activation function of FixJ is inhibited again. This model was further corroborated by recent *in vitro* transcription experiments with the purified C-terminal activator domain of FixJ (81a).

Figure 3 summarizes the model of the signal transduction mechanism via the FixLJ cascade. The cellular oxygen conditions are sensed by the heme moiety bound to the central, cytoplasmic FixL domain and, in turn, modulate inversely the kinase and phosphatase activities of the C-terminal domain. Low-oxygen conditions favor the kinase activity, resulting in an increased amount of phosphorylated FixJ protein, which then activates transcription of target genes. Conversely, when the oxygen tension increases, the level of phosphorylated FixJ protein is diminished by the phosphatase activity of FixL phosphate which is stimulated under these conditions.

Regulation by FixLJ. All three species, *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans*, require the *fixLJ* genes for

microaerobic induction of the *fixK* gene (*fixK₂* in *B. japonicum*) under microaerobic conditions (Fig. 2A to C, respectively) (14, 82, 198). Unlike in *B. japonicum* and *A. caulinodans*, FixJ directly controls *nifA* expression in *R. meliloti* (82, 283, 396).

The regulatory function of the *R. meliloti fixLJ* gene products has also been studied in a heterologous *E. coli* background and *in vitro*. In the absence of FixL, overexpressed FixJ protein can activate in *E. coli* expression of both an *R. meliloti fixK'*-*lacZ* and a *nifA'*-*lacZ* fusion regardless of the aeration status of the culture, and transcription of the latter fusion was shown to start at the same position as in the homologous *R. meliloti* background (167). When the *fixL* and *fixJ* genes are expressed simultaneously at low levels in *E. coli*, activation of both target genes, *nifA* and *fixK*, is observed only under microaerobic conditions (95). Thus, the FixL protein is responsible for oxygen control of FixJ-mediated activation of *nifA* and *fixK* in *E. coli* also. At high levels of FixJ, constitutively synthesized FixL protein has no effect on *fixK* expression whereas that of *nifA* is activated under microaerobic conditions and repressed in aerated cultures (95). This finding suggests functional differences in the interaction of FixJ with the promoters of *nifA* and *fixK*; it is further supported by the fact that mutations in *fixJ* can have different effects on the activation of these promoters by the corresponding mutant proteins (195, 410). It remains to be elucidated whether differential regulation of the *fixK* and *nifA* genes by the FixLJ regulatory proteins is also observed in the homologous *R. meliloti* background and, if so, whether this has any biological significance with respect to an efficient symbiosis.

Originally, *in vitro* FixJ activity was demonstrated in a coupled transcription-translation system through activation of a *fixK'*-*lacZ* fusion by using extracts prepared from *E. coli* cells that overproduced the *R. meliloti* FixJ protein (30). Subsequently, purified FixJ protein was used to activate *in vitro* transcription from the *fixK* and *nifA* promoters in conjunction with *E. coli* σ^{70} RNA polymerase or *R. meliloti* RNA polymerase (3, 312). In addition, it was demonstrated that phosphorylation of FixJ by FixL, which preferentially occurs under low-oxygen conditions, greatly enhances *in vitro* transcriptional activity of FixJ. Thus, by using the FixL and FixJ proteins, it has been possible for the first time to transduce *in vitro* an environmental signal (low oxygen conditions) to the level of gene expression.

The rhizobial genes known to be activated by FixJ include *nifA*, *fixK*, and *fixK'* of *R. meliloti* (*fixK'* refers to the reiterated *fixK* gene in the duplicated *fixK-fixNOQP* region [Fig. 1A]); *fixK₂* of *B. japonicum*; and *fixK* of *A. caulinodans* (14, 28, 199, 396). However, no direct interaction of FixJ with the promoter region of any of these genes has been demonstrated as yet. Mutational analyses aimed at the identification of *cis*-acting regulatory elements in FixJ-dependent promoters allowed the definition of minimal upstream DNA requirements, but the nature of the postulated FixJ-binding site and the core promoter still remains to be elucidated. Sequence comparison reveals the presence of a common C(C/G)NAAT(T/A)T₋₃₃ element in the promoter regions of all five target genes (Fig. 4). A 10-bp insertion into this motif of the *R. meliloti nifA* promoter abolishes induction by microaerobiosis (2). It is not known, however, whether this motif is part of a FixJ recognition site or whether it makes contact with the RNA polymerase (or both). An additional, conserved element (TAAG) is present around position -64 in the promoter regions of all four *fixK* genes but not in that of *R. meliloti nifA*. Deletion of part of this motif drastically reduces microaerobic induction of *R. meliloti fixK*, whereas deletion of the corresponding (non-conserved) region in the *R. meliloti nifA* promoter has no effect

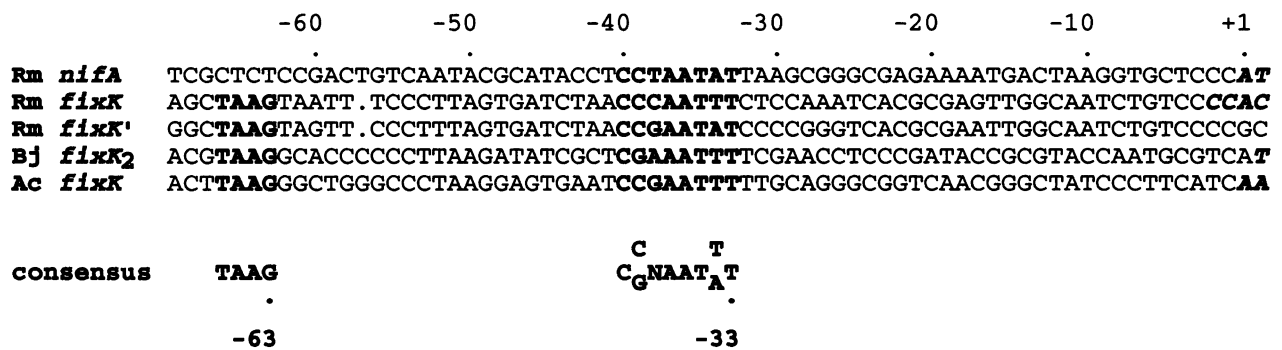


FIG. 4. Promoter regions of FixJ-dependent genes of *R. meliloti* (Rm), *B. japonicum* (Bj), and *A. caulinodans* (Ac). *fixK'* refers to the second *fixK* gene of *R. meliloti*, which is located in the duplicated *fixK-fixNOQP* region ca. 40 kb upstream of *nifHDKE* (Fig. 1A). Where known, the transcriptional start sites are emphasized in italic boldface characters. The numbering is indicated as defined for *R. meliloti nifA* in reference 2. To optimally align the -63 consensus motif, a 1-nucleotide gap has been introduced into the *R. meliloti fixK* and *fixK'* sequences as originally proposed by Waelkens et al. (397). Conserved DNA sequence motifs potentially involved in contacting RNA polymerase and/or FixJ binding are highlighted (boldface letters), and proposed consensus motifs are indicated. For details, see the text. References: *R. meliloti nifA*, 2, 396; *fixK*, 28; *fixK'*, 397; *B. japonicum fixK₂*, 14; *A. caulinodans fixK*, 199.

(199, 397). It is speculated that this could account for the differential activation pattern of *nifA* and *fixK* by overproduced wild-type or mutant FixJ mutant proteins (95, 195, 397, 410).

FixK

Identification of *fixK*-like genes. Expression studies with an *R. meliloti fixN'-lacZ* fusion in *E. coli* had originally led to the finding that the *R. meliloti fixK* gene was required for activation of the *fixN* promoter (28). In *R. meliloti* the *fixK* gene is located between the *fixLJ* and the *fixNOQP* operons and is part of the 5-kb DNA region that is reiterated on megaplasmid 1 (cf. Fig. 1A). Similarly, a *fixK*-like gene (*fixK₂*) was recently identified downstream of the *fixLJ* operon in *B. japonicum* (Fig. 1B) (14). Another *fixK*-like gene had been described previously in *B. japonicum*; however, no functional role could be assigned to it (15). Hereafter, this gene will be referred to as the *B. japonicum fixK₁* gene in order to distinguish it from the FixJ-controlled *fixK₂* gene. In *A. caulinodans*, a *fixK*-like gene is present upstream of the *fixLJ* genes and orientated opposite to them (Fig. 1C) (199). There may also exist another *fixK*-like gene in *A. caulinodans*, as inferred from the description of a gene that is homologous to *E. coli fnr* but whose mutation results in a different phenotype from that of a mutation in the *fixLJ*-linked *fixK* gene (89). Finally, in *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* a *fixK*-like gene (*orf240*, *fnrN*) was identified on the basis of its ability to promote microaerobic activation of a heterologous *R. meliloti fixN'-lacZ* fusion and to partially complement the symbiotic defects of an *R. meliloti fixJ* mutant (73).

Null mutations in the *fixK* genes of *R. meliloti* (*fixK fixK'* double mutants) and *A. caulinodans*, as well as in *fixK₂* of *B. japonicum*, abolish nitrogen fixation by these organisms. In addition, *B. japonicum fixK₂* mutants are defective in nitrate respiration, as was described previously for *B. japonicum fixLJ* mutant strains (13, 14). This differs from *R. meliloti*, in which the activity of the dissimilatory ("respiratory") nitrate reductase is apparently not affected by a mutation in *fixK* (28). No data are available on nitrate respiration in *A. caulinodans*. *B. japonicum fixK₁* mutants and *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae fnrN* mutants are still able to fix nitrogen, but nitrogenase activity and nodule number are diminished to some extent in the latter case. No other mutant phenotypes have been reported for these strains.

In addition to being positively regulated, the *R. meliloti fixK*

genes and the *B. japonicum fixK₂* gene are subject to negative autoregulation, but it is not known whether this control is direct or indirect (Fig. 2) (14, 28).

Structure and function of FixK-like proteins. The FixK proteins, which are similar in size (211 to 248 amino acids) (Table 2), belong to a family of prokaryotic transcriptional regulators, named the Crp-Fnr family for its best-characterized members. The *E. coli* cyclic AMP (cAMP) receptor protein (Crp) or catabolite gene activator protein (Cap) primarily regulates transcription of genes involved in catabolic functions (for reviews, see references 44 and 211). DNA-binding and transcriptional activation by Crp are regulated allosterically through the binding of cAMP. The Fnr protein of *E. coli* is a transcriptional regulator which controls the expression of a variety of genes involved mainly in anaerobic respiratory processes (for reviews, see references 358 and 388). It is postulated that the switch from inactive Fnr under aerobic conditions to active Fnr under anaerobic conditions is accompanied by its conversion from the monomeric to dimeric form (225). The molecular mechanisms underlying redox sensing are not well understood (see below). The regulatory functions of Crp and Fnr include both positive and negative control. Crp and Fnr share at least two common structural elements that seem to be conserved in all members of the Crp-Fnr family (71, 350). First, five glycine residues in the N-terminal half of the proteins (corresponding to positions 33 and 62, 45 and 74, 56 and 85, 67 and 96, and 71 and 100 of Crp and Fnr, respectively) are almost always invariant. In Crp they were shown to separate consecutive β -strands which form a β -roll structure involved in Crp dimerization and nucleotide binding (404). Second, a helix-turn-helix motif characteristic of many DNA-binding proteins is present in the C-terminal part of all Crp-Fnr-homologous proteins (corresponding to positions 169 to 192 and 196 to 219 of Crp and Fnr, respectively [Fig. 5]). Determination of the X-ray crystal structure of the Crp-DNA complex ultimately confirmed the direct involvement of this motif in DNA binding (345).

The members of the Crp-Fnr protein family can be divided into three classes based on their overall amino acid sequence similarity and functional differences (Table 2). Class I includes Fnr of *E. coli* and 11 additional proteins whose similarity to Fnr varies from 24 to 74% identical amino acids. Common to all

TABLE 2. Crp-/Fnr-homologous regulatory proteins

Class ^a	Protein(s)	Species	No. of aa ^b	Function(s) or gene(s) regulated	Reference(s)
IA	Fnr	<i>E. coli</i>	250	Anaerobic respiration	349, 385
IA	EtrA	<i>Shewanella putrefaciens</i>	250	Anaerobic respiration	327
IA	HlyX	<i>Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae</i>	240	Hemolysin synthesis?	240
IA	Anr	<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	244	Nitrate respiration, arginine deiminase, HCN production	338, 423
IA	FnrA	<i>Pseudomonas stutzeri</i>	244	Arginine deiminase	81
IA	Btr	<i>Bordetella pertussis</i>	241	Unknown	26
IB	FixK ₁	<i>B. japonicum</i>	237	Unknown	15
IB	AadR	<i>Rhodopseudomonas palustris</i>	239	Anaerobic growth on 4-hydroxybenzoate	101
IB	FnrN	<i>R. leguminosarum</i> bv. viciae	240	Nitrogen fixation (marginally)	73
IC	FixK ₂	<i>B. japonicum</i>	235	Nitrate respiration, expression of <i>fixNOQP</i> , <i>fixK₁</i> , <i>rpoN₁</i> , and <i>fixK₂</i>	14
IC	FixK	<i>A. caulinodans</i>	248	<i>nifA</i> expression	199
IC	FixK	<i>R. meliloti</i>	211	Expression of <i>fixNOQP</i> , <i>fixGHIS</i> , <i>nifA</i> , and <i>fixK</i>	28
II	Crp	<i>E. coli</i>	210	Catabolic gene activation	7, 76
II	Crp	<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	210	Catabolic gene activation	343
II	Crp	<i>Shigella flexneri</i>	210	Catabolic gene activation	77
II	Crp	<i>Klebsiella aerogenes</i>	210	Catabolic gene activation	288
II	Crp	<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>	224	Competence development	69
II	Clp	<i>Xanthomonas campestris</i> pv. <i>campestris</i>	230	Phytopathogenicity	91
III	NtcA	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. strain PCC 7942	222	Nitrogen assimilation	394
III	NtcA	<i>Synechocystis</i> sp. strain PCC 6803	225	Unknown	EMBL accession no. X71607
III	NtcA, BifA	<i>Anabaena</i> sp. strain PCC 7120	223	Nitrogen assimilation and unknown other functions	405 (EMBL accession no. X71608)
III	CysR	<i>Synechococcus</i> sp. strain PCC 7942	206	Sulfur assimilation	224

^a For classification criteria, see the text.

^b Total number of amino acids (aa) as predicted from the DNA sequence of respective genes.

functionally defined proteins of this class is their involvement in oxygen control of various cellular processes.

Class II comprises Crp of *E. coli* and highly conserved Crp-like proteins from numerous other bacteria. Interestingly, the functions of the Crp-like proteins of *Haemophilus influenzae* and *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris* are related to the development of competence and the regulation of phytopathogenicity, respectively, rather than to the regulation of catabolic genes. The amino acid sequences of the Crp proteins from *E. coli*, *Salmonella typhimurium*, *Shigella flexneri*, and *Klebsiella aerogenes* are extremely well conserved (at most one amino acid replacement), whereas Crp of *Haemophilus influenzae* and Clp of *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris* show a lower degree of homology to *E. coli* Crp (76 and 44% identical amino acids, respectively).

Class III proteins includes a group of cyanobacterial proteins that are involved in the control of nitrogen or sulfur metabolism. Possibly NtcA of *Anabaena* sp. strain PCC 7210 has additional functions, because it was originally identified as BifA, a protein that binds to the upstream region of the *xisA* gene which encodes a site-specific recombinase synthesized during heterocyst development (70). The similarity between the NtcA proteins is very pronounced (77 to 88% identity), whereas CysR of *Synechococcus* sp. strain PCC 7942 is less similar to NtcA (~32% identity).

The proteins of class I can be further divided into subclasses IA, IB, and IC. Fnr and all other class IA proteins show a strictly conserved Cys-X₂-Cys-X₅-Cys motif in their N termini and an additional conserved cysteine residue in the central part of the polypeptide (the cysteine residues correspond to positions 20, 23, 29, and 122 of Fnr). These four cysteine residues are essential for Fnr activity, and it is speculated that they contribute to formation of an iron-binding domain that may be involved in redox sensing (147, 254, 347, 357).

In the proteins of class IB, which includes FixK₁ of *B. japonicum* and FnrN of *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae*, the four cysteine residues are also conserved; however, their spacing in the N-terminal motif is slightly variable (Cys-X₂₋₃-Cys-X₇-Cys). It seems likely that this motif plays a similar role in redox sensing as does the corresponding motif in Fnr.

The proteins of class IC are characterized by the lack of both the N-terminal and central cysteine residues. Although it remains to be demonstrated explicitly, one can speculate that the activity of class IC regulators is not redox controlled, in contrast to that of class IA and IB proteins. Notably, the overall similarities of proteins within subclasses IA, IB, and IC are higher (≥33, ≥35, and ≥40% identical amino acids, respectively) than between the proteins of those subclasses.

The structural similarity of *B. japonicum* FixK₁ and *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* FnrN with Fnr of *E. coli* is also

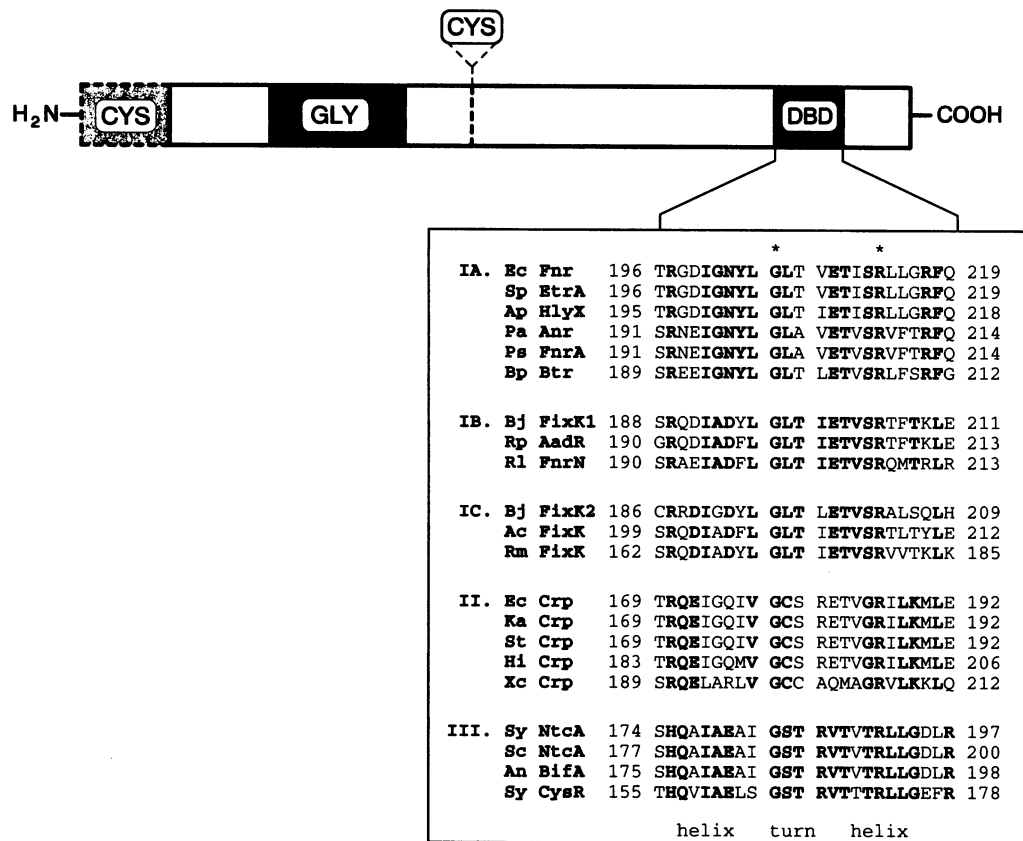


FIG. 5. Structural comparison of Crp-Fnr-like proteins belonging to different classes (IA, IB, IC, II, and III) as defined in the text and in Table 2. GLY and DBD in the model indicate a region containing five invariant glycine residues in the N-terminal half of the proteins and a C-terminal DNA-binding domain, respectively, which are conserved in all members of this protein family. The presence of at least three N-terminal cysteine residues and that of an additional cysteine residue in the central part, all characteristic for the proteins of classes IA and IB, is marked by CYS. The lower part of the figure shows an amino acid sequence alignment of the (putative) helix-turn-helix motif present in the DNA-binding domain. Numbers indicate the positions of the first and last amino acids shown within the respective protein. Amino acid residues conserved within at least one subclass are shown in boldface letters. The asterisks mark residues which are conserved among all proteins listed. Abbreviations: Ap, *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae*; An, *Anabaena* sp. strain PCC 7120; Ac, *A. caulinodans*; Bp, *Bordetella pertussis*; Bj, *B. japonicum*; Ec, *E. coli*; Hi, *Haemophilus influenzae*; Ka, *Klebsiella aerogenes*; Pa, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*; Ps, *Pseudomonas stutzeri*; Rl, *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae*; Rm, *R. meliloti*; Rp, *Rhodospseudomonas palustris*; St, *Salmonella typhimurium*; Sp, *Shewanella putrefaciens*; Sy, *Synechococcus* sp. strain PCC 7942; Sc, *Synechocystis* sp. strain PCC 6803; Xc, *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris*. For references, see Table 2.

reflected at the functional level. Both FixK₁ and FnrN can replace Fnr of *E. coli* with respect to the activation of Fnr-dependent promoters, and this activation is dependent on the presence of microaerobic or anaerobic conditions (15, 342). Conversely, Fnr can activate an *R. meliloti* *fixN'*-*lacZ* fusion in *E. coli* and in *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* lacking a functional *fnrN* gene (71, 342). In addition, homologous complementation tests have shown that *fixK*₁ of *B. japonicum* is able to substitute for *fixK*₂ with regard to regulation of anaerobic nitrate respiration and symbiotic nitrogen fixation (14, 15). However, the physiological significance of this result is uncertain since *fixK*₁ has been overexpressed from a constitutive promoter in this particular experiment. Nevertheless, these results are consistent with a model predicting that Fnr of *E. coli* and the rhizobial FixK proteins recognize similar DNA motifs in their target promoters. This idea is further corroborated by a comparison of the C-terminal helix-turn-helix motifs of the Crp-Fnr-like proteins (Fig. 5). Although no direct experimental data are available, genetic and model-building studies strongly suggest that this domain of the *E. coli* Fnr protein is indeed involved in DNA binding similarly to that in

Crp (see reference 358 and references therein). Amino acids crucial for DNA binding of Fnr include Glu-209 and Ser-212. The latter is likely to contribute to the DNA-binding specificity of Fnr, and, remarkably, Ser-212 is conserved in all class I proteins.

Two Fnr-like proteins can be present in one and the same organism, as exemplified by FixK₁ and FixK₂ of *B. japonicum*. This situation may not be unique to *B. japonicum*, since there is evidence that *Shewanella putrefaciens*, *Pseudomonas stutzeri*, *A. caulinodans* and *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* harbor Fnr-like proteins in addition to the already known EtrA, FnrA, FixK, and FnrN proteins, respectively (81, 89, 300a, 327). Apart from the future functional characterization of these new proteins, it will be of particular interest to analyze their N termini for the presence or absence of the cysteine motif and to determine the regulation of the respective genes. The biological significance of two Fnr-like proteins in a single organism remains speculative. It seems plausible that the Fnr-like proteins of classes IA and IB represent the "classic" Fnr homologs of the respective bacteria. Diazotrophic organisms may have additionally evolved the FixK proteins belonging to class IC for the control

TABLE 3. Putative FixK-binding sites in the promoter regions of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* genes or operons

Organism	Gene/operon	Location relative to putative translational (transcriptional) start site ^a	Sequence ^{a,b}	Reference(s)
<i>R. meliloti</i>	<i>fixNOQP</i>	-106	gcac TTGAT Ctg GATCAA Gtg	28
	<i>fixGHIS</i>	-80	agac TTGA cgc GATCAA Gtg	194
<i>B. japonicum</i>	<i>fixNOQP</i>	-70	tatc TTGA tttca ATCAA ttcc	299
	<i>fixGHIS</i>	-71	ccgt TTGAG Ctg GATCAA cGga	299
	<i>fixK₁</i>	-118	agaa TTGAT Ctg GATCAA ccgc	15
	<i>rpoN₁</i>	-81	gctt TTGcg Cgac ATCAA aGcg	217
	<i>hemA</i>	-147 (-46)	ttct TTGAT Cgg GATCAA gttt	252
	<i>cycB</i>	-267	cgcc TGG cggca GATCAA Gcg	323
<i>A. caulinodans</i>	<i>nifA</i>	-147 (-130)	aaat TTGAT Cca GATCAA aGcc	278, 304
	<i>fixNOQP</i>	-90	tcct TTGA ctt ATCAA Gtg *	243
(<i>Brady</i>) <i>rhizobium</i> spp.	FixK consensus		TTGA-C--GATCAA-G *	
<i>E. coli</i>	Fnr consensus	(~-48)	AAA-TTGAT----ATCAA-TTT	118

^a The numbers indicated refer to the location of the marked (*) first T residue in the rhizobial consensus sequence with respect to the translational (transcriptional) start site of the respective gene or operon. The transcriptional start site is known only for *B. japonicum hemA* and *A. caulinodans nifA*.

^b Boldface capital letters indicate nucleotides which are conserved in at least 6 of the 10 putative FixK-binding sites shown.

of functions related directly or indirectly to the process of nitrogen fixation. FixK proteins of this type probably do not respond directly to varying oxygen conditions but, rather, are integrated into an oxygen-responsive cascade. However, it cannot be excluded that the FixK proteins are involved in the transduction of another physiological signal which has not been identified yet. On the other hand, it is conceivable that FixK₁ of *B. japonicum*, FnrN of *R. leguminosarum* bv. viciae, and (hypothetical) homologous class IB proteins from other rhizobia have specific functions that are not related to nitrogen fixation. By analogy with Anr of *P. aeruginosa*, FnrA of *P. stutzeri* and AadR of *Rhodopseudomonas palustris*, such functions may include the anaerobic degradation of arginine or of aromatic compounds (cf. Table 2).

Intriguingly, the FixLJ proteins in *B. japonicum* control the synthesis of both FixK₂ and FixK₁, the latter through FixK₂. Thus, a hypothetical target gene of FixK₁ is under dual control with respect to oxygen, a situation which is reminiscent of *R. meliloti* genes regulated by NifA (cf. Fig. 2A and B). It seems plausible that FixLJ and FixK₁ respond to different low levels of oxygen. The hierarchical organization suggests that FixK₁ exerts a more stringent oxygen control than FixLJ. By this means it may be possible to optimally control the synthesis of cellular components which differ in their oxygen sensitivity or whose proper functioning requires defined (low) oxygen concentrations.

Regulation by FixK. A common function of the FixK proteins of all three species (in *B. japonicum* FixK₂ is always meant here) is their control of *fixNOQP* expression (Fig. 2) (14, 28, 242, 243). Possibly, the FixK proteins of *R. meliloti* and FixK₂ of *B. japonicum* also control expression of the *fixGHIS* operon, which is situated immediately downstream of *fixNOQP* in both organisms (28, 29, 313). This is supported by the presence of a potential FixK-binding site upstream of *fixG* (Table 3) (194, 299). By contrast, transcription of *A. caulinodans fixG* is independent of FixK, whereas expression of another *A. caulinodans* gene (*orf140*), which is located downstream of *fixLJ*, is also reported to be *fixK* dependent (242).

However, its product (of unknown function) is not essential for symbiotic or free-living nitrogen fixation.

As depicted in Fig. 2, the functions of the FixK proteins of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* differ most significantly with respect to their role in the control of *nifA* expression. FixK of *R. meliloti* exerts a negative effect on *nifA* expression, whereas FixK of *A. caulinodans* is required for positive regulation of *nifA* expression (28, 199). By contrast, the FixLJ-FixK₂ cascade of *B. japonicum* is not involved at all in the regulation of *nifA* expression but is responsible for oxygen control of *rpoN₁* and *fixK₁* (14).

Genetic and physiological evidence may show the existence of further candidates for possible FixLJ-FixK₂-controlled genes in *B. japonicum*. These are (i) *hemA*, encoding 5-amino-levulinic acid synthase (252, 353); (ii) *cycB*, coding for a soluble *c*-type cytochrome (*c₅₅₂*) which is more abundant in bacteroids than in free-living, aerobically grown cells (16, 323); and (iii) the genes involved in the synthesis of the uptake hydrogenase (*hup* genes) (204, 205, 392).

The growing number of (putatively) FixK-regulated genes or operons offers the opportunity to inspect the respective promoter regions for a potential FixK consensus binding site (Table 3). This approach, however, is restricted by the fact that only two of these genes have been transcriptionally mapped, namely *hemA* of *B. japonicum* and *nifA* of *A. caulinodans* (252, 304). Furthermore, very little information on the structure of rhizobial promoters other than those depending on σ^{54} is available. Despite these shortcomings, a considerably conserved motif (5'-TTGA-C--GATCAA-G-3') is detectable within a reasonable distance upstream of all positively controlled target genes or operons for which relevant sequence information is available (Table 3). This motif is highly similar to the core of the binding site for *E. coli* Fnr ("Fnr box"; 5'-AAA-TTGAT----ATCAA-TTT-3' [118]). This finding is not unexpected in view of the pronounced similarity between the putative DNA-binding domain of Fnr and those of the FixK proteins (Fig. 5). Unlike the Fnr box, the putative FixK-binding sites do not show a preference for adenine or thymi-

dine residues in the 5'- and 3'-flanking regions, respectively, and the 5' half-site shows more variability than the 3' half-site. A cytosine may be preferred between the two half-sites at position 6 of the FixK consensus motif defined in Table 3. Similarly, a guanine residue, which is present at position 16 in 7 of the 10 sequences compared, may contribute to the specificity for FixK binding. Among the genes that are positively controlled by FixK, *rpoN*₁ of *B. japonicum* and *nifA* of *A. caulinodans* are presently the only examples for which a functional role of the putative FixK-binding site has been demonstrated (216, 362).

The FixK proteins of *R. meliloti* and FixK₂ of *B. japonicum* also exert negative control on their own expression and, in the case of *R. meliloti*, also on *nifA* (Fig. 2A and B). Assuming that this regulation is mediated directly by FixK, one might postulate that FixK interferes with RNA polymerase by binding to FixK-binding sites located in or near the promoter region of the respective genes. Such a mechanism is known from promoters which are negatively regulated by Fnr (146, 348, 356, 359, 374). The promoter regions of *fixK* and *nifA* in *R. meliloti* have been defined by transcriptional mapping (28, 396). No evident potential FixK-binding site is detectable in the promoter region of *nifA*, but a motif is present around position -43 of the *fixK* promoter that shows a limited similarity to a FixK consensus binding site (5'-gTGA-C--accCAA-t-3'; nucleotides shown in capital letters match the FixK consensus binding sequence as proposed in Table 3 [397]). A DNA sequence element with more convincing similarity to the consensus is located around position -487 with respect to the *fixK* transcriptional start site (5'-TTGA-C--GgcCAA-G-3'). Mutational analysis revealed that this element does indeed participate in negative autoregulation of *fixK*. It is speculated that the repression mechanism may involve DNA loop formation by binding of FixK to the distant operator sites around positions -487 and -43, which would then interfere with FixJ-mediated activation of the *fixK* promoter (397). An analogous model may be proposed for the negative autoregulation of *fixK*₂ in *B. japonicum* based on the presence of putative FixK-binding sites in the 5' region (14). However, their functional role remains to be investigated by mutational analysis. Alternatively, it is possible that negative autoregulation of *fixK* expression in *R. meliloti* and *fixK*₂ expression in *B. japonicum* is mediated indirectly at the level of *fixLJ* transcription. This idea is supported by the presence of putative FixK-binding sites upstream of *fixLJ* in both organisms. A potential functional role of these elements, and the role of FixK in *fixLJ* expression in general, has not been investigated systematically.

Although further experimental work is clearly required to define more precisely the structural requirements for the interaction of FixK with its DNA target site, the analysis of the promoter regions of FixLJ- and FixK-controlled genes may contribute to the identification of rhizobial promoters other than those depending on σ^{54} and to the characterization of the appropriate RNA polymerase holoenzyme.

RpoN (σ^{54})

Structure and function of RpoN. The promoter specificity of bacterial RNA polymerases is determined by the σ subunit of the polymerase holoenzyme, which has an $\alpha_2\beta\beta'$ subunit composition (for reviews, see references 150 and 161). The major vegetative σ factor of *E. coli* is σ^{70} , and homologous σ factors are known in many other gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria. A gene (*glnF*) encoding the alternative σ factor, σ^{54} (now also termed σ^N [258]), was initially identified by genetic means in *S. typhimurium* because of its requirement

for the synthesis of glutamine synthetase (138). Subsequently, it became evident that σ^{54} plays a general role in the control of nitrogen metabolism including nitrogen fixation (155, 241). Accordingly, the respective gene was named *ntfA* or *rpoN*, the latter term being the generally used designation today. Final proof that σ^{54} acts as a σ factor was obtained by in vitro transcription experiments with purified components (172, 180). In the meantime, it is well established that *rpoN*-like genes are present in a wide range of eubacteria (gram-negative and gram-positive species) and that they are involved in a large number of different cellular functions such as pilin synthesis, degradation of xylene and toluene, dicarboxylic acid transport, special fermentation pathways, and nitrogen fixation (for reviews, see references 223, 258, and 378).

From genetic evidence, the *rpoN* genes of 27 bacterial species have been identified to date, and the DNA sequences of 17 of them have been determined (see reference 258 and references therein). The length of the deduced proteins varies between 426 (*Rhodobacter capsulatus*) and 526 (*Rhizobium* sp. strain NGR234) amino acids. Sequence alignments indicate a high overall similarity unevenly distributed over three distinct regions. The conserved N-terminal region I of ca. 50 amino acids is rich in glutamine and leucine. Region II is of variable length (27 to 110 amino acids) and shows only very little sequence conservation apart from a high proportion of acidic residues. Remarkably, the two RpoN proteins of *B. japonicum* (217) differ most with respect to the length of region II (62 and 100 amino acids in RpoN₁ and RpoN₂, respectively, according to the model presented in reference 258). Region II is followed by a long, well-conserved C-terminal region III of ca. 400 residues containing two characteristic motifs in its distal portion. First, there is a potential helix-turn-helix motif that may be involved in the interaction with the -13 promoter region as inferred from studies with RpoN mutant proteins and promoter suppressor mutants (74, 259, 261). Second, there is an almost absolutely invariant stretch of 10 amino acids, located adjacent to the proposed helix-turn-helix motif, which appears to be unique to σ^{54} proteins. The function of this element, which has been designated the RpoN box (391), is not clear. Footprinting and gel shift experiments have demonstrated that σ^{54} can specifically bind to certain σ^{54} -dependent promoters in the absence of core RNA polymerase (52). Binding of σ^{54} is stabilized in the presence of the core enzyme possibly by induction of conformational changes to enhance DNA binding (64). Recent cross-linking experiments have provided direct evidence that the distal part of the C-terminal domain of σ^{54} makes contact with the *R. meliloti* *nifH* promoter (65). The site(s) where σ^{54} interacts with the RNA polymerase core enzyme is not known, and the absence of significant similarity between σ^{54} and σ^{70} could mean that these σ factors make different contacts with the core.

RpoN-dependent promoters. The promoter region of σ^{54} -dependent genes shows a characteristic structure (5'-TG GCAC-N₂-TTGCA/T-3' [268]) and is located between positions -26 and -11 relative to the transcription start site. The alternative designation "-24/-12 promoter" refers to the most highly conserved GG and GC doublets at these positions. This type of promoter, which differs markedly from σ^{70} -dependent -35/-10 promoters of *E. coli* (5'-TTGACA-N_{1,7}-TATAAT-3' [234]), was first recognized in the context of the analysis of *nif* gene promoters from numerous diazotrophs such as *K. pneumoniae* (38), *R. meliloti* (371) and *B. japonicum* (1, 137, 196). Since then, a large amount of data has accumulated which clearly demonstrates that, consistent with the wide distribution of *rpoN*-like genes, -24/-12-type promoters are ubiquitous among eubacteria, in which they control the expres-

sion of a wide variety of different genes (for compilations, see references 223, 258, and 378).

In contrast to RNA polymerase containing σ^{70} , the σ^{54} holoenzyme is unable to initiate transcription by itself. This reaction requires the presence of a transcriptional activator that catalyzes the isomerization of a closed to an open promoter complex. Consequently, expression of σ^{54} -dependent genes is always subject to positive control by an activator protein whose activity is modulated in response to specific physiological signals (223). NifA, NtrC, NtrX, and DctD represent transcriptional regulators that are relevant for the expression of σ^{54} -dependent genes involved in symbiotic nitrogen fixation (Fig. 2; see below). In vitro experiments with NtrC and σ^{54} RNA polymerase have shown that open-complex formation by phosphorylated NtrC requires ATP (21, 298, 411, 412). Typically, activator proteins bind to specific sites located around 100 bp upstream of the $-24/-12$ core promoter region (see references 223 and 378 and references therein). Interaction of the activator protein with the σ^{54} holoenzyme bound to the core promoter involves looping of the intervening DNA (370). This process can be facilitated by integration host factor (IHF) (174). On the basis of in vivo activation studies with mutant forms of RNA polymerase, it has been speculated that the activator may directly contact σ^{54} of the holoenzyme (228).

RpoN of rhizobia. The occurrence of $-24/-12$ consensus promoter sequences upstream of many *nif* and *fix* genes from various rhizobial species strongly suggested the presence of σ^{54} -like proteins in these organisms. In fact, *rpoN*-like genes have now been cloned and characterized from *R. meliloti* (319), *B. japonicum* (217), *A. caulinodans* (362), and *Rhizobium* sp. strain NGR234 (360, 391). The *rpoN* gene of *R. meliloti* is located on the chromosome and not on the Sym plasmid (173). Interestingly, two highly conserved *rpoN* genes (*rpoN*₁ and *rpoN*₂) are present in *B. japonicum*. *rpoN*₁ maps between the symbiotic clusters I and II, whereas *rpoN*₂ is located elsewhere on the *B. japonicum* chromosome at a distance of more than 1,000 kb away from *rpoN*₁ (219). Indirect genetic evidence implies that alternative *rpoN* genes also exist in *A. caulinodans* (see below) (362) and in the photosynthetic bacteria *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (72, 134) and *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* (253) in addition to the *rpoN* genes already identified in these organisms. An ORF (ORF1) located upstream of the *rpoN* genes of *R. meliloti*, *A. caulinodans*, and numerous other bacteria (for a compilation, see reference 362) encodes a protein which shares homology with a family of ATP-binding proteins involved in transport and other cellular functions (9). No relevant sequence information is available for the corresponding region upstream of the *rpoN* genes of *B. japonicum*. The function of the protein encoded by ORF1 is unknown, but at least in *R. meliloti* it may be essential for growth since attempts to isolate ORF1 mutants were unsuccessful (9). Homology between *rpoN* loci from different organisms is also observed with respect to the downstream regions (for compilations, see references 189 and 362). Mutations in two ORFs (ORF2 and ORF3) located downstream of *rpoN* in *K. pneumoniae* result in an enhanced expression from certain σ^{54} -dependent promoters (260). It is speculated that the products of ORF2 and ORF3 may modulate the activity of σ^{54} . Homologous ORFs are found downstream of *B. japonicum rpoN*₂ but not downstream of the *B. japonicum rpoN*₁ and *A. caulinodans rpoN* genes. In *R. meliloti*, only the 5' portion of an ORF2-homologous region has been sequenced. Transposon insertions in ORF2 and ORF3 of *B. japonicum* do not affect symbiotic nitrogen fixation, but these mutants have not been analyzed further with regard to the activity of σ^{54} -dependent promoters (217). On the basis of sequence homology between

TABLE 4. Phenotypic properties of *rpoN* mutants of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans*

Phenotype	Organism ^a		
	<i>R. meliloti</i>	<i>B. japonicum</i> ^b	<i>A. caulinodans</i>
Nif ⁻	NA ^d	ND ^d	-
<i>nifH</i> expression	-	-	-
<i>nifA</i> expression	ND	+ ^e	+ ^f
Fix ^c	-	-	-
Nod	+	+ ^g	+ ^g
Growth on N sources			
Ammonia	+	+	+
Nitrate	-	-	-
Arginine	+	+	±
Histidine	+	+	+
Proline	+	+	+
Growth on dicarboxylic acids			
Succinate	-	+	-
Fumarate	ND	+	-
Malate	ND	+	-
<i>dctA</i> expression	-	ND	ND

^a References are as follows: *R. meliloti*, 319; *B. japonicum*, 217; *A. caulinodans*, 362.

^b The phenotypic properties of a *B. japonicum rpoN*_{1/2} double mutant are shown.

^c Nif and Fix phenotypes refer to acetylene reduction activity of microaerobically and symbiotically grown cells, respectively.

^d NA, not applicable; ND, not determined.

^e Mutation of the *rpoN* genes does not affect aerobic *nifA* expression, whereas anaerobic induction is reduced by ca. 30%.

^f Expression of *nifA* has been assayed under inducing (microaerobic, nitrogen-deficient) conditions. Aerobiosis and combined nitrogen repress *nifA* expression in the *rpoN* mutant strain similarly as observed in the wild type.

^g The number of nodules is increased, and the nodules are smaller.

the ORF3 product and a region spanning the active site of a protein (enzyme IIA) of the bacterial phosphotransferase system, it has been proposed that there may exist a regulatory link between carbon and nitrogen assimilation (307). However, in the absence of experimental evidence it is currently not possible to substantiate this idea.

Consistent with the regulatory role of *rpoN*, the phenotypes of *rpoN* mutants of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* are highly pleiotropic (Table 4) (217, 319, 362). The analysis of *B. japonicum* strains carrying single *rpoN* mutations suggests that both genes are functional and that they can replace each other in nitrogen fixation and nitrate utilization, provided conditions that allow their expression have been met (see below). Common properties of *rpoN* mutants from *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* include the lack of nitrogen fixation activity (Nif⁻ Fix⁻ phenotype; no expression of dependent *nif* genes) and the inability to utilize nitrate as the sole nitrogen source. The latter phenotype corresponds to that of *ntrC* mutants and is in agreement with the concept that RpoN and NtrC act in concert. In contrast to *rpoN* mutants of *K. pneumoniae*, the rhizobial mutants can assimilate ammonia by means of a σ^{54} -independent glutamine synthetase (216, 319, 362). Similarly, utilization of arginine, histidine, or proline as the nitrogen source is not affected by mutation of *rpoN*. Growth on dicarboxylic acids is prevented in *rpoN* mutants of *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans* but not in *B. japonicum* mutants. For *R. meliloti* and *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* it is well documented that uptake of dicarboxylic acids which represent the major energy source for bacteroids requires the DctA carrier protein. Synthesis of this protein is induced in the presence of dicarboxylic acids via activation of the σ^{54} -dependent *dctA* promoter by the two-component regulatory pair

DctB and DctD (188, 226, 318, 400, 401). Accordingly, a *dctA'*-*lacZ* fusion is not expressed in an *R. meliloti* *rpoN* mutant. A similar transport system may be operating in *A. caulinodans*. By contrast, two succinate transport systems have been characterized in *B. japonicum* strains (178), and since one of them appears to be expressed constitutively, it is likely that σ^{54} is not essential for dicarboxylic acid uptake in *B. japonicum* (332). It should be noted here that *dctA* regulation in *R. meliloti* and *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* may be different under free-living and symbiotic conditions. In contrast to the free-living state, *dctA* expression is still observed in bacteroids of *dctBD* mutants, implying the existence of an alternative activating mechanism in symbiosis (188, 302, 317, 318).

As will be described in more detail further below, the absence of RpoN has little or no effect on *nifA* expression in *B. japonicum* and *A. caulinodans*, respectively. On the basis of this observation and preliminary hybridization data, it is postulated that *A. caulinodans* may contain at least one additional *rpoN*-like gene whose product (RpoN*) has a distinct specificity for the *nifA* promoter (Fig. 2C; also see Fig. 7C) (362). Expression of *R. meliloti* *nifA* has not been tested in an *rpoN* mutant background, but it is predicted that it is diminished because of the lack of readthrough transcription from the σ^{54} -dependent *fixABCX* promoter (see Fig. 7A).

In contrast to the function of their products, the *rpoN* genes of *B. japonicum* differ with respect to their regulation. Expression of *rpoN*₂ is not influenced by the cellular nitrogen or oxygen conditions; thus, it resembles the constitutively expressed *rpoN* genes of *E. coli* (68), *K. pneumoniae* (88, 263), and *R. meliloti* (319). Studies with *rpoN'*-*lacZ* fusions in an *rpoN*₂ mutant background indicate a specific negative autoregulation of *rpoN*₂, but the mechanism and biological significance of this control are not known (217). Nevertheless, it is interesting that expression of *rpoN* in *Pseudomonas putida* may be autoregulated by a similar mechanism (210).

Expression of *B. japonicum* *rpoN*₁ is subject to oxygen control mediated by the FixLJ-FixK₂ cascade (Fig. 2B). Although regulation at the transcriptional level is well known for σ factors other than σ^{54} (e.g., σ^{32} of *E. coli* or σ factors required for sporulation of *Bacillus subtilis* [for reviews, see references 122 and 420]), there are only two other examples known for transcriptional control of a σ^{54} -encoding gene, namely *rpoN* (*nifR4*) of *Rhodobacter capsulatus*, which is subject to control by ammonia and oxygen (192), and the temporally controlled *rpoN* gene of *C. crescentus* (48). Interestingly, *nifR4* also resembles *rpoN*₁ of *B. japonicum* with respect to the absence of the conserved downstream ORFs (see above), and, most notably, it is transcriptionally linked to a *nifU*-like gene (*nifU2*) which allows *nifR4* to boost its low basal expression by positive autoregulation in a NifA-dependent manner (80, 300). On the basis of these observations and the suspected presence of alternative *rpoN* genes in *A. caulinodans* and *Rhodobacter sphaeroides*, it is speculated that these organisms may belong to a group of bacteria which harbor two *rpoN* genes, one which is constitutively expressed and required for housekeeping functions, and a second copy which is induced under specific physiological conditions that require increased expression of (specific?) σ^{54} -dependent genes, e.g., during nitrogen fixation (217). In the future it will be interesting to investigate whether the products of two *rpoN* genes from a given organism can have specific functions by discriminating different σ^{54} -dependent promoters as has been proposed for *A. caulinodans* (362). Apparently, this is not the case for the RpoN proteins of *B. japonicum* with regard to the phenotypes already tested, but they may have additional functions that are not known yet.

NifA

Identification of *nifA* genes. The role of NifA as transcriptional activator for *nif* gene expression was first described in *K. pneumoniae*, and the respective *nifA* gene was the first to be cloned and sequenced (50, 58, 110). Subsequently, it was used as a probe and prompted the identification of *nifA*-like genes in a large number of other diazotrophs. NifA-homologous proteins (VnfA, AnfA) are required for the regulation of alternative nitrogen fixation systems in *Azotobacter vinelandii* and *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (191, 201, 344). To date the DNA sequences have been reported of at least 15 *nifA* genes originating from 14 species including *K. pneumoniae*, *Klebsiella oxytoca* (206), *Azotobacter vinelandii* (34), *Azotobacter chroococcum* (124, 125), *Azospirillum brasilense* (233), *Azospirillum lipoferum* (350a), *Herbaspirillum seropedicae* (355), *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* 3855 and PERE (149, 316), *R. leguminosarum* bv. *trifolii* (183), *R. leguminosarum* bv. *phaseoli* (263a), *R. meliloti* (58, 403), *A. caulinodans* (278, 304), *B. japonicum* (377), and *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (248).

In *R. meliloti*, the *nifA* locus and its regulatory function were originally identified by using Tn5 insertion mutations which resulted in the absence of the *nifHDK* mRNA and the corresponding nitrogenase polypeptides (373, 422). The *nifA* genes of *B. japonicum* and *A. caulinodans* were identified from their homology to the *nifA* genes of *K. pneumoniae* and *R. meliloti*, and their regulatory function has been confirmed by subsequent mutational analysis (127, 296). Null mutations in the *nifA* genes of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* completely abolish symbiotic nitrogen fixation (Fix⁻ phenotype), and, similarly, no free-living nitrogenase activity is detectable in *nifA* mutants of *B. japonicum* and *A. caulinodans* (Nif⁻ phenotype). This reflects the common function of the NifA proteins as transcriptional activator of the structural genes for nitrogenase and genes encoding accessory functions. Interestingly, *K. pneumoniae* *nifA* cannot complement the Fix⁻ phenotype of *B. japonicum* and *R. meliloti* *nifA* mutants, although its product is able to activate the promoters of the nitrogenase structural genes of *R. meliloti* and *B. japonicum* in *E. coli* (11, 335, 339, 371). Although other explanations are possible, this finding may indicate some functional specificity of the rhizobial NifA proteins. Clearly, NifA in rhizobia is also involved in processes not directly related to nitrogen fixation (see below).

The *nifA* genes are located at different relative positions in the genomes of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* (Fig. 1; also see Fig. 7). In *R. meliloti*, the *nifA* gene is found in cluster I between the *fixABCX* operon and the *nifB* gene. The same genetic organization has also been described for other fast-growing rhizobia such as *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* and bv. *trifolii*. In *B. japonicum*, *nifA* is the promoter-distal gene in the *fixRnifA* operon which is located in cluster II upstream of the *fixA* gene. Finally, in *A. caulinodans*, *nifA* is present in cluster I at a distance of ca. 8 kb upstream of the *nifH₁DKE* operon.

Structure and function of NifA. The predicted sequences of all NifA proteins are roughly of similar lengths, varying between 519 (*R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae*) and 626 (*Azospirillum brasilense*) amino acids, except that of *R. leguminosarum* bv. *trifolii*, which has only 353 amino acids. Sequence comparisons indicate that the sequences consist of different domains with variable conservation. This modular protein structure was proposed originally for NifA and NtrC of *K. pneumoniae* (110) and appears to be a common feature of many transcriptional activator proteins that regulate gene expression in concert with the σ^{54} RNA polymerase (for reviews, see references 272 and

286; also see below). The characteristic features of NifA proteins are outlined in Fig. 6, in which the structural and functional domains of representative NifA proteins from *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, *A. caulinodans*, and *K. pneumoniae* are compared.

The N-terminal domains are of quite variable lengths (164 to 216 amino acids) and exhibit a rather low degree of amino acid sequence conservation (29 to 46% identity). So far no functional role could be attributed to this domain of the rhizobial NifA proteins. NifA is probably not a member of a two-component regulatory system. There is no evidence for NifA phosphorylation, and the conserved aspartic acid residue that is typically phosphorylated in response regulators by a cognate sensor kinase is missing in the N-terminal NifA domain. This agrees with the finding that this domain can be deleted without impairing the ability of Nif to activate *nif* target promoters (39, 129, 175). However, the effect of such deletions on nitrogen fixation in symbiosis is not known. Interestingly, the native NifA protein of *R. leguminosarum* bv. trifolii, as an exception, lacks the N-terminal domain entirely, which clearly indicates that it is dispensable, at least in this bacterium (183). Oxygen sensitivity, which is typical for the activity of the rhizobial NifA proteins (see below), is not affected by N-terminal deletions. NifA activity in *K. pneumoniae* is regulated by another regulatory protein, NifL, in response to the cellular oxygen and nitrogen conditions, and it is suggested that the N-terminal domain of the *K. pneumoniae* NifA protein may antagonize the inhibitory effect of NifL under derepressing conditions (111). Currently, there is no evidence for the presence of a NifL-like protein in rhizobia.

The N-terminal and central domains of NifA are separated by a short interdomain linker whose likely function is to tether two adjacent functional domains. Such linkers are commonly found in modular proteins of bacterial signal transduction systems and are named Q-linkers because of their striking content of glutamine residues and other hydrophilic amino acids (416). Deletions extending into the Q-linkers of NifA from *B. japonicum* or *R. meliloti* and insertion of four or eight amino acids into the Q-linker of *K. pneumoniae* NifA do not affect the activation function of the resulting mutant proteins (39, 129, 416).

The central domain of the NifA proteins consists of 240 amino acids and shows a high degree of sequence conservation along its entire length (pairwise comparisons of the NifA proteins from *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, *A. caulinodans*, and *K. pneumoniae* reveal 53 to 72% identical amino acids). This domain is conserved not only in all NifA proteins but also in at least 13 additional transcriptional regulators from 20 different species (for a detailed compilation, see reference 272). Activation of gene expression by these proteins requires RNA polymerase containing the alternative sigma factor σ^{54} , and it is suggested that the conserved central domain is involved in the interaction with σ^{54} RNA polymerase (110, 223, 378). Other members of this protein family include, for example, the NtrC proteins from *K. pneumoniae* (58), *R. meliloti* (372), or *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*) (282); the DctD proteins of *R. meliloti* (188) and *R. leguminosarum* bv. viciae (318); XylR from *P. putida* (184); HydG (365) and FhlA from *E. coli* (251, 341); and LevR and RocR from *Bacillus subtilis* (61, 208, 247). Deletion analysis and expression as separate domains have shown that the transcriptional activation function of the central domains of NifA from *K. pneumoniae* and *R. meliloti*, as well as that of DctD from *R. leguminosarum* bv. viciae, can be separated from the rest of the proteins, albeit with significantly reduced activation levels (175, 177, 269). Likewise, mutant proteins of *B. japonicum* NifA deleted for their C-terminal

domain can weakly activate the *nifH* promoter of *R. meliloti* but not the *nifD* promoter of *B. japonicum* (339).

Similarly to NtrC, *K. pneumoniae* NifA has been shown to catalyze the isomerization of preexisting closed complexes to open forms (268). Recent in vitro experiments confirmed that open-complex formation by both complete *K. pneumoniae* NifA protein and the isolated central domain requires ATP or another nucleoside triphosphate (36, 227). Moreover, in vitro activity of the central domain is inhibited by NifL, and it is hypothesized that NifL interferes with protein-protein contacts between NifA and RNA polymerase (36). A putative binding site for ATP [GE(S/T)GTGKE (Fig. 6)], shown to be critical for *K. pneumoniae* NtrC and NifA activity, is almost perfectly conserved in the N-terminal part of the central domain from all NtrC- and NifA-like proteins (62, 318). It has been proposed that binding and hydrolysis of ATP is a common step during transcriptional activation by σ^{54} -dependent activators (223).

The C-terminal domain of the NifA proteins (DNA-binding domain) contains a highly conserved helix-turn-helix motif located within a segment of variable length (67, 78, and 86 residues in NifA of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans*, respectively) and intermediate sequence similarity (41 to 56% identical amino acids in pairwise alignments). Remarkably, unlike the first helix, which shows a significant degree of conservation among all σ^{54} -dependent activators, the second helix of the DNA-binding motif (recognition helix) is specific for the NifA proteins. This is consistent with a NifA-specific DNA-binding site that differs from those of the other activators. In vivo methylation protection experiments demonstrated the interaction of *K. pneumoniae* and *B. japonicum* NifA with binding sites (see below) located in the 5' regions upstream of NifA-regulated genes (267, 270). DNA binding of *K. pneumoniae* NifA is affected by mutations in the predicted helix-turn-helix motif and also by mutations in the DNA-binding site (269). Attempts to analyze DNA binding by intact NifA in vitro are hampered by the low solubility of overproduced NifA (22, 386; our unpublished results). However, in vitro binding was demonstrated by protection from DNase I digestion by using a purified fusion protein of the maltose-binding protein (MalE) with NifA of *K. pneumoniae* (MalE-NifA), which shows increased solubility over that of native NifA (227). Moreover, the C-terminal portion of *K. pneumoniae* NifA, including the DNA-binding domain, can be overproduced in a soluble form, and this peptide is sufficient to protect DNA from DNase I digestion in vitro (63, 227). These findings support a model that DNA binding of (*K. pneumoniae*) NifA can occur independently of the positive control function of the central domain.

The DNA-binding domain is linked directly to the central domain in the NifA proteins of *K. pneumoniae* and *A. vinelandii*, whereas these two domains are separated by a linker (interdomain linker) of 32 to 44 residues in all other NifA proteins (Fig. 6). The interdomain linker is characterized by two cysteine residues representing the distal residues of an absolutely invariant Cys-X₁₁-Cys-X₁₉-Cys-X₄-Cys motif that spans the boundary between the central domain and the interdomain linker in all NifA proteins except those of *K. pneumoniae* and *Azotobacter vinelandii*. In *B. japonicum*, individual replacement of the four cysteine residues by serine abolishes NifA activity (129). Moreover, the spacing between the two distal cysteine residues is critical but the identity of the intervening amino acids is not (130). Attempts to convert the *B. japonicum* NifA protein into a protein more closely resembling that of *K. pneumoniae* by deletion of the interdomain linker resulted in an inactive protein (our unpublished results). However, this result may not be meaningful, because the

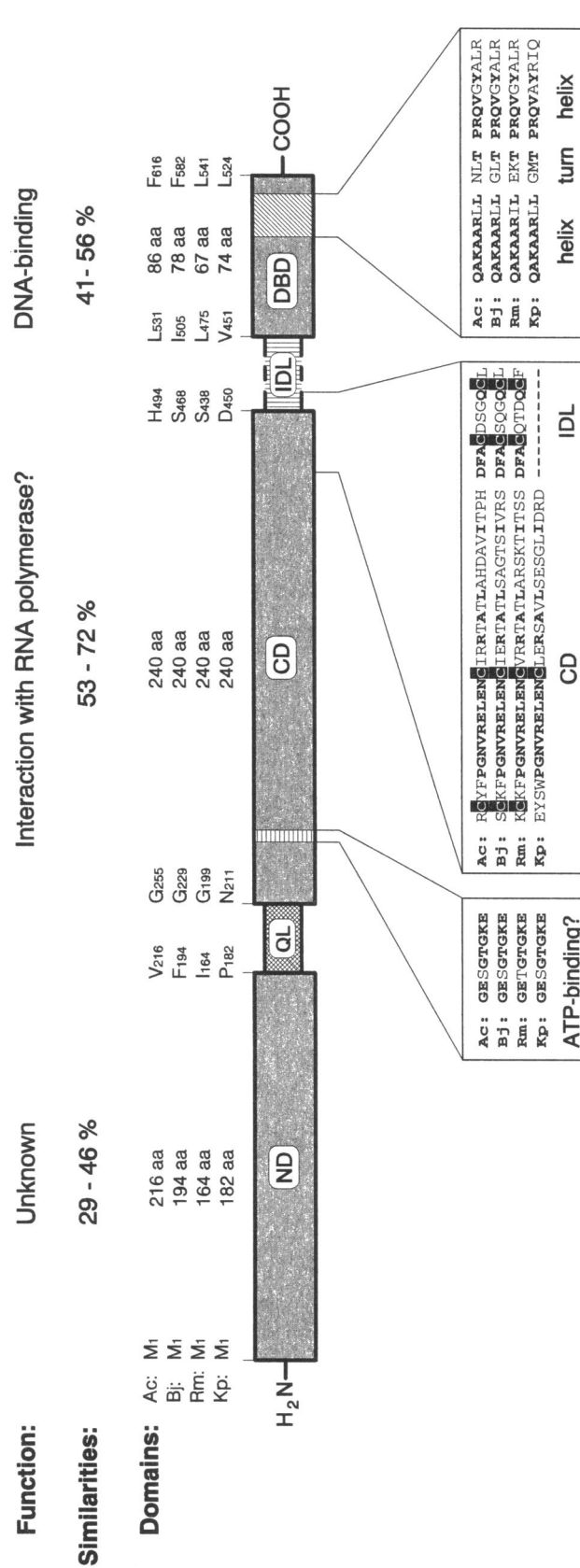


FIG. 6. Comparison of the structural and (proposed) functional domains of the NifA proteins from *A. caulinodans* (Ac), *B. japonicum* (Bj), *R. meliloti* (Rm), and *K. pneumoniae* (Kp). The amino acid (aa) sequences were aligned by using the Genetics Computer Group sequence analysis program PILEUP, and individual domains are indicated according to previous models (110, 129, 257, 272, 416). Common to all shown NifA proteins are the N-terminal domain of low sequence similarity (ND); a so-called Q-linker (QL) rich in glutamine, arginine, glutamate, serine, and proline; the highly conserved central domain (CD); and the C-terminal DNA-binding domain (DBD) containing a helix-turn-helix motif. The interdomain linker (IDL, 36 to 38 amino acids in length) is specific for the rhizobial NifA proteins. The similarity values indicated in the upper part of the figure refer to the percentage of identical amino acids found in pairwise alignments between individual domains of the NifA proteins. The amino acid sequences of characteristic motifs are shown in boxes in the lower part. Amino acids conserved in all aligned sequences are emphasized in boldface letters. Four conserved cysteine residues located at the end of the central domain and in the interdomain linker of all rhizobial NifA proteins are shown in reversed characters. For further details, see the text.

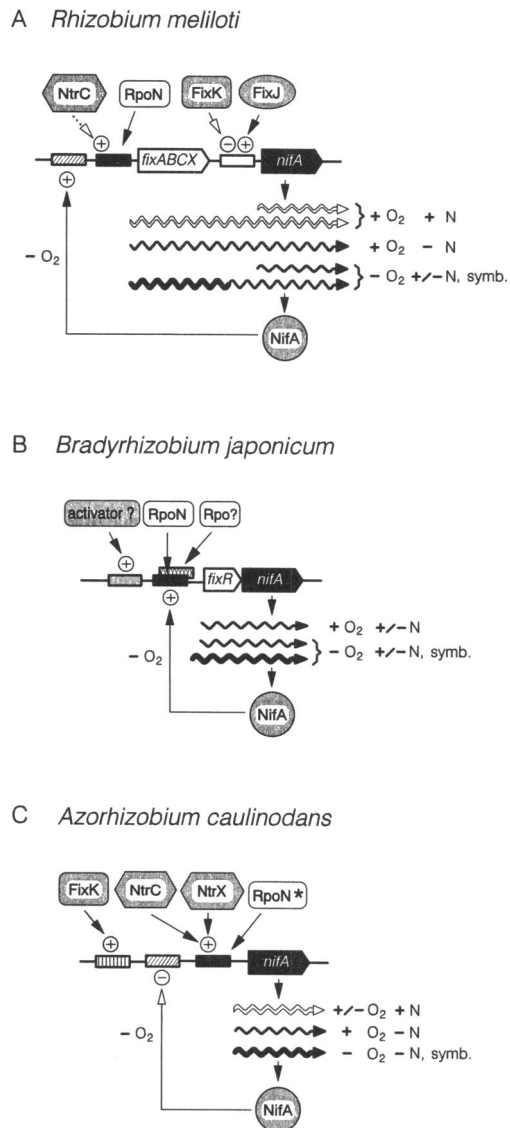


FIG. 7. Transcriptional organization and regulation of the *nifA* genes in *R. meliloti* (A), *B. japonicum* (B), and *A. caulinodans* (C). The schemes are not drawn to scale. Solid wavy lines of different thicknesses symbolize the size and relative abundance of (*fixABCX*) *nifA* transcripts present under the growth conditions described on the right, whereas open wavy lines refer to transcripts that are absent under the conditions indicated. Growth conditions are as follows: aerobic (+O₂), microaerobic or anaerobic (-O₂), nitrogen rich (+N), nitrogen limited (-N), and symbiotic (symb.); +/- means that the respective oxygen or nitrogen conditions are not relevant. Solid and open vertical arrowheads refer to the positive and negative control, respectively. The dotted line with the open arrowhead denotes the symbiotically irrelevant activation of the *R. meliloti fixABCX* promoter by NtrC under free-living conditions (see the legend to Fig. 2). Expression of *R. meliloti nifA* is additionally modulated by ammonia repression via an unknown mechanism involving FixL (not shown in panel A [283]). Similarly, expression of *A. caulinodans nifA* is additionally controlled by *nrfA* via a mechanism that is not yet understood in detail (not shown in panel C [197]). The open box marks the promoter region of *R. meliloti nifA* (*p_{nifA}*). Putative binding sites for NifA and FixK are indicated by diagonally and vertically hatched boxes, respectively. Solid boxes refer to -24/-12-type consensus promoters dependent on σ^{54} (RpoN) and the regulatory proteins NifA, NtrC, or NtrX. The proposed promoter which directs aerobic expression of *B. japonicum nifA* by means of an RNA polymerase containing an unidentified or

remaining domains of this mutant form may fold incorrectly or may not be positioned correctly relative to each other.

The mechanism by which NifA activates transcription from σ^{54} -dependent target promoters has been elucidated predominantly with *K. pneumoniae* NifA, but it is very likely that this represents a universal model not only for NifA-mediated activation in rhizobia and other diazotrophs but generally also for other activators interacting with σ^{54} -RNA polymerase (for reviews, see references 223, 257, and 378). NifA binds to a conserved sequence motif, the upstream activator sequence (UAS) (5'-TGT-N₁₀-ACA-3'), which is present in most (but not all) NifA-dependent promoters at a distance of 80 to 150 nucleotides upstream of the transcriptional start site (10, 53, 55, 267, 270). The function of a UAS is probably to increase the local concentration of NifA in the vicinity of -24/-12 promoters and/or to correctly orientate NifA in order to facilitate a productive interaction with the σ^{54} -RNA polymerase complex (54). However, both NifA-mediated activation of promoters lacking a UAS and activity of mutant NifA proteins deleted for their DNA-binding domain indicate that NifA can also interact directly with the σ^{54} -RNA polymerase (51, 152, 175, 269). It was proposed that the number and location of UAS elements allow for an optimal fine-tuning of *nif* and *fix* gene expression (152).

Interaction of UAS-bound NifA with the σ^{54} -RNA polymerase complex involves loop formation of the DNA region between the UAS and the -24/-12 core promoter (54). As shown originally for the *K. pneumoniae nifH* promoter, this process is facilitated by DNA bending induced by IHF, which binds to a site between the UAS and the core promoter region (336). DNase I and hydroxyl radical protection experiments show that IHF binds to the promoter regions of NifA-dependent promoters from many nitrogen-fixing organisms including the *nifH* promoters from *R. meliloti* and *B. japonicum* (174). Accordingly, DNA sequence motifs resembling the IHF consensus binding site (5'-WATCAAN₄TTR-3') (78, 231) are found in the regulatory regions of *nif* promoters from many organisms (174). Furthermore, IHF stimulates NifA-mediated in vitro transcription from the *nifH* and *nifD* promoters of *B. japonicum* and also from the *nifH* promoter of *R. meliloti* (337). Thus, it seems likely that IHF-like proteins play a regulatory role in the expression of NifA-dependent genes not only in enteric bacteria but also in rhizobia and other diazotrophs. In this context it will be of interest to investigate the effect on nitrogenase activity of null mutations in the recently identified *himA* and *hip* genes of *Rhodobacter capsulatus* which encode the α and β subunits of an IHF-like protein, respectively (383, 384). Furthermore, these genes could be helpful in the identification of homologous genes in related diazotrophs.

Control of NifA synthesis. Apart from their common structural and functional features, the NifA proteins of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* resemble each other in that all of them are regulated at the levels of both expression and activity, although the former control is brought about by different means.

factor (Rpo?) and the binding site for a putative cognate activator protein are represented by a cross-hatched and a shaded box, respectively. RpoN* denotes a distinct σ^{54} factor which is postulated to be required for the specific recognition of the -24/-12-type promoter upstream of *nifA* in *A. caulinodans*. Key references describing the transcriptional regulation of *nifA* include references 2, 28, 82, 103, 203, and 396 for *R. meliloti*; 217, 271, 376, and 377 for *B. japonicum*; and 199, 278, 295, 304, and 362 for *A. caulinodans*. For additional references and further details, see the text.

(i) *R. meliloti*. In *R. meliloti*, transcription of *nifA* is controlled primarily by a FixJ-dependent promoter (p_{nifA}) situated between *fixABCX* and *nifA* (Fig. 7A). Comparatively little is known about the detailed structure of this promoter, which differs from σ^{54} -dependent promoters. Promoter activity is affected by point mutations introduced into the -39-to--54 region relative to the transcriptional start site (2). However, attempts to functionally dissect the *nifA* promoter into a core promoter region and a binding site for FixJ have not been successful (2). DNA sequence comparison between the putative promoter regions of the *nifA* genes from *R. meliloti* and *R. leguminosarum* bv. trifolii suggests that an A+T-rich region between positions -30 and -40 may represent a critical promoter element (183).

Under free-living aerobic conditions, expression from p_{nifA} is very low (203). However, in bacteroids or in free-living cells growing under microaerobic conditions, FixJ-phosphate induces transcription at p_{nifA} , leading to the synthesis of NifA, which in turn activates transcription of *fixABCX* and other NifA-dependent genes or operons in concert with the σ^{54} RNA polymerase holoenzyme (Fig. 2A and 7A) (103). This induction is independent of the cellular nitrogen conditions. Transcription starting from the *fixABCX* promoter continues into *nifA* by readthrough, resulting in a further enhancement of *nifA* expression (58, 203). It is estimated that at least 50% of the transcripts starting at the *fixABCX* promoter include *nifA*. Results from complementation experiments indicate that readthrough transcription of *nifA* is not absolutely required for symbiotic nitrogen fixation (203, 326). In addition to positive (auto)regulation, *nifA* of *R. meliloti* is subject to negative regulation by FixK via an unknown mechanism (28). This mixed regulation, which is reminiscent of the regulation of *fixK*, prevents an unfavorable overexpression of *nifA*. Alternatively, *nifA* expression can be induced to some extent also in free-living, nitrogen-limited *R. meliloti* cells grown under aerobic or microaerobic conditions via activation of the *fixABCX* promoter by the *ntnC* gene product (103, 372). However, this regulatory pathway is probably not relevant during symbiosis since *ntnC* is not essential for symbiotic nitrogen fixation.

Recently, another component has been added to this complex regulatory network. By using β -galactosidase gene fusions, expression of *R. meliloti nifA* has been found to be negatively controlled by ammonia and nitrate (but not glutamate) under free-living, aerobic, and microaerobic conditions (283) (not shown in Fig. 2A and 7A). NtrC and FixK are not required for this type of control, and no effect of ammonia on *fixK* expression is observed; it is probably mediated through the FixL protein since no repression is observed in a *fixL* mutant background. However, it is not known by what means FixL is able to respond to ammonia or nitrate levels and whether transmission of the signal to the level of *nifA* expression involves FixJ or a separate pathway. The significance of this control during symbiosis is uncertain; it may be a mechanism to fine-tune *nif* gene expression in response to fluctuations of ammonia levels in nodules where *nif* gene expression is normally fully induced owing to the microaerobic environment.

(ii) *B. japonicum*. Regulation of *nifA* gene expression in *B. japonicum* is different but similarly complex. The *fixRnifA* operon is expressed at a significant basal level under aerobic conditions, and this expression requires a DNA element located between 50 and 86 nucleotides upstream of the transcriptional start site (Fig. 7B) (376, 377). Extracts of aerobically or anaerobically grown *B. japonicum* cells contain a protein that binds specifically to a 32-bp oligonucleotide spanning a critical adenine at position -66 of the *fixRnifA* promoter, and it is speculated that this protein functions as a

positive regulator for the aerobic expression of this operon. Under microaerobic, anaerobic, or symbiotic conditions, expression of the *fixRnifA* operon is increased ca. fivefold by a process that requires NifA, but it is not known whether autoregulation occurs directly or indirectly. Notably, this type of regulation is detectable only when the *fixR* promoter is present on the chromosome but not when it is located on a plasmid (376). A similar effect, which may be caused by the copy number or differences in DNA topology, has been observed with the *B. japonicum fixA* and *fixB* promoters (152). The symbiotic phenotype of a *B. japonicum* mutant strain carrying a chromosomal deletion between positions -36 and -139 of the *fixRnifA* promoter region is identical to that of a *nifA* strain, suggesting a functional role of the putative upstream element in symbiosis (376). It cannot be excluded, however, that the 3' end of this deletion also affects a core promoter element required for symbiotic expression of *nifA* (see below).

There is a well-conserved -24/-12-type promoter present upstream of the *fixRnifA* operon, which implies that expression of this operon depends on σ^{54} . Point mutations in the -12 region drastically reduce *fixRnifA* expression, but nucleotide exchanges in the -24 region interfere only marginally with aerobic promoter activity (377). Furthermore, in the absence of σ^{54} , aerobic *fixRnifA* expression is not altered, and expression is still elevated under anaerobic or symbiotic conditions, although to only ca. 60% of the level observed in the presence of σ^{54} (217). The absence of a well-conserved UAS for potential NifA binding could mean that in this case NifA activates the *fixRnifA* promoter directly or that autoregulation is indirect.

Transcript analyses performed in different backgrounds revealed the presence of two *fixRnifA* transcripts, one that is independent of NifA and σ^{54} and another that is 2 nucleotides longer, is most abundant under anaerobic or symbiotic conditions, and is dependent on NifA and σ^{54} (271). Both transcripts are present in anaerobically grown cells. These results are consistent with a model which predicts that expression of the *B. japonicum fixRnifA* operon is under dual control by two overlapping promoters recognized by different RNA polymerase holoenzymes (217, 271). Aerobic expression may depend on a σ factor different from σ^{54} (Rpo? in Fig. 7B) and on the postulated activator protein that binds to the upstream region around position -66. The same type of RNA polymerase also contributes to the expression under anaerobic conditions. It remains to be tested whether this σ factor corresponds to σ^{96} present in the RNA polymerase purified from free-living *B. japonicum* cells (305). Under microaerobic or symbiotic conditions, expression is achieved predominantly by the σ^{54} RNA polymerase, which interacts with the -24/-12-type promoter and whose activity is oxygen regulated via NifA (see below). Since this model does not readily explain why anaerobic induction of *fixRnifA* expression is NifA dependent but σ^{54} independent, it was proposed that *fixRnifA* expression may be kept at a basal level under aerobic conditions by a hypothetical repressor whose expression or activity is inhibited under anaerobic conditions by NifA (217). This hypothetical circuitry is not considered in Fig. 7B. However, such a double-negative control would eventually result in positive control and may thus contribute to the positive autoregulation of *nifA* under low-oxygen conditions. In this context it is noteworthy that Fnr of *E. coli* has been shown to mediate both positive and negative control depending on the location of its operator site (358).

In view of the oxygen sensitivity of *B. japonicum* NifA (129, 132), it seems futile to express *nifA* under conditions (aerobi-

osis) that are not compatible with the activator function of NifA. However, it cannot be excluded that *B. japonicum* affords a basal *nifA* expression to have NifA readily available when it is needed, i.e., during the switch from a free-living to a symbiotic lifestyle. Hypothetical activation of preformed, inactive NifA may involve the FixR protein. Both its similarity to NAD-dependent dehydrogenases and its coexpression with NifA would be in agreement with this presumptive function. Reactivation of NifA in *E. coli* has not been observed (218), but these experiments were done in the absence of FixR. It is also conceivable that FixR is involved in functions that are not related to NifA and that *fixRnifA* expression is regulated by physiological parameters other than oxygen. Such a type of control may be mediated by the putative regulatory protein required for aerobic *fixRnifA* expression, which implies that certain physiological conditions may exist under which an aerobic expression level of *fixRnifA* is lower than the values measured so far. Aerobic synthesis of an oxygen-sensitive NifA protein is not observed exclusively in *B. japonicum*. In *Azospirillum brasilense*, *nifA* is expressed from an unidentified promoter not only under conditions of nitrogen fixation but also in the presence of oxygen and ammonia (232, 233). Genetic evidence suggests the existence in *Azospirillum brasilense* of an as yet unidentified activator required for *nifA* expression similar to that in *B. japonicum*.

(iii) *A. caulinodans*. Expression of *nifA* in *A. caulinodans* is regulated in response to both the cellular nitrogen and oxygen concentrations under free-living and symbiotic conditions (Fig. 2C and 7C) (304, 362). The monocistronic *nifA* gene is preceded by a functional $-24/-12$ -type promoter, as indicated by the loss of its activity upon mutation of highly conserved nucleotides at positions -25 and -13 (362). Nitrogen-rich conditions repress *nifA* expression completely, regardless of the oxygen status. In the presence of poor nitrogen sources (e.g., proline, arginine, or leucine), expression is induced to a low level under aerobiosis. Maximal *nifA* expression is observed under microaerobic conditions in the absence or presence of a poor nitrogen source. Nitrogen control of *nifA* expression is mediated by the combined action of two nitrogen-responsive systems, NtrBC and NtrYX, presumably via the $-24/-12$ -type promoter (295, 296). It cannot be excluded that regulation by NtrBC works via NtrYX. On the basis of genetic data, it is postulated that transcription from the *nifA* promoter requires a distinct RpoN-like σ factor (RpoN*) since a mutation in a recently identified gene encoding a conventional σ^{54} protein has no effect on *nifA* expression (362). Oxygen control of *nifA* expression is brought about by the FixLJ-FixK cascade as described (Fig. 2C). An essential sequence motif in the 5' *nifA* promoter region, which exhibits pronounced homology to the consensus binding site for *E. coli* Fnr, may constitute a binding site for FixK (Table 3; Fig. 7C). Both the nature of the corresponding RNA polymerase holoenzyme and the core promoter elements remain to be identified. It may turn out that two different RNA polymerase holoenzymes interacting with closely adjacent or overlapping promoters contribute to the overall expression of the *A. caulinodans nifA* gene similarly to the mechanism proposed for *B. japonicum fixRnifA* expression (see above). In addition, expression of *nifA* in *A. caulinodans* is negatively autoregulated. The mechanism of this control is not known, but it is speculated that it may involve a putative binding site (UAS) for the NifA protein located between the potential FixK-binding site and the $-24/-12$ core promoter (278, 304, 362). Finally, the DNA topology of the *nifA* promoter region may represent an additional regulatory factor, as deduced from the inhibitory effect of gyrase inhibitors under microaerobic conditions (304). A similar phenom-

enon has been reported previously for *nif* gene expression in *K. pneumoniae* and *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (100, 105, 214, 415).

Most recently, a novel *A. caulinodans* gene, *nfrA* (nitrogen regulation factor), which is required for expression of *nifA*, has been identified (197). Interestingly, the *nfrA* gene product is similar to the *hfq*-encoded HF-1 protein of *E. coli*, which is required for replication of bacteriophage Q β RNA. HF-1 is a single-stranded RNA-binding protein and is able to complement an *A. caulinodans nfrA* mutant. This led to the hypothesis that NfrA may be required for *nifA* expression at the posttranscriptional level. Alternatively, NfrA may be involved in the expression of a factor essential for *nifA* transcription such as the postulated σ factor RpoN* (Fig. 7C). *nfrA*-like genes may also be present in *R. meliloti* and *B. japonicum*, as indicated by the presence of cross-hybridizing DNA fragments (197). Future work should elucidate the molecular basis of *nfrA*-mediated control in *A. caulinodans* and determine whether this new control level also plays a role in other diazotrophs.

Control of NifA activity. The structural difference between the NifA proteins of rhizobia and that of *K. pneumoniae* with respect to the presence or absence of the characteristic cysteine-rich motif (cf. Fig. 6) has an interesting functional counterpart. In the absence of its antagonist, NifL, the activity of NifA from *K. pneumoniae* is insensitive to oxygen both in vivo and in vitro (20, 50, 227, 262). By contrast, the in vivo activity of NifA from *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *R. leguminosarum* bv. phaseoli is inhibited by high oxygen concentrations in the *E. coli* background, and the same observation has also been made for the homologous backgrounds with the two former proteins (39, 132, 159, 175). It is therefore tempting to predict that all NifA proteins of the rhizobial type (i.e., those containing the cysteine-rich motif) exhibit oxygen sensitivity. It remains to be investigated whether oxygen per se is required for NifA inactivation or whether positive redox potentials in general mediate this control, as has been proposed for *E. coli* Fnr (389).

On the basis of its similarity to (potential) metal-binding domains present in numerous regulatory proteins (35), the cysteine-rich motif of rhizobial NifA proteins has been proposed to be involved in the binding of a metal ion required for activity and redox sensing (129, 164). This idea is corroborated by the finding that the in vivo activity of the NifA proteins of *B. japonicum* and *R. meliloti*, but not that of *K. pneumoniae*, is sensitive to chelators such as *o*-phenanthroline or EDTA (129). Furthermore, the inhibitory effect of the chelators can be reversed by the addition of divalent metal ions, with Fe²⁺ showing the most pronounced restoration. As an attractive hypothesis, it follows that under low-oxygen conditions a metal ion in its reduced state (e.g., Fe²⁺) may be coordinated by NifA via the cysteine motif, thereby properly positioning the central domain and the DNA-binding domain. Conversely, under aerobic conditions the metal ion may be oxidized, rendering NifA inactive (129). Alternatively, it is possible that the cellular oxygen conditions affect the NifA protein structure directly via the redox state of cysteine sulfhydryl groups which may participate in the formation of disulfide bridges. Finally, the switch from inactive NifA under aerobic conditions to active NifA under microaerobic conditions may involve a change in the oligomerization state similar to that has been proposed for *E. coli* Fnr (225). It appears as if parts of several of these models could be combined, as exemplified by MerR, which controls the transcription of genes conferring resistance to mercury ions in bacteria. Interestingly, the activator form of MerR is a homodimer in which the subunits are bridged by a mercury ion via three cysteine residues (see reference 164 and references therein).

In vivo DNA footprinting experiments in *E. coli* with *B. japonicum* NifA confirmed that aerobic conditions interfere with the positive control function of NifA as assessed by open-complex formation and its binding to the UAS (270). Similarly, exchange of one of the critical cysteines (Cys-472) for serine affects both open-complex formation and DNA binding. These studies also showed that inactive *B. japonicum* NifA is rapidly degraded in *E. coli* upon a shift from microaerobic to aerobic conditions. Furthermore, metal deprivation induced by chelators destabilizes NifA even under microaerobic conditions. Similarly, it has been reported that the NifA protein of *R. meliloti* is degraded in aerobically grown *E. coli* cells by a mechanism involving the Lon protease or the products of either of two uncharacterized *E. coli* loci, *snoB* and *snoC* (176). Mutations in *lon*, *snoB*, or *snoC* result in an increased aerobic activity of *R. meliloti* NifA. From these findings, it has been speculated that aerobic degradation may contribute to the posttranslational regulation of NifA activity. However, it is open whether degradation is the cause or the effect of NifA inactivation under aerobic conditions and whether similar mechanisms are operating in the rhizobial backgrounds.

In vitro mutagenesis of *R. meliloti nifA* and subsequent in vivo screening led to the isolation of oxygen-tolerant NifA mutant proteins which carry a defined Met-217-to-Ile exchange near the putative nucleotide-binding site within the central domain (cf. Fig. 6) (215). As an attractive model it has been proposed that this mutation locks the nucleotide-binding site in a conformation that allows binding or hydrolysis of ATP even under aerobic conditions whereas under the same conditions this interaction is prevented in the wild-type protein by a conformational change induced by oxidation of the postulated redox-sensing metal ion. However, in the light of a potential role for protein degradation in NifA regulation, it seems critical to compare the stability of the mutant protein with that of wild-type NifA, because it cannot be ruled out that enhanced resistance against degradation has contributed to the oxygen tolerance of the mutant protein.

Future progress toward answering the question of how the activity of rhizobial NifA proteins is regulated by oxygen will depend on the availability of purified NifA protein and an in vitro system to assay its activity under defined conditions. Unfortunately, overproduced *B. japonicum* NifA protein appears to be as poorly soluble as that of *K. pneumoniae*, and attempts to adapt an in vitro assay system originally developed for *K. pneumoniae* NifA have so far not been successful (22, 336, 386; our unpublished results). However, recent observations indicate that, unlike a previously studied glutathione *S*-transferase-NifA hybrid, a fusion of *B. japonicum* NifA to MalE shows a significantly increased solubility (23). These experiments had been prompted by similar observations made with *K. pneumoniae* NifA, which finally turned out to be amenable to in vitro studies as a MalE-NifA fusion protein (36, 222, 227, 229). Likewise, progress has been made recently with *E. coli* Fnr, which may serve as another model for the rhizobial NifA proteins. Biochemical studies revealed that purified Fnr may contain up to 1 mol of iron per monomer, and iron (though not anaerobiosis) is critical for in vitro activity (148, 348). Moreover, purified iron-deficient Fnr protein which is unable to activate transcription from a model promoter can be reactivated in vitro by preincubation with Fe²⁺ and β -mercaptoethanol (145). In the light of these advances, it seems promising to reinforce the attempts to study rhizobial NifA proteins in vitro.

NtrBC and NtrYX

The following discussion focuses on the (limited) role of the general nitrogen regulatory (*ntr*) system in nitrogen fixation by *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans*. The reader is referred to detailed reviews for a more general description of the *ntr* system and its role in fixation and assimilation of nitrogen (104, 256, 257, 306). Briefly, the cellular nitrogen status is sensed in *K. pneumoniae* by an uridylyltransferase (GlnD) which transmits the signal via the P_{II} protein (GlnB) to the sensor kinase NtrB. Under nitrogen-limited conditions, NtrB phosphorylates its cognate response regulator NtrC, which in turn activates transcription from the *nifLA* promoter and other σ^{54} -dependent promoters. Under conditions of nitrogen excess, transcriptional activation by NtrC is prevented via dephosphorylation by the phosphatase activity of NtrB, which is dominant under these conditions. Thus, in *K. pneumoniae*, the synthesis of NifA is regulated in response to the cellular nitrogen conditions via the level of phosphorylated NtrC which controls *nifLA* transcription. *K. pneumoniae ntrC* mutants show a characteristic pleiotropic *ntr* phenotype which includes glutamine auxotrophy, the inability to utilize nitrate or amino acids (e.g., histidine, proline, or arginine) as sole nitrogen sources, and the lack of nitrogen fixation.

Genes homologous to *K. pneumoniae ntrBC* have been identified in *R. meliloti* (372), *B. japonicum* (245), and *A. caulinodans* (296), as well as in other members of the *Rhizobiaceae* such as *Bradyrhizobium* sp. (*Parasponia*) (282, 387), *R. leguminosarum* bv. *phaseoli* (293), and *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (324). In addition, an operon encoding a second regulatory pair, NtrYX, which is highly homologous to NtrBC, is present in *A. caulinodans* 4.5 kb downstream of the *ntrBC* genes (295). In contrast to NtrB, which is located in the cytoplasm, NtrY shows two putative transmembrane domains in its N-terminal end, suggesting that it may be involved in sensing the extracellular nitrogen concentration. Generally, the phenotypic properties of either *A. caulinodans ntrC* or *ntrX* mutants are somewhat leaky, possibly because of the presence of the alternative system substituting at least partially the mutated function. Also, it must be considered that distinct two-component regulators may interact by cross talk (281). Attempts to construct *ntrX ntrC* double mutants have apparently been unsuccessful (295).

R. meliloti and *B. japonicum ntrC* mutants are unable to grow on nitrate as the sole nitrogen source, and *A. caulinodans ntrX* or *ntrC* mutants show impaired growth with this substrate. Thus, *ntrC* (*ntrX*) may be required for the synthesis of assimilatory nitrate reductase in these bacteria, in a similar way to that demonstrated in *Azotobacter vinelandii* (382). Growth on amino acids as nitrogen sources is affected in *ntrC* mutants of *A. caulinodans* (and more severely in *ntrY ntrC* double mutants) but not in those of *R. meliloti* and *B. japonicum* (245, 295, 372). In *R. meliloti*, the synthesis of two enzymes involved in glutamine biosynthesis, glutamine synthetases II and III (GSII and GSIII, encoded by *glnII* and *glnT*, respectively), but not that of a third isoenzyme, glutamine synthetase I (GSI or GlnA, encoded by *glnA*), is controlled by NtrC (90). Similarly, expression of *glnII* but not that of *glnA* of *B. japonicum* is dependent on NtrC under aerobic conditions; however, under microaerobic or symbiotic conditions, NtrC can be replaced by NifA (67, 245, 246). On the other hand, *A. caulinodans* contains only one glutamine synthetase activity (GSI), whose expression is not affected by *ntrC* mutations (87, 295).

The functional role of the *ntr* system in *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* differs most significantly with respect to symbiotic nitrogen fixation. Symbiotic properties of

TABLE 5. NifA-dependent genes or functions not directly related to nitrogen fixation

Organism	Target of regulation		Reference(s)
	Gene	Function or product(s)	
<i>R. meliloti</i> , <i>B. japonicum</i> , <i>A. caulinodans</i>	Unknown	Nodule development and bacteroid persistence ^a	87, 127, 171, 373, 422
<i>R. meliloti</i>	<i>nfe</i>	Nodulation competitiveness	354
<i>R. meliloti</i>	<i>mos</i>	Rhizopine synthesis	274
<i>R. leguminosarum</i> bv. phaseoli	<i>mela</i>	Melanin synthesis	159
<i>B. japonicum</i>	<i>groESL₃</i>	Chaperonins Cpn-10 and Cpn-60	128
<i>B. japonicum</i>	<i>ndp</i>	Unknown	406
<i>B. japonicum</i>	<i>glnII</i>	Glutamine synthetase	245

^a In contrast to *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans*, these functions are affected specifically by mutations in *nifA* in *B. japonicum* but not by other mutations resulting in Fix⁻ phenotypes (see the text).

R. meliloti and *B. japonicum* are not affected by mutations in *ntrC*, which is consistent with the NtrC-independent *nifA* expression under these conditions. As mentioned further above, the capacity of *R. meliloti* NtrC to activate transcription of *nifA* and *nifHDKE* under (free-living) nitrogen-limited conditions is physiologically probably not significant. In contrast, mutations in *ntrC* and/or *ntrX* of *A. caulinodans* severely impair both free-living and symbiotic nitrogen fixation, most probably via their effect on *nifA* expression. Moreover, nodule development is disturbed, although to different extents, in root and stem nodules. The last observation may reflect impaired proliferation of the infecting mutant bacteria as a result of a disturbed nitrogen metabolism (295).

In contrast the control of *nif* and *fix* gene expression in symbiosis, there is evidence that ammonia exerts a regulatory effect at the level of *nod* gene expression in *R. meliloti* and *B. japonicum*. According to a recently proposed model for *R. meliloti*, the nitrogen conditions sensed by the *ntr* system affect the expression of the nodulation regulatory genes *nodD₃* and *syrM* by a mechanism involving NtrC and a repressor protein, NtrR (112, 113). However, ammonia control of *nod* gene expression in *B. japonicum* is likely to follow a different route since it is independent of NtrC (399).

REGULATION BY FixLJ-FixK AND NifA IS NOT RESTRICTED TO NITROGEN FIXATION GENES

Several lines of evidence accumulated over the last few years indicate that the roles of FixLJ-FixK and NifA in rhizobia are not limited to the regulation of the nitrogenase and accessory genes but include additional functions which are more generally related to the symbiosis.

FixLJ-FixK-Regulated Functions

Although the role of the FixLJ-FixK cascade of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* differs substantially with respect to the regulation of the central nitrogen fixation genes, the cascade is uniformly involved in the induction of the *fixNOQP* genes under microaerobic conditions in these species (Fig. 2). The *fixNOQP* operon codes for a cytochrome oxidase which is apparently required for respiration by oxygen-limited, free-living rhizobia or bacteroids living under microaerobic conditions in nodules. Moreover, mutational analyses indicate that the FixLJ-FixK₂ cascade of *B. japonicum* also controls anaerobic nitrate respiration. This could mean that FixK₂ of *B. japonicum* plays a similar role to that of Fnr of *E. coli* with regard to control of genes for nitrate respiration. Microaerobically grown *fixLJ* mutants of *B. japonicum* are further characterized by the lack of several *c*-type cytochromes, which is in perfect agreement with their respiratory defects (12). Thus, it

appears as if, at least in *B. japonicum*, the FixLJ-FixK₂ cascade is concerned primarily with the regulation of anaerobic or microaerobic respiration, the latter being indirectly related to symbiotic nitrogen fixation. It may well be possible that there are additional cellular functions which are oxygen regulated by the FixLJ-FixK cascade. In *B. japonicum*, such hypothetical control functions may also include FixK₁, as has already been discussed (Fig. 2B).

NifA-Regulated Functions

Table 5 shows a list of rhizobial genes or functions which are not directly involved in nitrogen fixation even though they are under the control of NifA. Their discussion is the topic of the following paragraphs.

Nodule development and bacteroid persistence. In addition to their inability to fix nitrogen, *nifA* mutant strains of *R. meliloti*, *B. japonicum*, and *A. caulinodans* are characterized by the induction of nodules that show an altered morphology and ultrastructure (87, 127, 171, 373, 422). *nifA* mutants from all three species induce an increased number of small nodules containing fewer bacteroids which degenerate prematurely, compared with wild-type strains. This phenotype is most pronounced for *nifA* mutants of *B. japonicum* and, in contrast to *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans*, is not observed to such a drastic extent with other Fix⁻ mutants of *B. japonicum* (e.g., *nifH* or *nifDK* mutants); i.e., the effect is not an indirect consequence of nitrogen starvation. Interestingly, wild-type nodulation is largely restored in *B. japonicum nifA* mutants by heterologous complementation with *nifA* from *K. pneumoniae*, yet no nitrogen fixation activity is detectable in these nodules (339). Leghemoglobin mRNA and protein are present only at very low levels in soybean nodules elicited by a *B. japonicum nifA* mutant, whereas other nodule-specific proteins (nodulins) appear to be expressed normally (369). These nodules are dark brown to black, and electron-microscopic studies reveal disintegrated bacteroids and peribacteroid membranes. Furthermore, a striking accumulation of the phytoalexin glyceollin I is detected in parallel with localized death of infected cells (291). These features are reminiscent of a hypersensitive response normally observed in incompatible plant-pathogen interactions (207). Thus, it appears as if *B. japonicum nifA* controls functions that help the bacterial symbiont to suppress to overcome potential plant defense reactions and to persist as a nitrogen-fixing bacteroid. This idea is consistent with earlier concepts that describe the *Rhizobium*-plant symbiosis as a controlled disease (106, 390). In fact, more recent analyses at the molecular level demonstrate that rhizobia induce the expression of two enzymes of the plant phenylpropanoid biosynthetic pathway, phenylalanine ammonia-lyase and chalcone synthase, which play key roles in the plant defense

response (123, 151). Moreover, the pattern of induction differs between wild-type rhizobia and ineffective mutants. Exopolysaccharides seem to play a critical role in the suppression of a defense reaction by plants forming indeterminate nodules. Evidence for this comes from the observation that both an exopolysaccharide-overproducing mutant of *Rhizobium* sp. strain NGR234 and an exopolysaccharide-deficient mutant of *R. meliloti* elicit typical plant defense responses on their hosts during the induction of pseudonodules (107, 280). By contrast, however, exopolysaccharides are apparently not essential for the infection of plants forming determinate nodules, such as soybean (see reference 292 and references therein). Future work will be challenged by the characterization of the rhizobial signal(s) whose presence or absence provokes the plant defense response. More specifically, it will be interesting to find the means by which *B. japonicum* NifA contributes to the generation of this hypothetical signal.

***R. meliloti nfe*.** Some *R. meliloti* strains contain one or more cryptic plasmids in addition to the large megaplasmids harboring the symbiotic genes. In *R. meliloti* GR4, one of these plasmids (pRmeGR4b) has been reported to be involved in nodulation efficiency and competitiveness (380). The relevant locus has been identified and characterized by mutation, DNA sequence determination, and transcriptional analysis (333, 334, 354). It contains two contiguous genes, *nfe*₁ and *nfe*₂ (nodule formation efficiency), which encode proteins of predicted molecular masses of 16 and 34 kDa, respectively. Both genes are preceded by a functional σ^{54} - and NifA-dependent promoter, and, in addition, *nfe*₁ is transcribed from a NifA-independent promoter. Accordingly, *nfe*₁ is transcribed at basal level in free-living cells and expression of both *nfe*₁ and *nfe*₂ is probably activated during infection and nodule development by the switch to microaerobic conditions which induce NifA synthesis. Surprisingly, the region encoding *nfe*₁ is homologous to the 5' region of *R. meliloti nifH* and to the noncoding region upstream of *fixABCX*, and it has been proposed that this structure may originate from a transposition event. By contrast, the predicted Nfe₂ protein shows no obvious similarity to any known protein. Thus, although the role of the *nfe* genes in nodulation remains unknown, they show that NifA can have a function in very early stages of the symbiosis, i.e., when nitrogen fixation has not yet started. This is consistent with the reduced competitiveness of a *R. meliloti nifA* mutant (335).

***R. meliloti mos*.** Rhizopines are opine-like compounds that are synthesized in nodules by certain rhizobial strains. The same strains also have the distinct ability to catabolize these compounds (275). Genetic analysis of two rhizopine-producing strains of *R. meliloti* has revealed that the genes required for synthesis (*mos*) and catabolism (*moc*) of the respective rhizopines are closely linked and located on the megaplasmid pSym-a (273, 328). Expression of the *mos* genes but not of the *moc* genes is controlled by NifA. The 5' region of the first ORF of the *mos* locus is highly homologous to DNA sequences from the *nifH* and *fixA* regions of *R. meliloti*, including two well-conserved σ^{54} -dependent promoters and NifA-binding sites (274, 276). Thus, similar to the *nfe* locus, the *mos* genes became subject to symbiotic control, probably as a consequence of DNA rearrangements involving the *nifH* promoter region. Although isogenic *mos*⁺ and *mos* strains show no differences with respect to nodulation and symbiotic nitrogen fixation, the ability to synthesize and catabolize specific compounds may offer an advantage to the proficient strains with regard to persistence in the rhizosphere. Bacteroids in root nodules transform plant-derived photosynthates into rhizopines, which

are then released by senescing nodules and used by its free-living relatives as a selective growth substrate (275).

***R. leguminosarum* bv. *phaseoli melA*.** Melanin production is a common property of numerous strains of *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae*, bv. *trifolii*, and bv. *phaseoli* and also of *R. meliloti* but has not been found in *Bradyrhizobium* strains (79). Activity of the polyphenol oxidase tyrosinase, which catalyzes a step of melanin synthesis, can be detected in colonies of *R. leguminosarum* bv. *phaseoli* and in symbiotically grown cells. Genetic analysis indicates that melanin synthesis by *R. leguminosarum* bv. *phaseoli*, which is not essential for symbiotic nitrogen fixation, involves at least three distinct loci (43, 160). Two of them are located on the symbiotic megaplasmid and have been identified as the tyrosinase structural gene, *melA*, and *nifA*, which is required for *melA* expression (159). The third locus, *melC*, may correspond to *rpoN* as inferred from the pleiotropic phenotype of *melC* mutants (160). It is likely that NifA directly controls *melA* expression since a *melA*'-'*lacZ* fusion can be activated in *E. coli* by *K. pneumoniae* NifA in a σ^{54} -dependent manner (159). By contrast, melanin production by *R. meliloti* GR4 is NifA and RpoN independent (255). The biological significance of melanin production is uncertain. On the basis of its coregulation with symbiotic genes, it is speculated that tyrosinase might contribute to the detoxification of plant phenolic compounds during infection and nodule senescence (159).

***B. japonicum groESL*₃.** During searches for new *nifA*-dependent genes of *B. japonicum*, a multigene family which consists of five highly conserved *groESL* operons encoding the bacterial chaperonins Cpn-10 (GroES) and Cpn-60 (GroEL) has been discovered (128). Chaperonins represent a subgroup of ubiquitous molecular chaperones which prevent aggregation of newly synthesized proteins and assist their proper folding (for recent reviews, see references 33, 156, and 162). Unlike in other organisms studied so far, one of the five *groESL* operons of *B. japonicum*, *groESL*₃, is transcribed from a σ^{54} -dependent promoter under the control of NifA. Hence, the synthesis of the GroESL₃ chaperonins is specifically induced during symbiosis or in free-living bacteria growing under low-oxygen conditions. Although deletion of *groEL*₃ has no effect on the symbiotic properties of *B. japonicum*, a mutant with a Fix⁻ phenotype is obtained when the level of chaperonin synthesis is further affected by additional deletion of *groEL*₄, a homolog that is normally expressed in the wild type under all growth conditions tested (23). A specific chaperonin requirement for nitrogen fixation is consistent with genetic and biochemical data suggesting that both the folding of *K. pneumoniae* NifA and the assembly of newly synthesized nitrogenase proteins are stimulated by *E. coli* GroEL (143a, 144). A *groESL* multigene family is also found in *R. leguminosarum* bv. *viciae* and *R. meliloti* (325, 398). None of the multiple *groESL* operons in these bacteria appears to be controlled by NifA, yet one of the *R. meliloti* GroEL proteins is required for full activity of the NodD₃ protein, a transcriptional activator of nodulation genes (133). Thus, posttranslational control by chaperonins may represent another regulatory level in (symbiotic) nitrogen fixation. In the light of these findings, it appears sensible for *B. japonicum* to balance the ratio between Nif proteins and chaperonins by coregulation of the respective genes. This principle is reminiscent of the boost of σ^{54} synthesis by induction of *rpoN*₁ under microaerobic or symbiotic conditions (Fig. 2B). Moreover, *rpoN*₁ or *groESL*₃ alone is apparently not essential under the conditions applied in a laboratory plant infection test, but the function of these genes may be advantageous under the competitive conditions found in the soil.

***B. japonicum ndp*.** A functional *B. japonicum* NifA-depen-

dent promoter (*ndp*) has been cloned in the course of a search for new NifA-dependent genes by using a promoter-probe vector system (406). If a functional gene is associated with *ndp*, however, it is not essential for symbiosis, as inferred from the wild-type phenotype of a *ndp* deletion mutant. Since no detectable phenotype could be attributed to this region, it may encode a functionally redundant gene or represent part of a pseudogene.

B. japonicum glnII. As mentioned above, *B. japonicum* has two genes encoding glutamine synthetase (*glnA* and *glnII*). Expression of *glnA* appears to be constitutive, whereas *glnII* is under dual control (66, 67, 245, 246). In free-living cells, *glnII* expression is activated by NtrC under aerobic, nitrogen-limiting conditions. By contrast, *glnII* expression is dependent on NifA in microaerobic, free-living cells or in bacteroids in which the presence of combined nitrogen prevents NtrC activity. Thus, this dual regulation allows *B. japonicum* to maintain a continuous level of *glnII* expression during the transition from the free-living state in the soil to the symbiotic state as a bacteroid. However, the necessity for this type of control is not obvious, because *glnII* is dispensable for symbiosis (67). Hence, *glnII* is another example of a rhizobial gene whose expression is coregulated with nitrogen fixation genes via NifA but which is apparently not essential for symbiosis.

CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

In this review I have attempted to provide an overview of the genetic components and principles which mediate the regulation of nitrogen fixation in three rhizobial model organisms. Evidently, control of the central nitrogen fixation genes (i.e., the nitrogenase and accessory genes) is brought about by the same means as in the free-living diazotrophic paradigm, *K. pneumoniae*. These include a specialized promoter type, the $-24/-12$ promoter, RNA polymerase containing a unique σ factor (σ^{54}), and an activator protein (NifA). In fact, the identification of $-24/-12$ promoters in rhizobia has contributed to the recognition of the fundamental significance of this promoter type, which has since been encountered in the context of numerous bacterial functions.

In contrast to this relative uniformity at the level of expression of σ^{54} -dependent, NifA-regulated *nif* and *fix* genes, free-living and symbiotic diazotrophs differ with respect to the regulatory effects of physiological conditions and/or the mechanisms by which these signals are transmitted to the level of *nif* and *fix* gene expression. All diazotrophs prevent the futile synthesis of the nitrogenase complex under aerobic conditions. To this end, both free-living and symbiotic diazotrophs regulate synthesis and activity of NifA, albeit by different means. In the rhizobial species discussed in this article aerobiosis directly interferes with NifA activity, whereas in *K. pneumoniae* an additional protein, NifL, is required for this control. At the same time, NifL regulates the activity of *K. pneumoniae* NifA in response to the nitrogen conditions, a control mechanism that is not found in rhizobia. This difference may explain the dissimilar strategies for controlling NifA activity.

Maximal divergence is found with respect to the regulation of *nifA* transcription among the three rhizobial diazotrophs compared in this review. Nitrogen control is absent in *B. japonicum* and probably not relevant in *R. meliloti*, but it plays a significant role in *A. caulinodans*, similar to its role in *K. pneumoniae*. Thus, the intermediate physiological position of *A. caulinodans* between being either a free-living or a symbiotic diazotroph is reflected at the level of *nifA* expression. Interestingly, the conventional nitrogen regulatory system NtrBC is

accompanied by a novel two-component regulatory system, NtrYX, whose precise role has yet to be defined.

A variety of mechanisms have evolved to regulate *nifA* transcription with respect to the cellular oxygen conditions. In *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans* this control involves the FixLJ two-component regulatory system, whereas in *B. japonicum* *nifA* expression is stimulated under low-oxygen conditions by autoactivation. As a consequence, in *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans* oxygen control of nitrogen fixation genes is exerted at two levels (FixLJ and NifA) whereas in *B. japonicum* it is limited to one (NifA). In this light, aerobic expression of *B. japonicum nifA* may appear meaningful. Analogous to FixLJ in *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans*, a basal level of NifA synthesis is permanently required in *B. japonicum* to monitor the prevailing oxygen concentration and to eventually induce gene expression under appropriate low-oxygen conditions. However, considering that the FixLJ system is present also in *B. japonicum*, it is not evident why this organism has evolved a distinct type of *nifA* regulation.

The *cis* elements required for transcription and regulation of *nifA* are rather poorly defined in all three systems described here. Their further characterization is required not only in view of the fundamental role of *nifA* but also with regard to a better understanding of the structure, function, and control of rhizobial promoters other than those dependent on σ^{54} . Expression of *nifA* in *B. japonicum* appears to originate from two largely independent promoters, and the one which is σ^{54} independent, as well as the predicted activator protein, is essentially unknown. Similarly, the *nifA* promoters of *R. meliloti* and *A. caulinodans*, which are positively regulated by FixJ and FixK, respectively, await further dissection and functional analysis. The recent availability of an *in vitro* system will undoubtedly stimulate future analysis of the *cis* elements involved in transcriptional regulation of *R. meliloti nifA*. Ideally, similar systems should be developed for *B. japonicum* and *A. caulinodans*. These studies will also contribute to a better characterization of the rhizobial RNA polymerase holoenzyme involved in expression of genes that are not dependent on σ^{54} .

The identification of FixLJ and NifA in rhizobia has added two more members to a growing list of bacterial regulatory systems concerned with the control of gene expression in response to the cellular oxygen conditions. Alternative systems include Fnr of *E. coli* and homologous proteins of other bacteria (Table 2), as well as ArcBA (185), OxyR (367) and SoxRS of *E. coli* (92, 93); NifLA of *K. pneumoniae*; RegBA of *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (32, 346); and PrrA of *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* (121). Signal transduction is increasingly well understood at the molecular level in the OxyR, SoxRS, and FixLJ systems, particularly owing to the availability of reconstituted *in vitro* systems (3, 168, 312, 366). Recent progress achieved with respect to the design of *in vitro* systems for *E. coli* Fnr and *K. pneumoniae* NifA should stimulate analogous efforts concerning the analysis of rhizobial NifA proteins. It seems likely that future research on rhizobial nitrogen fixation will continue to contribute to an understanding of fundamental aspects of contemporary biology such as signal transduction and control of gene expression.

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