# The Role in Pathogenicity of Some Related Genes in *Xanthomonas campestris* Pathovars *campestris* and *translucens*: A Shuttle Strategy for Cloning Genes Required for Pathogenicity

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To determine whether Xanthomonas campestris pathovars possess related pathogenicity genes, a genomic library of DNA of X. campestris pv. translucens (constructed in the cosmid pLAFR1) was mobilized into nonpathogenic mutants of X. campestris pv. campestris, 8237 and 8288. Two unrelated X. c. pv. translucens clones, pIJ3021 and pIJ3022, restored pathogenicity of the mutants to turnips and production of protease by mutant 8237. pIJ3021 was homologous to pIJ3020, a cosmid containing X. c. pv. campestris DNA known to complement 8237. A Tn5 insertion in pIJ3022 that abolished the ability to restore function to 8237 was transferred by marker exchange into the genome of X. c. pv. translucens, yielding a strain that had lost

pathogenicity to wheat. Pathogenicity of mutant 8288 was restored by the X. c. pv. translucens clone pIJ3003. A Tn5 insertion in pIJ3003 that abolished the restoration of pathogenicity to 8288 was also transferred to the X. c. pv. translucens genome, but the resulting mutant retained pathogenicity to wheat. In addition, transconjugants arising from mass reciprocal transfer of X. c. pv. campestris and X. c. pv. translucens libraries into the heterologous pathovars were tested for modification of pathogenicity to the homologous and heterologous plant hosts (that is, extension or restriction of host range), but no clones showing reproducible effects were found.

Genetic methods for investigating the interaction of pathogens with plants have attracted increasing interest in recent years (Panopoulos and Peet 1985; Daniels et al. 1988). The ability to clone genes encoding factors important for parasitism and pathogenicity should greatly broaden the scope for understanding these complex phenomena. The gram-negative bacterial pathogens are particularly suitable subjects because the necessary molecular genetic procedures have been perfected and numerous general-and specific-purpose gene cloning vectors have been developed.

In our laboratory we have studied primarily Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris (Pammel) Dowson, which causes black rot of crucifers (Williams 1980) and is one of more than 120 pathovars of the species X. campestris. Each pathovar typically infects a small number of related plant species, but taken together the species X. campestris includes major pathogens of many wild and cultivated plants.

One strategy that has been used successfully to clone genes required for pathogenicity is to isolate mutants that are defective in pathogenicity and then to screen a genomic library of wild-type DNA for recombinant plasmids that are able to restore pathogenicity to the mutants (Daniels et al. 1984a,b). Because this approach often requires the repetitive testing of many hundreds or thousands of single colonies for pathogenicity, it is practicable only for host-pathogen systems for which a simple, rapid, and reliable pathogenicity test is available.

In this paper we describe an approach for studying pathogenicity genes that should be applicable to many

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pathovars. Because X. campestris pathovars are believed to be closely related, it is likely that many pathogenicity genes are conserved (either structurally or functionally) among pathovars. If so, it may be possible to complement mutants of one pathovar with DNA from another.

To test this concept, we compared X c. pv. campestris

To test this concept, we compared X. c. pv. campestris and X. c. pv. translucens (Jones et al.) Dye, the agent of black chaff of wheat (Smith et al. 1919). Genes were identified in a library of X. c. pv. translucens DNA that restored the pathogenicity of two mutants of X. c. pv. campestris to turnips. The cloned DNA was mutagenized with Tn5, and the mutations were transferred to the genome of X. c. pv. translucens so that the role of the genes in pathogenicity to wheat could be assessed.

In addition, hybridization studies showed that DNA homologous with fragments containing cloned X. c. pv. campestris pathogenicity genes was present in a range of other pathovars. We also attempted, without success, to modify the behavior of the two pathovars on both homologous and heterologous hosts by transferring cloned DNA between pathovars.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Bacterial strains and plasmids.** Table 1 lists strains and plasmids used. Bacteria were cultured as described by Turner *et al.* (1984).

Genetic and molecular genetic techniques. Plasmid transfer and other genetic techniques were described by Turner et al. (1984). pLAFR1 libraries of X. c. pv. campestris and X. c. pv. translucens were constructed as described by Daniels et al. (1984b), and Tn5 mutagenesis, marker exchange, and DNA hybridization procedures followed the protocols of Turner et al. (1985), except that the plasmid used to displace pLAFR1 derivatives for marker exchange was pIJ3011, a spontaneous Sp<sup>s</sup>

derivative of pPH1JI (Beringer et al. 1978), isolated in our laboratory.

Pathogenicity tests. Aseptic turnip seedlings and mature plants were inoculated with bacterial colonies or with suspensions containing a range of bacterial concentrations (Daniels et al. 1984a). Essentially identical techniques were used to prepare aseptic wheat (cv. Maris Huntsman) seedlings, which were inoculated by clipping the tips of leaves with sterile scissors and applying inoculum with a toothpick. Compost-grown wheat seedlings were also inoculated by infiltrating bacterial suspensions of a range of concentrations into leaf tissue using a hypodermic syringe with a fine needle (26 standard wire gauge). Plants were maintained at 25° C under high humidity after inoculation.

Enzyme assays. Polygalacturonate lyase and protease in culture fluids or cell extracts were assayed as described by Dow *et al.* (1987).

### RESULTS

Properties of the DNA library from X. c. pv. translucens. The library of X. c. pv. translucens DNA consisted of 2,900 recombinant plasmids maintained in Escherichia coli ED8767. Plasmids were isolated by the method of Holmes and Quigley (1981) from 14 randomly chosen colonies and digested with EcoRI, and the products were separated by electrophoresis. Each plasmid gave a 21.6-kilobase (kb) fragment (the pLAFRI vector) together with two to seven (average 5.1) additional fragments of X. c. pv. translucens DNA. The mean total insert size per plasmid was 23 kb (range 14-33 kb).

The pooled library was transferred into appropriate E. coli, X. c. pv. campestris, or X. c. pv. translucens strains by conjugation using a triparental mating (Daniels et al. 1984b), selecting for transfer of the tetracycline-resistance (Tc<sup>r</sup>) marker of pLAFR1. The transfer frequency was in the range of 10<sup>-5</sup> to 10<sup>-3</sup> per recipient.

By testing the phenotype of a sample of the resulting

transconjugants, we found that X. c. pv. translucens DNA was able to "complement" or restore function to some auxotrophic and unpigmented mutants of X. c. pv. campestris and X. c. pv. translucens and some E. coli auxotrophs. These experiments showed that the library has characteristics similar to those of the X. c. pv. campestris library described by Daniels et al. (1984b).

Effect of X. c. pv. campestris and X. c. pv. translucens on turnip and wheat. The symptoms produced by wild-type and mutant X. c. pv. campestris in seedlings and mature leaves of turnip have been described previously (Daniels et al. 1984a). Turnip seedlings whose stems were stabbed with a needle loaded with X. c. pv. translucens inoculum showed no visible symptoms, and leaves infiltrated with broth cultures containing up to 10° colony-forming units per milliliter developed only faint chlorosis restricted to the infiltrated area, a response similar to that produced by sterile, uninoculated broth.

In wheat seedlings, X. c. pv. translucens produced a translucent, chlorotic lesion, which later became necrotic and which spread from the inoculation point to reach a length of 2-5 cm after 7 days (Fig. 1), whereas X. c. pv. campestris caused no visible symptoms.

Although the inoculation techniques do not involve natural routes of infection of plants by the two pathovars, having been devised to permit rapid screening of large numbers of strains in genetic experiments, the responses of the two types of plants to the homologous and heterologous pathovars are clearly distinguishable. Counts of viable bacteria in homogenized plant tissue indicated that both incompatible interactions (that is, turnip-X. c. pv. translucens and wheat-X. c. pv. campestris) were also characterized by inability of the bacteria to multiply significantly, in contrast to the compatible situation (data not shown).

Complementation of X. c. pv. campestris pathogenicity mutants with DNA from X. c. pv. translucens. The X. c. pv. translucens DNA library was transferred into X. c. pv.

Table 1. Bacteria and plasmids

Strain or plasmid	Characteristics <sup>a</sup>	Source or reference	
Bacteria			
Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris			
8004	Rif <sup>r</sup>	Turner et al. 1984	
8237	Nonpathogenic derivative of 8004	Daniels <i>et al.</i> 1984a	
8288	Nonpathogenic derivative of 8004	Daniels et al. 1984a  Daniels et al. 1984a	
Xanthomonas campestris pv. translucens	and a second derivative of 600 t	Daniels et al. 1904a	
XT02	$Sp^r$	Atkins <i>et al.</i> 1987	
XT022	::Tn5 derivative of XT02	This study	
XT023	::Tn5 derivative of XT02	This study This study	
Escherichia coli		rins study	
ED8767	rec A	Murray <i>et al.</i> 1977	
PCT800	::Tn5 derivative of ED8767	Turner et al. 1985	
HB101	recA Str <sup>r</sup>	Boyer and Roulland-Dussoix 196	
Plasmids		Boyer and Rounand-Bussolx 190	
pLAFR1	Tc <sup>r</sup>	Friedman et al. 1982	
pIJ3000	pLAFR1 containing X. c. campestris DNA	Daniels et al. 1984b	
pIJ3020	pLAFR1 containing X. c. campestris DNA	Daniels et al. 1984b	
pIJ3003	pLAFR1 containing X. c. pv. translucens DNA	This study	
pIJ3021	pLAFR1 containing X. c. pv. translucens DNA	This study	
pIJ3022	pLAFR1 containing X. c. pv. translucens DNA	This study	
pRK2013	Km <sup>r</sup> , Tra <sup>+</sup> , Mob <sup>+</sup> , ColE1 replicon	Figurski and Helinski 1979	
pRK2073	Spr, Kms derivative of pRK2013	Leong et al. 1982	
pIJ3011	Sp <sup>s</sup> , Gm <sup>r</sup> , Cm <sup>r</sup> , Tra <sup>+</sup> , Mob <sup>+</sup> IncPi replicon	This study	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Rif = rifampicin, Sp = spectinomycin, Str = streptomycin, Tc = tetracycline, Km = kanamycin, Gm = gentamycin, and Cm = chloramphenicol; and <sup>r</sup> = resistant and <sup>s</sup> = sensitive.

campestris mutants 8237 and 8288. These mutants were originally identified by screening prototrophic survivors of mutagenesis of the wild-type strain 8004 on turnip seedlings to detect altered pathogenicity (Daniels et al. 1984a). Subsequently it was found that 8237 is defective in the production of protease, polygalacturonate lyase, endoglucanase, amylase, and extracellular polysaccharide, which can be readily detected on indicator plates (Daniels et al. 1984b; Tang 1989). A recombinant plasmid, pIJ3020, from the X. c. pv. campestris library restores pathogenicity and the ability to produce all enzymes and polysaccharide. Because of these pleiotropic effects of the genes cloned in pIJ3020 and because detection of protease is simpler and less laborious than pathogenicity testing, we first screened the X. c. pv. translucens library for clones that restored protease production and then tested candidates for other phenotypic characters.

Of the 360 8237 transconjugant colonies containing X. c. pv. translucens DNA that were inoculated onto skimmed milk plates, seven colonies showed enhanced protease activity. The plasmids were isolated from these strains and were found by EcoRI digestion to be of two types, designated pIJ3021 and pIJ3022. pIJ3021 was also able to restore polygalacturonate lyase production to nearnormal levels in 8237, but pIJ3022 gave only slight activity (Table 2). However, both plasmids restored pathogenicity of the mutants to turnip seedlings (Fig. 2) and mature leaves. Symptoms developed at the same rate as, and were indistinguishable from those incited by the wild-type 8004. The insert DNA of pIJ3021 did not hybridize to pIJ3022; however, pIJ3021 showed homology with the X. c. pv. campestris DNA in pIJ3020.

The possible presence of a homologue of the X. c. pv. translucens sequences cloned in pIJ3022 in the X. c. pv. campestris genome was studied by probing Southern blots of electrophoretically separated EcoRI- and BamHI-

digested DNA. Two EcoRI and three BamHI fragments hybridized with pIJ3022. However, these sequences were missing from the X. c. pv. campestris DNA library (a pool of about 3,000 clones) and were not, therefore, investigated further. The EcoRI bands were larger than 23 and 5 kb, and it is possible that the size constraints on DNA fragments that can be cloned in pLAFR1 are partly responsible for their absence from the library.

Restoration of pathogenicity was not observed for any of the 1,000 transconjugant colonies of mutant 8288

**Table 2.** Extracellular protease and polygalacturonate lyase production by *Xanthomonas campestris* strains<sup>a</sup>

Strain	Protease		Polygalacturonate lyase	
	Plate test	Assay	Plate test	Assay
X. c. pv. campestris				
8004	+++	1.3	+++	1.9
8237	+	0.6	±	0.1
8237/pIJ3020	+++	1.2	+++	1.5
8237/pIJ3021	+++	1.0	++	1.3
8237/pIJ3022	++	1.1	+	0.3
8237/pIJ3022::Tn5	+	0.7		
8288	+	0.7	++	
8288/pIJ3000	++	2.2	+++	
8288/pIJ3003	++	1.1	++	
8288/pIJ3033::Tn5	+/++	0.9		
X. c. pv. translucens				
XT02	++++	4.4	_	
XT022	+	0.7		
XT023	++	0.8		

<sup>a</sup>Plate test assessments are based on the diameter of zones of substrate degradation surrounding colonies of comparable size incubated for 48 hr on plates containing skimmed milk or sodium polygalacturonate. Enzyme assays were performed on supernatant fluids of 24-hr cultures, adjusted to A<sub>600</sub> = 0.5 (protease assay, A<sub>340</sub> per hour per 10<sup>9</sup> colony-forming units (cfu); polygalacturonate lyase assay, micromole of product per minute per 10<sup>9</sup> cfu).

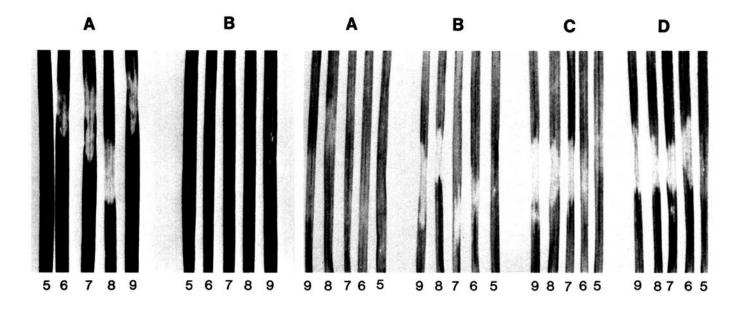


Fig. 1. Leaves from wheat seedlings infiltrated by Xanthomonas campestris pv. translucens strains. Compost-grown seedlings were infiltrated with suspensions adjusted to a range of bacterial concentrations. Seedlings were photographed 7 days after inoculation. Left panel: A, XT02; B, XT022, Right panel: A, XT022; B, XT022/pIJ3020; C, XT022/pIJ3021; D, XT022/pIJ3022.

Inoculum conc. log(cfu/ml)

containing X. c. pv. translucens DNA that were tested for pathogenicity to turnip seedlings. A further 800 transconjugants were inoculated onto skimmed milk plates, and one colony, harboring the plasmid pIJ3003, showed enhanced protease activity. pIJ3003 restored pathogenicity to 8288, tested on both seedlings and mature leaves. The mutation in strain 8288 lies in a gene that is part of a cluster spanning about 11 kb concerned with the export of a number of enzymes, including protease and polygalacturonate lyase, from the periplasm to the extracellular medium. Mutations in this region result in accumulation of the enzymes in the periplasm (Turner et al. 1985; Dow et al. 1987). pIJ3003 caused enhanced secretion of protease, but the distribution of polygalacturonate lyase was not changed (Table 2, and data not shown).

There was no homology between the insert DNA of pIJ3003 and pIJ3000. The latter plasmid contains X. c. pv. campestris DNA and complements 8288 (Daniels et al. 1984b).

Tn5 mutagenesis. pIJ3021, pIJ3022, and pIJ3003 were introduced by transformation into *E. coli* PCT800, and the resulting strains were mated with *E. coli* HB101, using *E. coli* ED8767/pRK2073 as helper; selection for resistance to kanamycin (Km), streptomycin (Str), and Tc gave a collection of Tn5 insertions in the plasmids harbored by HB101 (Turner *et al.* 1985). In each case the colonies were pooled and the plasmids were transferred *en masse* by conjugation into *X. c.* pv. *campestris* 8237 and 8288. The transconjugants were tested for pathogenicity to turnips and for production of extracellular protease on skimmed milk plates.

Examination of 800 colonies of X. c. pv. campestris 8237/pIJ3021::Tn5 failed to give any that were nonpathogenic or protease-deficient. We do not know why no negative

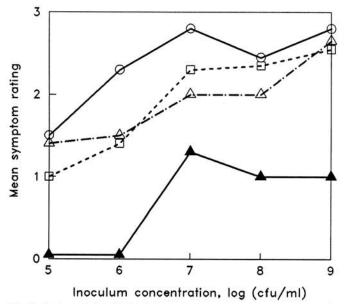


Fig. 2. Pathogenicity of Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris strains to turnip seedlings. Groups of five seedlings were inoculated with approximately 0.1 µl of suspensions of the indicated concentrations of strains 8004 (○), 8237 (▲), 8237/pIJ3021 (□), and 8237/pIJ3022 (△). After 4 days at 25° C, the symptoms were rated as 0 (no visible symptoms), 1 (darkening around the inoculation site), 2 (dark, translucent lesion spreading from the inoculation site), and 3 (complete collapse and rotting of seedling). The mean rating for each group is plotted.

mutants were obtained, because examination by restriction analysis of Tn5-containing plasmids from a random sample of 20 colonies indicated that transposition had occurred into all fragments of the X. c. pv. translucens DNA in pIJ3021.

Two hundred 8237/pIJ3022::Tn5 transconjugants were subcultured onto skimmed milk plates, and four were found with low protease levels; they had also lost pathogenicity to turnip seedlings. Restriction analysis of the four plasmids showed that Tn5 had in all cases inserted into a 6-kb EcoRI fragment within the X. c. pv. translucens DNA.

One of the four plasmids was transferred by transformation to *E. coli* ED8767 and thence by conjugation to *X. c.* pv. translucens XT02. The Tn5 mutation was transferred into the chromosome by introducing the incompatible plasmid pIJ3011 into the *X. c.* pv. translucens XT02/pIJ3022::Tn5 strain, selecting for resistance to gentamycin, Km, and spectinomycin (Sp). Occurrence of marker exchange was verified as described by Turner et al. (1985) by Tc sensitivity and Southern blotting. The *X. c.* pv. translucens Tn5 mutant generated in this way was designated XT022.

Five hundred X. c. pv. campestris 8288/pIJ3003::Tn.5 strains were similarly screened, and one strain carrying Tn.5 in a 7-kb EcoRI fragment was found to be low in extracellular protease and nonpathogenic to turnip seedlings. The plasmid was introduced into XT02, and the mutation was transferred into the genome by marker exchange as described above to yield the mutant XT023.

Both XT022 and XT023 showed reduced protease activity compared with XT02 (Table 2). When serially diluted suspensions were infiltrated into wheat leaves, XT023 retained pathogenicity, whereas XT022 was nonpathogenic. The pathogenicity could be restored by introducing pIJ3020, pIJ3021, or pIJ3022 (Fig. 1). XT022 grew more slowly in wheat leaves than XT02, and the final concentration of bacteria attained in the plant tissue was one or two orders of magnitude lower.

Homologous DNA in other X. campestris pathovars. Because our experiments revealed X. c. pv. translucens DNA sequences homologous to and probably functionally equivalent to regions of the X. c. pv. campestris genome previously cloned in pIJ3000 and pIJ3020, we extended our studies by probing EcoRI-digested DNA extracted from other X. c. pv. campestris wild strains (five isolates), from two strains of X. c. pv. oryzae (Ishiyama) Dye, and from single strains of X. c. pv. glycines (Nakano) Dye, X. c. pv. graminis (Egli, Goto & Schmidt) Dye, X. c. pv. holcicola (Elliott) Dye, X. c. pv. malvacearum (Smith) Dye, X. c. pv. phaseoli (Smith) Dye, X. c. pv. pisi (Goto and Okabe) Dye, X. c. pv. vesicatoria (Doidge) Dye, X. c. pv. vitians (Brown) Dye, and X. c. pv. zinniae (Hopkins & Dowson) Dye with <sup>32</sup>P-labeled pIJ3000 and pIJ3020. Homologous bands were detected in all cases (data not

Effect of heterologous DNA on the pathogenicity of X. c. pv. campestris and X. c. pv. translucens. The X. c. pv. translucens DNA library was transferred en masse by conjugation into X. c. pv. campestris 8004, and similarly an X. c. pv. campestris library (Daniels et al. 1984b) was transferred into X. c. pv. translucens XT02. Approximately 1,000 randomly chosen colonies from each transfer were screened for pathogenicity, initially by inoculating each

colony into single wheat and turnip seedlings. Any colonies that seemed to induce an atypical response on either plant were retested on populations of at least 10 seedlings, using a range of inoculum concentrations, and suspensions were also infiltrated into mature leaves.

No recombinant plasmids were detected in either library that had detectable, reproducible effects on the behavior of the heterologous pathovar in either plant host; that is, no X. c. pv. campestris transconjugants induced visible symptoms on wheat or reduced virulence on turnips, and conversely, no X. c. pv. translucens transconjugants induced symptoms on turnip or reduced virulence on wheat.

### DISCUSSION

The experiments described in this paper had two objectives. Our first objective was to investigate whether the two pathovars possessed pathogenicity genes (in the general sense defined by Daniels et al. [1984a]) that were either homologous or functionally equivalent. The strategy was to isolate X. c. pv. translucens clones that could restore function to two previously characterized X. c. pv. campestris mutants. The X. c. pv. translucens clones were then used as vehicles for localized mutagenesis of the X. c. pv. translucens genome, and the resulting strains were tested for pathogenicity to wheat. In addition to providing comparative data on the two pathovars, this approach represents a useful, general, indirect method for studying diverse X. campestris pathovars, which may be difficult to study directly for technical or other reasons.

The mutation in strain 8237 lies in one of at least seven linked "global" regulatory genes that are required for synthesis of protease, polygalacturonate lyase, cellulase, and amylase (Tang 1989). X. c. pv. campestris DNA cloned in pIJ3020 restores both pathogenicity and the ability to synthesize all these enzymes (Daniels et al. 1984b), and because marker exchange Tn.5 mutants produced using this DNA have phenotypes identical to 8237, pIJ3020 probably restores function by complementation (Tang 1989).

All four EcoRI fragments of X. c. pv. translucens DNA in pIJ3021 hybridized with pIJ3020, suggesting that the respective genes are homologues. In addition to restoring pathogenicity, pIJ3021 restored production of polygalacturonate lyase and protease. Protease assessment was based on the semiquantitative plate assay because the limited, specific cleavage of proteins by the X. c. pv. campestris protease (Tang et al. 1987) makes a more precise assay impracticable for routine screening of strains.

Pathogenicity and protease production were also restored by pIJ3022, which contained X. c. pv. translucens DNA with no sequence homology to pIJ3020. Surprisingly, pIJ3022 gave no significant increase in polygalacturonate lyase levels. In the pathogenicity tests used in this work, protease is relatively unimportant for pathogenicity (Tang et al. 1987), but polygalacturonate lyase is believed to be essential for rotting tissues (Dow et al. 1987). One possible explanation is that pIJ3022 cannot restore polygalacturonate lyase production in vitro in response to polygalacturonate or plant cell walls as inducers but can do so when the bacteria are in plants. A further possibility is that pIJ3022 contains the X. c. pv. translucens protease structural gene allowing protease expression in 8237 independently of the regulatory functions. This is, however,

unlikely because the X. c. pv. campestris protease gene cloned in pIJ3070 cannot restore pathogenicity to 8237, although protease production is restored (Tang et al. 1987), and because the homologue of pIJ3022 revealed by probing Southern blots of EcoRI- and BamHI-digested X. c. pv. campestris DNA had a different pattern of restriction enzyme sites than the relevant region of pIJ3070 (data not shown).

We suggest that pIJ3022 encodes a regulatory gene product that can partially substitute for the factor missing in 8237, but a definitive investigation will require extensive molecular genetic and biochemical characterization. The X. c. pv. campestris genome contains sequences homologous to pIJ3022, but we were unable to investigate the function and role in pathogenicity of this DNA because it was not represented in the X. c. pv. campestris DNA library.

We could not determine whether the pIJ3021 genes are required for pathogenicity of X. c. pv. translucens because of our inexplicable failure to isolate Tn5 insertions that abolished the ability to restore pathogenicity to 8237. However, the mutational approach was successfully used to demonstrate that certain genes in the DNA cloned in pIJ3022 are essential for pathogenicity to wheat. The only detectable extracellular enzyme activity produced by X. c. pv. translucens XT02 is protease, and the nonpathogenic mutants generated by marker exchange produced much less of this enzyme. However, it is not known whether the protease deficiency alone accounts for the reduced pathogenicity (see below).

X. c. pv. campestris 8288 is unable to export extracellular enzymes from the periplasm to the medium; enzyme export and pathogenicity are restored by pIJ3000, which contains a cluster of genes spanning 10 kb of DNA (Turner et al. 1985; Dow et al. 1987). X. c. pv. translucens DNA in pIJ3003 was able to restore pathogenicity and protease export but had relatively little effect on the distribution of polygalacturonate lyase. It was not possible to determine whether enzyme export was restored more efficiently when the bacteria were growing in planta.

The insert DNA of pIJ3003 and pIJ3000 showed no homology, although studies of genomic digests of X. c. pv. translucens suggested the presence of a homologue of the export gene cluster in this pathovar (which could not be studied in the present experiments because of the incompleteness of the library). It is likely that pIJ3003 suppresses the mutation in 8288 sufficiently to restore pathogenicity. It is possible that alternative protein export pathways exist and that components of one can partially substitute for the other.

The genes in pIJ3003 were not required for pathogenicity of X. c. pv. translucens to wheat, as judged by the symptoms produced following the application of bacteria mutant in the genes of pIJ3003 to clipped wheat leaf tips or their infiltration into wheat leaf spaces. However, alternative pathogenicity assays may reveal a role for the products of these genes.

Tang et al. (1987) found that protease appeared to be relatively unimportant for pathogenicity of X. c. pv. campestris following seedling inoculation or leaf infiltration, but more recent experiments have shown that protease may be necessary for earlier penetration stages of the infection process (J. L. Tang and M. J. Daniels,

unpublished data). It is possible that protease is needed for analogous functions in X. c. pv. translucens and that the deficiency is not apparent in assays that bypass the earlier stages of natural infections. X. c. pv. campestris causes much greater tissue destruction in turnip than X. c. pv. translucens causes in wheat, suggesting that extracellular degradative enzymes are more significant pathogenicity determinants for the former pathovar.

Our experiments have shown that it is possible to use DNA transfer and "cross-complementation" between pathovars to study putative related pathogenicity genes. Moreover, the X. c. pv. translucens genes isolated in this way provided evidence for the existence of previously unidentified genes in X. c. pv. campestris with a potential role in pathogenicity, indicating that an "interpathovar shuttle" strategy may be an efficient way to widen the range of known genes.

Our approach should prove applicable to many X. campestris pathovars. Lazo et al. (1987) showed that there is considerable nucleotide sequence homology between random genomic fragments of different pathovars. We have shown that X. c. pv. campestris DNA in pIJ3000 and pIJ3020 shows homology to DNA of many pathovars, and this has been confirmed by Todd (1987), not only for pIJ3000 and pIJ3020, but also for pIJ3070, which carries an X. c. pv. campestris protease gene (Tang et al. 1987). Further extension of the approach may be possible because hrp genes needed for interaction with plants are conserved in Pseudomonas syringae pathovars (Lindgren et al. 1988) and between P. solanacearum and X. campestris pathovars (Boucher et al. 1987).

Our second objective was to determine whether the nonoverlapping plant host range of two pathovars of X. campestris (X. c. pv. campestris and X. c. pv. translucens) could be modified by transfer of heterologous DNA fragments. Putative genes determining host range could act either negatively (analogous to avirulence genes) or positively; therefore, we tested the two sets of transconjugants on both their homologous hosts (to detect negatively acting, growth-restricting factors) and the heterologous plant (to detect positive factors that extend the host range).

It is well established that specificity of several *P. syringae* and *X. campestris* pathovars at the race-cultivar level is determined by negatively acting avirulence genes (Staskawicz et al. 1984; Gabriel et al. 1986; Swanson et al. 1988; Hitchin et al. 1989), but the determination of specificity at higher levels (such as pathovar-plant species or genus) is poorly understood. Kobayashi et al. (1988), Whalen et al. (1988), and Roberts et al. (1987) reported avirulence-like genes interacting with plants at this level in *P. s.* pv. tomato, *X. c.* pv. vesicatoria, and *X. c.* pv. vitians, but Ma et al. (1988) described positively acting host range gene(s) in *P. solanacearum*. Mellano and Cooksey (1988) also found evidence for positively acting host range determinants in *X. c.* pv. translucens.

Our inability to find clones influencing the behavior of X. c. pv. campestris and X. c. pv. translucens may be because any one of several necessary conditions was not satisfied. First, the genomic libraries may have been incomplete, lacking the host range gene(s). Evidence for incompleteness was in fact provided by our inability to find a clone homologous to pIJ3022 in the X. c. pv.

campestris library even though hybridization to genomic DNA digests suggested that homologues should exist. Second, we may not have tested enough transconiugant colonies. Libraries were introduced into recipients by conjugation en masse. We know from subsequent work (M. J. Daniels and C. E. Barber, unpublished data) that different clones have different transfer frequencies, so that en masse transfer skews the distribution of library clones in the transconjugant population. However, numerous other genes have been isolated from these libraries by the same procedures. Third, the effects would have to be the result of transfer of a single gene (or group of closely linked genes) carried on a single DNA fragment not exceeding 30 kb (the maximum size of DNA insert carried by pLAFR1 clones). Finally, the gene(s) would have to be expressed and the products would have to function normally in the heterologous background. It is known that X. c. pv. campestris genes encoding amylase, endoglucanase, and polygalacturonate lyase can be expressed in X. c. pv. translucens (Gough et al. 1988; Dow et al., 1989).

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