# Bacterial polysaccharide synthesis and gene nomenclature

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ost bacteria produce surface and/or secreted polysaccharides that can act as prominent antigens. Many of these polysaccharides are also extremely variable, as shown for *Salmonella* and *Escherichia coli*. For a review of *E. coli* serology see Ref. 1, and for reviews of the biochemical and genetic basis of the variation see Refs 2–6.

Diversity within Salmonella is equivalent to that within a species such as E. coli, and many researchers place all Salmonella within S. enterica. However, the nomenclature in common use still reflects the historical allocation of species names to each serovar, for example S. typhimurium. In the context of this review, we will use the genus name Salmonella where possible. On the basis of DNA relatedness, E. coli and the four species of Shigella are a single species, and therefore we will treat strains of Shigella as serovars within the species E. coli, for example E. coli dysenteriae.

Bacterial polysaccharides include lipopolysaccharide (LPS), lipooligosaccharide (LOS) and extracellular polysaccharide (EPS) (Fig. 1). LPS is present in most Gram-negative bacteria and, characteristically, comprises three components: lipid A, core oligosaccharide and O antigen. The lipid A component is composed of sugars and fatty acids, which anchor the LPS in the outer leaflet of the outer membrane and where, in some species at least, it replaces phospholipid. The core is made of sugars and sugar derivatives, such as 3-deoxy-D-manno-octulosonic acid (Kdo). The O antigen is a polysaccharide that extends from the cell surface and consists of repeating oligosaccharide units generally composed of 3–6 sugars (O units; often repeated 10–30-fold). LOS lacks a polymeric O antigen.

Gene nomenclature for bacterial surface polysaccharides is complicated by the large number of structures and genes. We propose a scheme applicable to all species that distinguishes different classes of genes, provides a single name for all genes of a given function and greatly facilitates comparative studies.

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EPS may be present in both Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria and, like O antigen, is made of repeating units. EPS can be released from the cell into the environment as a slime or remain attached to the cell to form a capsule. The distinction between LPS and different forms of EPS is not always clear and the allocation of names is sometimes close to arbitrary<sup>6</sup>.

### Variation within and between species

In the majority of the species studied, the O antigen has been found to be highly polymorphic and in general even related species have few or no O-antigen types in common. For example, of the approximately 50 and 173 O antigens found in Salmonella and E. coli, respectively, only three are common to both species. Similarly, there are few O antigens common to E. coli and Klebsiella. The total number of types present is still likely to be many thousands. Likewise, there are 80 capsule types in E.

coli<sup>7</sup>. Many other species have a large repertoire of O antigens and capsules. Capsules also occur in many Gram-positive species, and EPS are also widespread.

Kenne and Lindberg<sup>8</sup> list 105 sugars found in bacterial polysaccharides and 233 structures. Many other polysaccharides have been identified antigenically but not characterized chemically. The variation is caused not only by the diversity of monosaccharide components, but also by the diversity of linkages between sugars. Further levels of variation are imparted by the addition of non-sugar moieties (such as O-acetyl residues or amino acids) and variation in the modal length of the polysaccharide chain. A comprehensive list would be extremely long; readers may wish to refer to the complex carbohydrate structural database (CCSD)<sup>9</sup>.

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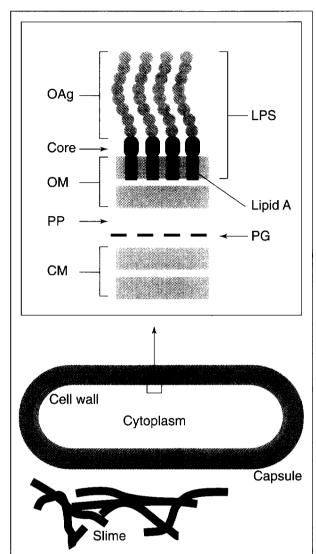


Fig. 1. Bacterial polysaccharides. Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) is present in most Gram-negative bacteria and comprises lipid A (black), core oligosaccharide (red) and O antigen (OAg; light green). Extracellular polysaccharides (EPS) can be released from the cell into the environment as a slime (dark green) or remain attached to the cell to form a capsule (blue). The bacterial cell wall is depicted in orange. Abbreviations: OM, outer membrane; PP, periplasm; PG, peptidoglycan; CM, cytoplasmic membrane.

#### Current nomenclature for polysaccharide genes

The Demerec system of genetic nomenclature for bacteria<sup>10</sup> has four letters per gene with the last being capitalized. This system continues to work well in most cases but the diversity of bacterial polysaccharides and, hence, of genes for their synthesis poses major problems. Genes involved in the biosynthesis of surface polysaccharides are generally arranged in clusters. E. coli has several such clusters, including rfa (LPS core), rfb (O antigen), cps (group I capsules and colanic acid), rfe-rff (enterobacterial common antigen; ECA) and kps (group II K capsules). These gene clusters have, in general, three classes of genes: those required for the enzymes involved in the biosynthetic pathways of nucleotide sugars, or other components, needed for polysaccharide synthesis and not otherwise available in the cell; genes for the glycosyl transferases and genes for oligosaccharide or polysaccharide processing. Depending on the complexity of the saccharide, the number of genes in the clusters varies from ~6-19 but is not likely to exceed 26 (the number of letters in the alphabet) in any cluster. However, each O antigen, capsule, EPS or LPS core type has its own set of genes.

There are already many more than 26 different genes known for O-antigen synthesis in Salmonella alone. The total number of O-antigen genes for Salmonella or E. coli will be much greater than 26, and the combined total will be greater still because these bacteria have few O antigens in common and many rfb clusters will have at least one transferase gene unique to that cluster. Use of the rfb symbol set has also been extended to other genera (Klebsiella, Vibrio, Yersinia, Neisseria and Xanthomonas), which, while desirable in one sense, compounds the problem. We point to just one recent case of confusion caused by reuse of names. A gene in the Mycoplasma genitalium genome sequence, which shows homology with rfbD of Klebsiella pneumoniae O1, was assumed to encode a dTDP-4-dehydrorhamnose reductase<sup>11</sup>, presumably because of a similar function in the original rfbD gene of E. coli K-12. However, the rfbD gene of K. pneumoniae is not related to the *rfbD* gene of *E. coli* K-12, and the assignment was based on a misunderstanding caused by the confusing nomenclature.

Clearly, we have run out of letters for the fourth letter of the rfb gene symbol, and many of the rfb symbols (such as rfbA) have been used to name a variety of different genes. If separate names are to be used for novel O-antigen genes as they are discovered, then the number of symbols available needs to be expanded. Similar problems apply for other gene clusters. Capsule genes have been named cps in some species, cap in Staphylococcus aureus, and both cap and cps for different capsule types of Streptococcus pneumoniae. EPS genes have been named exo, eps or gum, or named after the species, as in the ams gene involved in Erwinia amylovora amylovoran synthesis. This is further complicated because the Erwinia stewartii capsule cps gene cluster is very similar to the E. amylovora EPS ams cluster. Both polysaccharides are now thought of as secreted EPS, but E. stewartii retains 'capsule' gene names.

It is desirable for a given gene symbol to have the same meaning in all strains within a species, and there seems considerable merit in making it possible to use the same set of symbols in any of the large number of bacterial species. We put forward a proposal that would make this possible.

#### A proposal for renaming bacterial surface polysaccharide genes

In the case of polymorphic loci, such as *rfb* and *cps*, the Demerec nomenclature allows only 26 symbols to define the variety of nucleotide sugar biosynthetic genes, transferase genes and other genes because only the fourth letter of the gene designation is used. By also varying the letter in the second and third positions, a total of 17576 symbols becomes available. Thus, we

recommend that the use of *rfb*, *cps*, *exo*, *eps*, *cap*, *ams*, *kps* and similar gene names be abandoned, and we propose a new scheme for a bacterial polysaccharide gene nomenclature (BPGN) as follows:

(1) Most genes should be given names in the form of  $w^{***}$ , which provides 17576 gene names. All genes of any cluster should, in general, have the same first three letters, except where the function is the same as that of a gene in another cluster. In this case, the same name is used for both genes even if it means that genes with different three-letter names coexist in one cluster. The  $w^{**}$  set was chosen, rather than any other set, because there are very few genes already using this group of symbols. It is proposed that all genes of any block defined by the first two letters are of the same general type. For example, all  $wb^*$  genes (wbaA to wbzZ) will be O-antigen genes. Likewise wc\*, we\* and wl\* can be used for capsule, exopolysaccharide and LOS

genes, respectively. By choosing these names we have aimed to maintain a link between current and proposed usage. For example, wbdA replaces mtfA (Fig. 2) and wbaP replaces rfbP (Fig. 3). Many other examples are given in Figs 2 and 3. A full list of the gene names allocated at the time of submission is shown in Table 1.

- (2) Genes for certain families of homologous proteins involved in saccharide processing, which are common to many gene clusters, are given names of the form  $wz^*$ .
- (3) Genes involved in the synthesis of saccharide precursors, mostly nucleotide sugars, have names related to the pathway, which are applied to homologous genes in all gene clusters in all species (see Fig. 4).

Ideas concerning the implementation of this scheme can be found in Box 1.

#### Pathway genes

Some of the sugars found in bacterial polysaccharides are present elsewhere in the cell and their biosynthetic pathways are part of general metabolism, but for the remaining sugars, the genes for biosynthesis will generally be in the gene cluster for the polysaccharide. Most of the sugars occur in more than one structure and many of the pathways have steps in common. As there are relatively few genes in each pathway and each pathway has its own three-letter symbol, the total number of genes involved should be low. The use of names related to the pathway should make it easier to associate genes and functions and to identify homologous genes. For example, genes for the dTDP-

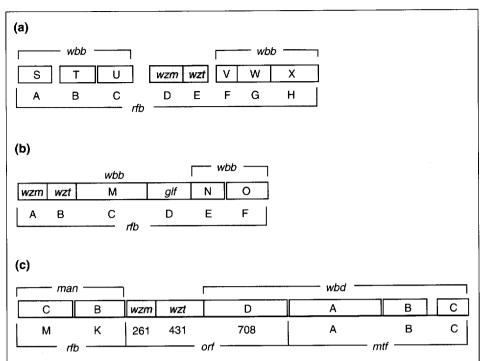


Fig. 2. The O-antigen gene clusters of (a) Yersinia enterocolitica O3 (Ref. 19), (b) Klebsiella pneumoniae O1 (Ref. 17) and O8 (R.F. Kelly and C. Whitfield, unpublished) and Serratia marcescens O16 (Ref. 18) and (c) Escherichia coli O9 (Ref. 15). The new nomenclature is used in the boxes (which represent genes) and, for groups of genes, the three-letter names are given above the boxes. Pathway and saccharide-processing genes are shaded. The old nomenclature is given below the boxes.

L-rhamnose pathway will be named *rmlA*–*D*. This approach has already been used for pathway genes located within region II of the *kps* cluster, as well as for individual genes such as *galE* (involved in the synthesis of UDP-galactose), which has been found within polysaccharide gene clusters.

#### **Transferase genes**

In contrast to the number of pathway genes anticipated, the number of possible linkages, and hence of specific transferases, is very large indeed, and many gene symbols will be required if each unique function is to have a unique name. It is largely because of the number of specific transferases that we chose to use the  $w^{***}$  set of gene names for bacterial polysaccharide gene names. Each cluster will, in general, have one such gene for each linkage in the structure, although bifunctional transferases are known.

A given gene symbol is used for genes carrying out the same function and/or displaying obvious homology. This principle can be illustrated by some of the glycosyl transferases of Salmonella (see Fig. 3). All wbaP (rfbP) genes encode an enzyme that transfers Gal-1-P to undecaprenol-P in the initiating step of some O units, and all have sequences that are readily aligned. The gene wbaV (rfbV) from group D and group B strains encodes a tyvelose transferase and an abequose transferase, respectively, but each can carry out both functions in the presence of appropriate precursors. As they display evident homology they are both named wbaV; future studies may show that they have a considerable degree of specificity, but that they were

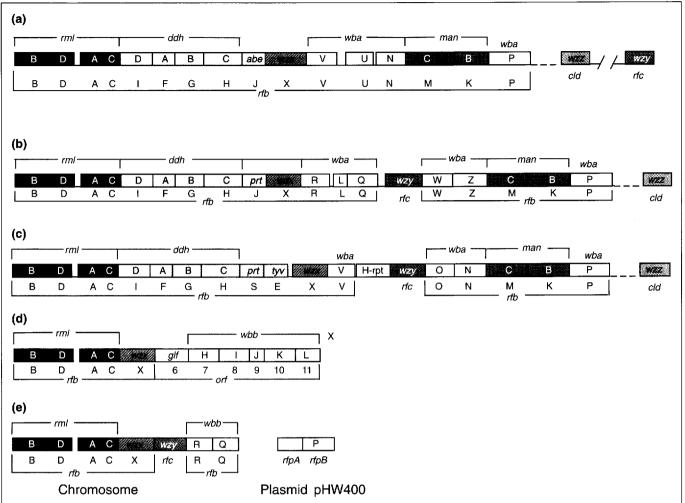


Fig. 3. The gene clusters of Salmonella (a) group B (Refs 12,26,29), (b) group C2 (Refs 12,29,30), (c) group D2 (Ref. 31), (d) Escherichia coli K-12 (O16)<sup>32</sup> and (e) E. coli dysenteriae (type 1)<sup>33</sup>. The nomenclature is as for Fig. 2, and pathway and saccharide-processing genes are shown with pathway-specific colours.

simply not distinguished on their ability to complement *in vivo* in antigen synthesis. Thus, they are given the same name for now. Finally, the 4-mannosyl transferases, which have been shown to form different linkages [Man-( $\beta$ 1-4)-Rha for *wbaO* (*rfbO*), Man-( $\alpha$ 1-4)-Rha for *wbaU* (*rfbU*); Man-( $\alpha$ 1-2)-Man for *wbaW* (*rfbW*) and Man-( $\alpha$ 1-3)-Gal for *wbaZ* (*rfbZ*)] and have barely detectable sequence similarity for the four genes<sup>12</sup>, are each given their own names.

#### Saccharide-processing genes

The genes for saccharide processing (including export, polymerization and assembly of complex polysaccharides such as LPS) commonly occur in families of homologous genes that perform the same general function. The proposal is that all genes of a family are given the same name and that it is in the  $wz^*$  subset of  $w^{***}$  names. This will enable ready identification of such genes. Examples are given in Figs 2 and 3.

Two genes with the same name may have specificity for different oligosaccharides and need to be distinguished by including species and/or other relevant information as a subscript (see below). Gene clusters containing wzy (repeat unit polymerase), wzx and wzz genes

Most O-antigen gene clusters have genes currently known as rfc, rfbX and cld or rol. Each can be recognized by topological features of the encoded protein, although there is usually little sequence similarity for the proteins in the first two families. wzy genes from different sources have different specificity and the same may apply to wzx genes. The pre-existing names of each gene (rfc, rfbX) and cld(rol) are anomalous in some way and we suggest that they be renamed wzy, wzx and wzz, respectively, to be consistent with the nomenclature for other genes.

The wzy genes are generally found within the O-antigen gene cluster but were not given rfb\* names for historical reasons, as in the classical Salmonella strain LT2 the gene maps separately. As we propose to abandon the use of rfb\*, rfbX now seems anomalous, and in the case of rol and cld we have two names for the same gene. A further reason for adopting new terminology is that as a wzx gene has been reported for a capsule gene cluster<sup>13</sup> and, because wzy may also be found in capsule gene clusters, rfbX and rfc are inappropriate names.

Table 1. Gene name allocations <sup>a</sup>		
3-letter gene names	4th letters of gene names	General description of genes <sup>b,c</sup>
waa	A-C,E-G,I-N,P,Q,S,Y,Z	Escherichia coli K-12 and Salmonella LT2 lipid A/core (waaA was kdtA, waaM and waaN were htrB and msbB, respectively) waaA and waaC also in Bordetella pertussis
wba	A-D	Salmonella group C1 O antigen
wba	E,L,N-R,U-W,Z	Salmonella groups A,B,C2,D1,D2,E O antigens in various combinations
wbb	D	E. coli 07 0 antigen
wbb	E,F	Salmonella group 054 serovar Borreze
wbb	H-L	E. coli 016 (K-12) O antigen
wbb	M-O	Klebsiella pneumoniae 01 and 08 and Serratia marcescens 016 0 antigens
wbb	P–R	E. coli dysenteriae type I O antigen
wbb	S-X	Yersinia enterocolitica 03 0 antigen
wbc	A–J	Y. enterocolitica 08 0 antigen
wbc	K-O	Y. enterocolitica O3 outer core
wbd	A-D	E. coli 09 0 antigen
wbd	J,K	E. coli 0111 0 antigen
wby	A-E	Yersinia pseudotuberculosis O antigens (incomplete information for several serovars)
wca	A– $M$	E. coli K-12 colanic acid
wce	B,F,G,J-N	Erwinia stewartii stewartan
wec	A-G	E. coli and Salmonella ECA (rff and rfe genes)
wlb	A-L	B. pertussis LPS
wza		Homologous genes for OM proteins with a signal peptidase site
wzb		Homologous genes for proteins with acid-phosphatase motif
WZC		Homologous genes for proteins with ATP-binding motif
wzm		Homologues of kpsM
wzt		Homologues of kpsT
WZX		Replaces rfbX
wzy		Replaces rfc
WZZ		Replaces rol and cld
abe		CDP-abequose synthesis
alt	A-C	dTDP-6-deoxyaltrose pathway
asc	E,F	CDP-ascarylose pathway
col	_,.	GDP-colitose pathway
ddh	A-D	CDP-dideoxyhexose pathway
fcl	A, etc.	GDP-L-fucose pathway (fuc already used in LT2 and K-12)
fcn	A,B	dTDP-fucosamine and dTDP-N-acetyl-fucosamine pathway
glf	,	UDP-galactofuranose synthesis
gmd		GDP-4-keto-6-deoxy-mannose dehydratase
gmh	A-D	ADP-glyceromannoheptose pathway
kds	A,B	CMP-Kdo pathway
man	B,C	GDP-mannose pathway
mna	A,B	UDP-N-acetyl-p-mannosamine and UDP-N-acetyl-p-mannosaminuronic acid pathw
prt	•	CDP-paratose synthesis
per	A, etc.	GDP-perosamine pathway
rml	A-D	dTDP-L-rhamnose pathway
rmd		GDP-D-rhamnose synthesis
tyv		CDP-tyvelose synthesis
vsn	A,B	dTDP-viosamine pathway (E. coli 07, previously misnamed quinovosamine)

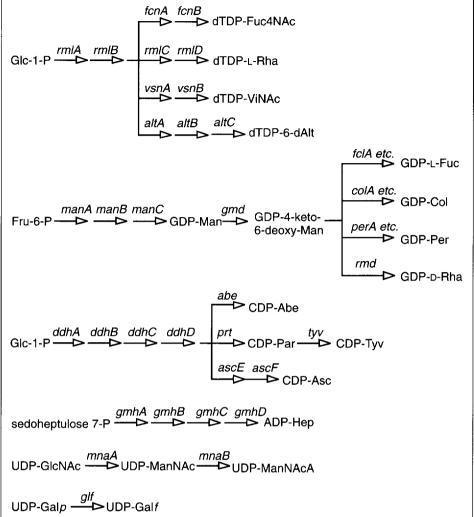
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Some pathway names have not yet been used (e.g. *per, col* and *fol*) but are reserved for the uses shown in Fig. 4. References can be found in the bacterial polysaccharide gene nomenclature (BPGD; see Box 2).

Gene clusters containing ABC-type transporter genes, wzm and wzt genes

Some polysaccharide gene clusters have a pair of genes that encode proteins involved in polysaccharide export belonging to the ABC-2 subfamily of ABC-type transporters<sup>14</sup>. Included in this group are genes in clusters for the production of *wzy*-independent O antigens, such as

orf261 and orf431 in E. coli O9 (Ref. 15) (see Fig. 2), rfbHI in Vibrio cholerae O1 (Ref. 16), rfbAB in K. pneumoniae O1 and O8 and Serratia marcescens O16 (Refs 17,18), and rfbDE in Yersinia enterocolitica O3 (Ref. 19). Equivalent gene pairs have also been described in several clusters responsible for capsule production and for which a common molecular origin has been

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup>Description of wz\* genes, species, serovar and saccharide type for other w\*\* genes and pathway end products for pathway genes. <sup>c</sup>Abbreviations: Kdo, 3-deoxy-p-manno-octulosonic acid; ECA, enterobacterial common antigen; OM, outer membrane.



**Fig. 4.** Biosynthetic pathways, including proposed new gene names, for selected nucleotide sugars. Abbreviations: Abe, abequose; Alt, L-altrose; Asc, ascarylose; Col, colitose; d, deoxy; dTDP, deoxythimidine-5'-diphosphate; Fru, fructose; Fuc, fucose; Fuc4NAc, *N*-acetyl fucosamine (4-acetamido-4,6-dideoxy-p-galactose); Gal*p*, p-galactopyranose; Gal*f*, p-galactofuranose; Glc, p-glucose; GlcNAc, *N*-acetyl-p-glucosamine; Hep, L-glycero-p-manno-heptose; Man, mannose; ManNAc, *N*-acetyl-p-mannose; ManNAcA, *N*-acetyl-p-mannuronic acid; P, phosphate; Par, paratose; Per, perosamine; Rha, rhamnose; Tyv, tyvelose; ViNAc, *N*-acetyl viosamine (4-acetamido-4,6-dideoxy-p-glucose).

proposed<sup>20</sup>: kpsMT in E. coli K1 (Ref. 21) and K5 (Ref. 22), bexAB in Haemophilus influenzae<sup>23</sup>, and ctrDC in Neisseria meningitidis<sup>20</sup>. To bring consistency to the nomenclature, these can be given  $wz^*$  names; we propose wzm and wzt (after kpsM and kpsT).

Gene clusters containing wza, wzb and wzc genes Several EPS gene clusters have three genes in common. It has been suggested that they act in processing and/or export of EPS. As with the genes discussed above, the sequence homology is sometimes low, but consistent gene order and the pattern of homologies indicate relationships and the need for a common nomenclature.

The *E. coli* K-12 colanic acid cluster<sup>13</sup> and the *E. stewartii* stewartan cluster (D. Coplin, unpublished; see BPGD database, Box 2) have genes encoding related proteins that are predicted to have a signal peptidase II recognition site. We suggest that genes in this class should all be given the name *wza*. If included in the

proposed scheme, the amsH gene of E. amylovora, the ORF4 gene of K. pneumoniae K2 cps region, the epsA gene of Pseudomonas solanacearum and the exoF gene of Rhizobium meliloti would also be called wza.

In each case, the wza gene is followed by two downstream genes: the first encodes a protein homologous to acid phosphatases, and the second encodes a protein with an ATP-binding sequence motif and three predicted transmembrane segments. The genes of each class show considerable similarity and we suggest that they be given the names wzb and wzc, respectively. The amino-terminal region of Wzc proteins shows some sequence similarity to Wzz (Ref. 24).

#### **Genes of unknown function**

In addition to the transferase genes discussed above, a  $w^{***}$  name is appropriate for any gene that does not fit into any other category, including genes for which the function is unknown. Once characterized, the gene can be renamed in the appropriate way. Some may prefer to use ORF (open reading frame) names rather than  $w^{***}$  names until function is determined.

## Distinguishing homologous genes from different gene clusters or strains

Homologous genes with the same function receive the same gene name regardless of species or strain. However, in some situations genes from different sources need to be

distinguished, and we suggest that a subscript be appended to the Demerec name. A form of this subscripting system has been introduced recently (see, for example, Ref. 25). The subscript could have more than one component and could include symbols denoting species (e.g. Ec for E. coli) or specificity of the polysaccharide (e.g. O9). Thus, in E. coli K-12, which has genes for an O16-specific O antigen, the gene for the first step of dTDP-rhamnose biosynthesis (see below) could be specified as  $rmlA_{Ec,O16}$ . The subscripts need only be used for comparison when necessary, and then only to the minimum extent needed; for example, a discussion on O-antigen genes within E. coli could use rmlA<sub>016</sub>. Some may find it useful to include the strain or variant name (e.g. K-12) or the type of polysaccharide that the gene helps produce (e.g. Oag for O antigen) in the subscript.

Genes involved in the production of some nucleotide sugars, for example GDP-mannose and TDP-rhamnose, are present in many gene clusters and the occurrence of dual copies of a gene within a genome is not uncommon; several instances have already been observed. For example, in Salmonella LT2, two genes for GDPmannose synthesis are found in both the O-antigen and the colanic acid clusters. Until now they have been known as rfbM and rfbK in the O-antigen cluster<sup>26</sup>, and cpsG and cpsB in the colanic acid cluster<sup>27</sup>. Under the BPGN scheme we have two copies of manB and manC. Other options were considered to avoid giving two genes the same name within a strain but these had their own drawbacks. Where necessary the genes can be distinguished by subscripts. When it is necessary to use a form that is easily handled by computers, for example in database entries, the information can be put in parentheses instead of in subscripts. As the species and strain are defined elsewhere in such entries it is only necessary to include information on polysaccharide type; for example, the two copies of manB in LT2 can be designated manB(CA) and manB(Oag).

#### **BPGN** in use

The O-antigen clusters for E. coli O9, K. pneumoniae O1 and O8, S. marcescens O16 and Y. enterocolitica O3 have several common features (Fig. 2). Each contains genes that we now call wzm and wzt, which have strong protein structural and sequence similarity and, in the case of K. pneumoniae O1, are known to be involved in the export of O antigen<sup>17</sup>. The two genes have a high level of homology and are in the same relationship to each other in each cluster; this is now obvious simply by looking at the cluster maps, but previously they were named orf261 and orf431 in E. coli O9, rfbA and rfbB in K. pneumoniae O1 and O8 and S. marcescens O16, and rfbD and rfbE in Y. enterocolitica O3. The same genes occur elsewhere and have been given different names and presumably would have received yet further different names in the many such gene clusters to be described in the future.

The E. coli O9 O unit contains only mannose, and the two mannose pathway genes are easily recognized as manB and manC (named in pathway order). Three of the remaining O9 genes encode the transferases that make the specific linkages of the O9 O unit and these have unique names. They were previously named mtfABC for mannose transferase, and while this may seem a better name, we would soon run out of letters when, as is likely, more than 26 mannose transferases have been discovered. The Y. enterocolitica O unit contains 6-deoxy-L-altrose, and once the pathway genes are identified they will be renamed rmlAB (encoding the same reaction as the first steps in TDP-L-rhamnose synthesis) and altA-C for the next three steps, which are specific to TDP-6-deoxyaltrose.

It is readily apparent that the O units of Salmonella groups B, C2 and D2, E. coli K-12 and E. coli (Shigella) dysenteriae all have the four-gene dTDP-rhamnose pathway genes, rmlA,B,C,D, which are named in pathway order but are present in each case in the order B, D,A,C (Fig. 3). The mannose-pathway genes manB and manC are also present in the Salmonella clusters in the same order as those of E. coli O9 (Fig. 2). The CDPabequose pathway is present in groups B and C2 and

#### Box 1. Implementation of the BPGN scheme

We suggest that gene names should be allocated after discussion with whoever is running the database, currently Peter Reeves in Sydney. This suggestion is made, first, to avoid the possibility that two research groups find the same gene at about the same time and give it two different names or that the same name is taken by two different groups for different genes and, second, to provide an opportunity to discuss any problems in name allocation.

The scheme has been applied to 0-antigen genes of Escherichia coli, Salmonella, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Yersinia enterocolitica and Yersinia pseudotuberculosis, LOS of Bordetella pertussis, lipid A and LPS core of E. coli and Salmonella, enterobacterial common antigen of E. coli and Salmonella and capsule gene clusters of Erwinia stewartii and E. coli K-12. Details, and the principles underlying name allocation, are given in a web paper released in conjunction with this paper28.

The scheme could be applied to other gene clusters, such as those for the type 2 capsules of E. coli and the related clusters for capsules of Neisseria meningitidis and Haemophilus influenzae, but as yet no agreement has been reached on this. In Table 1, we have included only genes in clusters in which we are, or have been, actively involved. The BPGN proposal allows for all appropriate genes to be named, but some of those researchers approached did not wish to join in the proposal and will, for the time being, continue with the old nomenclature. Nonetheless, the 29 gene clusters listed in Table 1 include 22 for which all genes are known from sequence, and we have great confidence that the scheme will be widely adopted. Now that the BPGN is launched we hope that many others use it in naming and renaming genes. We did not find time to contact all people working in the area and concentrated on the names of genes for which the whole cluster is known. We now welcome proposals to add new gene names to the scheme, regardless of how many genes of the cluster are known, and hope that new genes will be named according to the BPGN scheme.

the closely related CDP-tyvelose pathway is present in group D2. All possess genes common to both dideoxyhexose pathways (ddhA-D), with groups B and C2 having the gene abe, which is unique to the CDPabequose pathway, and group D2 having the genes prt and tyv for synthesis of CDP-paratose and then its conversion to CDP-tyvelose, respectively. The O unit of K-12 includes Galf, and the gene cluster includes the gene glf for conversion of UDP-galactopyranose to UDP-galactofuranose. Some of the O units of this set of O antigens contain Gal, Glc or GlcNAc, for which

#### Box 2. Database and more information on the web

We have set up a Bacterial Polysaccharide Gene Database (BPGD) to include the new name, old names where relevant, and function where known of all genes entered into the database, together with diagrams of the gene clusters and the oligosaccharides. The database currently has all genes referred to in this paper and we aim to add all relevant genes for which there is sufficient information. The database, written in Foxpro, is available on the world wide web (http://www.angis.su.oz.au/BacPolGenes/BPGD.html). We hope the database will facilitate the distribution of information about these genes and also ease the introduction of the new scheme. Information on the submission of suggestions for new names is available at the same site. We have also put an expanded version of this paper on the web28 because, owing to space limitations, we have only been able to discuss some aspects of the proposal here.

#### **Outstanding questions**

- What information should a gene name convey?
- How do we know when two genes with a high degree of sequence similarity are 'the same' gene?
- How should duplicate genes within a genome be named?
- How far should we go in other areas to standardize gene names. both within and between bacterial species, especially now that more and more genes are being described in large-scale sequencing?

UDP-Gal, UDP-Glc and UDP-GlcNAc are the precursors, but as all of these are involved in other pathways in these species, the genes for their synthesis are present elsewhere on the chromosome. The transferase genes for the Salmonella and E. coli dysenteriae O antigens have been identified and named wbaN,O,P,V,Q,R,W,Z and wbbP,Q,R, respectively. Only one transferase gene (wbbL) has been identified for E. coli K-12 and the others will be among the genes named wbbH-L. Each transferase is unique and the details can only be found from the literature or, more easily, from the BPGD (see Box 2).

These O antigens are polymerized and exported by a different pathway from those in the first group of O antigens discussed. The gene clusters contain wzx genes, which encode a membrane protein thought to be the O-unit flippase, and most contain wzy, the O-antigen polymerase gene. The gene wzz, which controls the chain length of the O antigen, is present in an adjacent location in each case. It is noteworthy that the wzy gene of Salmonella groups B and D1 is anomalous because it occurs elsewhere on the chromosome.

The examples illustrated in Figs 2 and 3 include cases of pathway genes common to different gene clusters and of homologous genes of some of the saccharideprocessing protein families. It is now easy to see these patterns, which before were obscured by the variety of nomenclatures used. In addition, there are several examples of rfb names being used for genes of different function, which will be avoided under the proposed scheme.

#### Benefits and drawbacks of the BPGN scheme

The BPGN scheme: (1) allows each distinctive gene to have a name that is unique but identifies it as a bacterial surface polysaccharide gene, (2) allows genes with the same function to have the same name, (3) gives pathway genes names that relate to the pathway and (4) gives distinctive names to genes for families of saccharideprocessing proteins.

The BPGN will remove the confusion caused by the use of different names for genes of one function and the same name for genes of different functions. The use of specific names for pathway and saccharide-processing genes will make it easier to compare genes from different species. Increasingly, there will be a desire for, and the possibility of, computer analysis of patterns in particular classes of genes and in particular groups of organisms. This will be difficult if varying approaches to nomenclature are applied. If the proposal presented here is generally adopted, it will facilitate analysis and help those outside this exciting area to access the data without a long apprenticeship in nomenclature.

There are inevitably some drawbacks. By giving the same name to genes with the same function, all genes in a gene cluster will not have the same three-letter symbol. However, we believe that the advantages of a common name for a common function far outweigh this drawback. Perhaps the greatest problems are that the scheme entails forgetting very familiar names and that, for a while at least, the old scheme will coexist with the new. However, continuity with previous nomenclature has been retained by using the second and fourth letters to maintain a link with the old name. It is perhaps worth noting that this is not the first major change in nomenclature; LPS genes were first named rou genes because wild-type strains of Salmonella, E. coli and other species have a smooth colonial morphology when cultured on solid medium. Mutations in LPS genes affect the smooth phenotype and the mutants were described as rough (rou). Later, when it was found that they clustered in different parts of the chromosome, they were renamed rfa (rough A), rfb (rough B) and rfc (rough C).

#### **Conclusions**

A draft of this manuscript was discussed at the American Society for Microbiology (ASM) meeting in Las Vegas, NV, USA in April 1994. It has been through much discussion and many drafts since then. Everything included in the proposal, and many alternatives not adopted, was discussed at length. Not all decisions were easy and there are still some reservations, in particular about replacing rfc with wzy. What is clear is that change is needed because the existing terminology cannot cope. We hope that the BPGN will be widely adopted and that as it becomes familiar we will all reap the benefits of unambiguous names and ease of cross-cluster and cross-species comparisons.

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#### Fungi, animals and us

The Mycota Vol. VI: Human and Animal Relationships edited by D.H. Howard and J.D. Miller

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n the recent history of mycology, there has been an unfortunate tendency for mycologists to diverge, becoming either 'microbiologically centred' specialists in medical and veterinary mycology or 'botanically centred' specialists in saprotrophic and plant pathogenic fungi. One bonus of the molecular biological revolution of the past decade is that these two camps are becoming reunited, so it is again possible to compare activities of fungi in different environments. Thus, mycologists of all persuasions will find material of interest in this volume. It is the sixth in the eight-volume series entitled *The Mycota*, a Comprehensive Treatise on Fungi and Experimental Systems for Basic and Applied Research. The most-notable comparable multivolume treatment was The Fungi by Ainsworth and Sussman (1965–1973), which documented the academic research at the time, with detailed treatments of physiology, cytology, life cycles and taxonomy. In recent decades, the tenor of research has changed, lead

by the revolution of molecular biology, so that we now have the complete genome sequence of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, and genes from other fungi are being sequenced at an increasingly rapid pace. This enables us to look at the growth and activities of microorganisms in new lights and, while the approach of *The Mycota Vol. VI* is to look at the biochemical basis of interactions between fungi and their animal hosts, few chapters in this volume are untouched by the molecular aspects of these relationships.

The bulk of the book reviews medical and veterinary mycology, with eight chapters on fungal pathogenesis and five on allergenic and toxigenic effects. The first chapter sets the scene by reviewing the wide range of fungal factors associated with pathogenesis and is followed by a detailed account of the involvement of enzymes, especially proteases, in this process. Chapters 2 and 3 consider cell-mediated and humoral immunity, respectively: fields that have received much impetus because of the prevalence of fungal infections in AIDS patients. The major human fungal pathogens, particularly those associated with HIV infection, are then dealt with in detail. In addition to their pathogenesis by growth in human and animal tissue, fungi have major detrimental effects on our lives and those of our farm animals and pets by more insidious means: by the inhalation of their spores or mycelial fragments, giving rise to 'organic-dust toxic syndrome' and allergic responses, and by ingestion of mycotoxins. The characterization of these effects is notoriously difficult in the field and they are probably often unrecognized, which is a good reason for devoting nearly a quarter of this volume to them.

In evolutionary terms, fungi and invertebrates have coexisted for very much longer than fungi and vertebrates. Thus, it is not surprising to find a much more diverse range of associations between the former groups than between the latter, which are almost totally confined to a relatively small number of pathogenic fungi. One exception, where specific coevolution has occurred, is the occurrence of the anaerobic chytrids that inhabit the guts of all ruminants and those of many other herbivorous mammals. These remarkable microorganisms are discussed within a comprehensive, well-illustrated chapter (Chapter 14). Much older associations are shown by the many types of interactions between fungi and invertebrates. The most studied are the interactions with insects, and three chapters consider these. Chapter 16 describes the strange Trichomycetes, probably a polyphyletic grouping, which are very highly adapted to their obligate life in arthropod guts, while Chapters 17 and 18 deal with pathogenic, mutualistic and