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## 4 Natural diversity of nodular microsymbionts of *Alnus glutinosa*<br>5 in the Tormes River basin 5 in the Tormes River basin

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#### 14 Abstract

**1 COLUMES NAMET DEASINE CONDITION**<br>
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10 de Recursos Natural 15 The genetic diversity of Frankia strains nodulating Alnus glutinosa along the basin of the Tormes River was 16 studied on DNA extracted directly from nodules. Frankia strains inhabiting root nodules at 12 different 17 locations, ranging in altitude from 409 to 1181 m, were characterized. For that, we amplified the whole IGS 18 region between 16S–23S rDNA and performed a restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) 19 analysis with four restriction enzymes. Two different RFLP patterns (termed A and B) were obtained with 20 HaeIII, indicating the existence of two different groups of Frankia strains. Three different nodule extracts 21 from each of the two RFLP groups were selected for further analyses. Sequencing of the 16S–23S rDNA 22 IGS showed a 100% of intragroup homology and also confirmed the difference (98.4% level of similarity) 23 between the Frankia strains in the two nodule extract groups. The phylogenetic analyses based on the two 24 16S–23S rDNA IGS sequences obtained in this study and other previously published sequences indicated 25 that Frankia strains TFAg5 and TFAg23 (chosen as representative of HaeIII–RFLP group A and B, 26 respectively) are quite similar to other strains nodulating plants of A. rhombifolia and A. viridis in Cali-27 fornia (pairwise levels of similarity including gaps ranged from 97.8% to 98.6%), together with which they 28 form a single group. To put the Frankia strains representative of each HaeIII–RFLP group in the context of 29 overall *Frankia* diversity we amplified and sequenced the 16S rDNA and *glnII* gene from nodular DNA. An 30 also remarkable fact found in this study was that Frankia strains belonging to the HaeIII–RFLP group A 31 were distributed all along the river course, from the lowest site sampled to the highest, while *Frankia* strains 32 placed into RFLP group B were restricted to the upper Tormes River, being exclusively found at altitudes 33 of 946 m or higher.

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#### 3536 Introduction

37 Actinomycetes included in genus Frankia are the 38 microsymbiont of the  $N_2$ -fixing actinorhizal sym-<br>39 bioses. Actinorhizal plants are spread out in 24

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genera belonging to 8 families of angiosperms. 40 They are pioneer species that thrive in most 41 diverse environmental conditions and geographi- 42 cal zones, improving the growth of associated 43 species by increasing the amounts of nitrogen 44 and organic matter in soils (HussDanell, 45 1997). In addition to their important ecological 46 role, some species of actinorhizal plants have 47

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48 economic use or potential as timber and fuel 49 wood and in forestry, biomass production, land 50 reclamation, and amenity planting.

to is solate, or even refractory to isolation, mest River. For that, PCR-RIFP analyses channel receives the properties control is the solation of PCR-based on DNA directly extrested from 100 and the properties current as Classical physiological testing is of little use in 52 characterizing *Frankia* strains because they are difficult to isolate, or even refractory to isolation, and grow slowly (doubling times of 15–48 h or more). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based procedures have proved to be very useful to characterize cultured as well nonculturable Fran- kia strains (Hahn et al., 1999). In studying the diversity of Frankia, several genes of different taxonomic resolution have been targeted includ- ing the glutamine synthetase gene (Cournoyer and Normand, 1994), and the intergenic spacer 63 (IGS) regions between the  $NifH-NifD, NifD-$  NifK (Jamann et al., 1993; Maggia et al., 1992; Nalin et al., 1995; Simonet et al., 1999), and 16S–23S rRNA genes. In the ribosomal operon, the 16S–23S IGS is the region showing the high- est variability (Normand et al., 1992; Rouvier et al., 1996), which allows discrimination between closely related Frankia strains by using restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) analysis (Maggia et al., 1992; Navarro et al., 1999; Ritch- 1 ie and Myrold, 1999a, b). However, in determin- ing the phylogenetic relationships among the Frankia strains, the more conserved 16S rRNA gene is usually studied.

 Alnus is the only actinorhizal genus within the family Betulaceae. Among its species, black alder [Alnus glutinosa (L.) Gaertn] is renowned as a very adaptable and fast growing species. It is a common tree species in riparian forests and, as a deep-rooted species, plays a crucial role in maintaining the soil in river banks and reduces the effects of erosion. Due to its ability to fix nitrogen that enriches the soil and also owing to its multiple uses in silviculture and the wood industry, black alder is considered a very impor- tant forest species. It is found all over Europe from Ireland in the west to western Siberia in the East, as far South as North Africa and up to 65- North. It has been introduced into the Azores and the USA. Its range both in Europe and Afri- ca is markedly scattered. Black alder is mainly found in the northern and western sides of the Iberian Peninsula (Kajba and Gracan, 2003).

96 Up to date, only very limited research on 97 genetic diversity of Frankia strains nodulating 98 actinorhizal plants in the Iberian Peninsula has been conducted (Huguet et al., 2004) and, to the 99 best of our knowledge, none on the diversity of 100 Alnus-infective Frankia strains. The aim of this 101 study was to assess the genetic diversity of *Fran*- 102 *kia* strains nodulating A. glutinosa along the Tor-  $103$ mes River. For that, PCR–RFLP analysis of the 104 16S–23S ribosomal spacer region was performed 105 on DNA directly extracted from nodules, and 106 16S rRNA and *glnII* gene sequences were then 107 used to establish phylogenetic relationships with 108 other Frankia. 109



#### Nodule sampling and DNA extraction 111

The nodule samples were collected from individ-<br>112 ual trees of A. glutinosa growing along the river  $113$ Tormes' banks at 12 different locations (Table 1). 114 Three nodule samples per site were collected 115 accounting a total of 36 nodule samples. The riv- 116 er Tormes is born about 2000 m in the Sierra de 117 Gredos (Spain) and flows northwest for 284 km 118 to the Douro River, at the international bound- 119 ary between Spain and Portugal (339 m altitude 120 above the sea level) (Figure 1). Nodules were 121 collected from near the root collars, frozen in dry 122 ice and then kept at  $-20$  °C until use. One 123 nodule cluster per tree was sampled. After rins- 124 ing thoroughly with tap water, 15–20 lobe tips 125 from each nodule were detached with a scalpel, 126 soaked in 5% sodium hypochlorite for 20 min, 127 for sterilization purposes, and then rinsed 5 times 128 in sterile water to remove the bleach. After steril- 129 ization, each sample was ground in a mortar 130 with a pestle in liquid nitrogen, and DNA ex-<br>131 tracted by using  $DNeasy^{\circledR}$  Plant Mini Kit (Qia- 132 gen), according to the manufacturer's manual. 133

#### PCR amplification 134

PCR amplifications were performed on a What- 135 man Biometra<sup>®</sup> Tgradient thermocycler. The same 136 DNA extracts were used for 16S-23S IGS, 16S 137 rRNA and *glnII* genes amplifications. The oligo- 138 nucleotide PCR primers used to amplify  $16S-23S$  139 spacer regions of *Frankia* were: FG PS1493  $(5'-140)$ GGCTGGATCACCTCCTTTCT-3') and FGPL 141 2054¢ (5¢-CCGGGTTTCCCCATTCGG-3¢) (Sim- 142 onet et al., 1991). PCR was performed using Taq 143



Site name	Geographic position	Altitude (m)	Soil pH	Soil OM $(\% )$	Nodule code	RFLP pattern (HaeIII)
1. Trabanca-Fermoselle	41°16' N 6°23' W	409	5.31	1.87	TFAg1, TFAg2	A
2. Ledesma	41°05' N 6°00' W	741	7.07	5.69	TFAg3	$\mathbf{A}$
3. C.I.A. "El Tormes"	41°03' N 5°49' W	764	5.28	2.79	TFAg4	A
4. Salamanca	$40^{\circ}54'$ N $5^{\circ}46'$ W	775	4.49	7.71	TFAg9, TFAg10	$\mathbf{A}$
5. Matacán	$40^{\circ}56'$ N $5^{\circ}28'$ W	793	4.98	5.58	TFAg5, TFAg6	$\overline{A}$
6. Alba de Tormes	40 $\degree$ 49' N 5 $\degree$ 31' W	818	6.85	3.24	TFAg7	A
7. Galisancho	40 $\degree$ 44' N 5 $\degree$ 33' W	843	6.94	9.53	TFAg8	$\mathsf{A}$
8. Puente Congosto	$40^{\circ}29'$ N $5^{\circ}31'$ W	946	4.89	3.09	TFAg11, TFAg12	A
					TFAg13, TFAg14	B
9. Barco de Avila	$40^{\circ}21'$ N $5^{\circ}31'$ W	1004	6.27	1.04	TFAg15, TFAg16	B
10. Bohoyo	40°19' N 5°26' W	1083	5.12	3.88	TFAg17	A
					TFAg18	B
11. Bohoyo	40°19' N 5°24' W	1110	4.40	4.55	TFAg19	B
12. La Angostura	40°20' N 5°20' W	1181	6.35	1.98	TFAg20, TFAg21, TFAg22	A
					TFAg23	B

Table 1. Information about sampling sites, chemical soil properties, nodule and restriction patterns of amplified 16S-23S IGS regions from nodular Frankia strains



Figure 1. Geographic locations of the sampling sites (numbers) and of the meteorological stations (letters) from which climatic data were collected as listed in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. The graph on the upper right corner summarizes the altitudes of the corresponding sampling sites.

144 DNA Polymerase from Amersham Pharmacia 145 Biotech, following the manufacturer's instruction: 146 5–10 ng of genomic DNA, 2.5  $\mu$ L of Taq poly-147 merase buffer  $10\times$ , 1  $\mu$ L of BSA 0.1%, 2.5  $\mu$ L of 148 dNTPs mix (2 mM), 2.5  $\mu$ L of each primer (2  $\mu$ M) 149 and 1 U of Taq DNA polymerase for 25  $\mu$ L of 150 final reaction volume. PCR conditions were as 151 follow: preheating at 95  $\degree$ C for 5 min; 35 cycles of

p g pg

denaturing at 94  $^{\circ}$ C for 1 min, annealing at 57  $^{\circ}$ C 152 for 1 min and extension at  $72 °C$  for 2 min, 153 and a final extension at  $72 \degree C$  for 7 min. To 154 amplify the 16S rRNA gene of *Frankia*, primers 155 FN1F (5'-GCTCTGGGATAACCTCG-3'; posi- 156 tions 22–39 on Escherichia coli 16S rDNA) 157 and FN1R (5'-CA GGACCCTTAAGGACCC-3'; 158 positions  $1141-1159$  on E. coli 16S rDNA) were 159



160 used. These two primers were designed to amplify 161 specifically sequences corresponding to the 162 16S rRNA gene of Frankia. To amplify the 163 glnII gene of Frankia, primers FGgs19 (5'-TAC 164 ATCTGGATCCACGGCAC-3') and FGgs417 165 (5'-GCCGACGCCGCAGTAGTA-3') (Cournoy-166 er and Lavire, 1999) were used. PCR conditions 167 for amplification of *Frankia* 16S rDNA and glnII 168 gene were as above except that the annealing tem-169 perature was  $52$  °C. To check the efficiency of 170 amplification, 5  $\mu$ L of the amplification reactions 171 were analysed by electrophoresis in TAE buffer on 172 a  $1\%$  (w/v) agarose gel and visualized under UV

## 173 light after staining with ethidium bromide.

174 PCR product restriction analysis

# 175 After PCR amplification of the 16S–23S IGS,

 $\frac{176}{176}$  5 µL of each product was digested separately by the restriction enzymes CfoI (Sigma), HaeIII, AfaI and MspI (Amersham Biosciences), follow- ing the manufacturer's instructions, electrophore-180 sed on a  $2\%$  (w/v) agarose gel in  $1.0\times$ TAE buffer and visualized under UV light after stain- ing with ethidium bromide. The size of restricted products was estimated by comparison with a 50 bp DNA Ladder (Amersham Pharmacia bio-185 tech).

186 The restriction patterns with HaeII allowed distinguishing two PCR–RFLP groups among all the samples analysed in this study. Three repre- sentative nodule sample from each group was chosen for DNA sequencing.

#### 191 DNA sequencing and analysis of the sequence data

 The bands corresponding to the 16S–23S IGS, 193 16S rRNA and glnII genes were purified directly from the respective gels by centrifugation using 195 the QIAquick<sup>®</sup> Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Sequencing reactions were performed on an ABI377 sequencer (Applied Biosystems) using a BigDye terminator v3.0 cycle sequencing kit as supplied by the manufacturer. Those primers used for amplification were also used as sequenc-ing primers.

 The sequences obtained were compared with those from the GenBank using the FASTA program (Pearson and Lipman, 1988). Sequences were aligned using the Clustal W software (Thompson et al., 1977) and distances were cal- 207 culated according to Kimura's two-parameter 208 method (Kimura, 1980). Phylogenetic trees were 209 inferred using the neighbour-joining method (Sai- 210 tou and Nei, 1987). Bootstrap analysis was based 211 on 1000 resamplings. The MEGA 2.1 package 212 (Kumar et al., 2001) was used for all analyses. 213

#### Nucleotide sequence accession numbers 214

The nucleotide sequences determined in this 215 study have been deposited in the GenBank data- 216 base under the following accession numbers: 217 DQ141195 and DQ141196 for the 16S rRNA; 218 DQ141197 and DQ141198 for the 16S–23S IGS 219 sequences; and DQ150529 and DQ150530 for the 220 glnII sequences. 221

#### Results and discussion 222

#### Genetic diversity of PCR–RFLP patterns 223

CGACGCGCAGT-AT-A<sup>2</sup>) (Courany-<br>
Lavire, 1999) were used. PCR conditions<br>
(Kumar et al., 2001) was used for all and<br>
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the subsection of Satisfactory PCR amplifications of the 16S-23S 224 IGS regions of Frankia were obtained from 23 of 225 the 36 nodular DNAs. PCR reactions yielded an 226 expected-size 510 bp amplicon. RFLP analysis of 227 amplicons was then performed with *CfoI*, *HaeIII*, 228 AfaI and MspI. Digests with HaeIII produced 229 two clear and different RFLP patterns which 230 were assigned the letters A and B. None of the 231 other three restriction enzymes (CfoI, AfaI and 232 MspI) generated distinguishing RFLP patterns 233 for the *Frankia* strains symbiotic with A. glutin-<br>234 osa here studied (Figure 2). 235

The whole 16S–23S IGS region and the first 236 76 bp of the 23S rRNA gene of three representa- 237 tive nodular symbiont from each of the two 238 RFLP groups obtained with HaeIII were then se- 239 quenced. Sequencing of the 16S–23S rDNA IGS 240 showed a 100% of intragroup homology and, 241 therefore, we chose TFAg5 and TFAg23 as rep- 242 resentative nodular symbionts of the HaeIII– 243 RFLP group A and B, respectively, for further 244 analyses. The sequences of TFAg5 (Group A) 245 and TFAg23 (Group B) (Table 1) differed by 7 246 mismatches (2 transitions and 5 transversion) 247 and one indel (level of similarity, 98.4% includ- 248 ing gaps). Therefore, the sequencing results veri- 249 fied the PCR–RFLP analysis results. 250



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Figure 2. Restriction patterns of 16S-23S rDNA IGS region of the nodular Frankia strains TFAg5 (left lanes) and TFAg23 (right lanes) after digestion with HaeIII, CfoI, MspI and AfaI. The bands indicated by the arrowheads allow to differentiate between HaeIII-RFLP patterns A (right) and B (left). M, 50 bp DNA ladder (Amersham Pharmacia).

UNCORRECTED PROOF When compared to previously published se- quences (Figure 3), it was found that the two 253 strains sequenced in this study joined other *Alnus*  (Oakley et al., 2004; Varghese et al., 2003) and Casuarina (Normand et al., 1992) infective strains and are more distant to Frankia strains that infect plant species from the family Rhamna- ceae (Ceanothus, for instance) (Jeong and Myr- 2 old, 1999; Ritchie and Myrold, 1999a, b), in accordance with the established subdivisions in the genus Frankia (Normand et al., 1996). This phylogenetic analyses indicated that even though the Frankia strains nodulating alders along the Tormes River are very homogeneous, they form two distinct groups (Figure 3). Frankia strains TFAg5 and TFAg23 are quite similar (pairwise levels of similarity including gaps ranged from 97.8% to 98.6%) to those strains nodulating plants of A. rhombifolia (strain ALRH70) and A. viridis (strain ALVI390) in California (Oakley et al., 2004), together with which they form a single group (Figure 3). However, strain TFAg23 shows a level of similarity with the Californian strain ALVI390 higher than with TFAg5 (98.6% vs. 98.4%, including gaps).

#### 276 Sequencing and phylogenetic analyses of the 16S 277 rRNA and glnII genes

278 To put the Frankia strains TFAg5 and TFAg23 in the context of overall Frankia diversity we amplified and sequenced, in addition to the 16S– 281 23S IGS region, the 16S rDNA and *glnII* gene from nodular DNA. The sequenced 16S rDNA region was 708 bp in length, and it is included

between positions 209 and 917 of the 16S rRNA 284 gene of the F. alni strain ACN14a (Normand 285 et al., 1996). Therefore, a considerable segment 286 of the 5¢ 708-bp fragment sequenced in this study 287 forms part of the hypervariable region of the 16S 288 rRNA gene (Clawson et al., 1998; Heuvel et al., 289 2004; Varghese et al., 2003) being, thus, appro- 290 priate for distinguishing diversity among strains. 291 It has been shown that Frankia strains having 292 identical sequences in the hypervariable region of 293 the 16S rDNA are the same, or very closely re- 294 lated, strains (Clawson et al., 1999). On the other 295 hand, the genes for glutamine synthetase I and 296 II, glnI and glnII, respectively, are known to 297 have more variability than the 16S rRNA gene, 298 and both have been used to study the phylogeny 299 of Frankia strains (Clawson et al., 2004; Cour- 300 noyer and Lavire, 1999; Gtari et al., 2004; Heu- 301 vel et al., 2004). We chose to use the glnII gene 302 since it seems to present higher variability than 303 the *glnI* gene (Cournoyer and Lavire, 1999), from 304 which we sequenced a region of 313 bp in length.  $305$ 

The partial 16S rDNA sequences of the *Fran*- 306  $kia$  strains TFAg5 and TFAg23 differed by  $1$  307 mismatch (level of similarity, 99.8%). The tree 308 topology obtained from 16S rDNA sequences of 309 Frankia strains TFAg5 and TFAg23 and se- 310 quences in database shows the grouping of these 311 two strains group with other Alnus–Myrica infec- 312 tive strains (Figure 4). This grouping is coherent 313 with that obtained by Normand et al. (1996) 314 using complete sequences of the 16S rRNA gene, 315 and also with others obtained with different 316 molecular techniques (Igual et al., 2003; Veláz- 317 quez et al., 1998). 318





Figure 3. Comparative sequence analysis of the 16S-23S rDNA IGS regions from nodular Frankia strains TFAg5 and TFAg23 (in bold types) and representative *Frankia* strains from GenBank. The significance of each branch is indicated by bootstrap percentage calculated for 1000 subsets (only values greater than 50% are shown). The analysis was based on 490 nt. Streptomyces ambifaciens (M2724) was used as outgroup. Bar, 0.1 substitutions per site.

 With regards to the *glnII* sequences, they dif- fered by 2 mismatches (level of similarity, 99.4%) and, in concordance with other published studies (Cournoyer and Lavire, 1999; Gtari et al., 2004) grouped together with other Alnus-infective Fran- kia strains (Figure 5). Therefore, the sequence 325 analyses of both 16S rRNA and glnII genes support the assignment of the Frankia strains nodulating A. glutinosa along the Tormes River to two different groups, confirming the results obtained by 16S–23S IGS–RFLP analyses.

#### 330 Distribution of restriction patterns

331 Frankia strains belonging to the HaeIII–RFLP 332 group A were distributed all along the river

course, from the lowest site sampled (Trabanca- 333 Fermoselle, 409 m) to the highest (La Angostura, 334 1181 m) (Table 1). However, the distribution of 335 Frankia strains placed into RFLP group B is re- 336 stricted to the upper Tormes River, being exclu-<br>337 sively found at altitudes of 946 m or higher 338 (Table 1). Elevation, with its associated climatic 339 conditions, has been proposed among the factors 340 correlating with intra-host group *Frankia* hetero-<br>341 geneity by other authors (Dai et al., 2004; Ritch- 342 ie and Myrold, 1999a, b). **3** 343

The main part of the Tormes River basin has 344 a continental Mediterranean climate, character- 345 ized by prolonged summer drought and contrast- 346 ing diurnal and seasonal temperatures. However, 347 some different climatic conditions are found at 348





Figure 4. Comparative sequence analysis of the 16S rRNA gene from nodular Frankia strains TFAg5 and TFAg23 (in bold types) and representative Frankia strains from GenBank. The significance of each branch is indicated by bootstrap percentage calculated for 1000 subsets (only values greater than 50% are shown). The analysis was based on 708 nt. Geodermatophilus obscurus subsp. obscurus (L40620) was used as outgroup. Bar, 0.01 substitutions per site.

 the upper and lower parts of the Tormes River. Close to its mouth in the river Douro, the influ- ence of the Atlantic Ocean produces warmer and wetter conditions. At the upper part, the climate is influenced by the Sierra de Gredos mountains which produce colder temperatures and higher precipitations. We have gathered meteorological data from stations located in the vicinity of five sampling sites along the course of the Tormes River (Table 2): Bohoyo (1083 m) and Barco de 359 Avila (1004 m), at the upper course; Matacán

(793 m) and Salamanca (775 m), at the middle 360 course; and Trabanca-Fermoselle (409 m, data 361 from the nearby station of Aldeadávila), at the 362 lower course. As it can be seen (Table 2), the 363 mean annual and maximal mean temperatures at 364 Barco de Avila (the nearest station to Puente 365 Congosto, that is the lowest site where Frankia 366 strains belonging to the RFLP group B appear) 367 and Bohoyo are colder than at the other three 368 lower sites. However, there is no statistically sig-<br>369 nificant differences in minimal mean temperatures 370





Figure 5. Comparative sequence analysis of the glnII gene from nodular Frankia strains TFAg5 and TFAg23 (in bold types) and representative Frankia strains from GenBank. The significance of each branch is indicated by bootstrap percentage calculated for 1000 subsets (only values greater than 50% are shown). The analysis was based on 313 nt. Streptomyces viridochromogenes (X52842) was used as outgroup. Bar, 0.05 substitutions per site.

Station	Altitude	Annual	July	January			
	(m)	Precipitation	Maximal mean $T$	Minimal mean $T$	Mean T	Maximal mean $T$	Minimal mean $T$
a. Bohovo	1083	880 a	16.4a	4.5a	10.4a	27.1a	$-1.1a$
b. Barco de Avila	1004	542 b	16.2a	6.4 <sub>b</sub>	11.3 <sub>b</sub>	27.4a	0.4a
c. Matacán	793	395c	18.3 <sub>b</sub>	5.7 <sub>b</sub>	12.0c	29.8 <sub>b</sub>	$-0.9a$
d. Salamanca	775	390c	18.3 <sub>b</sub>	5.8 b	12.1c	29.4 h	$-0.9a$
e. Trabanca-Fermoselle*	409	809 a	21.5c	10.5c	16.0 <sub>d</sub>	34.7c	3.4 <sub>b</sub>

Table 2. Information about precipitation (mm) and temperatures ( $\degree$ C) obtained from 5 stations located along the Tormes River

\*Data from the nearby station of Aldeada´vila.

Data represent the mean of 10 years.

Means in a column sharing the same letter are not significantly different ( $P \le 0.05$ ).

 between Barco de Avila and the points situated further down the river, with the exception of Trabanca-Fermoselle, where the highest tempera- ture values are always reached. Taking into account July and January, the months in which temperatures reach extremes and therefore may potentially be biotically limiting factors, it is seen that maximal mean temperatures in July at Bohoyo and Barco de Avila are again the coldest. However, with the exception of the lowest site (Trabanca-Fermoselle), there is no statistically

significant differences in the January minimal 382 mean temperatures among the other four moni- 383 tored sites. With regards to the precipitations 384 (Table 2), annual rainfall rates were significantly 385 higher at the upper (Bohoyo and Barco de Avila) 386 and the lower (Trabanca-Fermoselle) course of 387 the Tormes River than at its middle course 388 (Matacán and Salamanca). According to our re- 389 sults, *Frankia* strains displaying the RFLP pat- 390 tern A could survive in more heterogeneous 391 climatic/altitudinal conditions than those strains 392



 from the group B, which in turn would compete better for nodulation at environments where the maximal temperatures and the drought condi- tions are less severe. More samples from other places in the region should be studied in order to further clarify this particular Frankia distribution.

 Edaphic conditions, such as pH, organic mat- ter content or soil type, have also been seen to influence Frankia populations in soils (Huguet et al., 2004; Jamann et al., 1992; Navarro et al., 1999). Therefore, we performed these soil analy- ses from all the sampling sites (Table 1) in order to ascertain if any trend might exist between such parameters and the observed distribution of 407 the two *Frankia* genotypes. All the soils are san- dy soils with organic matter contents ranging from 1.04% (Barco de Avila, site 9) to 9.53% (Galisancho, site 7) and pH from 4.40 (Bohoyo, site 11) to 7.35 (Ledesma, site 2). According to our actual data (Table 1), no relationship be- tween any of these two soil parameters and the distribution of the two Frankia strains genotypes can be established. However, a higher number of nodule samples as well as soil samples would be needed to reach secure conclusions.

clarify his particular *Franchia* distribution. (*M. fary* and *M. rivar-marring* figrowing the clarify his particular Franchia Total (*M. given*) and *M.* faryon and *M.* 1970; have also been seen to extrain, indentical 418 It is also noteworthy that only two Frankia strains were found nodulating A. glutinosa along the Tormes River. Other authors have reported a greater genetic diversity among Frankia strains 422 symbiotic with *Alnus*, or with its host compatible genus Myrica, in several other geographical loca- tions throughout the world (Clawson and Ben- son, 1999; Clawson et al., 1999; Dai et al., 2004; Huguet et al., 2004; Huguet et al., 2005; Oakley et al., 2004). Several reasons could account for the low diversity of Frankia strains detected in our study as compared with those reported in other works. The first possible explanation is coming from the existence of unlikely climatic conditions among the studied zones. In our re- gion, the climate is characterized by prolonged dry and hot periods that may constrain the diversity of Frankia strains by acting as a selec- tive force in favour of those Frankia genotypes more adapted to severe drought and hot condi- tions. Although climatic data were not always re- ported, it can be inferred that such stresses in some of the regions studied by other authors are lower than in our region [i.e. France and Belgium (Huguet et al., 2004) or the Northeast (Clawson et al., 1999) and Midwest of the

United States (Huguet et al., 2004)] being there, 444 therefore, the climatic conditions less restrictive 445 to the adaptation of nodulating *Frankia* strains. 446 On the other hand, it has been reported that 447 close phylogenetically related Myrica species 448  $(M. faya$  and  $M. rivas-martinezii)$  growing symp- 449 atrically are nodulated by different Frankia 450 strains, indicating that they have the capacity to 451 select specific *Frankia* genotypes present in soil 452 (Huguet et al., 2005). If the same occurs in the 453 genus Alnus, the range of Frankia strains suscep- 454 tible to be selected under natural conditions by a 455 determined Alnus species (or even genotype) 456 could vary broadly. In this regard, the low genet- 457 ic diversity of A. glutinosa-infective strains that 458 occurs along the Tormes River would be a conse- 459 quence of a lesser promiscuity of this host species 460 as compared with other of the studied *Alnus* spe- 461 cies (Clawson et al., 1999; Dai et al., 2004; Hug- 462 uet et al., 2001; Huguet et al., 2004; Oakley 463 et al., 2004). Obviously, these and other factors 464 could jointly account for the low genetic diversity 465 here observed and, therefore, more research is 466 needed to gain a better insight into this issue. 467

A better utilization of the actinorhizal symbi- 468 osis will require inoculations with selected Fran- 469  $\bar{k}ia$  strains. Criteria other than a superior  $470$ nitrogen fixing capacity must be also considered, 471 such as the ability to persist in soil and to com- 472 pete favourably for nodulation with less efficient 473 Frankia populations. Studies of the influence 474 of soil and environmental factors on the diversity 475 of *Frankia* may improve the management of 476 actinorhizal symbioses (Hahn et al., 1999). 477

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