Evidence for multiple xenogenous origins of plastids: comparison of *psbA*-genes with a xanthophyte sequence

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Summary. When only plastidic features are considered, it is difficult to distinguish between monophyletic and polyphyletic xenogenous origins of plastids. We suggest that a direct comparison of nuclear and plastidic sequencesimilarity pattern will help to solve this problem. The D1 amino acid sequence of six major groups of photosynthetic eukaryotes and of the two groups of photosynthetic prokaryotes are now available, including the psbAgene product from Bumilleriopsis filiformis, which is the first molecular sequence reported for a xanthophycean alga. Evidence is provided for an independent and polyphyletic origin of plastids from five out of the six major taxa of photosynthetic eukaryotes. This conclusion is reached by comparing a plastid-based pattern of D1 similarity with a nucleus-based similarity pattern published recently. Furthermore, the availability of D1 sequences from five eukaryotic algae led to a re-evaluation of the taxonomic position of Prochlorothrix.

Key words: Endosymbiosis – *psbA* – Xanthophyceae – *Prochlorothrix, Bumilleriopsis* – Eukaryotic algae

Introduction

Molecular data have played an instrumental role in the discussion of whether plastids are of autogenous or xenogenous origin (Giovanni et al. 1988). It is known that not only molecular sequences (Gray and Doolittle 1982; Giovanni et al. 1988) but also gene organization and mode of expression, as well as other features of plastids, closely resemble those of eubacteria (Margulis 1981; Golden et al. 1986; Cavalier-Smith 1987) and are fundamentally different from those of the nucleus. Consequently, the xenogenous origin of plastids is no longer a matter for discussion.

The classification of photosynthetic eukaryotes is disputed. The differences in pigment composition and ultrastructure of the plastid, as well as features of the nucleus and flagella, led to the separation of at least four, but more often seven to ten, major groups. For instance, the superkingdom of eukaryotes may be divided into nine kingdoms. Within these, five kingdoms include photosynthetic organisms (Cavalier-Smith 1981; Gray 1989). Considering the vast differences between these five kingdoms, the general proposal of a multiple polyphyletic origin of plastids (Margulis 1981; Raven 1970; Whatley and Whatley 1981) seems understandable, but is nevertheless actively disputed (Cavalier-Smith 1982, 1987; Kowallik 1989). Cavalier-Smith (1982), for instance, emphatically suggests a monophyletic origin of all plastids, interpreting the differences by subsequent loss or convergent evolution of characters, whereas the nucleotide sequences of plastidic genes coding for ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase in *Cvanophora* (Valentin and Zetsche 1990a), Antithamnion (Kostrzewa et al. 1990) and Cvanidium (Valentin and Zetsche 1990b) have been discussed in a polyphyletic model.

To contribute to this vivid discussion, suitable sequence data from as many photosynthetic eukaryotes as possible must be gathered from both plastid DNA and nuclear DNA. We suggest that the comparison of nuclear with plastidic sequence-similarity pattern will help to distinguish more clearly between monophyletic and polyphyletic origins of plastids. Such a comparison has not yet been performed. Accordingly, we decided to compare nuclear sequence-similarity patterns which have been published recently (Perasso et al. 1989; Sogin et al. 1989) with that of the *psbA* gene, coding for the D1-protein of photosystem II (herbicide-binding protein). This is a most suitable probe for such evaluations since it is localized on the plastome of all eukaryotic algae and plants so far examined, is ubiquitous for oxygen-evolving photosystems, highly conserved and comparatively long (360 amino acids), all of which is essential when deeply branched groups of protists have to be resolved.

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Materials and methods

The eukaryotic alga Bumilleriopsis filiformis Vischer (Xanthophyceae, Heterokontophyta: Culture Collection of the University of Göttingen, Germany, no. 809-2) was grown as described by Böger et al. (1981). Cells were disrupted, proteins removed by phenol extraction, DNA was precipitated and ptDNA separated from nDNA by CsCl equilibrium density centrifugation, according to standard methods. ptDNA was digested with EcoRI, fragments were separated on agarose gels and blotted to nitrocellulose membranes. A 4.55 kb fragment, hybridizing to a biotinylated psbA-containing probe from Phalaris paradoxa, was excised from the gel, purified by glass milk adsorption (Geneclean, Bio 101 Inc, La Jolla, Calif., USA) and ligated to EcoRI-cleaved pBR322. For sequencing, a 2.3 kb EcoRV fragment of the cloned DNA was subcloned in Bluescript (Stratagene, La Jolla, Calif., USA). A family of overlapping deletions was produced by exonuclease III. Single-stranded DNA, generated by super-infection with the helper phage M13K07 (Pharmacia, Uppsala, Sweden), was sequenced (Sequenase, United States Biochemicals protocol, Cleveland, Ohio, USA, 1990). The similarity network was calculated on the basis of a weighted (Fitch and Margoliash 1967), as well as an unweighted, distance matrix by the FITCH modus of the PHYLIP phylogenetic program package (Joseph Felsenstein, Seattle, USA). Additionally, using the PROT-PARS modus of PHYLIP, several most parsimonious analyses were performed by placing different weights to the seven-amino acid gap (see Fig. 3). A different similarity pattern, with unacceptably high average standard deviations, was obtained only, when a constant rate of molecular evolution was applied in tree construction (e.g., UPGMA-programs). Individual sequences are given in the following references: Amaranthus (Hirschberg and McIntosh 1983), Secale (Boyer and Mullet 1988), Marchantia (Ohyama 1986), Chlamydomonas (Erickson et al. 1984), Euglena (Karabin et al. 1984), Cyanidium (Maid et al. 1990), Cyanophora (Janssen et al. 1989), Prochlorothrix (Morden and Golden 1989a), Synechococcus 7002 (Gingerich et al. 1988), Synechococcus 7942 (Golden et al. 1986), Freymella (Mulligan et al. 1984), Anabaena (Curtis and Haselkorn 1984).

Results and discussion

Taxonomic position of eukaryotic algae

When ptDNA of B. filiformis (Xanthophyceae, Heterokontophyta) was digested with different restriction enzymes, only one fragment hybridized with a psbA-containing probe (Schönfeld et al. 1987) derived from P. paradoxa (Gramineae, Embryophyta). This indicates that only one copy exists per chloroplast genome, which was also reported for Cyanophora (Janssen et al. 1989), Cvanidium (Maid et al. 1990), Euglena (Karabin et al. 1984) and plant chloroplasts (Hirschberg and McIntosh 1983; Ohyama 1986; Zurawski et al. 1990). By contrast, in cvanobacteria (Curtis and Haselkorn 1984; Mulligan et al. 1984; Golden et al. 1986; Gingerich et al. 1988) and Prochlorothrix (Morden and Golden 1989a) several copies have been found. The sequence of the Bumilleriopsis psbA gene has been determined (Fig. 1) and the derived amino acid sequence compared with other D1 sequences in order to construct an unrooted similarity network (Fig. 2). Three obvious results emerge: (1) The cvanobacteria form a distinct cluster, including Prochlorothrix. (2) Chlamydomonas forms a cluster with the Embryophyta. It seems most likely that Euglena also belongs to this group. (3) The eukaryotic algae

-106 AAAATTTTAAGAAGAGAGATATATTTAGGTTCCCTGGTATATAATAATATATAAC $\frac{\pi}{-3}$																
-53 TGGCCAAGTGCCTG <u>GGAAGAATAAACCTCAAAATTAAAAAACAAAAC</u>																
ATC	ACI	GCA	ACT	TTA	GAA	AGA	CGC	GAA	AGC	ATT	AGC	TTA	TGG	GAA	45	
Met	Thr	Ala	Thr	Leu	Glu	Arg	Arg	Glu	Ser	Ile	Ser	Leu	Trp	Glu		
CGI	TTC	TGT	TCT	TGG	ATT	ACT	AGC	ACT	GAA	AAC	CGT	TTA	TAC	ATC	90	
Arg	Phe	Cys	Ser	Trp	Ile	Thr	Ser	Thr	Glu	Asn	Arg	Leu	Tyr	Ile		
GGT Gly	TGG Trp	TTT Phe	GGT Gly	GTA Val	CTA Leu	ATG Met	ATC Ile	CCT Pro	ACA Thr	TTA Leu	TTA	ACT Thr	GCA Ala	ACA Thr	135	
ACT	TGT	TAC	ATT	ATT	GCG	TTC	ATC	GCT	GCT	CCT	CCA	GTA	GAC	ATC	180	
Thr	Cys	Tyr	Ile	Ile	Ala	Phe	Ile	Ala	Ala	Pro	Pro	Val	Asp	Ile		
GAT	GGT	ATC	CGT	GAA	CCA	GTA	GCT	GGT	TCA	TTA	CTT	TAC	GGA	AAC	225	
Asp	Gly	Ile	Arg	Glu	Pro	Val	Ala	Gly	Ser	Leu	Leu	Tyr	Gly	Asn		
AAC	ATC	ATT	TCT	GGT	GCT	GTA	ATT	CCT	TCT	TCA	FCA AAC GCA		ATC	GGT	270	
Asn	Ile	Ile	Ser	Gly	Ala	Val	Ile	Pro	Ser	Ser	Ser Asn Ala		Ile	Gly		
GTA	CAC	TTC	TAC	CCT	GTA	TGG	GAA	GCT	GCT TCA GT		GTT	GAT	GAG	TGG	315	
Val	His	Phe	Tyr	Pro	Val	Trp	Glu	Ala	Ala Ser Val		Val	Asp	Glu	Trp		
TTA	TAC	AAC	GGT	GGT	CCT	TAC	CAA	TTA	ATC	GTA	TTA	CAC	TTC	TTA	360	
Leu	Tyr	Asn	Gly	Gly	Pro	Tyr	Gln	Leu	Ile	Val	Leu	His	Phe	Leu		
TTA	GGT	GTT	GCT	AGT	TAC	ATG	GGT	CGT	GAA	TGG	GAA	CTT	AGC	TAC	405	
Leu	Gly	Val	Ala	Ser	Tyr	Met	Gly	Arg	Glu	Trp	Glu	Leu	Ser	Tyr		
CGT	TTA	GGT	ATG	CGT	CCT	TGG	ATC	TTC	GTA	GCT	TTC	TCT	GCT	CCA	450	
Arg	Leu	Gly	Met	Arg	Pro	Trp	Ile	Phe	Val	Ala	Phe	Ser	Ala	Pro		
GTA	GCA	GCA	GCT	TCA	GCT	GTA	TTC	TTA	GTA	TAC	CCA	ATT	GGT	CAA	495	
Val	Ala	Ala	Ala	Ser	Ala	Val	Phe	Leu	Val	Tyr	Pro	Ile	Gly	Gln		
GGT	TCA	TTC	TCT	GAT	GGT	ATG	CCA	TTA	GGT	ATT	TCT	GGT	ACT	TTC	540	
Gly	Ser	Phe	Ser	Asp	Gly	Met	Pro	Leu	Gly	Ile	Ser	Gly	Thr	Phe		
AAC	TTC	ATG	TTA	GTA	TTC	CAA	GCT	GAA	CAC	AAC	ATT	TTA	ATG	CAC	585	
Asn	Phe	Met	Leu	Val	Phe	Gln	Ala	Glu	His	Asn	11e	Leu	Met	His		
CCA	TTC	CAC	ATG	GCT	GGT	GTT	GCT	GGT	GTA	TTT	GGT	GGT	TCA	TTA	630	
Pro	Phe	His	Met	Ala	Gly	Val	Ala	Gly	Val	Phe	G1y	Gly	Ser	Leu		
TTC	TCT	GCT	ATG	CAC	GGT	TCT	TTA	GTA	ACT	TCA	AGT	TTA	ATC	CGT	675	
Phe	Ser	Ala	Met	His	Gly	Ser	Leu	Val	Thr	Ser	Ser	Leu	11e	Arg		
GAA	ACT	AGT	GAA	GTA	GAA	TCT	ACT	AAC	TAC	GGT	TAC	AAA	TTC	GGT	720	
Glu	Thr	Ser	Glu	Val	Glu	Ser	Thr	Asn	Tyr	Gly	Tyr	Lys	Phe	Gly		
CAA	GAA	GAA	GAA	ACT	TAC	AAC	ATC	GTA	GCT	GCA	CAC	GGT	TAC	TTT	765	
Gln	Glu	Glu	Glu	Thr	Tyr	Asn	Ile	Val	Ala	Ala	His	Gly	Tyr	Phe		
GGT	CGT	TTA	ATC	TTC	CAA	TAC	GCT	TCA	TTC	AAC	AAC	TCT	CGT	GCT	810	
Gly	Arg	Leu	Ile	Phe	Gln	Tyr	Ala	Ser	Phe	Asn	Asn	Ser	Arg	Ala		
TTA	CAC	TTC	TTC	TTA	GCT	GCA	TGG	CCT	GTA	GTA	GGT	ATC	TGG	TTA	855	
Leu	His	Phe	Phe	Leu	Ala	Ala	Trp	Pro	Val	Val	Gly	Ile	Trp	Leu		
ACT	GCT	TTA	GGC	GTA	ACG	ACT	ATG	GCA	TTC	AAC	TTA	AAC	GGT	TTC	900	
Thr	Ala	Leu	Gly	Val	Thr	Thr	Met	Ala	Phe	Asn	Leu	Asn	Gly	Phe		
AAC	TTC	AAC	CAA	TCA	GTA	GTA	GAC	AGC	CAA	GGT	CGT	GTA	ATC	AAC	945	
Asn	Phe	Asn	Gln	Ser	Val	Val	Asp	Ser	Gln	Gly	Arg	Val	Ile	Asn		
ACT	TGG	GCA	GAC	ATC	ATC	AAC	CGT	GCT	GAT	TTA	GGT	ATG	GAA	GTA	990	
Thr	Trp	Ala	Asp	Ile	Ile	Ásn	Arg	Ala	Asp	Leu	G1y	Met	Glu	Val		
ATG	CAC	GAA	CGT	AAC	GCG	CAC	AAC	TTC	CCA	TTA	GAT	TTA	GCA	GCT	1035	
Met	His	Glu	Arg	Asn	Ala	His	Asn	Phe	Pro	Leu	Asp	Leu	Ala	Ala		
GGT	GAA	GTT	CTT	CCT	GTA	GCT	GTA	TCT	GCT	CCA	GCA	GTA	CAC	GCG	1080	
Gly	Glu	Val	Leu	Pro	Val	Ala	Val	Ser	Ala	Pro	Ala	Val	His	Ala		
TAA	GG1	AATT	CAGA	ATCO	TAAT	TACT A	AACT	TAGT	CTCC	GTTTC	STTCI	CCT	CTAC	GAAA	1037	
TAGAAGGAGAACAAAAAATAATTTCTTTTCTGTCGATTCATTATCATTATCTTATGT												1196				
Fig.	1.	Nuc	leot	ide a	and	ded Nr	uceo	1 an	ino	-acio	d se at fl	quei he fi	ice (of th	te <i>psb</i>	

Fig. 1. Nucleotide and deduced amino-acid sequence of the *psbA* gene from *B. filiformis*. Numbering starts at the first ATG in the open reading frame. Sequences that show homology to prokaryotic "-10" and "-35" promotor elements are *underlined*. A putative ribosome-binding site (Shine-Dalgano sequence) is indicated at position -37 to -39. The *vertical arrow* marks the start for transcription of the mRNA as determined by primer extension (data not shown). The *horizontal arrows* near the 3' end of the transcript indicate an inverted repeat which is able to form a stem-loop structure. The cyanobacterial-like insertion of seven amino acids close to the carboxy terminus is shown in *bold type*

Cyanophora, Bumilleriopsis and Cyanidium cannot be assigned to either the plant or prokaryote cluster.

Taxonomic position of Prochlorothrix

In contrast to chlorophyll-b-containing cells, and similar to phycobiliprotein-containing cells, the predicted D1 amino acid sequence of B. filiformis consists of 360 amino acids (Fig. 1). The smaller size of the D1 protein from chlorophyll-b-containing cells results from a seven-amino acid gap close to the carboxy terminus of the protein (Fig. 3). This gap is found in Euglena, Chlamvdomonas, plants and the prochlorobacterium Prochlorothrix, and has been taken as evidence for a distinct origin of green chloroplasts, being descendants of a Prochlorothrix-like ancestor (Morden and Golden 1989a, b). The D1 sequence, however, clearly clusters with the cyanobacterial sequences, even when the gap is weighted as seven indi-



Fig. 2. Similarity pattern of D1 sequences, illustrating the relative positions of five eukaryotic alagae. The C-terminal gap of seven amino acids (see Fig. 3) was treated as if it were the result of seven independent mutations. The unrooted tree shown was the best of 255 examined (sum of squares, 0.6427; average standard deviation, 6.46%)

by confining the analysis to hydrophilic, highly variable, regions of the D1 protein (data not shown), by the number of *psbA* gene copies in prokaryotes and chloroplasts and, thirdly, by a 16S-rRNA analysis of Prochlorothrix (Turner et al. 1989). The topology of Fig. 2 was confirmed by the most parsimonious approach, when the gap of seven amino acids was treated as reflecting one or two evolutionary events. It appears unlikely that several mutational events produced the seven-amino acid gap, rather a single deletion may be assumed. In addition to the species available for previous studies, we were able to include three eukaryotic algae in our calculations. Although Bumilleriopsis, Cvanidium and Cvanophora do not have the seven-amino acid gap (Fig. 3), their D1 sequences are more similar to plants than the *Prochlorothrix* sequence. Therefore, the interpretation of Prochlorothrix being closely related to the ancestor of green chloroplasts needs to be reconsidered. This conclusion is in contrast to previous studies which exclusively used the disputed (Felsenstein 1983, 1988), most parsimonious, method of tree construction in which the seven-amino acid gap was weighted as being the outcome of several independent mutations (Morden and Golden 1989a, b).

Multiple xenogenous origin of plastids?

Although the presence or absence of the seven-amino acid gap, together with pigment composition, could be used as an argument for at least two independent endosymbiotic events leading to either chloroplasts or phycobiliprotein-containing plastids, this evidence is by no means conclusive. The following evolutionary scenario is given to illustrate that the data available can just as well be interpreted in terms of a monophyletic origin of plastids.

It may be speculated that only one ancient endocytobiotic event happened (Cavalier-Smith 1982, 1987), involving a cyanobacteria-like photosynthetic prokaryote which could synthesize chlorophyll a, b and c. As was shown by Wilhelm (1988), chloroplasts of the green alga Mantoniella are indeed able to synthesize functional chlorophyll a, b and c. This finding requires a reinvestiga-

Bumilleriopsis	L	D	L	A	A	G	Ε	V	L	P	V	A	V	S	A	P	A	V	H	A
Cyanophora	L	D	L	A	S	G	E	V	M	P	V	A	L	Т	A	P	s	I	N	A
Cyanidium	L	D	L	A	S	E	V	S	L	P	V	A	L	N	K	V	E	Ι	N	G
Anabaena	L	D	L	A	A	G	E	V	A	P	V	A	L	Т	A	P	A	I	N	G
Prochlorothrix	L	D	L	A	A	v	K	-	-	-	-	-		-	A	P	S	Ι	I	G
Euglena	L	D	L	A																
Chlamydomonas	L	D	L	A	s	т	N	-	-		~	-	-	-	S	s	S	N	N	-
Marchantia	L	D	L	A	A	v	E	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	A	P	A	v	N	G
Spinacia	L	D	L	•	A	I	E	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	A	P	S	Т	N	G

Fig. 3. Comparison of amino-acid sequences at the C-terminus of the D1 polypeptide from different genera. The deduced amino acids from residue 341 to the termination codon are shown for each sequence, and those conserved among all sequences analyzed are printed in bold type. The arrow marks the cleavage site at which nine amino acids are removed from the C-terminus of the D1 pre-protein of Spinacia during maturation

tion of evolutionary models in which the type of chlorophyll present has been used as a phylogenetic marker. Immediately after endocytobiosis, one line of descendants, eventually leading to green chloroplasts, lost seven (or more, see *Euglena*) amino acids as well as the ability to synthesize phycobiliproteins and chlorophyll c. After these speculative events, but before the rather complex process of gene transfer between the endocytobiont and the host genome started, the endocytobiont escaped from some cells, giving rise to the prochlorobacteria. The second major evolutionary line retained the ability to synthesize phycobiliproteins and the full psbA sequence, but lost chlorophyll b and c, leading to the chloroplasts of the Rhodophyta and Cvanophora. Early in evolution, a sister group of this branch lost its ability to synthesize phycobiliproteins and chlorophyll b, but retained chlorophyll c and eventually led to the Heterokontophyta (Chromophyta).

Whether or not such a scenario is accepted, this discussion demonstrates that an unequivocal interpretation of plastidic features in terms of a single or multiple xenogenous appearance of plastids is, to say the least, difficult (see also Gray 1989; Cavalier-Smith 1987; Perasso et al. 1989; Scherer et al. 1985; Reith and Cattolico 1986). As Gray (1989) stated recently, "there is at present no clear-cut molecular evidence" for a polyphyletic origin of plastids. Largely unknown mutational events must be postulated to establish an endocytobiosis. Apart from complex processes of directed gene transfer including regulatory elements, a functional endocytobiosis would require the addition of transit peptides to many hundreds of genes to be transferred to the nucleus, a chain of events which, according to Cavalier-Smith (1987), makes it rather improbable that plastids evolved more than once. Therefore, if no other compelling data were available, the assumption of a monophyletic origin of plastids implies the least difficulties.

Nuclear versus plastidic similarity pattern

Recently, nuclear sequence data for a variety of protists were published (Perasso et al. 1989; Sogin et al. 1989). These data, together with the availability of D1 sequences for the same protist groups, for the first time allowed a comparison of similarity patterns of nuclear DNA and plastidic DNA as presented in Fig. 4. Provided plastids were of a single xenogenous origin, with subsequent diversification, the nucleus and the plastid, present in the same cell, would share an identical evolutionary history. Therefore, the similarity pattern (not necessarily the branch lengths, because evolutionary rates apparently vary greatly, Scherer 1989, 1990) of plastidic and nuclear sequences should be congruent. If, in contrast, plastids were of multiple xenogenous origin, the evolutionary history of nuclei and plastids would have been different, which, most likely, would be reflected by a divergence of the corresponding similarity patterns of sequences.

Evidently, the tree produced from nuclear rRNA (Fig. 4A) does not match that produced from plastidic D1 sequences (Fig. 4B), except for the cluster of Chloro-



Agir Ari, Di Shimahiy pattern based on naetean Rivia (R) and plastidic D1 (B). Photosynthetic eukaryotes are shown in *bold type*. Panel (A) was compiled based on data from Perasso et al. (1989). Sogin et al. (1989) and Maxwell et al. (1986). The photosynthetic eukaryotes investigated were *Cyanophora* (Glaucocystophyta), *Euglena* (Euglenophyta), *Ochromonas, Synura, Vacuolaria* (Heterokontophyta), *Porphyridium* (Rhodophyta), *Nicotiana, Zea, Oryza* (Embryophyta) and *Pyramimonas, Chlorogonium* (Chlorophyta). As indicated, most of the tree is based on 28S-rRNA sequences, while the branch leading to the Euglenophyta and Glaucocystophyta was adapted from 16S-rRNA and 5S-rRNA data, respectively. For better comparison, panel (B) is rearranged from Fig. 2 but still represents the unrooted tree (for details see legend of Fig. 2). The most appropriate "rooting" is indicated, using *Cyanidium* as an outgroup

phyta and Embryophyta where the hypothesis of a monophyletic origin of chloroplasts is compatible with the data. Our interpretation of Fig. 4 would assume multiple xenogenous origins of plastids from Euglenophyta, Glaucocystophyta, Heterokontophyta, Rhodophyta, and Chlorophyta plus Embryophyta. This interpretation of the data relies on the following assumptions: (1) The major groups under discussion (see Fig. 4) are monophyletic. This assumption is necessary because the same species were not always available for the construction of nuclear and plastidic trees. For instance, in the construction of the nuclear tree, Pyramimonas and Chlorogonium (Chlorophyta) were used, but the D1 sequence is only available for Chlamvdomonas: (2) The basic branching behavior of the trees is robust enough to vield similar branching patterns when different algorithms of tree construction are applied, (3) Similarities found between either nuclear or plastidic sequences are not due to convergence, i.e., unknown selection pressure did not cause different branching patterns in nuclei and plastids. While the second assumption was tested (see materials and methods), the first and the third (as is unavoidable for historical theories) remain disputable.

In summary, we propose that a comparison of both nuclear and plastidic sequence data of the same taxa is an excellent approach to decide whether plastids can be interpreted as being of multiple xenogenous origin and that the data on *psbA* genes are in favour of a polyphyletic origin of plastids. Future comparison of other plastidic genes, together with additional information on nuclear genes, for different photosynthetic prokaryotes will help to test our conclusion.

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