

Exopolysaccharide-deficient mutants of *Rhizobium meliloti* that form ineffective nodules

(polysaccharide/nodulation/Calcofluor)

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ABSTRACT By screening with the fluorescent stain Calcofluor, we have isolated 26 independent transposon Tn5 insertion mutants of *Rhizobium meliloti* that are deficient in the production of a known extracellular polysaccharide (Exo⁻). The mutants belonged to six distinct genetic groups based on the ability of their Exo⁻ phenotype to be complemented by different recombinant plasmids from a *R. meliloti* clone bank. With few exceptions, all of the mutants formed ineffective (non-nitrogen-fixing) nodules on alfalfa. For all but one group, the complementing plasmids restored effective nodulation. These results establish a firm and extensive correlation between the ability of *Rhizobium* to produce a particular polysaccharide and symbiotic proficiency. The ineffective nodules appeared to contain no bacteroids and to form without shepherds' crooks or infection threads; this symbiotic phenotype matches that described for a set of independently isolated mutants that belong phenotypically and genetically to the group B exopolysaccharide mutants described previously [Finan *et al.* (1985) *Cell* 40, 869–877]. Apparently the exopolysaccharide, although not required for nodule formation, is involved in wild-type nodule invasion.

The interactions between rhizobia and legumes that result in the development of nitrogen-fixing root nodules entail a complex series of events (1–3). Bacteria attach to a root hair, which curls to form a shepherd's crook. Bacterial penetration of the root hair occurs and a tubular infection thread forms, which carries the invading bacteria toward the base of the root hair. Cells deeper in the root cortex divide, and the bacteria are eventually released from the infection thread into the newly formed nodule cells. Nitrogen fixation occurs in the mature intracellular bacteria, called "bacteroids."

Recently it has become clear that the events of nodule formation (the development of root cortical tissue into a differentiated nodule structure) can be uncoupled from the events of nodule invasion (shepherd's crook formation, infection thread formation, and entry of bacteria into host cell cytoplasm). Strains of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* and *Escherichia coli* containing *Rhizobium meliloti* nodulation genes (4–7) and a set of *R. meliloti* mutants at a locus that is also involved in extracellular polysaccharide synthesis (this paper; ref. 8) all form empty nodules (containing no intracellular bacteroids) without (or before) the development of shepherd's crooks or infection threads. It was recently reported that root cortical cell division in soybean can occur independent of infection thread formation, root hair curling, or even bacterial attachment (9, †).

A possible role for *Rhizobium* polysaccharides in the nodulation process has been a subject of great interest for a number of years (11, 12) but has not been demonstrated conclusively (13), although a single mutant that produced no

water-soluble polysaccharide and formed ineffective (non-nitrogen-fixing) nodules was reported recently (14). In this paper we describe the isolation of an extensive set of mutants of *R. meliloti* that, though genetically diverse, all fail to produce a particular extracellular polysaccharide (exopolysaccharide, EPS). These mutants form ineffective nodules, thus establishing a firm correlation between the ability of *Rhizobium* to produce the polysaccharide and the ability to form a normal nitrogen-fixing nodule. The nodulation function associated with the polysaccharide appears to be in nodule invasion as opposed to nodule formation. A preliminary report has appeared (15).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Genetic Manipulations. Bacterial strains and plasmids are listed in Table 1. LB and M9 media were as described (21), except that M9 medium contained 1 mmol of MgSO₄, 0.25 mmol of CaCl₂, and 1 mg of biotin per liter. Nitrogen-free M9 medium omitted the NH₄Cl. Liquid cultures of *E. coli* were routinely grown in LB medium and *R. meliloti* was grown in LB medium supplemented with CaCl₂ (2.5 mM) and MgSO₄ (2.5 mM). Transposon Tn5 insertions in *R. meliloti* were made by mating *E. coli* strain 1830 or strain MM294A (pRK602) with *R. meliloti* strain Rm1021, RM5000, or Rm3357. Neomycin-resistant *R. meliloti* arose at a frequency of 10⁻⁵ with strain 1830 and 10⁻⁴ with strain MM294A (pRK602). Antibiotic levels used were streptomycin sulfate, 500 µg/ml, rifampin, 50 µg/ml, and neomycin sulfate, 200 µg/ml. Exopolysaccharide-deficient (Exo⁻) mutants were obtained by screening for lack of fluorescence on LB agar containing 0.02% Calcofluor white M2R (Cellufluor, Polyscience, Warrington, PA), using a hand-held UV lamp (long-wave). To test for cotransduction of Tn5 with EPS deficiency, neomycin resistance was transduced (22) and colonies were screened for fluorescence on LB agar with Calcofluor. Recombinant plasmids that complemented the Exo⁻ mutants were isolated from an *R. meliloti* clone bank on cosmid pLAFR1 obtained from Fred Ausubel. A triparental mating was performed [MM294A (pRK2013) × HB101 (pLAFR1) × *R. meliloti* Exo⁻] and colonies were screened for fluorescence on LB or M9/glucose agar containing Calcofluor. Tetracycline HCl was used at a concentration of 10 µg/ml.

Detection, Isolation, and Analysis of EPS. EPS production in liquid culture was achieved by overnight incubation of the culture in nitrogen-free M9 medium. EPS was detected by adding Calcofluor to 0.02%, centrifuging on an Eppendorf centrifuge for 1 min, and viewing the supernatant and pellet under UV light. To detect hexadecyltrimethylammonium

Abbreviation: EPS, exopolysaccharide.

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Table 1. Bacterial strains and plasmids

Strain or plasmid	Relevant properties	Source or ref.
<i>R. meliloti</i> strain		
SU47	Wild type	16
Rm1021	Sm ^r derivative of SU47	F. Ausubel
Rm5000	Rif ^r derivative of SU47	T. Finan
Rm3357	SU47 <i>str-3 spc-1 rif-1 his-39 leu-53 nov-57</i>	17
<i>E. coli</i> strain		
1830	<i>pro met nal</i> (pJB4JI)	18
MM294A	<i>pro-82 thi-1 endA1 hsdR17 supE44</i>	G. Walker
HB101	<i>rpsL20</i> (Sm ^r) <i>proA2 recA13 hsdS20</i> (rB ⁻ , mB ⁻) <i>supE44</i>	G. Walker
Plasmid		
pJB4JI	pPH1::Mu::Tn5, contains Gm	18
pRK2013	Nm ^r , ColE1 replicon containing transfer functions of RK2	19
pRK602	pRK2013 nm::Tn9 containing Tn5	T. Finan
pLAFR1 clone bank	Tc ^r , <i>R. meliloti</i> genes cloned onto cosmid vector pLAFR1	20
pD34	Exo ⁻ group A-complementing plasmid from clone bank	This work
pD2	Exo ⁻ group B-complementing plasmid from clone bank	This work
pD15	Exo ⁻ group C-complementing plasmid from clone bank	This work
pD5	Exo ⁻ group D-complementing plasmid from clone bank	This work
pD82	Exo ⁻ group B- and F-complementing plasmid from clone bank	This work

Sm^r, streptomycin resistant; Rif^r, rifampin resistant; Nm^r, neomycin resistant; Tc^r, tetracycline resistant; Gm^r, gentamycin resistant.

bromide (cetrimide)-precipitable material the culture was centrifuged and cetrimide (0.3 part of a 1% solution) was added slowly to the supernatant while stirring. A large-scale isolation of the polysaccharide was achieved by cetrimide precipitation (23) after a 2-day incubation of *R. meliloti* Rm1021 in nitrogen-free M9 medium. The yield was 0.25 mg/ml of culture supernatant.

For determination of monosaccharide composition, the EPS was hydrolyzed in 2 M HCl for 5 hr at 100°C. The hydrolysate was dried under a vacuum in the presence of NaOH pellets to remove HCl, redissolved in water, and dried again. Sample dissolved in water was applied to a cellulose thin-layer chromatography sheet, developed with 1-butanol/pyridine/water (6:4:3), and visualized with a spray of 1.23% *p*-anisidine/0.166% phthalic acid in ethanol.

Proton NMR spectroscopy was done on a Bruker WM250 Fourier-transform instrument at 80°C. Sample (40 mg of dry weight) dissolved in water was sonicated to aid in dissolution and decrease viscosity. The solvent was ²H₂O, and the chemical-shift standard was sodium 3-(trimethylsilyl)-1-propanesulfonate (trimethylsilyl protons = 0 ppm). Fluorescence microscopy was done with an Olympus model BH fluorescence microscope, using exciter filter UG1 and barrier filter L420.

Phage Sensitivity Tests. Phage resistance patterns were determined in spot tests (24). The absence of a spot or the presence of a turbid spot indicated resistance. Calibration of the spot tests with a representative of each mutant group showed that resistance corresponded to plaquing efficiencies (titering method of ref. 22) of <10⁻⁶, except that ϕM5 formed plaques on the groups B and E mutants with efficiencies of 10⁻³ to 10⁻⁴.

Plant Nodulation Tests. Plants were grown on Petri dishes of Jensen's agar (25). A notch was melted into the edge of the Petri dish through which the plant emerged. Seeds of *Medicago sativa* cv. Iroquois were surface sterilized in a 1:1 mixture of water/5.25% sodium hypochlorite (Clorox) for 20 min. Seeds of *Melilotus alba* (a gift from Fred Ausubel) were surface sterilized in concentrated H₂SO₄ for 10 min. Nitrogen fixation was determined by plant growth and acetylene reduction by excised nodules. The bacterial content of nodules was determined after surface sterilization in 20% (vol/vol) Clorox for 2 min, followed by rinsing in water and LB medium and crushing in LB medium containing 0.3 M glucose.

RESULTS

Isolation and Genetic Characterization of Mutants. Colonies of *R. meliloti* strains Rm1021 and Rm5000 grown on LB agar containing Calcofluor exhibited a blue-green fluorescence when irradiated with long-wave UV light (8), as reported for the related bacterium *A. tumefaciens* (26). The fluorescence was also apparent on M9/glucose, M9/galactose, and M9/succinate agar containing Calcofluor. By screening random Tn5 insertion mutants on LB/Calcofluor agar, we isolated 26 mutants that produced nonfluorescent colonies ("Calcofluor-dark", ref. 8); these were found at a frequency of ≈1 for every 3000 neomycin-resistant colonies. In the majority of cases, the Calcofluor-dark phenotype was cotransducible with neomycin resistance of Tn5 (Table 2). As discussed below, these mutants appear to be defective in the production of the major acidic EPS of *R. meliloti*.

A *R. meliloti* cosmid clone bank was conjugally transferred into the mutants Rm7061, Rm7034, Rm7002, Rm7082, Rm7015, and Rm7005, and strains containing a complementing recombinant plasmid were detected by their fluorescence on LB or M9/glucose agar containing Calcofluor. We were able to classify the mutants into six distinct genetic groups on the basis of their ability to be complemented by five different recombinant plasmids (Table 2). Plasmids pD34, pD2, pD15, and pD5 complemented the mutants in groups A, B, C, and D, respectively. Plasmid pD82 complemented the mutants in

Table 2. Exo⁻ mutants of *R. meliloti*: Complementation by recombinant plasmids from a *R. meliloti* cosmid clone bank

Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D	Group E*	Group F
		Rm1021 background			
Rm7061	Rm7094	Rm7020	Rm7017	Rm7022	Rm7055
Rm7034	Rm7082	Rm7027	Rm7043	Rm7029	Rm7056
Rm7023			Rm7053		
Rm7031			Rm7054		
Rm7032					
		Rm5000 background			
Rm7011	Rm7002	Rm7015	Rm7005†	Rm7006†	
Rm7009	Rm7013				
Rm7016	Rm7014				

Tn5 cotransduces with EPS deficiency except where noted. Strains Rm7061, Rm7034, Rm7023, Rm7094, Rm7082, Rm7020, Rm7027, Rm7017, Rm7043, Rm7022, and Rm7029 were isolated by crossing *E. coli* strain 1830 with *R. meliloti* strain Rm3357 and subsequently transducing neomycin resistance into strain Rm1021. Strains Rm7002, Rm7005, and Rm7006 were obtained by crossing *E. coli* strain 1830 with *R. meliloti* strain Rm5000. Strains Rm7031, Rm7032, Rm7053, Rm7054, Rm7055, and Rm7056 were obtained by crossing *E. coli* strain MM294A (pRK602) with strain Rm1021. Strains Rm7011, Rm7009, Rm7016, Rm7013, Rm7014, and Rm7015 were obtained by crossing *E. coli* strain MM294A (pRK602) with strain Rm5000.

*Not complemented.

†Tn5 does not cotransduce with EPS deficiency.

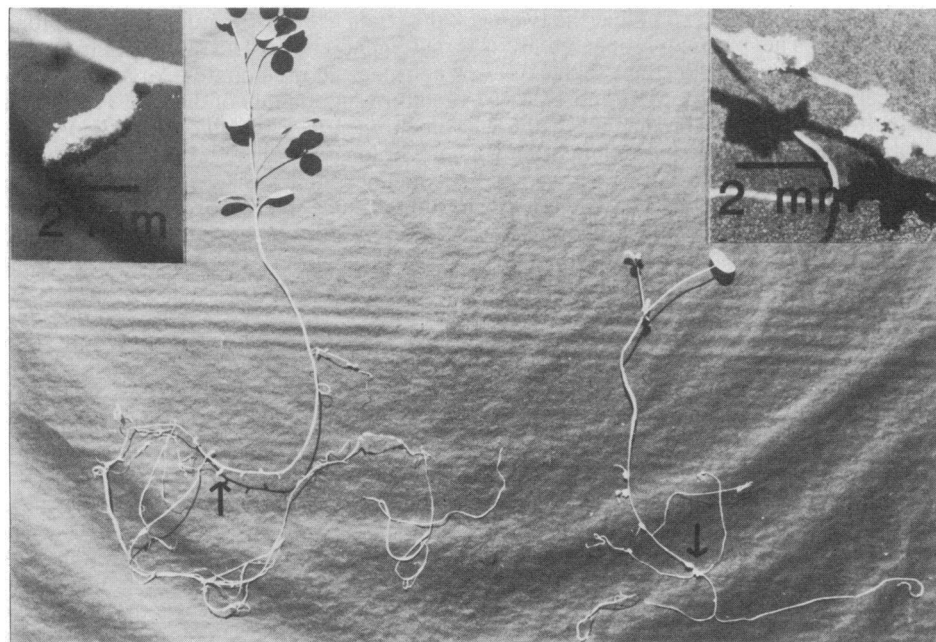


FIG. 3. Nodules formed by wild-type strain Rm1021 (*Left Inset*) and a representative EPS-deficient mutant (Rm7017, *Right Inset*) shown 30 days after inoculation. Nodules indicated by arrows are shown in *Insets*.

week after inoculation. Approximately 10 nodules of the typical pink, cylindrical appearance were present per plant after 3 weeks. In contrast, all of the Calcofluor-dark Exo^- mutants described above formed round, white, ineffective nodules (blanched, stunted plants and no detectable acetylene reduction) on *M. sativa* (Fig. 3), with the exceptions of two of the incompletely dark group D strains (Rm7053 and Rm7054), which formed nodules that were indistinguishable from those formed by wild-type Rm1021. Similarly, representatives of each mutant group formed round, white, ineffective nodules on *M. alba*. The nodules induced by the mutants on *M. sativa* remained white and ineffective for at least 6 weeks (until the agar growth medium dried up), except that the nodules formed by the group F strains Rm7055 and Rm7056 sometimes turned pink and began to acquire a cylindrical shape after 3–6 weeks, at which time they were effective as determined by acetylene reduction and renewed growth of the plant. Nodules induced by mutants in groups A, B, D, and F first appeared at about the same time as nodules induced by wild-type Rm1021 or Rm5000 but tended to exceed the wild-type nodules in number after 3 weeks. Nodules induced by mutants in groups C and E appeared several days later and were fewer in number. Members of groups A–C and F, containing a complementing plasmid, formed normal, effective nodules on *M. sativa*. The group D mutants Rm7017 and Rm7043 formed only white, ineffective nodules even when containing the recombinant plasmid that suppressed the defect in fluorescence in Calcofluor-containing medium.

The ineffective nodules induced by our Calcofluor-dark Exo^- mutants were similar to those induced by the set of independently isolated spontaneous mutants mentioned above, which were found to be Exo^- (Calcofluor-dark) and to belong to group B. Thus, in contrast to effective nodules, crushing of the nodules formed by our mutants on *M. sativa* released few, if any, bacteria as judged by light microscopy and plating for colonies. Those few bacteria that were observed presumably existed superficially and intercellularly as reported (8). More detailed observations by Ann Hirsch (personal communication) confirmed that the nodules contained no intracellular bacteroids and showed that, although the bacteria appeared to attach to the root hairs, the forma-

tion of shepherds' crooks and infection threads was absent or delayed. Nodules that were quite old sometimes developed infection threads secondarily. The nodules were organized differentiated structures with a distal meristem, a distinct endodermis that separated the nodule cortex from the main body of the nodule, and peripheral vascular bundles; they were not the tumor-like structures that have been reported (30, 31).

DISCUSSION

Our finding that a genetically diverse but phenotypically homogeneous set of Exo^- mutants is almost uniformly Fix^- (forming non-nitrogen-fixing nodules) suggests that the *R. meliloti* acidic EPS is intimately involved in the formation of an effective nodule. Among our completely Calcofluor-dark mutants (groups A–C, E, and F), the only deviations from the strictly Fix^- phenotype occur with the two group F strains Rm7055 and Rm7056, which form ineffective nodules that sometimes become effective only after a long delay. Furthermore, recombinant plasmids that complement the defects of groups A–C and F mutants in Calcofluor fluorescence also restore their Fix^+ phenotype. The simplest interpretation of this set of observations is that the symbiotic deficiency of the Exo^- mutants described in this paper is a consequence of their deficiencies in polysaccharide production.

Since the ineffective nodules formed by the Exo^- mutants appear similar in their absence of shepherds' crooks, infection threads, and bacteroids to those formed by a set of independently isolated group B mutants (8), the defect associated with the polysaccharide deficiency seems to be in nodule invasion as opposed to nodule formation. There are several possible roles of the EPS in the invasion process. The polysaccharide might serve as a signal for the induction of a step in the invasion process, such as shepherd's crook or infection thread formation. Several reports have presented evidence that rhizobial extracellular factors promote root hair deformation or infection thread formation (32–35). Alternatively, the polysaccharide might be a structural component of the nodule, possibly the infection thread matrix, which has been suggested to be of rhizobial origin on the basis of its staining properties (see ref. 2). It will be interesting to see if

the infection threads that sometimes form secondarily contain a normal thread matrix.

The precise nature of the molecular defects of the Exo⁻ mutants described in this paper remains to be established. As we have discussed, a distinguishing phenotype of these mutants is that they are defective in the production of the major acidic EPS of *R. meliloti*. Since the Exo⁻ mutants were all identified because of a deficiency in the production of Calcofluor-staining material it seems likely that at least some of the Exo⁻ mutations are in genes coding for proteins involved in the biosynthesis of the acidic polysaccharide. Some other mutations may cause more general alterations in the cell membrane or cell surface that interfere indirectly with EPS production; the group C mutants, which are resistant to the nine *R. meliloti* phage tested, may possibly have this type of defect. The nature of the defects in the group D mutants is unclear. These mutants exhibit a slight Calcofluor fluorescence and produce a small amount of cetrimide-precipitable material. However, two of the group D mutants give rise to effective nodules, whereas two others form ineffective nodules even when a recombinant plasmid that enhances EPS production is present. The symbiotic deficiency of these latter two mutants could arise from an effect that is distinct from their partial EPS deficiency, such as a membrane defect.

A great variety of polysaccharides is produced by various microbes, many of which are of known importance in agriculture, medicine, and industry (36–39). Nevertheless, the biosynthesis of many of these polysaccharides has not been characterized. A preliminary biochemical study of the synthesis of the *R. meliloti* acidic EPS has appeared (10), but, to our knowledge, the genetic characterization of a known rhizobial polysaccharide has not been reported previously.

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