Isolation of a Gene Cluster from *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *vesicatoria* that Determines Pathogenicity and the Hypersensitive Response on Pepper and Tomato

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Received 20 July 1990. Accepted 2 October 1990.

Nonpathogenic mutants of Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria that had lost the ability to induce a hypersensitive response in resistant host plants and in nonhosts were complemented by clones from a wild-type library. Analysis of transposon insertion mutants defined a 25-kilobase region of the genome of X. c. pv. vesicatoria, which is necessary for the interaction of the bacterium with the plant. The genes in this region were designated hrp genes. Complementation studies revealed that the hrp region is organized into at least six different complementation groups. Southern blot

experiments showed that DNA sequences homologous to a 23-kilobase region from the *hrp* cluster were present in other pathovars of *X. campestris*. In some pathovars homology was high enough to permit marker gene exchange or complementation of nonpathogenic mutants by *X. c.* pv. vesicatoria sequences. Crosshybridization between the *hrp* sequences of *X. c.* pv. vesicatoria and genomic DNA of different species of *Pseudomonas* was not observed.

Additional keywords: bacterial spot, disease resistance.

Bacterial spot disease of pepper and tomato is caused by Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria, a gram-negative bacterium. After infection of a plant with X. c. pv. vesicatoria, two different types of reactions can be observed depending on the susceptibility of the particular pepper or tomato cultivar. If the plant is susceptible, the infection gives rise to water-soaked lesions (compatible interaction). In a resistant plant a hypersensitive response (HR; incompatible interaction) is induced. The HR is a local defense reaction accompanied by a rapid necrosis of the infected tissue (Klement and Goodman 1967). Such an incompatible interaction requires the presence of a resistance locus in the particular cultivar of pepper or tomato and a corresponding avirulence locus in the particular race of the pathogen (Minsavage et al. 1990). The HR is not only elicited on resistant cultivars of the susceptible host species but also on nonhost plants, such as tobacco (Klement 1982).

The natural isolates of X. c. pv. vesicatoria can be classified into three groups based on their host specificity for either pepper or tomato or both plant species (Minsavage et al. 1990). Several avirulence genes from X. c. pv. vesicatoria have been isolated previously and studied on the molecular level (Swanson et al. 1988; Ronald and Staskawicz 1988; Whalen et al. 1988; Bonas et al. 1989; Minsavage et al. 1990). The analysis of these avirulence genes indicated that they are necessary but not sufficient

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For different species of *Pseudomonas*, it has been shown that the induction of the HR as well as the induction of pathogenicity are controlled by *hrp* (hypersensitive reaction and pathogenicity; Niepold et al. 1985; Lindgren et al. 1986; Boucher et al. 1987; Huang et al. 1988, 1990) genes.

In this study we describe the identification and isolation

for the incompatible interaction with the resistant plant.

In this study we describe the identification and isolation of a large chromosomal region from X. c. pv. vesicatoria that controls pathogenicity and, in the presence of appropriate avirulence genes, the HR on pepper and tomato. Genetic analysis revealed that this region contains a cluster of hrp genes. We tested the ability of the cloned X. c. pv. vesicatoria hrp region to complement hrp mutations in X. c. pv. vesicatoria and other pathovars of X anthomonas and screened for cross-hybridization of hrp sequences.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains, plasmids, and media. The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1. Strains of *Escherichia coli* were cultivated in Luria-Bertani medium (Miller 1972). All strains of *X. campestris* were grown in either nutrient or NYG broth (Daniels *et al.* 1984a). For culture on solid medium, 1.5% agar was added. Strains of *Pseudomonas* were cultivated on King's B (KB; King *et al.* 1954) medium. Antibiotics were added to the media at the following final concentrations: ampicillin, $100 \mu g/ml$; chloramphenicol, $10 \mu g/ml$; kanamycin, $50 \mu g/ml$; nalidixic acid, $50 \mu g/ml$; tetracycline, $10 \mu g/ml$; and rifampicin, $100 \mu g/ml$.

Plasmids were introduced into *E. coli* by transformation and into *Xanthomonas* by conjugation using pRK2013 as a helper plasmid in triparental matings (Figurski and Helinski 1979; Ditta *et al.* 1980).

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Plant material, plant inoculations, and bacterial in planta growth curves. Descriptions of pepper cultivars ECW, ECW-10R, and ECW-30R have been given by Minsavage et al. (1990). Cultivars ECW-10R and ECW-30R carry the dominant resistance genes Bs1 and Bs3, respectively. Other cultivars that were used are as follows: tomato cultivar Bonny Best, tobacco cultivar Bottom Special, bean cultivar Bush Lake Blue, radish cultivar Red Globe, grapefruit cultivar Duncan, and cowpea cultivar Blackeye. Philodendron oxycardum was also used as a host plant.

The leaves of plants were inoculated with bacterial suspensions as described previously (Staskawicz et al. 1984; Swanson et al. 1988) by infiltrating the bacteria into the intercellular spaces using a plastic syringe. In all plants young, fully expanded leaves were inoculated. The concentration of the inoculum was approximately 10⁸ colony-forming units (cfu) per milliliter in 1 mM MgCl₂ unless

otherwise stated. Reactions were scored over a period of several days.

For the measurement of bacterial growth *in planta*, leaves were infiltrated with 10⁴ to 10⁵ cfu/ml. After various incubation times, 1-cm² leaf disks were cut out and macerated in 1 mM MgCl₂, and cell counts were determined by plating appropriate dilutions.

Chemical, transposon, and marker exchange mutageneses. Nonpathogenic mutants of *Xanthomonas* were obtained by mutagenesis with *N*-methyl-*N'*-nitro-*N*-nitrosoguanidine (NTG) as described by Daniels *et al.* (1984a). Treated cells were plated on a minimal medium as described by Starr (1946). Therefore, only prototrophic bacteria were tested for pathogenicity on the respective host plants.

For random insertion mutagenesis, clones of X. c. pv. vesicatoria DNA in pLAFR3 were mutagenized in E. coli using λ::Tn5 (Ruvkun and Ausubel 1981) or Tn3-gus (B.

Table 1. Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study

Designation	Relevant characteristics ^a	Source or reference	Designation	Relevant characteristics ^a	Source or reference
Xanthomonas campestris			Agrobacterium tumefaciens		
pv. alfalfae KS		D. L. Stuteville ^b	Strain C58		F. de Bruijn ^f
pv. armoraciae XA		R. E. Stall			
pv. begoniae 077-3382		R. E. Stall	Escherichia coli		
pv. campestris 33913		$ATCC^{c}$	$DH5\alpha$	F^- recA $\phi 80$ dlacZ	Bethesda Research
pv. citri 50E		R. E. Stall		$\Delta M15$	Laboratories ^g
pv. dieffenbachiae 729		R. E. Stall	C2110	Nal ^r polA	E. Nester ^h
pv. glycines 202		R. E. Stall	HB101	$F^- recA$	Boyer and Roulland
pv. malvacearum G-34		M. Essenberg ^d			Ďussoix 1969
pv. <i>oryzae</i> 50909		DSM ^e	Rhizobium		
pv. phaseoli 85-6		R. E. Stall	WBM13	Nodulates Sesbania	F. de Bruijn
pv. translucens 82-1		R. E. Stall	1	punctata	3
pv. vignicola 81-30		R. E. Stall	R. meliloti	1	
pv. vitians 164		R. E. Stall	1021	Nodulates alfalfa	F. de Bruijn
T55	Opportunistic	R. E. Stall	R. loti		,
	o p p a a turnanta		N2P2037	Nodulates Lotus	F. de Bruijn
. c. pv. vesicatoria				corniculatus	- · - · - · · ·
71-21	Pepper race 1; HR on	Minsavage et al.	Azorhizobium caulinodans		
7.1.2.1	ECW-30R; carries avrBs3	1990	ORS571	Nodulates S. rostrata	F. de Bruijn
82-8	Pepper race 1; HR on	Minsavage et al.	Plasmids		
	ECW-30R; carries avrBs3	1990	pLAFR3	$Tc^{r} rlx^{+} RK2$ replicon	Staskawicz <i>et al.</i> 1987
81-23	Tomato-pepper race 2;	Minsavage et al.	pRK2013	Km ^r TraRK2 ⁺ Mob ⁺	Figurski and
	HR on ECW-10R;	1990	r	ColE1 replicon	Helinski 1979
	carries avrBs1		pTn3-gus	$\operatorname{Km}^{r}\operatorname{Ap}^{r}\operatorname{tnp}A^{-};$	B. Staskawicz
85-10	Tomato-pepper race 2; HR on ECW-10R; carries avrBs1	Bonas et al. 1989	Fare San	Tn3HoHo derivative containing promoterless β -glucuronidase	
75-3	Tomato race 1; HR on	Minsavage et al.		gene	
	pepper	1990	pXV2	pLAFR3 clone from X. c. pv. vesicatoria 75-3	This study
Pseudomonas	D. I.	D E G: 11	7/1/0		TDL' . I
P. solanacearum 131	Pathogenic on tomato	R. E. Stall	pXV9	pLAFR3 clone from X. c. pv. vesicatoria	This study
P. syringae				75-3	
pv. glycinea 80-2	_	R. E. Stall			
pv. phaseolicola 83-1	l	R. E. Stall			
pv. tomato PT2		R. E. Stall			

^a HR, hypersensitive response; Nal, nalidixic acid; Tc, tetracycline; Km, kanamycin; Ap, ampicillin; and ^r, resistant.

^b Kansas State University, Manhattan.

^c American Type Culture Collection, Rockville, MD.

d Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK.

Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen GmbH (German culture collection), Braunschweig, Federal Republic of Germany.

Max-Planck-Institut für Züchtungsforschung, Köln, Federal Republic of Germany.

g Gaithersburg, MD.

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Staskawicz, unpublished) as described by Bonas et al. (1989). The insertions were mapped by restriction enzyme analysis. For marker gene replacement, mutant plasmids were mobilized from E. coli into Xanthomonas by triparental mating. The transconjugants were cycled more than 10 times on NYG plates containing rifampicin and kanamycin to maintain selection for the presence of the transposon. Subsequent plating on NYG agar containing 4 mM D-cycloserine enriched for tetracycline-sensitive colonies (Tu et al. 1989). All Tn3-gus and selected Tn5 marker exchange mutants were analyzed in Southern blot hybridization experiments using the wild-type hrp region and the transposon as probes. The marker exchange mutants were tested for pathogenicity and induction of the HR on appropriate plant cultivars.

Physiological tests. The ability of X. c. pv. vesicatoria to utilize arabinose, cellobiose, galactose, glucose, mannose, rhamnose, sucrose, and trehalose was tested by adding the carbohydrate to Dye's medium C at 0.5\% w/v concentrations (Dye 1962). Likewise, the utilization of acetate. benzoate, citrate, lactate, propionate, succinate, and tartrate was tested. The hydrolysis of esculin, Tween 80, and starch as well as clearing of milk agar were determined by methods published in Schaad (1988). Cellulolytic and pectolytic activities were determined by the pitting of gels containing carboxymethylcellulose and sodium polypectate, respectively (Schaad 1988). The effect of osmotic pressure on growth was determined on nutrient agar media containing 1.0, 0.5, 0.25, or 0.13 M glucose, KCl, mannose, or NaCl. In addition, growth curves were obtained by measuring light absorbance of cultures in different concentrations of KB (1 \times , 0.1 \times , and 0.01 \times) at 600 nm. Bacterial fatty acids were derivatized to their methyl esters in a four-step extraction procedure, and the methyl esters were separated by gas chromatography as described by L. Miller and T. Berger in an article on the identification of bacteria by gas chromatography of whole cell fatty acids, which was published in Hewlett-Packard (Palo Alto, CA) Gas Chromatography Application Note 228-38 (1985).

Molecular genetic techniques. Standard molecular genetic techniques were used (Ausubel et al. 1987; Maniatis et al. 1982) unless otherwise stated.

Total genomic DNA was isolated from bacterial cells grown in liquid culture using the CTAB method (Ausubel et al. 1987). Transfer to Nytrane membranes (Schleicher & Schüll, Dassel, Federal Republic of Germany) was as described previously (Bonas et al. 1989). Hybridization probes were labeled with ³²P by the random priming method (Feinberg and Vogelstein 1983). Hybridizations were performed at 65° C for 20 hr in 3× SSPE (1× SSPE is 0.15 M NaCl, 10 mM sodium phosphate, 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.4), 0.02% Ficoll, 0.02% polyvinylpyrrolidone, 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate, and 0.05% salmon sperm DNA. The filters were washed at 68° C in 2× SSPE containing 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (10–15 min each).

RESULTS

Isolation and identification of a DNA region involved in pathogenicity of X. c. pv. vesicatoria. Strains 81-23 (race 2) and 82-8 (race 1) of X. c. pv. vesicatoria were

mutagenized with NTG and tested on pepper cultivar ECW for loss of pathogenicity. Eight nonpathogenic mutants of X. c. pv. vesicatoria 81-23 (of the first 329 tested) and six mutants of X. c. pv. vesicatoria 82-8 (of 1,000 tested) were isolated. These mutant bacteria not only failed to induce symptoms but also failed to grow to wild-type levels in the plant. In addition, mutants were unable to induce an HR on resistant pepper cultivars (ECW-10R and ECW-30R) and on tobacco plants. It was then established that the expression of the avirulence genes, avrBs1 and avrBs3, which are located on conjugative plasmids (Swanson et al. 1988; Bonas et al. 1989), was not affected in the mutants. The former gene was still functionally active when it was conjugated from a nonpathogenic mutant of strain 81-23 into a pathogenic strain of race 1. The expression of avrBs3 in nonpathogenic mutants of strain 82-8 was unaltered as determined by western blot analysis (data not shown).

Different physiological tests were performed to compare the mutants to wild-type cells as described in Materials and Methods. Fatty acid composition of whole cells analyzed by gas chromatography was unaltered. Growth rates in media containing different concentrations of sugars and salts to simulate osmotic conditions in the plant, or in $1\times$, $0.1\times$, and $0.01\times$ KB, were similar for the mutant and wild-type cells. The mutants could not be distinguished from wild-type cells when tested for the ability to utilize different carbon sources (see Materials and Methods). Cellulolytic and pectolytic activities of the mutants were like that of the wild-type. Since no differences between wild-type and the nonpathogenic mutant strains could be found in these tests, we assumed that the mutants were only affected in genes necessary for pathogenicity.

To identify these genes, one of the nonpathogenic mutants of X. c. pv. vesicatoria 81-23, M103, was chosen for complementation with a genomic library from wildtype X. c. pv. vesicatoria 75-3. The construction of this library in pLAFR3 and mobilization of clones into X. c. pv. vesicatoria were described previously (Minsavage et al. 1990). Of 1,000 transconjugants tested, 13 different cosmid clones restored the ability to grow in planta and to cause water-soaked lesions on leaves of ECW and an HR on ECW-10R. These clones were then transferred into all other NTG-induced mutants of X. c. pv. vesicatoria 81-23 and X. c. pv. vesicatoria 82-8. They restored pathogenicity in all but three mutant strains. Since these three mutants could not be complemented by any cosmid from the genomic library, they might carry mutations in more than one region in the genome. Restriction enzyme analysis and Southern hybridization experiments showed that the original 13 cosmid clones carried overlapping inserts which were 25 to 29 kilobases (kb) long. Two clones, designated pXV2 and pXV9, were chosen for further analysis. The insert of plasmid pXV9, which complemented all of the NTG mutants except for the three mutant strains mentioned above, contained a region common to all clones, flanked on one side by several kilobases of additional sequences. Plasmid pXV2 also carried this common segment with additional sequences on the other side. Restriction enzyme maps of pXV2 and pXV9 are shown in Figure 1.

Insertion mutagenesis of the pathogenicity region. To

ascertain the role of the identified DNA region in pathogenicity, the plasmids pXV2 and pXV9 were mutagenized with Tn5 and Tn3-gus. The insertions were mapped by restriction enzyme analysis. Seventy-five different Tn5 insertions generated in pXV9 were introduced into the genome of the tomato strain X. c. pv. vesicatoria 75-3 by marker gene exchange (Fig. 2B). Likewise, 32 different Tn3gus insertions (in pXV2 or pXV9) were introduced into the genome of pepper strain X. c. pv. vesicatoria 85-10 (Fig. 2C). This strain was chosen because of higher conjugation rates compared to X. c. pv. vesicatoria 81-23. The positions of the insertions in the genome were verified by Southern hybridization for each of the Tn3-gus and for selected Tn5 mutants. All mutants were scored for their infection phenotypes on tomato and pepper. As shown in Figure 2 (B and C), a number of insertions near the borders of this 30-kb genomic region had no effect on pathogenicity. However, insertions distributed over a region of approximately 25 kb eliminated both pathogenicity and the ability to induce the HR. Insertions mapping to a region of 4 kb within the 25-kb segment had no phenotypic effect.

When plasmid pXV9 was transferred into a number of nonpathogenic insertion mutants, it restored wild-type pathogenicity in each case. A large number of these insertion mutants were also tested for HR induction on nonhost plants, for example, tobacco, bean, and cowpea. Except for Tn3-gus insertion 75, which induced a very delayed HR on tobacco compared to the wild type, in no case did a nonpathogenic mutant induce an HR. Since both pathogenicity and the ability to induce the HR were affected by the mutations, the genomic region defined by the mutations is a hrp region (Lindgren et al. 1986).

Identification of complementation groups. The genetic organization of the *hrp* region was determined by complementation analysis of the Tn3-gus and several Tn5 mutants. Transposon-induced nonpathogenic X. c. pv. vesicatoria mutants were conjugated with different E. coli strains harboring pXV2::Tn3-gus or pXV9::Tn3-gus in which the transposon insertions were in a region flanking the site of insertion in the recipient. The transconjugants were tested on pepper cultivars ECW and ECW-10R for symptom production. The results showed that the *hrp*

1kb

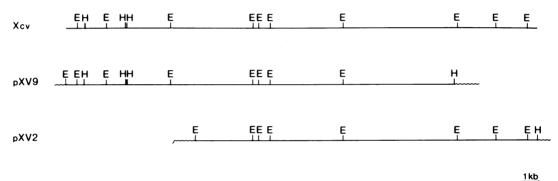


Fig. 1. Restriction map of the DNA region containing hrp genes. Plasmid clones pXV9 and pXV2 are compared. They contain Sau3A fragments cloned into the BamHI site of pLAFR3. The inserts are flanked by an EcoRI (E; left) site and a HindIII (H; right) site originating from the vector. The wavy lines represent vector sequences. The resulting map of the corresponding genomic region in Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria (Xcv; approximately 30 kilobases [kb]) is shown in the upper line.

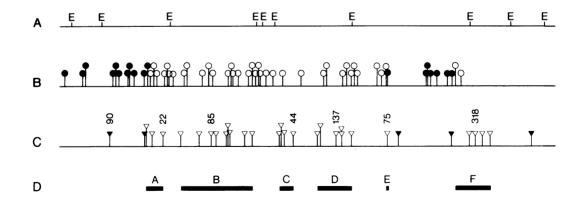


Fig. 2. Transposon insertions within the hrp region of Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria and complementation analysis. The restriction map of the genomic region is shown in A (E = EcoRI). The sites of Tn5 insertions into the genome are shown in B, and the sites of Tn3-gus insertions are shown in C. Filled-in symbols represent the wild-type reaction of the insertion mutants in plant inoculation tests; open symbols indicate sites of insertions resulting in loss of pathogenicity and induction of the hypersensitive response. The numbers above the triangles indicate the Tn3-gus insertions tested for growth in planta (see Fig. 3). D, Complementation analysis of Tn3-gus and selected Tn5 insertions revealed the presence and position of six complementation groups, hrpA to hrpF. The preliminary length of each complementation group is indicated by the black bars.

region is organized into at least six different complementation groups designated hrpA through hrpF (Fig. 2D). The complementation groups hrpA to hrpE span a region of 16 kb in which all of the insertion mutations caused a Hrp^- phenotype. The hrpE complementation group was defined by only two insertions mapping at nearly the same position (Fig. 2). A complementation group spanning 3 kb (hrpF) was located at the right border of the hrp region. Insertions in an approximately 4-kb region between hrpE and hrpF had no detectable phenotypic effect.

Growth of marker exchange mutants in planta. Seven different Tn3-gus mutants of X. c. pv. vesicatoria 85-10 were inoculated into pepper to monitor their growth in the plant (Fig. 3). Tn3-gus insertion 90, which was still pathogenic, showed wild-type growth. All of the nonpathogenic mutants representing the different complementation groups (Fig. 2C) failed to reach densities above 10⁵ cfu per 1-cm² leaf disk. The growth curves determined in these experiments resemble those obtained with the NTG mutants described above (data not shown) and are reminiscent of the behavior of saprophytic bacteria in planta. To test whether nonpathogenic mutants can produce symptoms when present at higher densities in the plant leaf, several insertion mutants were inoculated into pepper at cell densities of 108 to 1010 cfu/ml. In no case were symptoms observed in plants.

Homology of the *hrp* region of X. c. pv. vesicatoria to DNA of other X. campestris pathovars. Total genomic DNA of different races of X. c. pv. vesicatoria and of different pathovars of X. campestris was digested with EcoRI, separated on agarose gels, blotted, and hybridized

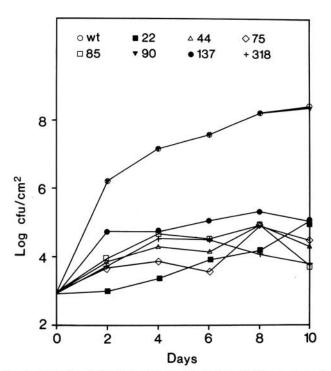


Fig. 3. Bacterial multiplication in pepper leaves. Wild-type strain 85-10 (wt) and seven different Tn3-gus insertion mutants of strain 85-10 were inoculated into pepper cultivar ECW. The positions of the insertions are indicated in Figure 2C. Values represent the mean from three samples; the results are from one of several independent experiments.

with a 23-kb HindIII fragment of plasmid pXV9 containing almost the entire hrp region (see Fig. 1). The hybridizing fragments in DNA of X. c. pv. vesicatoria strains isolated in Florida (Fig. 4, lanes 1-3) correspond in length and number to the EcoRI fragments predicted from the restriction maps of clones pXV2 and pXV9 (Fig. 1). Signals corresponding to the small EcoRI fragments (0.5 and 0.8 kb) present in clone pXV9 were only visible after longer exposures of the autoradiograph. X. c. pv. vesicatoria strains pathogenic on pepper or tomato showed identical hybridization patterns (Fig. 4, lanes 1-3) as did a plasmid-free strain of X. c. pv. vesicatoria (data not shown). Likewise, no restriction fragment length polymorphisms were detectable in this region when BamHI fragments were analyzed. This was also true for several other strains of X. c. pv. vesicatoria that were originally isolated from diseased plants in different geographic areas (G. V. Minsavage and U. Bonas, unpublished data). The results of these experiments also showed that the insert of clone pXV9 is colinear with the corresponding genomic region in X. c. pv. vesi-

Homologous DNA sequences were detected in X. c. pv. alfalfae, X. c. pv. armoraciae, X. c. pv. begoniae, X. c. pv. campestris, X. c. pv. citri, X. c. pv. dieffenbachiae, X. c. pv. glycines, X. c. pv. malvacearum, X. c. pv. oryzae, X. c. pv. phaseoli, X. c. pv. translucens, and X. c. pv. vignicola (Fig. 4, lanes 5-16). An opportunistic Xanthomonas strain, T55, which was isolated from a black nightshade plant but was not pathogenic on this plant or on pepper or tomato, was identified as X. campestris by fatty acid profiles and physiological tests (Gitaitis et al. 1987). DNA of strain T55 did not hybridize at all to the 23-kb HindIII fragment from pXV9 (Fig. 4, lane 4), to the flanking 2.7-kb EcoRI fragment, or to sequences at the very left end of pXV9. However, strong hybridization was found when the rightmost 2-kb EcoRI fragment from pXV2 (see Fig. 1; data not shown) was used as a probe. Therefore, we believe that strain T55 lacks a large portion of the pathogenicity region. Since strain T55 was not complemented to pathogenicity by clones of the genomic library of X. c. pv. vesicatoria 75-3, a region much larger than 25 kb is presumably missing.

DNA of *P. solanacearum* showed only very weak homology to the *X. c.* pv. vesicatoria hrp sequences even though a threefold larger amount of DNA was loaded (Fig. 4, lane 17). DNA of strains of *P. s.* pv. glycinea, *P. s.* pv. phaseolicola, and *P. s.* pv. tomato as well as strains of Rhizobium and Agrobacterium tumefaciens (Fig. 4, lane 18) did not hybridize to the hrp region of *X. c.* pv. vesicatoria (data not shown).

The hrp genes and the pathogenicity functions of different X. campestris pathovars seem to be homologous. A strain of the bean pathogen X. c. pv. phaseoli as well as the black rot-inducing pathogen X. c. pv. campestris were mutagenized with NTG, and colonies were tested for loss of pathogenicity on bean and radish, respectively. Five nonpathogenic mutants of X. c. pv. phaseoli and two mutants of X. c. pv. campestris were tested for complementation by each of the 13 X. c. pv. vesicatoria hrp clones. Four of the five mutants of X. c. pv. phaseoli but neither of the two mutants of X. c. pv. campestris

were complemented. Thus, homologous functions are present in X. c. pv. phaseoli and X. c. pv. vesicatoria, whereas the NTG mutants in X. c. pv. campestris carry mutations in a different genomic region, in multiple loci, or in nonhomologous functions.

To further explore if there are common hrp functions in these and other pathovars of X. campestris that showed DNA hybridization to the hrp region of X. c. pv. vesicatoria (Fig. 4), we attempted to introduce Tn5 insertions by marker gene exchange. Several exchanges were successful in strains of X. c. pv. citri, X. c. pv. dieffenbachiae, and X. c. pv. vignicola and were verified by Southern hybridization. The Tn5 insertions that were exchanged from the hrp region of X. c. pv. vesicatoria into these pathovars resulted in loss of pathogenicity on their host plants grapefruit, P. oxycardum, and cowpea, respectively, and loss of the ability to induce the HR in the nonhosts pepper and tobacco. In X. c. pv. citri and X. c. pv. vignicola three different Tn5 insertions were obtained, and in X. c. pv. dieffenbachiae two Tn5 insertions were obtained. The positions of the insertions mapped in hrpA, hrpB, and hrpC of X. c. pv. vesicatoria, respectively. Since only a small number of exchange mutants were obtained, it is possible that there are also common functions in the region carrying hrpD to hrpF. The plasmid pXV9 was transferred into

the insertion mutants to test for complementation to the wild type. Only mutants of X. c. pv. vignicola were fully restored. No mutants of X. c. pv. armoraciae, X. c. pv. phaseoli, and X. c. pv. vitians were isolated although transconjugants were obtained. We attempted several times to mutate a strain of X. c. pv. phaseoli without success. This result was surprising, since nonpathogenic NTG mutants were complemented by the hrp sequences of X. c. pv. vesicatoria (see above).

DISCUSSION

Mutants of X. c. pv. vesicatoria defective for growth in susceptible plants could be restored to wild-type growth by complementation with plasmids harboring a genomic region of about 30 kb. A correlation between bacterial growth and symptom production has been observed in other systems (e.g. Lindgren et al. 1986; Huang et al. 1988). Previously, genes from X. c. pv. campestris that conferred altered pathogenicity phenotypes have been isolated (Daniels et al. 1988). Since the mutants described here were not only affected in their interaction with the susceptible host plant but also in induction of an HR on resistant host cultivars or on nonhost plants, the genes localized in the isolated DNA region were designated hrp genes.

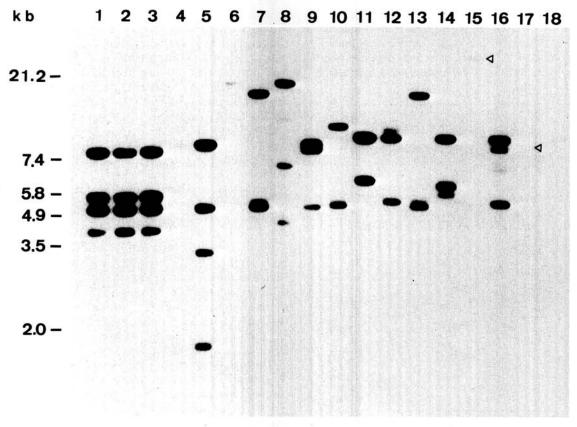


Fig. 4. Genomic Southern blot of total DNA isolated from different bacterial strains. Approximately 2 μg of EcoRI-digested DNA was loaded per lane (lanes 8, 16, and 18 contain 6 μg of DNA) and separated on a 0.7% agarose gel. The blot was hybridized with the 23-kilobase (kb) HindIII fragment of plasmid pXV9. Lanes 1-3, Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria 71-21 (1), 85-10 (2), and 75-3 (3). Lane 4, X. campestris T55; lanes 5-16, X. c. pv. alfalfae (5), X. c. pv. armoraciae (6), X. c. pv. begoniae (7), X. c. pv. campestris (8), X. c. pv. citri (9), X. c. pv. dieffenbachiae (10), X. c. pv. glycines (11), X. c. pv. malvacearum (12), X. c. pv. oryzae (13), X. c. pv. phaseoli (14), X. c. pv. translucens (15), and X. c. pv. vignicola (16). Lane 17 contains Pseudomonas solanacearum, and lane 18, Agrobacterium tumefaciens. The arrows mark the position of very weak bands in lanes 15 and 17.

This designation, first used by Lindgren et al. (1986), operationally defines a set of genes involved in the interaction with the plant. To our knowledge, this is the first example of the identification of hrp genes in a pathovar of X. campestris. hrp genes have been identified in P. solanacearum (Boucher et al. 1987; Huang et al. 1990) and in pathovars of P. syringae (Niepold et al. 1985; Lindgren et al. 1986; Huang et al. 1988). The hrp genes of X. c. pv. vesicatoria are probably located on the chromosome, as is the case in P. syringae, since a plasmid-free strain shows the same hybridization pattern when probed with a hrp-specific sequence (data not shown).

The hrp region appears to be highly conserved among different strains of X. c. pv. vesicatoria irrespective of their host specificity (pepper or tomato or both). The complementation of NTG mutants of X. c. pv. vesicatoria 82-8 (pepper) and X. c. pv. vesicatoria 81-23 (pepper and tomato) by sequences from tomato strain 75-3 suggests functional homology between the hrp region of pepper and that of the tomato strains of X. c. pv. vesicatoria. Moreover, loci of the different strains of X. c. pv. vesicatoria were interchangeable in marker exchange experiments. Furthermore, several strains of X. c. pv. vesicatoria isolated in Florida (Fig. 4) or in different geographical regions (Australia, Hawaii, and Taiwan) when analyzed by Southern hybridization (EcoRI and BamHI digests) revealed no restriction fragment length polymorphisms in the hrp region (G. V. Minsavage and U. Bonas, unpublished results). The high degree of homology of the hrp region could indicate that the strains of X. c. pv. vesicatoria have evolved from a common ancestor and were spread from one country to another only recently. Also, the functions encoded in the hrp region might be under strong selection pressure. Sequence analysis of hrp regions from different strains could clarify this point.

In our studies various degrees of homology between the hrp region of X. c. pv. vesicatoria and other pathovars of X. campestris became evident (Fig. 4). DNA from X. c. pv. alfalfae, X. c. pv. begoniae, X. c. pv. citri, X. c. pv. dieffenbachiae, X. c. pv. glycines, X. c. pv. malvacearum, X. c. pv. oryzae, X. c. pv. phaseoli, and X. c. pv. vignicola gave strong hybridization signals when probed with sequences from the X. c. pv. vesicatoria hrp region. Weaker signals were observed for X. c. pv. campestris and X. c. pv. translucens. Additional evidence suggests that in the strongly hybridizing pathovars the homology to X. c. pv. vesicatoria is quite high. First, the pathogenicity- and hypersensitivity-determining loci of X. c. pv. vesicatoria and X. c. pv. phaseoli are interchangeable as shown by complementation. Second, in some cases homology was high enough to permit recombination. Nonpathogenic mutants of X. c. pv. citri, X. c. pv. dieffenbachiae, and X. c. pv. vignicola were obtained by marker gene replacement with transposon-tagged alleles of the hrp region of X. c. pv. vesicatoria. The insertions mapped in hrpA, hrpB, and hrpC. When the insertion mutants were tested for complementation by pXV9, only mutants of X. c. pv. vignicola were fully restored. The difficulty in the evaluation of this result is that the extent of homology and the length of the segment actually exchanged in the mutants are not known. The results obtained indicate that homologous hrp functions may be present in these different pathovars. A similar observation was made by Lindgren et al. (1988) after introducing Tn5 insertion derivatives of the hrp region of P. s. pv. phaseolicola into different pathovars of P. syringae. How is the host specificity of the different pathovars determined? So far the determinants of host species specificity are unknown. They could be positive (virulence genes) or negative (avirulence genes) functions. If such determinants really exist in the pathogen, the different pathovars might carry different alleles. It will be interesting to compare the nucleotide sequences of the hrp genes of various pathovars.

The hrp cluster of X. c. pv. vesicatoria is not homologous to DNA sequences of plant pathogenic strains of Pseudomonas. Although cross-hybridization of the hrp cluster of P. solanacearum with DNA of X. c. pv. vesicatoria has been reported (Boucher et al. 1987), we observed only a faint hybridization signal (four different strains tested). The discrepant results could be due to genetic variability between the strains tested. The lack of homology between the hrp region of X. c. pv. vesicatoria and sequences from different pathovars of P. syringae could be an indication that the hrp genes of these pathogens have evolved divergently or have independent origins. This notion is supported by the fact that the hrp region of P. s. pv. phaseolicola (Lindgren et al. 1986) failed to complement any of the nonpathogenic NTG mutants of X. c. pv. vesicatoria. Interestingly, the hrp genes from P. s. pv. phaseolicola also failed to hybridize to DNA from saprophytic or other pathogenic bacteria including Xanthomonas (Lindgren et al. 1988). Nevertheless, functional homologies cannot be ruled out.

The results of comparative Southern analysis in which a number of strains were probed with sequences from the hrp region of X. c. pv. vesicatoria could have interesting implications for classification and diagnostics. The fact that the hybridization patterns were different for each pathovar tested (one strain each) and that the pattern of different strains within X. c. pv. vesicatoria was conserved (see Fig. 4) suggests that hrp probes could be useful in the classification of Xanthomonas strains. However, more extensive hybridization experiments are needed to determine the feasibility of this approach. Since opportunistic strains of X. campestris lack homology to the hrp region (see Fig. 4; Stall and Minsavage 1990), hrp probes could be used in diagnostic tests to detect pathogenic strains of Xanthomonas, for example in seed material.

Insertion mutagenesis showed that the *hrp* genes are clustered in a region of approximately 25 kb. The right and left borders of the *hrp* region were defined by insertion mutants unaltered in pathogenicity. The region necessary for pathogenicity is interrupted by a 4-kb segment in which the two insertions obtained had no detectable phenotypic effect. Although no mutations mapping outside of the 25-kb region were found, it cannot be ruled out at present that additional genes elsewhere in the genome are involved in the interaction with the plant.

The *hrp* region of X. c. pv. vesicatoria contains at least six complementation groups (Fig. 2D). The complementation groups, which were designated *hrpA* through *hrpF* (Fig. 2D, from left), vary in length from less than 1 kb

to 5 kb. The length and number of complementation groups suggest the presence of several operons.

The function of the *hrp* genes in phytopathogenic bacteria remains elusive. Only for one of the *hrp* genes from *P. s.* pv. *phaseolicola* has a function been suggested. It was found to be homologous to regulatory genes of the *ntrC* family (Grimm and Panopoulos 1989). Both the so-called disease-specific genes, which encode extracellular enzymes or control their secretion (Daniels *et al.* 1984b; Dow *et al.* 1987), and the virulence genes, such as those of *Agrobacterium* (e.g. Stachel and Nester 1986), play a role in plant-pathogen interactions. Similar functions may be present in *X. c.* pv. *vesicatoria*. The isolation of *hrp* genes from *X. c.* pv. *vesicatoria* is the first step in attempting to understand their biochemical function.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Ilse Balbo for excellent technical assistance and Ed Schwartz, Regine Kahmann, and Volker Knoop for critical reading of the manuscript. This research was supported by grant 322-4003-0316300A from the Bundesministerium für Forschung und Technologie, Bonn, to U. Bonas.

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