

nif Genes in Alien Backgrounds

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nif genes in alien backgrounds

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Since the original construction of diazotrophic Escherichia coli by conjugal transfer of nif genes from Klebsiella pneumoniae in 1972, the manipulation of nif genes into alien prokaryotic backgrounds has become routine: much of the basic genetics of the K. pneumoniae nif cluster was elucidated in an E. coli background. Gene transfers to new species and genera can give new information regarding the stability of nif genes and, particularly, conditions for their expression; recipients in which nif is partly expressed, or not expressed at all, are especially useful. Appropriate examples are discussed. New diazotrophic prokaryotes show little promise for practical exploitation but their construction should give forewarning of problems to be expected in the construction of diazotrophic eukaryotes, as well as hints concerning the ecology and evolution of diazotrophy.

1. Introduction

The first intentional transfer of functional nitrogen fixation (nif) genes to an alien genetic background was the generation, by plasmid-mediated conjugation, of nitrogen-fixing (diazotrophic) derivatives of Escherichia coli C-603 able to utilize the nif genes of Klebsiella pneumoniae M5a1 (Dixon & Postgate 1972). This advance was followed rapidly by the apparent mobilization of nif from Rhizobium trifolii to Klebsiella aerogenes (Dunican & Tierney 1974). The gene transfers to E. coli exploited the linkage of the histidine operon (his) with nif genes on the K. pneumoniae chromosome: in intraspecific conjugational and transductional crosses, nif was already known to co-transfer with his readily. The his and nif genes are now known to be contiguous, so recipients carrying mutations in his are particularly suitable for intergeneric transfer of K. pneumoniae DNA carrying nif because direct selection for Nif⁺ is difficult.

The diazotrophic *E. coli* hybrids were of two types: one in which the *nif* genes of *K. pneumoniae* became integrated into the *E. coli* chromosome (Cannon *et al.* 1974*a*), and others in which genetic evidence, and the limited physical techniques then available, indicated that the *K. pneumoniae* DNA had formed plasmids in *E. coli* carrying at least some *nif* genes (Cannon *et al.* 1974*b*). Indirect evidence suggested that the *nif* genes from *R. trifolii* were on a plasmid, which had become transferred to *K. aerogenes*, a view which was supported in principle a decade later with the discovery of natural *nif* plasmids in rhizobia (Nuti *et al.* 1979). These experiments clearly adumbrated the possibility of transferring diazotrophy to other unusual hosts. Eukaryotic plants were a particularly popular choice as host (see, for example, Streicher *et al.* 1972; Postgate 1974, 1977*a*, *b*, 1980, 1987; Hardy 1976; Discussion 1976; Gibson *et al.* 1977; Dixon 1978; Postgate & Cannon 1981; Shanmugam 1982; Dixon *et al.* 1983; Merrick & Dixon 1984), although animals were not wholly neglected (see, for example, Postgate 1974, 1977*b*). Genetic studies on *nif*, however, concentrated on analysis of gene structure and regulation, first in *K. pneumoniae* and later in other prokaryotes such as cyanobacteria, azotobacters and rhizobia (see, for example, Evans *et al.* 1985*b*). As the structural complexity of the *nif* regulon became

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approximate

counts per millilitre

Table 1. Transconjugation frequencies of His⁺ and Km^r phenotype in matings with the *nif* plasmids pRD1 and pMF250

(The plasmids are described in the text. Donor strains used E. coli JC5466 his trp spc carrying either pRD1 (carries his nif Km Tc Cb etc.) or pMF250 (carries his nif Km), recipient strains as below, over night mating on 'Luria' agar at 30 °C with subsequent selection for Km' or Km'+His+; Sm'+trp⁻ counterselection of donor. Loss of His⁺ is taken as implying loss of Klebsiella DNA carrying nif.

							plasmid transfera	cotransfer of	
[recipient	genotype	plasmid	His+ Kmr	Km^{r}	unselected	l (% donor)	His* with Kmr (%)	
16	Proteus mirabilis WR20	his nic str	pRD1	7×10^2	1.2×10^6	1.4×10^{9}	0.17	0.058	
32			$_{ m pMF250}$	6×10^7	1.7×10^{8}	2.7×10^9	12	35	
]	Erwinia herbicola Y741	his	pRD1	4	က	5.5×10^8	0.000001	75	
			$_{ m pMF250}$	3.2×10^{1}		7.6×10^8	0.000005	۲ ۲	
	Pseudomonas putida MT20-3	his (Tol ⁻)	pRD1	2.5×10^5	2.4×10^5	3×10^8	8.0	96	
			$_{ m pMF250}$	1.9×10^{5}	1.6×10^{5}	4.5×10^8	0.4	84	
	E. coli 1533	arg leu met his str	pRD1	7×10^7	1.4×10^{7}	1.4×10^{8}	100	50	
			pMF250	1×10^8	1.3×10^8	4.4×10^8	20	100	

^a Frequencies calculated assuming 50% of mated population was donor.

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revealed (see Postgate (1982) for a survey), together with its elaborate regulatory system (see Dixon 1984), the naivety of some of the early excitement over diazotrophic plants became obvious. Nevertheless, experiments on the expression of *nif* in alien genetic backgrounds continued, because it is a strategy which would give information on the prerequisites for stability, control and efficiency of *nif* in new conditions.

A valuable tool in such studies was the availability of self-transmissible genetic elements carrying nif genes. The first of these was the F-prime FN68 (Dixon 1974) which was a selftransmissible plasmid of the incF incompatibility group constructed in E. coli but carrying K. pneumoniae DNA including his nif; it was rather unstable in certain hosts (Cannon et al. 1976). It was superseded by the relatively stable plasmid pRD1, which carries the same segment of K. pneumoniae DNA and which has played a fundamental part in the genetic analysis of nif because it can carry stable mutations, deletions and fusions; it was also the parent of all recombinant clones of K. pneumoniae nif (Kp nif). (We shall use the abbreviation Kp nif for nif DNA originating in Klebsiella pneumoniae.) Plasmid pRD1 was derived from the incP plasmid RP4 (Dixon et al. 1976) (it was originally called RP41) and, in addition to its quota of K. pneumoniae DNA plus (probably) some E. coli DNA acquired during its construction (see Puhler et al. 1979), it carries the drug-resistance determinants of RP4: kanamycin (Km), tetracycline (Tc) and ampicillin/carbenicillin (Cb) resistance. A derivative, pMF100, prepared by Dr Mechthild Filser (Filser 1979) with these drug-resistance genes removed, was valuable in mapping nif (see, for example, Merrick et al. 1980). A derivative of pMF100, pMF250, in which kanamycin resistance has been restored by insertion of Tn5, has proved to be markedly more stable than pRD1 in intergeneric transfers to Proteus mirabilis (Postgate & Kent 1985) but less stable in transfers to Erwinia herbicola (table 1). Two multicopy recombinant plasmids carrying the whole Kp nif have been constructed: pWK120 (Puhler et al. 1979) and pEFC6 (mentioned by Cannon et al. 1985); the former conferred Nif⁺ on E. coli C603.

2. Kp nif in other bacteria

In coliform hosts

The initial transfer of *Kp nif* to *E. coli* yielded diazotrophic hybrids which were both NH₄-repressed and O₂-sensitive (Dixon & Postgate 1972), thus implying the presence of appropriate regulatory apparatus in the new hosts. This was the earliest evidence for an operon-like structure for *nif*; in due course *Kp nif* became revealed as a contiguous cluster of operons which has been called a 'regulon' (see Postgate 1982), itself regulated by the three nitrogen regulation genes: *ntrA* and the *ntrBC* operon, the latter contiguous with the structural gene for glutamine synthetase *glnA* (see figure 1 and Dixon, this symposium). Interspecific *nif* transfer was used to show that *Kp nif*, transferred to non-diazotrophic *Klebsiella aerogenes* which had a mutation leading to constitutive (i.e. non-NH₄-regulated) expression of *glnA* (the 'GlnC-' phenotype), also escaped NH₄-repression of *nif* (Tubb 1974). Physiological studies with an anti-metabolite (Gordon & Brill 1974) and interspecific transduction of the 'GlnC-' phenotype into diazotrophic *K. pneumoniae* (Streicher *et al.* 1974) led to the same conclusion: that *nif* was regulated by a system common to the utilization of other N-sources such as histidine, proline and arginine as well as regulating the synthesis of glutamine synthetase. That system is now widely known as the *ntr* system (see Kustu *et al.* 1986).

Transfer of Kp nif on pRD1 (Kennedy & Postgate 1977) or FN68 (Skotnicki & Rolfe 1976)

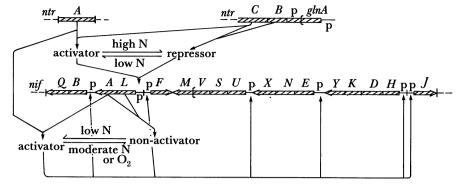


FIGURE 1. Model for ntr regulation of nif in K. pneumoniae. The diagram shows the products of ntrC and ntrA forming, in low-N conditions, an activator which acts at the promoter of the nifLA operon (the fact that it also activates the glnA promoter is omitted). In high-N conditions a repressor is formed by interaction of ntrB. Activation of nifLAp at low N in the presence of the ntrA product leads to an activator for all other promoters within the nif regulon. At intermediate levels of N, or as a result of sensing dissolved O₂, the nifL product intervenes, suppressing the activator function of the nifA product. (For details, see Dixon (1984).)

to $E.\ coli\ narD\ (=chlD)$ mutants, which are defective in an early stage of processing Mo for nitrate reductase synthesis, showed that the narD gene product is also necessary for processing Mo for nitrogenase synthesis. The nitrogenase peptides were detected in the $narD^-$ background (see, for example, Kennedy & Postgate 1977) although they are unstable in Mo-starved $K.\ pneumoniae$ (Brill $et\ al.\ 1974$). The phenotype of $narD^-\ nif$ hybrids resembles that of the nifQ mutation in that nif expression occurs at relatively high molybdate concentration (Imperial $et\ al.\ 1984$). Skotnicki & Rolfe (1979) reported that fnr mutants of $E.\ coli\ did$ not express $Kp\ nif$ on FN68 and proposed that nif regulation in response to O_2 might be linked to general control of the synthesis of redox enzymes. However, Hill (1985) reinvestigated the matter with the more stable pRD1 and obtained normal nif expression in five fnr mutants of $E.\ coli\ did$

Experiments on the expression of cloned fragments of Kp nif in E. coli have been informative in the context of gene function: by such experiments, Howard et al. (1986) and Berman et al. (1985 a, b) showed that the nif M and nif M products are necessary and sufficient for the synthesis of the Fe protein (Kp2) of K. pneumoniae and that the product is enzymically and immunologically active. Therefore no other nif-specific genes are involved in Kp2 synthesis, although the nif M product is necessary as an activator of nif M and nif M expression. Immunologically active Kp2 peptide is formed in the absence of nif M, so the processing role of the latter is unlikely to involve peptide modification. Sunderasan et al. (1983) used E. coli as the genetic background in which to show that Kp nif M activates the promoter of M activation of M activation of M activates the promoter of M has likewise been shown in M in M in M is M activated by M in M has likewise been shown in M in M in M in M in M in M is activated been shown in M is activated been shown in M in

The readiness with which *E. coli* expresses *Kp nif* prompted at least one search for diazotrophic *E. coli* from the natural environment but, despite a false report, none has so far been reported (see Neilson 1979).

Transfer of *Kp nif* to *Salmonella typhimurium* revealed the problem of plasmid stability: plasmid FN68 lost *nif* (and the adjacent *his*) in this background and low nitrogenase (C₂H₂-reducing) activities (Cannon *et al.* 1976) were attributed to such segregation by Postgate & Krishnapillai (1977): even the relatively stable pRD1 required constant selection for His⁺ to conserve *nif*.

Transfer of Kp nif on pRD1 to an Erwinia herbicola his mutant led to diazotrophy in the non-diazotrophic recipient chosen (Krishnapillai & Postgate 1980) but the novelty of this finding was vitiated somewhat by the nearly simultaneous report that some 22% of E. herbicola from the natural environment are diazotrophic (Papen & Werner 1979). Nevertheless, it is possible that acquirement of diazotrophy might confer pathogenicity on this usually harmless epiphyte. In unpublished tests, Dr Eve Billing of East Malling Research Station was unable to detect significant pathogenicity to pear fruits, apple shoots or tobacco leaves with E. herbicola Y74 alone or carrying pRD1, RP4 or pRD7 (a nifA- and therefore Nif- control for pRD1). Kozyrovskaya et al. (1984) studied the true pathogen E. carotovora and reported changes in its pathogenicity after introduction of pRD1. However, in most instances pathogenicity was apparently diminished. Controls with a nif- derivative of pRD1 were not included.

Kozyrovskaya et al. (1984) also obtained diazotrophic derivatives of the plant pathogen *Xanthomonas betica* by introducing pRD1, confirming presence of the plasmid by gel electrophoresis. They reported increased virulence in some transconjugants but provided no clear evidence that *nif* expression was responsible.

Kleeberger & Klingmuller (1980) transferred pRD1 to a strain of Enterobacter cloacae isolated from grass roots, with the possibility of generating a diazotrophic root association. They obtained Nif⁺ transconjugants despite the fact that some transconjugants lost nif and, as in the earliest transfers to E. coli, some derivatives integrated nif into the E. cloacae chromosome and showed promising stability as regards Nif⁺ even in association with grass roots. Klingmuller et al. (1983) reported that the chromosomally nif-integrated derivatives were nitrate-reduction negative (Nar⁻) and hence chlorate-resistant (Chl^r), a pleiotropy which could be exploited to select for chromosomal nif derivatives. Using a derivative of pRD1 carrying temperature-sensitive (t/s) phage Mu, (pCE1), Nguyen et al. (1983) were able to induce chromosomal integration of nif by temperature shift. This research was reviewed by Klingmuller (1984). Gottfert & Klingmuller (1985) showed that t/s Mu phage in pCE1 could be exploited to obtain chromosomally integrated derivatives of E. coli.

Transfer of pRD1 to a his auxotroph of Serratia marcescens gave diazotrophic derivatives (Krishnapillai & Postgate 1980); a problem of sustaining their growth in chemostat culture is mentioned later. Coliform bacteria in which Kp nif is expressed presumably already have other determinants necessary for expression of nif in K. pneumoniae, such as ntrA, ntrBC and narD. Therefore the evidence that Kp nif was not expressed in Proteus mirabilis (Krishnapillai & Postgate 1980) might be due to lack of some such gene. Postgate & Kent (1985) successfully obtained expression of Kp nif from pMF250 in P. mirabilis but only if a plasmid were present which expressed nifA, the positive activator of the nif regulon, from a constitutive promoter (plasmid pCK1). Inadequacy of the ntrBC component of the ntr apparatus of P. mirabilis was thus implied, but a simple explanation in terms of an ineffective ntrC product was not established because a constitutive Kp ntrC plasmid (pMD45), which caused constitutive nif expression in E. coli or K. pneumoniae, did not substitute for pCK1 in P. mirabilis. Further complications were: (i) a need to precondition P. mirabilis (pMF250, pCK1) populations by aerobic growth on glucose before anaerobic expression of Kp nif was obtained; and (ii) the observation that pCK1 did not in fact confer NH₄⁴-constitutive nif expression on P. mirabilis (pMF250, pCK1). The second of these problems is discussed further in the context of Azotobacter (below).

The need for extra nifA product for expression of Kp nif in P. mirabilis has not been

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satisfactorily explained. An interpretation which was not considered by Postgate & Kent (1985), is that the wild-type nifL product may normally be formed in a state which inactivates nifA product and that a so far unrecognized gene product may be needed to convert nifL product to an innocuous form. In that case a mutation which inactivates nifL but is not polar on nifA ought to give pCK1-independent nif expression in P. mirabilis. This proposition has been tested by one of us (S.H.), using the plasmid pMF337, a derivative of pMF100 carrying such a deletion in nifL which leaves nifA functional; it leads to partial oxygen constitutivity (Filser et al. 1983). This and the parent plasmid pMF100 were transferred into P. mirabilis WR19, the strain used by Postgate & Kent (1985), by using selection for His⁺, and transconjugants were tested both in the conditions used by Postgate & Kent and with a modified procedure in which the assay vessels were set up under N₂. Neither P. mirabilis (pMF337) nor P. mirabilis (pMF100) gave activity, although P. mirabilis (pMF250, pCK1) showed its usual acetylene-reducing activity in similar test media and conditions.

A positive test for acetylene reduction is circumstantial evidence for derepression of *nif* and for nitrogenase activity, but its quantitative significance may be much influenced by manipulation of the samples. In some instances (*E. coli*, *S. typhimurium*, *E. herbicola*, *S. marcescens*) diazotrophy has been confirmed by ¹⁵N incorporation from ¹⁵N₂. The physiological efficiency of the process in the new background has, however, rarely been evaluated. Table 2 records our

Table 2. Yield coefficients and diazotrophic efficiencies of genetically constructed nitrogen-fixing bacteria in glucose-limited chemostat culture

	Y glucose	efficiency	dilution rate
organism	$\overline{(g \text{ mol}^{-1})}$	μg N fixed mg ⁻¹ glucose	$h^{-1} \ (\pm 0.002)$
Klebsiella pneumoniae M5a1ª	9.7	6.5	0.077
Escherichia coli CM74	7.5	5.0	0.04
E. coli JC5466 (pRD1)	7.1	5.3	0.06
Salmonella typhimurium LT7 1201 (FN68)	11.1	7.9	0.05

^a Wild-type diazotroph from which the nif gene in E. coli CM74 and plasmids pRD1 and FN68 originated.

chemostat experiments in which diazotrophic constructs carrying Kp nif were compared with the parent K. pneumoniae in similar conditions of growth rate and nutritional status. All of the constructs were similar to K. pneumoniae as far as efficiency, steady-state population and nitrogen content were concerned; S. typhimurium carrying FN68 was the most efficient at the growth rates tested. The two E. coli strains differed in that strain CM74 had chromosomal nif (Cannon et al. 1974a) and E. coli JC5466 carried nif on pRD1. Judging from the nitrogen content (as a percentage of dry mass), all three constructs diverted carbon or energy sources into non-nitrogenous cell components, such as polysaccharide: analyses of cells for such macromolecular components are not available. It is important to record that, in this series of experiments, several careful attempts were made to set up diazotrophic chemostat populations of E. herbicola (pRD1) or S. marcescens (pRD1) without success: for reasons that are still not clear, steady states were not obtained in a variety of conditions, including those given in table 2.

Kp nif in pseudomonads

The question whether diazotrophy occurs within the genus *Pseudomonas* was a vexed one for many years. One reason was that Hill & Postgate (1969) showed that, of the two type strains

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then available, *P. azotocolligens* was not diazotrophic in their hands and *P. azotogensis* was not a pseudomonad (it was ultimately identified by Mr L. B. Perry (personal communication), of the National Collection of Industrial and Marine Bacteria, as a strain of the diazotrophic species Bacillus polymyxa). Another reason was the demonstration by Line & Loutit (1973) that presumptive diazotrophic 'pseudomonas' colonies from New Zealand soil were syntrophic mixtures of pseudomonads with anaerobic diazotrophs resembling Clostridium butyricum. Despite occasional reports of the isolation of taxonomically unassigned diazotrophic pseudomonads, a 'dogma' arose that the genus Pseudomonas did not include diazotrophs (see, for example, Meganathan 1979). However, an authenticated *P. saccharophila* exhibits very O₂-sensitive diazotrophy (Barraquio et al. 1986).

Mergeay & Gerits (1978) had earlier shown that, after conjugal transfer of pRD1 or FN68 to a his mutant of a putative P. fluorescens, O₂-dependent aerobic acetylene reduction could be observed, albeit at a remarkably slow rate. Their experimental conditions to obtain nif expression suggested that the process might be very O₂-sensitive, but their report was disquieting because (i) the unstable FN68 was expressed in this recipient, and (ii) the strain was originally isolated as a rhizobium. Lehtinen & Mäntsälä (1981) found that pRD1 was unstable in P. fluorescens but obtained three strains of P. putida (pRD1) which, however, did not reduce acetylene in anaerobic or aerobic conditions. The precise nature of their 'aerobic' conditions was not stated. Presence of pRD1 in the derivatives was confirmed by onward transfer from P. putida (pRD1) to E. coli and demonstration of nitrogenase protein synthesis in the latter recipient. In a reinvestigation of their question, using a his mutant of P. putida MT20, we have demonstrated unequivocal acetylene reduction by P. putida MT20-3 (pRD1) on the surface of low-N agar or as suspensions in sloppy agar under not more than 0.002-0.004 atm \dagger O_2 in N₂ (see, for example, figure 2). For comparison, the 'anaerobic' diazotroph K. pneumoniae shows only 60% inhibition of acetylene reduction under 0.2 atm O2 on comparable pyruvate agar slopes. We have qualitative evidence that the process in P. putida is very O₂-sensitive, is repressed by NH₄ and is probably O₂-dependent, but satisfactory quantitative data are not yet available because of the leakiness of the experimental system used and the inhomogeneity of the bacterial growth. At the time of writing, replicable acetylene reduction by the constructs has not been obtained at any p_0 in homogenous suspension, either in fluid or 'sloppy' media. However, these findings confirm expression of Kp nif in P. putida and establish its considerable O2 sensitivity. Thus Kp nif can be expressed in the genetic background of an obligate aerobe.

A point of interest is that *nif* expression in *P. putida* is unaffected by whether or not the Tol plasmid pWW20 is present. This plasmid carried the *xylR* gene, which regulates the *xylABC* cluster, concerned in hydrocarbon catabolism *via* a promoter (OP1) showing considerable homology to *ntr*-activatable promoters of *nif* and other operons (see Dixon 1986). It follows that *P. putida* possesses a chromosomal *ntr* system sufficiently analogous to the *ntrA*, *ntrBC* system of *K. pneumoniae* to activate pRD1.

Kp nif in Azotobacteraceae

Earlier evidence for expression of pRD1 on an aerobe came from Cannon & Postgate's (1976) report of correction of the Nif⁻ phenotype of non-regulatory *nif* mutants of *A. vinelandii*, but they were unable to repeat these observations some years later and duly withdrew their earlier

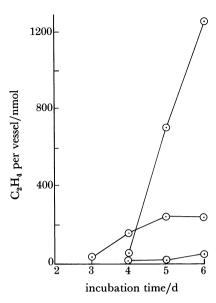


FIGURE 2. Replicate suspensions of *Pseudomonas putida* (pMF250) derepress *nif* in sloppy low-N agar under 0.5 % O₂. Washed bacteria from aerobic glucose–nutrient broth culture were resuspended to about 0.2 mg (dry mass equivalent) ml⁻¹ in 10 ml lots of N-free pyruvate salts medium with aspartic acid (200 μg ml⁻¹), nutrient broth (Oxoid, 2.5 % by volume) and kanamycin (15 μg ml⁻¹), rendered 'sloppy' with 0.2 % (by mass) agar in 27 ml Universal bottles. Cells and agar were mixed at 35 °C and left stagnant at 30 °C, sealed with a Suba-seal closure under N₂+0.4 % O₂. C₂H₂ (1 ml) was injected after 2 d incubation and 0.2 ml samples were then analysed for C₂H₂ and C₂H₄ by gas chromatography. All cultures show positive acetylene reduction but the scatter among replicates is too great for useful quantitative conclusions to be drawn.

report (Cannon & Postgate 1983). They were unable to explain the discrepancy. The possibility that they fortuitously observed the now established alternative nitrogenase of A. vinelandii (see Bishop 1986) in their presumptively complemented mutants is not compatible with the data in their paper.

Although expression of the intact Kp nif regulon in A. vinelandii has not been demonstrated satisfactorily, evidence is available that several promoters within the Kp nif regulon are recognized by A. vinelandii and the cloned genes expressed. Thus Kp nifL: lacL and Lp nifL: lacL and Lp nifL: lacL and Lp nifL: lacL was not (Kennedy & Drummond 1985). Toukdarian & Kennedy (1986) showed that expression from the Lp nifL promoter was activated by the ntrL gene of Lp ninelandii, because the fusion was not expressed in ntrL: The insertion mutants of Lp nielandii. The same authors showed that the ntrL product was not required for regular nif expression in Lp nielandii. Cloned Lp nifLp expressed from a constitutive kanamycin resistance promoter on the plasmid pCK1 activated expression of nif in a regulatory mutant of Lp nielandii (Kennedy & Robson 1983) and there is now evidence for a nifLp-like gene in Lp nielandii whose product activates Lp nifLp and nifLp (see Kennedy, this symposium).

The failure of the *nifH* promoter to be recognized probably underlies the non-expression of the intact regulon in A. vinelandii but the basic reason is still obscure: the nifH promoter regions of both K. pneumoniae and A. vinelandii are very similar in both the main and the upstream consensus sequences. However, the fact that promoters other than that of the Kp nifHDKY operon are recognized in A. vinelandii enabled Kennedy et al. (1985 a, 1986) to use derivatives of pRD1 with a variety of nif mutations to identify nifN and presumptive nifM mutations of A. vinelandii.

The use of a constitutive Kp nifA clone has been valuable in the study of nif activation in A. vinelandii, but warning must be sounded because the behaviour of such plasmids is not wholly straightforward. For example, as mentioned earlier, pCKl gave NH₄⁺-independent nif expression in a regulatory mutant in A. vinelandii as well as in a nifA mutant of K. pneumoniae (Kennedy & Robson 1983) but it did not do so in wild-type K. pneumoniae (Postgate & Kent 1985). Moreover, although pCK1 was necessary to obtain expression of wild-type nif on pRD1 in Proteus mirabilis (above), Postgate & Kent (1985) observed that such expression was not NH₄⁺-constitutive.

Azospirilla are phylogenetically close to azotobacters. Plasmid pRD1 was transferred to Azospirillum brasilense to give strains presumably diploid for nif (Polsinelli et al. 1980) but its effect on nif expression was not tested. The integrity of pRD1 was checked by onward transfer of His⁺ from A. brasilense (pRD1) to E. coli. Funayama et al. (1985) briefly reported correction of presumptive nifA mutants of A. brasilense by cloned Kp nifA on the incP plasmid pCK3.

Kp nif in Alcaligenes

Chen & Ye (1983) isolated diazotrophic Alcaligenes faecalis from the roots of rice plants and used pRD1 to complement a nif mutant. A curiosity was an apparent gene-dosage effect: pRD1 introduced into the wild-type diazotroph doubled its acetylene-reducing activity from ca. 34 to ca. 61 nmol C_2H_4 min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ bacterial protein. However, specific activities of populations of wild-type K. pneumoniae range from ca. 30 to ca. 200 according to cultural conditions, so a doubling of activity may arise for reasons only remotely related to nif expression.

Kp nif in Rhizobium and Agrobacterium

The original description of the construction of pRD1 (Dixon et al. 1976) reported that no diazotrophic growth or acetylene reduction took place after transfer to Rhizobium meliloti or Agrobacterium tumefaciens but that serologically detectable Kp1 peptide appeared in presumptively nif-derepressing conditions. Kozyrovskaya et al. (1984) confirmed non-expression of nif from pRD1 in A. tumefaciens. What genetic deficiency would lead to futile synthesis of a nitrogenase peptide is an interesting question which has not been resolved; in a preliminary report, Sastry et al. (1983) mentioned expression of nifH-lac and nifL-lac fusions in A. tumefaciens, implying that the promoters of both the regulatory and structural nif operons are recognized in this genetic background.

Kp nif in other prokaryotes

Plasmid pRD1 was transferred to Zymomonas mobilis by Skotnicki et al. (1980) without, apparently, testing for nif expression or for evidence that pRD1 had not reverted to RP4. Some strain-dependent instability of its drug-resistance markers was recorded. Similarly, Kuykendahl (1979) transferred pRD1 to Bradyrhizobium japonicum but presented no evidence that the plasmid had retained its *Klebsiella DNA component. In view of its instability in Salmonella or Proteus, claims for stable conservation in alien backgrounds should be supported by onward transfer of pRD1 to E. coli his auxotrophs and demonstration of Nif⁺.

Kp nif in eukaryotes

The possibility of constructing diazotrophic eukaryotes, notably crop plants of agricultural value, has interested scientists and excited discussion since the earliest nif gene transfers (see

Introduction above). The improbability of obtaining expression of a multi-operon cluster of at least 17 prokaryotic genes in a eukaryotic background raises daunting problems at the genetical level and, given success, the physiological problems then to be overcome are not inconsiderable. These matters have been well aired in the publications mentioned in the introduction and will not be discussed again here. However, two groups of workers have established the important point that the Kp nif cluster can be conserved intact in a eukaryotic background. Gerbaud et al. (1981) constructed a cosmid shuttle vector carrying nif and capable of transforming yeast (Saccharomyces cerevisiae). The cosmid was stably conserved for over 50 doublings of the yeast, shown by recovery of cosmid DNA and transformation of E. coli to Nif⁺, but was 'silent' in yeast according to the acetylene test. Zamir et al. (1981) used a different approach: they co-mobilized the prokaryotic nif plasmid pWK220 into yeast with a yeast-E. coli shuttle vector and demonstrated integration of nif into the yeast chromosome by Southern hybridization with the nif plasmid. Two copies of nif were integrated; one was sometimes lost during multiplication but at least one was conserved for 40 doublings and showed Mendelian inheritance through meiosis and mitosis. The nif genes were 'silent' according to growth tests, acetylene reduction tests and, according to Maina et al. (1984), analysis for 'transcriptional products'.

The expression of single nif genes in a eukaryote presents less difficult problems in principle and can be achieved by placing such genes under the control of known yeast promoters. Maina et al. (1984) placed Kp nifH under the control of p-yeast-adh-1 and obtained nifH-specific mRNA in response to ethanol induction as well as observing material cross-reacting with antiserum to the purified nifH product, Kp2; Zilberstein et al. (1984) and Berman et al. (1985a, b) obtained similar cross-reacting material from a p-yeast-ura-3:nifH construct in yeast; Zilberstein et al. (1984) briefly reported material cross-reacting with anti-Kpl serum from a padh-1:nifD construct in yeast. Synthesis of enzymically active material was not obtained in any of these experiments but Berman et al. (1985a) reported that, as one might expect, expression of β-galactosidase from a nifH:lacZ fusion in yeast was independent of O2 régime.

3. Nif genes from rhizobia in other bacteria

Nif genes were apparently mobilized from R. trifolii to K. aerogenes in a convoluted sequence of crosses in which the R factor Rldrd19 was transferred from E. coli to Pseudomonas aeruginosa, then into R. trifolii and finally to K. aerogenes. The Nif⁺ phenotype was unstable in the recipient klebsiellae but was associated with a plasmid with an apparent molecular mass of 11 MDa (Dunican et al. 1976); this plasmid is too small to harbour a complete cluster of Kp nif genes. Stanley & Dunican (1979) obtained Nif+ transconjugants in crosses between R. trifolii carrying plasmid RP1 and a deletion strain of K. pneumoniae lacking nifQ, nifB (genes involved in molybdenum uptake and FeMoco biosynthesis respectively), nifA, nifL (regulatory genes) and nifF (encoding a flavodoxin required for electron transport to nitrogenase). The R. trifolii (RP1) donor strain was also crossed with an avirulent strain of Agrobacterium tumefaciens and apparently gave rise to Nif⁺ A. tumefaciens transconjugants. These early experiments with R. trifolii donors should be reconsidered in the light of more recent information concerning the organization of nif DNA in fast-growing rhizobia, which in many strains has been shown to be located with nodulation genes on a megaplasmid, designated pSym (Banfalvi et al. 1981, 1983; Hombrecher et al. 1981; Schofield et al. 1983). Transfer of the Sym plasmid from either R. trifolii (Hooykaas et al. 1984) or R. meliloti (Kondorosi et al. 1982) does not confer a Nif+

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phenotype on A. tumefaciens, even though the presence of nif genes in the recipient has been demonstrated. It is also important to note that, unlike K. pneumoniae, nif and fix genes are distributed into several non-linked clusters on the megaplasmids of fast-growing Rhizobiaceae (see Evans et al. 1985 b). Although it is possible that plasmid co-integrates were formed in the crosses between R. trifolii and Klebsiella strains, leading to the mobilization of large regions of the pSym plasmid, genes responsible for the Nif⁺ phenotype of the recipients were not identified. It would certainly be useful to re-examine the original conclusions experimentally, now that defined nif and fix hybridization probes from rhizobia are available.

Page (1978) corrected structural nif mutants of Azotobacter vinelandii by transformation with genomic DNA from eight Rhizobium and Bradyrhizobium species; apparent correction of a non-structural nif mutant with DNA from two Bradyrhizobium species only was ambiguous for reasons which Page discussed. Page & von Tigerstrom (1978, 1979) and Page & Collinson (1982) described optimal conditions for such transformations.

Reports have been published of the transfer of nod and/or sym genes between species of Rhizobium (see, for example, Johnston et al. 1978) and also into Agrobacterium, Azotobacter, Lignobacter, Pseudomonas and E. coli, all with some degree of phenotypic expression (pseudonodulation or root curling) but no evidence of diazotrophy (Maier et al. 1978; Scott & Ronson 1982; Wong et al. 1983; Hirsch et al. 1984; Schofield et al. 1984; Plazinski & Rolfe 1985). Although rhizobial nif genes were probably co-transferred in these experiments, they provide few data pertaining to nif expression in the new backgrounds and they will not be reviewed further here. Cloning of rhizobial nif and fix genes in E. coli amounts, of course, to transfer of nif to an alien genetic background but for obvious reasons is not relevant to this particular contribution (see instead Johnston, this symposium).

4. Other instances of nif in alien backgrounds

Page (1985) reported transformational correction of nif^- mutants of A. vinelandii with genomic DNA from Beijerinckia indica. Derylo et al. (1981, 1982) studied the ligninolytic diazotroph Lignobacter, originally isolated as an agrobacterium, and confirmed that nif was located on one of its three natural plasmids, pUCS100, which could be transformed into E. coli and which rendered the recipient Nif⁺ (growth and acetylene reduction). They quoted 17.5 or 19.8 MDa for the molecular mass of pUCS100, barely sufficient to carry a gene complement corresponding to the nif cluster of K. pneumoniae (23 \pm 10% kbp, equivalent to 15.5 MDa). A derivative with a Tn9 insertion expressed nif (growth on N-free medium) in Salmonella typhimurium but was unstable in this background.

Despite considerable research on the genetics of nif in Azotobacter chroococcum and A. vinelandii (see Kennedy et al. 1985 b) expression of a Nif⁺ phenotype from azotobacter nif genes in an alien genetic background has not been reported. This is consistent with the fact that the nif genes corresponding to those identified in K. pneumoniae are not all clustered in a transmissible linkage group (see Kennedy, this symposium). However, correction of Kp nif mutants by cloned A. chroococcum nif DNA occurs and played an important part in the identification of nifHD and K (Jones et al. 1984) and nifUSVM (Evans et al. 1985 a) in A. chroococcum.

5. Conclusions

Ecological

The transfer of nif genes to alien prokaryotic, or even eukaryotic, backgrounds is a reasonably facile laboratory operation, but obtaining nitrogen fixation by the recipients can be far from simple. It seems that the Princess Serendip looked favourably upon the earliest of these studies: in the $Klebsiella \rightarrow E.\ coli$ case an organism with a contiguous nif cluster was used as donor and the recipient possessed the ntr system essential for its expression. However, it now appears that such clustering of the nif genes is the exception rather than the rule: in most other diazotrophs that have been studied in sufficient detail, the nif genes are to some extent scattered. Several instances are now known in which the nif structural genes, and sometimes other genes, are plasmid-borne and therefore in principle transferable. So it is likely that conjugal or transformational transfer of some and sometimes all nif genes into new hosts, especially prokaryotes, is a fairly frequent event in the natural environment, particularly during the seasonal decay of diazotrophic plant associations or during microbial turnover in low-N environments such as decaying vegetation or compost heaps. However, expression of the transferred nif genes requires at least three important conditions to be satisfied:

- (i) That the essential genes be present as a functional cluster in the donor, as in *K. pneumoniae*. Thus there is still no conclusive evidence that a rhizobial *sym* plasmid carries sufficient information to allow expression in a wholly new prokaryotic background, such as *E. coli*, nor that any reasonably sized contiguous fragment of the azotobacter chromosome could transform a heterogeneric recipient.
- (ii) That a number of special genes be present in the recipient (the *narD* gene and its product, the *ntr* system and doubtless a variety of other determinants).
 - (iii) An O₂-excluding, micro-aerobic or anaerobic physiology.

Such genetic and physiological backgrounds are present among prokaryotes but not necessarily abundant. It is therefore reasonable to expect new types of prokaryotic diazotroph to appear where appropriate selection pressure exists but among a restricted range of donors and recipients: only organisms with a single linked *nif* cluster are likely to be effective donors but the range of potential recipients is clearly wider.

Evolutionary

Consideration of the position in *K. pneumoniae* led one of us (J.R.P.) to propose that the evolution of diazotrophy within the prokaryotes has taken place by lateral gene transfer among existing species and genera (see Postgate (1982) for a résumé). This view enables one to imagine that, in terms of biochemical evolution, diazotrophy is of relatively recent origin, thereby disposing of certain paradoxes concerning selection pressure in favour of the emergence of diazotrophy. In principle the view remains valid, with the modification that a complete *nif* cluster as in *K. pneumoniae* be regarded as more primitive than the dispersed arrangement of azotobacters or rhizobia. This proposal is consistent with more highly evolved state of the latter groups with regard to oxygen tolerance (Postgate 1982). The hypothesis that diazotrophy is a young property in terms of biochemical evolution has been challenged by Hennecke *et al.* (1985). They showed that the amino acid sequences of *nifH* products from six different diazotrophs (two others fell outside the comparison) could be arrayed in three pairs of similarity groups which gave a dendrogram approximately congruent to an array of the 'fingerprints' of the 16S

rRNA of those diazotrophs or putative relatives. They argued that the evolutionary divergence of the *nifH* product in these organisms has followed that of the 16S rRNA and, because the latter is an accepted guide to prokaryotic evolutionary relationships, *nif* must have been part of their genomes since those genomes came into existence. This proposition is inconsistent with lateral diffusion of *nif* among prokaryotic genomes. However, congruence of dendritic trees of greater complexity is needed, as well as more knowledge of the factors influencing the evolution of acquired genetic characters within a given genetic background, before lateral diffusion can be discarded as a component of the evolution of diazotrophy.

Exploitation

With regard to the deliberate construction of diazotrophic organisms, the main prerequisites are now obvious: a genome capable of handling prokaryotic-type genetic information, means of assimilating and processing the component metals of nitrogenase and of regulating nif, means of generating adequate ATP and of excluding O₂. On top of these, the nif and any ancillary genes must be stabilized in the new background, perhaps by integration into the chromosome, as in Enterobacter cloacae and E. coli CM7, or perhaps by setting up internal selection, as in Salmonella typhimurium his deletions. Even so, the efficiency of this process may be influenced by unsuspected physiological factors, as was illustrated in the context of table 2: we were unable to establish E. herbicola (pRD1) or S. marcescens (pRD1) in continuous diazotrophic cultures at all, despite the fact that their diazotrophic activity, according to the acetylene test and ¹⁵N₂ incorporation, was not excessively low (Krishnapillai & Postgate 1980). We do not know why. However, such difficulties must not discourage attempts to transfer expressible nif to new organisms, but the scientist must be alert for problems which are likely to be recipient-specific, as with Proteus mirabilis and Pseudomonas putida.

The creation of new diazotrophs by manipulation of nif can yield valuable information of a fundamental character but it is not very likely to provide diazotrophs of practical value for the simple reason that diazotrophs already populate most ecological niches in which diazotrophy is advantageous. However, the transfer of expressible nif to eukaryotes, particularly crop cereals, presents a challenge which has fascinating fundamental and practical implications; the message of the limited research on intergeneric transfer conducted so far is that the genetic engineer should transfer as much of the prokaryotic genetic apparatus as possible, as an interlinked package (e.g. ntr+nif (Merrick & Dixon 1984)) and locate it in as prokaryote-like a part of the plant genome as can be found, the chloroplast being widely favoured. Essentially, the objective would be to convert the photosynthetic organelle into a diazotrophic organelle by manipulation of its genome; it is complementary to the less widely discussed strategy of taking an existing diazotroph and manipulating its genome such that it becomes a plant-dependent diazotrophic pseudo-organelle, a modification of the endocellular L-forms of Aloysius & Paton (1984).

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