

Part 1: The identification of *Pseudomonas syringae* pathovars based on PR1a-GUS tobacco response

Introduction

Plants defend themselves against many disease-causing pathogens through innate and acquired resistance (Király et al., 2017). The innate plant resistance system relies on Pattern Recognition Receptors (PRRs) on the surface of the plant cell membranes. These perceive Pathogen-Associated Molecular Patterns (PAMPs) and induce PAMP-Triggered Immunity (PTI) in the host (Figure 1) (Zipfel, 2014; Bigeard et al., 2015). While PTI can provide resistance to some non-adapted pathogens, more specialised pathogens can deliver effector proteins through Type III Secretion System (T3SS) (Dodds and Rathjen, 2010; Cunnac et al., 2009), via pilus formation (Romantschuk et al., 2001), leading to Effector-Triggered Susceptibility (ETS) in the host.

Following the 'zig-zag' model of plant immunity (Jones and Dangl, 2006), plants can recognise effector proteins by nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeats (NB-LRRs), encoded by *R* genes, which lead to Effector-Triggered Immunity (ETI). ETI leads to a stronger response compared to PTI, often resulting in localised programmed cell death (PCD) at the infection site, termed as hypersensitive response (HR), to stop further proliferation of the pathogen (Mittler et al., 1997). While T3SS is encoded by hypersensitive and pathogenicity (*hrp*), and conserved *hrp* (*hrc*) genes (Lindgren, 1997), the effector proteins are encoded by avirulence (*avr*) and *hrp* outer protein (*hop*) genes (Alfano and Collmer, 1997; Vencato et al., 2006).

Studies on the genus *Pseudomonas* led to the discoveries of the pathways involved in the interactions between phytopathogenic bacteria and host plant tissues. It has been long debated how to treat the *P. syringae* species complex (Berge et al., 2014; Baltrus et al., 2017) but currently, 60 pathovars are accepted (Bull et al., 2010) which are divided into 13 phylogroups (Berge et al., 2014; Xin et al., 2018). T3SS in *P. syringae* (*Ps*) is encoded by *hrp/hrc* gene clusters, which have been termed as tripartite pathogenicity islands (Alfano et al., 2000).

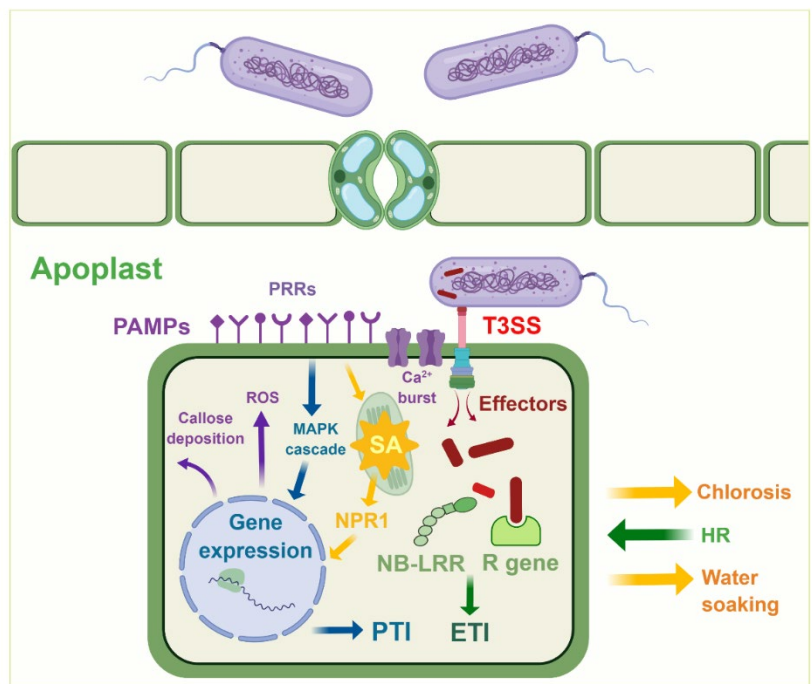


Figure 1. Interactions between phytopathogenic bacteria and the attacked host plant cells. Upon recognition of PAMPs with PRRs, PTI leads to ion fluxes across the plasma membrane, MAP kinase activation, production of ROS, changes in gene expression and callose deposition for plant cell wall reinforcement. The key regulator of the SA-dependent pathway is *NPR1* (Kumar, 2014). The bacteria secrete effectors via T3SS which are recognised by NB-LRRs, produced by *R* genes, leading to ETI in the host. Visible symptoms of successful pathogenesis are chlorosis and water soaking of the plant tissue. In response, HR by the host can limit further spread of the disease. Illustration by author. (PRRs - Pattern Recognition Receptors, PAMPs - Pathogen-Associated Molecular Patterns, PTI - PAMPs-Triggered Immunity, ROS - reactive oxygen species, SA - salicylic acid, *NPR1* - *Nonexpresser of the PR protein 1*, T3SS - Type III Secretion System, NB-LRRs - nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeats, ETI - Effector-Triggered Immunity, HR - Hypersensitive Reaction)

Those *Ps* that are deficient in T3SS activate plant basal defences (i.e. PTI) while wild type *Ps* can suppress basal defences through effector proteins (i.e. ETS) (Nomura et al., 2005; Gimenez-Ibanez). It is also known that *Ps* colonises the xylem and can spread widely in tobacco tissues (Misas-Villamil et al., 2011).

The virulence and growth within the plant is coordinated by the *hrpL* regulon, a member of the extracytoplasmic family of alternate sigma factors (Vencato et al., 2006), which also regulates *HrpA* gene that is responsible for pilus formation (Thwaites et al., 2004; Ortiz-Martin et al., 2010a). *HrpL* also regulates several genes which do not have T3SS-related functions such as the indoleacetate-lysine ligase gene, responsible for the biosynthesis of the coronatine (COR) phytotoxin (Lam et al., 2014).

COR consists of polyketide coronafacic acid and coronamic acid (Bender, 1999) and suppresses host defences (Nomura et al., 2005) and elicits stomatal opening (Melotto et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2013a; Arnaud and Hwang, 2015). COR mimics methyl jasmonate (MeJA) to activate the jasmonic acid (JA) signalling pathway (Nomura et al., 2005) which can counteract the salicylic acid (SA) mediated plant defence (Zheng et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2013b). This was shown by investigating the expression of SA-dependent *Pathogenesis-Related 1* (*PR1*) genes in tobacco (Niki, 1998; Geng et al., 2014) and observing reduced disease severity in COR⁻ mutants of *Ps* pathovars (Smirnova et al., 2002; Brooks et al., 2005). Certain *Ps* pathovars produce additional phytotoxins, such as tabtoxin by *Ps* pv. *tabaci* (*Pst*) (Glickmann et al., 1998) and phaseolotoxin by *Ps* pv. *phaseolicola* (*Psp*) (Xin et al., 2018).

While the host of *Pst* is tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*), the host of *Psp* is the common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) (Figure 2). *Psp* induces *hrp*-dependent HR in tobacco (Mur et al., 2005). Based on interactions with different bean cultivars, nine *Psp* races have been described so far (Taylor et al., 1991; Arnold et al., 2011). The genomes of *Psp* and *Pst*, are 91.59-97.02% similar (Studholme et al., 2009) and belong to the *HopF1* subfamily (Lo et al., 2017). The effector *hopQ1-1*, is suggested to differentiate host specificity of *Psp* from *Pst* (Ferrante et al., 2009) while the disruption of the hairpin gene *hrpZ* may have led to the host specificity of *Pst* (Tsunemi et al., 2011).

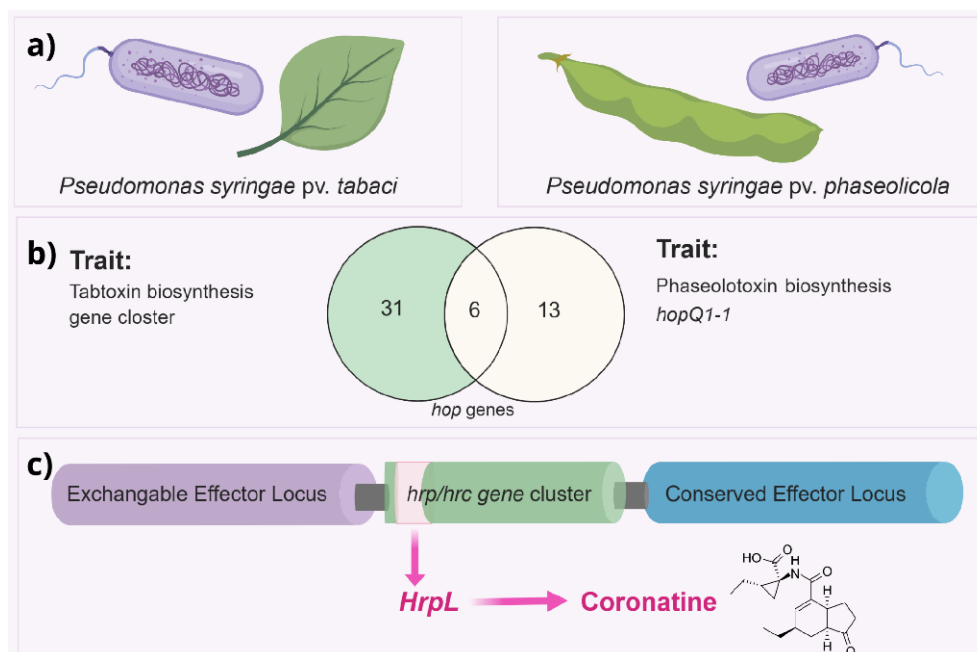


Figure 2. Comparison of *Pseudomonas syringae* (*Ps*) pv. *tabaci* (*Pst*) and pv. *phaseolicola* (*Psp*) phytotoxin biosynthesis gene cluster and the location of *HrpL* regulon. The pathovars infect different hosts (a), produce different phytotoxins while sharing *hop* genes (b) (Studholme et al., 2009). In *Ps*, the *hrp/hrc* gene clusters are flanked by conserved effector locus and exchangeable loci and *HrpL* regulon is regulates T3SS and coronatine production (c) (Lam et al., 2014).

In this study, we identified strains *Pst* and *Psp* and their mutants, *Pst* tabtoxin⁻ and *Psp* hrpL⁻ based visible host responses, bacterial colony counts and PR1a-GUS assay in *N. tabaci*. We expected *Psp* hrpL⁻ non-host strain to be unable to translocate effectors, while the *Pst* tabtoxin⁻ strain was expected to successfully translocate effectors but only induce chlorosis (Figure 3). We expected a stronger response in HR to *Psp* compared to *Pst* and therefore higher PR1a-GUS activity.

	PTI	ETS	ETI	vir ⁺	vir ⁻
<i>Psp</i>	+	+	+	+	-
<i>Psp</i> hrpL ⁻	+	-	-	+	-
<i>Pst</i> tab ⁺	+	+	-	+	-
<i>Pst</i> tab ⁻	+	+	-	-	+

Figure 3. Expectations of host response to the strains and their mutants used in this study. PTI - PAMP-Triggered Immunity, ETS - Effector-Triggered Susceptibility, ETI - Effector-Triggered Immunity, *Psp* - *Pseudomonas* pv. *phaseolicola*, *Pst* - *Pseudomonas* pv. *tabaci*, vir – virulence, tab – tabtoxin.

Methods

Rifampicin-resistant (rif) (Staskawicz et al., 1984) strains 'A', 'B', 'C', 'D' and control 'M' (10 mM MgCl₂) were infiltrated according to Mur et al. (1996) on five PR1a-GUS *Nicotiana tabaci* plants (Warner et al., 1993; Bi et al., 1995). Three leaf cores were taken from each infected plant with 1.5 ml Eppendorf Tubes® and bacterial counts were carried out after five days post infiltration (dpi) (Mur et al., 1996). GUS activity assay (Warner et al., 1992) was expressed as pmol 4-MU (4-methylumbelliferone) min⁻¹/core. All statistical analyses were carried out in R software (R Development Core Team; <https://www.r-project.org/>) using 'ggplot' package (Wickham, 2016).

Results

HR response was observed in PR1a-GUS tobacco plants infiltrated with strain 'A', where the necrotic lesion edge was serrated showing signs of disease spread from the inoculation site (Figure 4). No HR response was seen in tobacco plants inoculated with strain 'B', only signs of spreading chlorosis from the inoculation. HR response was observed in response to strains 'C' and 'D' and the necrotic lesion edges were smooth. HR response was most extreme in response to strain 'D' where the leaf surface became wrinkled. Based on Mur et al. (2005)'s *Ps* pv. *tabaci* lesion phenotype scoring, the host responses were not stronger than Score 2.

Bacterial colony counts per infected tobacco leaf core were on average 3.2×10^4 (95% CIs [2.3×10^4 , 4×10^5]) for strain 'A' (Figure 5a), and 9.3×10^4 (95% CIs [7.9×10^4 , 1.06×10^5]) for strain 'B'. For strain 'C' colony counts were on average 5.1×10^4 (95% CIs [4.09×10^4 , 6.1×10^4]) and on average 1.6×10^4 (95% CIs [1.4×10^4 , 1.8×10^4]) colonies were recovered for strain 'D'. One-way ANOVA found a statistically significant difference ($F = 15.46$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.001$) between the bacterial colony numbers and strains. Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) post hoc test found significant differences between strains 'A' and 'B' ($P = 0.004$), 'B' and 'C' ($P = 0.033$) and 'B' and 'D' ($P = 0.001$).

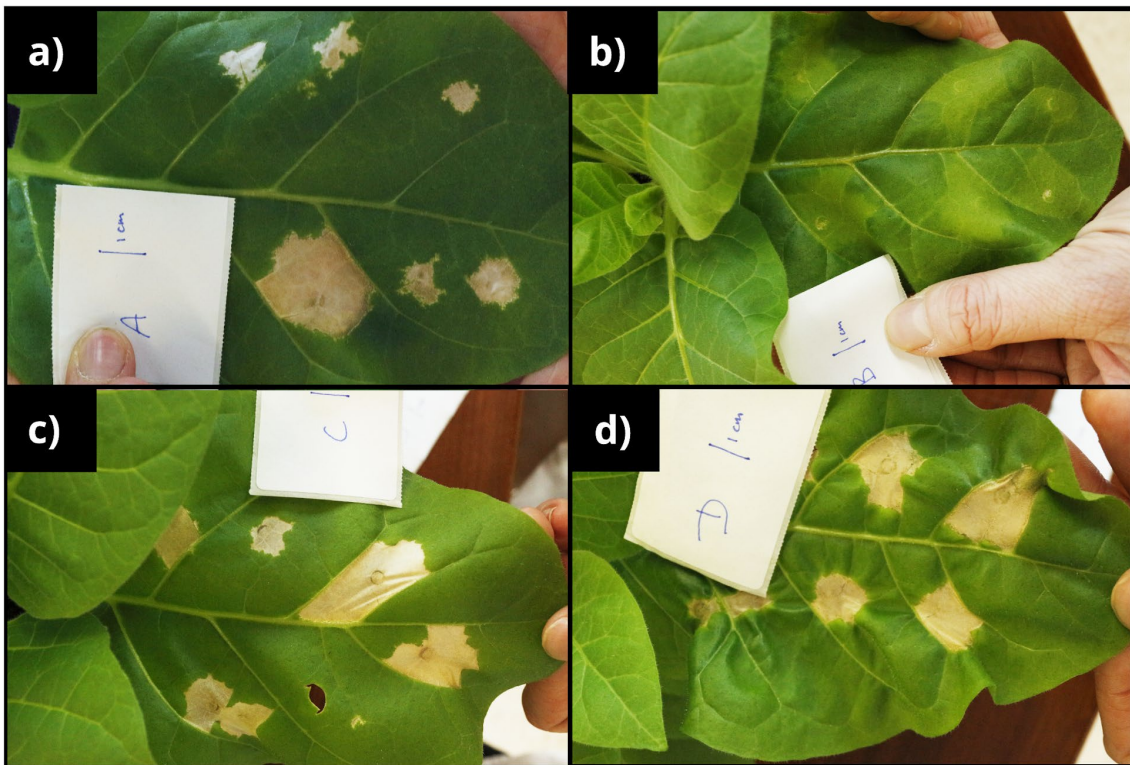


Figure 4. Infiltrations with strain 'A'(a), 'B' (b), 'C' (c) and 'D' (d) on tobacco leaves. While strain 'B' did not elicit hypersensitive response, strain 'D' appeared to lead to the strongest host response.

PR1-a GUS expression in tobacco inoculated with strain 'A' was on average $1,897.5 \text{ pmol } 4 \text{ MU min}^{-1}/\text{core}$ (95% CIs [758.11, 3036.89]) (Figure 5b), and on average $458.33 \text{ pmol } 4 \text{ MU min}^{-1}/\text{core}$ (95% CIs [0.00, 1231.02]) for strain 'B'. In tobacco inoculated with strain 'C', GUS activity was on average $2,190.83 \text{ pmol } 4 \text{ MU min}^{-1}/\text{core}$ (95% CIs [905.66, 3476.01]) and for strain 'D', GUS activity was on average $3,694.16 \text{ pmol } 4 \text{ MU min}^{-1}/\text{core}$ (95% CIs [3075.444, 4312.89]). One-way ANOVA found a statistically significant difference ($F = 7.84$, $df = 4$, $P = 0.004$) between PR1a-GUS activity and different strains. However, HSD post hoc test only found significant differences between strains 'B'-'D' ($P = 0.01$) and 'D'-'M' ($P = 0.0039$).

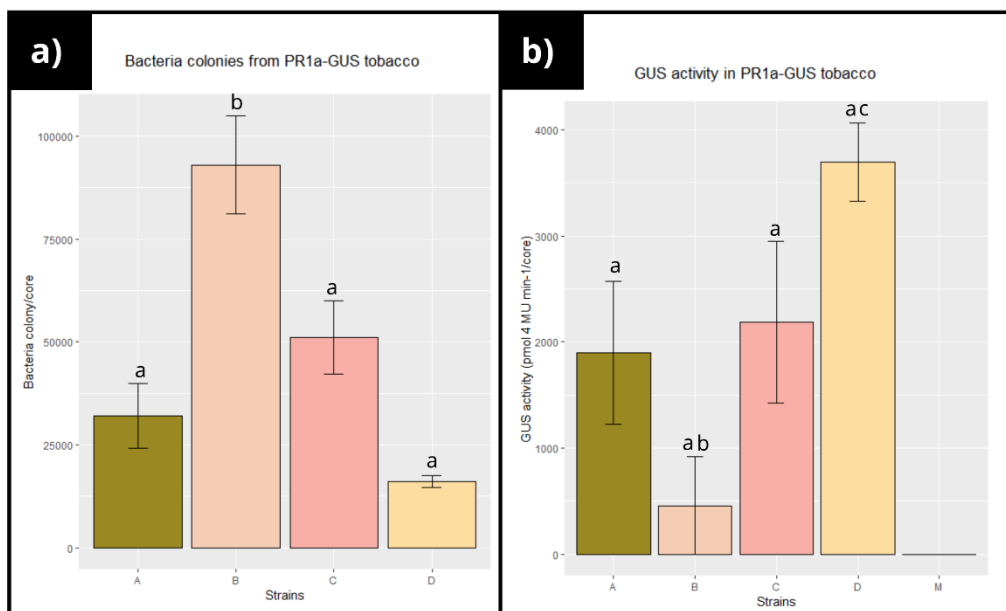


Figure 5. Bacterial colony counts from leaf cores (a) and PR1a-GUS activity (b) in tobaccos infiltrated with strains 'A', 'B', 'C' and 'D'. ANOVA tests showed that colony counts recovered from tobaccos infiltrated with strain 'B' were the only statistically significantly ($P < 0.05$) different from the other strains.

Discussion

I suggest strain 'D' to be *Ps* pv. *phaseolicola* (*Psp*) as it caused the most extreme HR which has also elicited the highest PR1a-GUS activity. As I expected, the low PR1a-GUS activity in tobaccos infiltrated with strains 'A', 'B' and 'C' in comparison to strain 'D' reflected ETI as reported by Gíemenez-Ibanez et al. (2018). I identify strain 'B' to be the *Psp hrpL*⁻ mutant as it only induced chlorosis, reflecting its incapability of delivering effectors through T3SS. I identify strain 'A' as *Ps* pv. *tabaci* (*Pst*) tabtoxin⁻ mutant due to the lack of chlorosis and serrated necrotic lesion edge. Although no significant difference was found in between strains 'A' and 'C' in terms of bacterial colony count and PR1a-GUS activity, the chlorosis around strain 'C' lesions indicates it to be *Pst*.

The host response to *Pst* and *Psp* was not as strong as described previously (Mur et al., 2000; Mur et al., 2005) but strain 'C' lesions (*Pst*) appeared to spread from the lesions which was previously observed for *Pst* on *N. benthamiana* using chlorophyll *a* fluorescence imaging (Iqbal et al., 2012). I did not observe any chlorosis around the strain 'A' lesions (*Pst* tabtoxin⁻), only serrated necrotic lesion edges. Chlorosis is typically caused by the tabtoxin itself (Turner, 1988; Glickmann et al., 1998) leading to chlorophyll degradation (Cheng et al., 2016). Previous reports either did not detect visible symptoms or observed reduced virulence of *Pst* tabtoxin⁻ mutants on tobacco (Turner and Taha, 1984; Marutani et al., 2008; Barta et al., 1992). While tabtoxin has been established to be complimentary to *Ps* virulence (Turner and Taha, 1984; Salch and Shaw, 1988; Barta et al., 1992; Bender et al., 1999; Arrebola et al., 2011), we did not detect more bacteria colony numbers or reduced SA accumulation when comparing *Pst* and *Pst* tabtoxin⁻ mutants. Chlorosis has been attributed to ammonia production in tabtoxin-treated tissue which stops in dark conditions (Turner and Debbage, 1982), so the role of light could have been a confounding factor. Using spray-infiltration (Marutani et al., 2008) instead of a syringe for infiltration could also improve the experiment (Gottwald and Graham, 1992). As tabtoxin can be identified using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplifications of the respective genes (Lydon and Patterson, 2001), PCR could be used to differentiate *Pst* and *Pst* tabtoxin⁻ strains.

In comparison to *Pst*, *Psp* is unable to spread within the non-host plant (Mur et al., 2000). Bacterial colony numbers were the lowest for *Psp* (strain 'D') while Pr1a-GUS activity was the highest, indicating that it was a non-host strain, and its HopQ1 (*Hrp* outer protein Q) effectors were recognised by the host leading to ETI (Mur et al., 2000; Giska et al., 2013). The *Psp hrpL*⁻ mutant was similarly non-HR reducing as reported in previous studies (Bestwick et al., 1997; Kenton et al., 1999; Klement et al., 1999; Ortiz-Martin et al., 2010a; Kiba et al., 2018). As the bacterial colony counts were the highest for the *Psp hrpL*⁻ mutant (strain 'B') and PR1a-GUS activity was the lowest, these bacteria appeared to successfully spread within a host but only inducing PTI (Kiba et al., 2018). Our bacterial colony counts were similar to those of Ortiz-Martin et al.'s (2010b) *Psp hrpL*⁻ mutants 14 days dpi suggesting that suspensions used for infiltration were highly concentrated. The low PR1a-GUS activity was consistent with Huang et al.'s (2003) study where *Ps* pv. *tomato hrpC*⁻ mutant did not trigger SA accumulation. While *Psp hrpD*⁻ mutant on lettuce led to HR, the host response was very localised and the bacteria were unable to multiply (Bestwick et al., 1995).

While the present study relied on visual assessment, bacterial colony counts and PR1a-GUS activity observations, tabtoxin and phaseolotoxin could be identified using BOX-PCR and DNA/DNA hybridisation with nutritional characterisations (Abi et al., 2000). Overall, we were able to identify the least (*Psp hrpL*⁻) and most extreme (*Psp*) host responses but found bacterial colony counts and PR1a-GUS activity were not reliable to distinguish *Pst* and *Pst* tabtoxin⁻.

Part 2: Salicylic acid as a tobacco defence mechanism against Tobacco Mosaic Virus (TMV)

Salicylic acid (SA) is synthesised via the phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL) mediated pathway and the isochromatic synthase catalysed pathway (Janda and Ruelland, 2015). Its production is associated with *Pathogenesis Related (PR)* gene induction which then produce vacuole-targeted proteins against pathogens (Dong, 2004). Tobacco Mosaic Virus (TMV) single stranded RNA virus with a longevity of 3,000 days within the plant sap (Creager et al., 1999). Tobacco plants overexpressing a bacterial *salicylate hydroxylase (NahG)* gene, convert SA to catechol and as a result, the SA levels are very low in the transformed plants (van Wees et al., 2003). Here, we investigated the host responses of PR1a-GUS and NahG tobaccos in response to TMV, using Mur et al.'s methods (1996).

Results

Growth rings were seen around the lesions on the PR1a-GUS tobaccos (Figure 6a) while there were more lesions on the 35S-NahG plants (Figure 6b). The average lesion size from three PR1a-GUS tobacco was 0.158 mm (95% CIs [0.146, 0.171]) and on the 35S-NahG tobacco plants, average lesion size was 0.139 mm (95% CIs [0.136, 0.143]). These were not statistically significant different ($t = 0.95305$, $df = 10.298$, $P = 0.3624$) (Figure 6c).

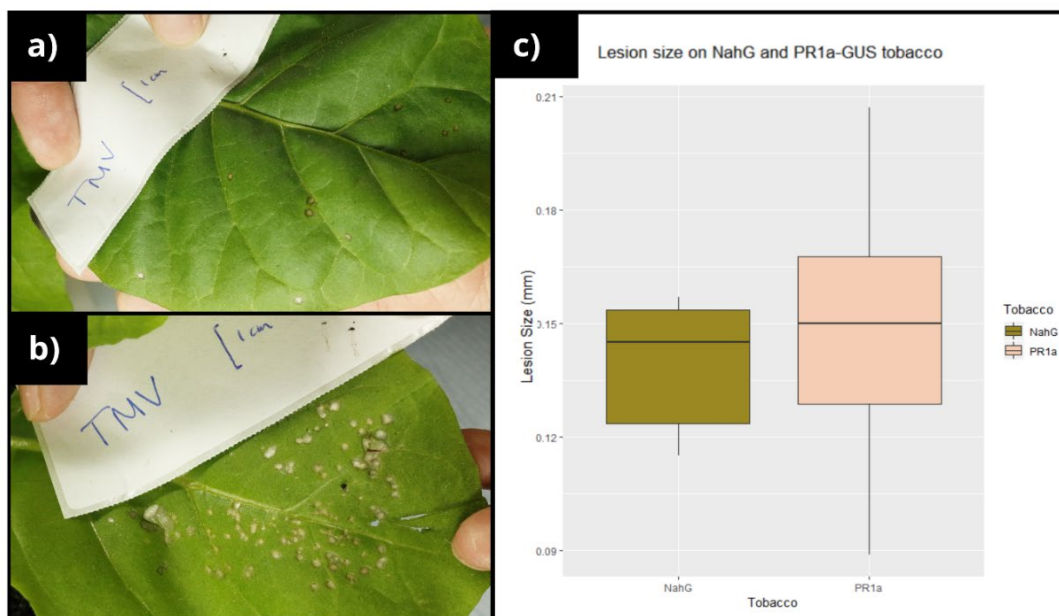


Figure 6. Tobacco plants PR1a-GUS (a) and NahG (b) inoculated with TMV. The lesion sizes did not significantly differ (c) but it was visible that NahG plants had more necrotic lesions while PR1-GUS plants had fewer lesions with visible growth rings. Three replicates were used in this study.

Prediction

While PR1 protein accumulation requires 3-7 days to defend through the SA-mediated pathway, our three (strains 'A', 'C', and 'D') previous *Psp* and *Pst* inoculations elicited necrotic lesions in less than five days. This suggests that if we were to inoculate 35S-NahG with the three strains, we would have observed rapid bacterial spread (e.g. within less than 2 hours) while PR1a-GUS activity would have been negligible as the host defence pathway would have been degraded (Jia et al., 2016). Infiltration with strain 'B' (*Psp hrpL*⁻ mutant) would have led to even higher bacterial colony numbers but would have stayed non-HR inducing. However, the actual action of *PR1a* is not well defined despite being accepted as a SA-mediated plant defence gene (Rayapuram et al., 2008; Gupta et al., 2013). For TMV resistance breeding purposes *N* gene mediated provides more reliable results (Yu et al., 2017).

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