Current Review

hrp Genes of Phytopathogenic Bacteria

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The plant-bacterial interaction. The interactions between bacterial pathogens and their plant hosts fall into two general categories: compatible, leading to intercellular bacterial growth and symptom development in the host, or incompatible, resulting in the absence of observable disease symptoms. Bacterial populations in compatible interactions increase dramatically within 48 hr of inoculation, and final cell numbers can increase 10⁵-fold over initial inoculum levels. On nonhost plants, the incompatible interaction is often correlated with the elicitation of the hypersensitive reaction (HR) when bacteria are introduced into leaf tissue at high (greater than 10⁶ colony-forming units per milliliter) inoculum levels (Klement 1963, 1982; Klement et al. 1964; Lelliott et al. 1966; Sequeira 1983). Below the threshold of 10⁶ colony-forming units per milliliter, a macroscopic plant reaction is not normally seen in an incompatible interaction. Bacterial growth within the intercellular spaces of incompatible leaf tissue is limited, with the final populations either remaining unchanged or increasing only 10- to 100-fold within the first 48 hr. In contrast, the introduction of nonpathogenic bacteria, such as Pseudomonas fluorescens or Escherichia coli, into plant tissue at any inoculum level does not result in the appearance of the HR, and these bacteria do not multiply in plants.

Studies using metabolic inhibitors have suggested that active metabolism and de novo synthesis of macromolecules are required for induction of the HR on pepper (Capsicum annuum L.) by Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria (Meadows and Stall 1981). However, this requirement for de novo macromolecular synthesis may reflect the need to overcome media repression of bacterial genes necessary for plant interaction. With P. syringae pv. glycinea, Huynh et al. (1989) have shown that metabolic inhibitors such as rifampicin do not prevent the appearance of the HR on soybean (Glycine max (L.) Merr.) if the bacteria are grown on a defined minimal medium that does not repress plant-interaction genes. This work also shows that plant products are not essential for the expression of the P. s. pv. glycinea genes needed for the elicitation of the HR.

To better understand the biological mechanisms affecting the plant-pathogen interaction, researchers in many labor-

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atories have undertaken the mutational analysis of bacterial plant pathogens. This work has led to the identification of genes, designated as hrp (hypersensitive reaction and pathogenicity), that are required for several plant-interaction phenotypes. As originally described for P. s. pv. phaseolicola, which is the causal agent of halo blight of bean (Phaseolus vulgaris L.), inactivation of hrp genes by transposon insertion has a pleiotropic effect: the mutant bacteria lose the ability to elicit the HR on nonhost plants, such as tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum L.), are severely attenuated in their ability to cause disease on their respective host plants, and are impaired in their ability to colonize plants (Lindgren et al. 1984, 1986). Since their initial discovery, hrp genes or hrp-like mutations have been described in numerous P. syringae pathovars and include the following: P. s. pv. phaseolicola (Anderson and Mills 1985; Deasey and Matthysse 1988; Somlyai et al. 1986), P. s. pv. syringae (Anderson and Mills 1985; Huang et al. 1988; Niepold et al. 1985), P. s. pv. tomato (Cuppels 1986), P. s. pv. pisi (Malik et al. 1987), P. s. pv. tabaci (Lindgren et al. 1988), and P. s. pv. glycinea (Huynh et al. 1989; Lindgren et al. 1988). Genes that appear to be hrp-like have also been described in taxonomically distinct plant pathogens such as P. solanacearum (Boucher et al. 1987: Huang et al. 1990b), X. campestris pathovars (Boucher et al. 1987; Daniels et al. 1988; Stall and Minsavage 1990), and Erwinia amylovora (Bauer and Beer 1987; Steinberger and Beer 1988). For the purpose of this review, we will concentrate on those bacteria from which hrp genes have been physically isolated and analyzed in some detail. While this approach is somewhat redundant, information clarifying the physical and functional relationships between the various hrp genes, which would make a review on the subject more succinct, is not yet in published form.

The initial description of hrp genes. As mentioned above, the mutational analysis of P. s. pv. phaseolicola resulted in the identification and cloning of a gene cluster required for several plant-interaction phenotypes (Lindgren et al. 1986). This cluster was defined initially by seven linked Tn5 insertions within mutants of P. s. pv. phaseolicola NPS3121. All of these mutations eliminated the ability of the bacterium to elicit the HR on nonhost plants, such as tobacco, but did not affect the ability of these mutants to grow on minimal media. Six of the mutant strains also lost lesion-forming ability on bean leaves and multiplied poorly in planta. The seventh mutation resulted in a strain that produced fewer lesions than wild-type on bean and had a 10-fold reduction of growth in planta. These seven Tn5-induced mutants could be restored to wild-type function by a single cosmid clone. An eighth Tn5 insertion that is not physically linked to this *hrp* gene cluster has also been described (Lindgren *et al.* 1986), and the *P. s.* pv. *phaseolicola* locus that contains this insertion has been found to be analogous to the *hrp M* gene of *P. s.* pv. *syringae* discussed below (Mills and Mukhopadhyay 1990; Mindrinos *et al.* 1990; Mukhopadhyay *et al.* 1988).

The hrp gene cluster of P. s. pv. phaseolicola has been analyzed in detail using a combination of subcloning and transposon mutagenesis (Lindgren et al. 1989; Mindrinos et al. 1990; Rahme et al. 1991). This work revealed that the hrp cluster of P. s. pv. phaseolicola spans a chromosomal region of approximately 22 kilobases (kb) and consists of nine complementation groups (hrpL, hrpAB, hrpC, hrpD, hrpE, hrpF, and hrpSR). Rahme et al. (1991) established the direction of transcription of all nine complementation groups and confirmed the earlier finding (Lindgren et al. 1989) that hrp genes are actively transcribed in plant leaves but only weakly transcribed in complex media. Mutations in all hrp loci, except hrpC, greatly reduced (10⁵- to 10⁷-fold) the ability of the bacteria to multiply in bean leaves. A hrpC mutant did not elicit the HR on tobacco but did grow, although reduced about 10²fold, and produced fewer lesions on bean leaves (Rahme et al. 1991).

The hrp cluster of P. s. pv. phaseolicola is physically and functionally conserved within two of the taxonomically related P. syringae pathovars, P. s. pv. glycinea and P. s. pv. tabaci (Huynh et al. 1989; Lindgren et al. 1988). A DNA segment from the P. s. pv. phaseolicola hrp cluster hybridized to genomic DNA isolated from P. s. pv. glycinea, P. s. pv. tabaci, and P. s. pv. angulata. Weak DNA hybridization was detected between the hrp cluster probe and the genomic DNA of P. s. pv. tomato (Lindgren et al. 1988). This homology appears to reflect a conservation of gene function within several pathovars. The exchange of a hrpAB::Tn5 mutation via homologous recombination from P. s. pv. phaseolicola into either P. s. pv. tabaci or P. s. pv. glycinea resulted in the loss of pathogenicity on tobacco or soybean, the respective hosts of these pathovars, and the loss of elicitation of the HR on nonhost plants (Lindgren *et al.* 1988).

The hrp genes of other plant-pathogenic P. syringae. In P. s. pv. syringae, mutations in hrp genes were identified initially by screening mutants either for reduced virulence or for loss of the ability to induce the HR on nonhost plants. The first P. s. pv. syringae hrp mutants were found by assaying Tn5 mutants of the bean pathogenic strain PS9020 on leaves of P. vulgaris cv. Red Mexican (Anderson and Mills 1985). The prototrophic mutant PS9021 was unable to induce disease symptoms on bean at an inoculum level 10⁴-fold higher than was sufficient for production of symptoms by the wild-type strain. In addition, this mutant no longer elicited the HR on tobacco and had an altered, mucoid colony morphology. An 8.5-kb region of the cosmid clone pOSU3101 complemented all three mutant phenotypes (Niepold et al. 1985). Like the P. s. pv. phaseolicola hrp mutants, the P. s. pv. syringae mutant PS9021 was defective in the ability to multiply in bean leaves (Bertoni and Mills 1987).

Transposon mutagenesis further delimited the hrp region

that restored mutant PS9021 to a length of 3.9 kb (Mills and Niepold 1987), while sequence analysis revealed two open reading frames, ORF 1 and ORF 2, as determined by an assay for promoter activity (Mukhopadhyay et al. 1988). The predicted sizes of the two polypeptides, 40 and 83 kDa, respectively, were in agreement with polypeptides expressed in E. coli maxicells (Mills et al. 1985). An E. coli consensus promoter sequence was present upstream of and overlapping with ORF 1, while a sequence containing the features of a transcriptional terminator, and previously shown to inhibit expression of galK (Mills et al. 1985), was found downstream of ORF 2. The gene for ORF 2 was designated hrp M. It remains uncertain whether ORF 1 constitutes a separate hrp locus, whether it positively regulates hrpM, or whether the insertions into ORF 1 are polar on hrpM, because a separate promoter was not found upstream of ORF 2. No homology to any known protein was detected in a search of the GenBank and EMBL data bases. Sequences homologous to the region surrounding the original Tn5 insertion in PS9021 are present in P. s. pv. phaseolicola (Niepold et al. 1985), and it has now been established that hrpM is conserved both physically and functionally within P. s. pv. phaseolicola (Mills and Mukhopadhyay 1990; Mindrinos et al. 1990).

More recently, hrp genes in P. s. pv. syringae were identified by a second group of researchers. Six mutants of P. s. pv. syringae strain 61 were isolated following screening of 1,600 Tn5 mutants for failure to induce the HR on tobacco (Baker et al. 1987). All six mutants showed reduced virulence and were defective in their ability to grow in bean leaf tissue and, thus, are considered to be hrp mutants (Atkinson and Baker 1987). A cosmid clone, pHIR11, which contains a 36-kb chromosomal insert. restored the ability of these mutants to incite the HR on the nonhost, tobacco (Huang et al. 1988). The ability of this clone to complement the defect in virulence has not been reported. Derivatives of pHIR11 containing transposon insertions that destroy the complementing activity were used to construct chromosomal marker exchange mutants of two strains of P. s. pv. syringae. As expected, the resulting mutants did not elicit the HR on tobacco. One of the mutants no longer produced disease symptoms on its host plant, tomato (Lycopersicon esculentum Mill.); the phenotype of the other marker exchange mutant on its host plant, bean, was not reported. These data suggest that the complementing clone pHIR11 contains one or more hrp genes. Further, mutagenesis of pHIR11 with TnphoA revealed 11 complementation groups, two of which appear to produce either transmembrane or exported proteins (Huang et al. 1990a).

The pHIR11 cosmid is unique among the cloned hrp gene clusters isolated from P. syringae in that it enables the nonpathogens P. fluorescens and E. coli to produce a full or a weak HR on tobacco, respectively; responses of the strains on tomato are much less pronounced. Similarly, strains of P. s. pv. tabaci and P. s. pv. syringae carrying pHIR11 are unable to cause disease symptoms on their respective hosts. It has not yet been determined whether these phenomena resulted from increased hrp gene copy number or from the presence of an avirulence (avr) gene or genes on the cosmid (Huang et al. 1988; Hutcheson

et al. 1989). It has been reported recently that an avr gene in P. s. pv. tomato is located within a hrp cluster (Lorang et al. 1990). In addition, introducing the avrD gene of P. s. pv. tomato into E. coli conferred on this bacterium the ability to incite the HR, but only on soybean cultivars that are incompatible with P. s. pv. glycinea races carrying avrD (Keen et al. 1990).

hrp genes that are also present in a bacterial wilt pathogen. P. solanacearum is the causal agent of bacterial wilt of many plants, including members of the family Solanaceae such as tobacco and tomato. While many strains of P. solanacearum have a relatively broad host range, for example causing wilt on both tobacco and tomato, some strains are relatively restricted in their host range and may wilt tomato but elicit an HR on tobacco.

Strains with a Hrp phenotype have been isolated in either one of two ways: using acridine orange (AO) treatment (Boucher et al. 1986, 1988b; Message et al. 1978) or transposon mutagenesis (Boucher et al. 1986, 1985). AOresistant mutants of the tomato pathogenic strain GMI1000 usually differ from the wild type in several characteristics, including loss of pathogenicity on tomato, loss of ability to induce the HR on tobacco, methionine auxotrophy, production of large amounts of brown pigment (Boucher et al. 1986; Message et al. 1978), and variant lipopolysaccharide and extracellular polysaccharide structures (Drigues et al. 1985). Such mutants are difficult to characterize because of the large (>85 kb) deletion induced by AO treatment (Boucher et al. 1986). P. solanacearum contains a megaplasmid (Boucher et al. 1988a; Rosenberg et al. 1982), and since AO is often used to cure plasmids (Hirota 1960), it is possible that treatment of cells with this agent could have prompted deletion or loss of the megaplasmid and thus resulted in the pleiotropic phenotype.

Analysis of deletion derivatives of the megaplasmid found in AO-resistant mutants has led to the identification of a DNA region that is involved in the HR and virulence and which has been further studied by transposon mutagenesis. Boucher and colleagues screened 8,250 Tn5induced mutants of P. solanacearum GMI1000 on axenically grown tomato seedlings and identified 13 prototrophic avirulent mutants (Boucher et al. 1986, 1985). Several of these were also affected in their ability to incite the HR on tobacco and were designated as hrp mutants. Most of the Tn5-generated avirulent mutants were weak invaders of young tomato plant roots and stems as compared to the wild-type strain and produced no wilt symptoms 1 month after inoculation, whereas wild-type bacteria caused complete wilting in 8 days (Trigalet and Demery 1986). This lack of invasiveness is probably the primary reason why these mutants were detected using a wilting assay on tomato seedlings. Southern hybridization analysis showed that the nine Tn5 insertions which gave a Hrp phenotype were located within the >85-kb region deleted from the megaplasmid following AO treatment (Boucher et al. 1986). A cosmid clone, pVir2, containing a 25-kb chromosomal insert, restored pathogenicity and the HR to eight of the nine Tn5 mutants that mapped to the deleted region. Mutagenesis of pVir2 with Tn5-lac further localized the hrp gene cluster to a 17.5-kb region at the left end of the insert in pVir2 and extending out of the cloned region (Boucher et al. 1987). A second clone. pAFE8 (Arlat et al. 1990), extended the size of the hrp cluster to at least 22 kb. Following mutagenesis of pVir2 with the lac-reporter transposon Tn5-B20 (Keller et al. 1988), assays for β -galactosidase indicated the presence of a minimum of nine transcriptional units, all of which were expressed on minimal medium. In addition, β -galactosidase activity from three of the transcriptional units increased threefold to fivefold in the presence of tomato root exudate or tobacco cell culture filtrate (Arlat et al. 1990). No information is currently available on the function of these genes, and the inability to produce merodiploids is preventing complementation analysis of this region (Arlat et al. 1990; Boucher et al. 1987).

A second region of the P. solanacearum genome containing hrp genes has been identified in strain K60 (Huang et al. 1990b). Cosmid pTS34 contains this second hrp region, and this clone does not share homology with pVir2 (Huang et al. 1990b). The 7-kb insert of clone pTS34 was mutagenized with Tn5-lac, and two possible transcription units have been identified. In β -galactosidase assays, the activity of both of these transcription units was increased threefold to sixfold by coculturing with potato callus tissue (Huang et al. 1990b).

The hrp gene cluster from pVir2 showed structural homology by Southern hybridization analysis with all 53 P. solanacearum isolates tested and with eight X. campestris pathovars, but not with E. carotovora subsp. carotovora. E. c. subsp. atroseptica, P. s. pv. syringae, P. s. pv. phaseolicola, Rhodococcus fascians, or two other closely related bacteria, Alcaligenes eutrophus and P. cepacia (Boucher et al. 1988a, 1987). Other researchers have used plasmids containing hrp genes from several strains of P. solanacearum to probe Southern blots of DNA from widely distributed \bar{P} . solanacearum isolates. Homology to the hrpgene probes was detected in all 150 isolates tested (Barlow et al. 1990; Cook et al. 1989).

hrp genes within the Enterobacteriaceae. E. amylovora. an enteric bacterium closely related to Escherichia coli, causes fire blight of pome fruits such as apple and pear and elicits the HR on tobacco. Mutational analysis of E. amylovora led to the identification of a hrp gene cluster that spans approximately 40 kb of the chromosome (Bauer and Beer 1987; Beer et al., in press; Beer et al. 1989; Laby et al. 1989; Steinberger and Beer 1988). Eighteen distinct transposon-induced hrp mutants have been described. All of these mutant strains and two naturally occurring hrp mutants were restored by a single cosmid, designated as pCPP430, that contains a 45-kb chromosomal insert (Beer et al., in press; Beer et al. 1989; Laby and Beer 1990; Laby et al. 1989). As with pHIR11 described above, pCPP430 imparted the ability to elicit the HR on tobacco and other plants to E. coli and all other members of the Enterobacteriaceae tested (Beer et al., in press; Wei and Beer 1990). E. amylovora hrp genes and corresponding wildtype clones have also been described independently by other researchers (Barney et al. 1990).

A significant aspect of the analysis of the E. amylovora hrp cluster is the conservation of both homology and gene function among phytopathogenic bacteria and other

members of the Enterobacteriaceae that are not plant pathogens. The use of low-stringency hybridization conditions revealed hybridization between the chromosomal insert of pCPP430 and genomic DNA of E. c. subsp. carotovora, E. chrysanthemi, E. lupinicola, E. mallotivora, E. nigrifluens, E. rubrifaciens, E. salicis, and E. stewartii. Under the same low-stringency conditions, hybridization was seen between the chromosomal inserts within pCPP430 and pHIR11, which contain the hrp clusters from E. amylovora and P. syringae, respectively (Laby and Beer 1990). The cosmid pES1044, which was isolated from an E. stewartii genomic library (Coplin et al. 1986), shared homology with pCPP430 and was able to restore the Hrp⁺ phenotype to several of the Tn5-generated E. amvlovora hrp mutants. This conservation of function was reflected by significant hybridization between portions of pES1044 and pCPP430 (Beer et al., in press; Beer et al. 1990). Finally, the predicted protein product of one of the E. amylovora hrp genes was found to be related to the hrpS gene product of P. s. pv. phaseolicola (Sneath et al. 1990).

It appears that Escherichia coli contains genes which complement some of the E. amylovora hrp mutants (Beer et al., in press; Wei and Beer 1990). Two cosmids, designated as pCPP440 and pCPP450, partially overlap pCPP430 and do not contain some of the hrp genes at one end of the E. amylovora hrp cluster. However, strains of E. coli containing either pCPP440 or pCPP450 elicited the HR on tobacco. Transposon insertions in a 2.9-kb HindIII fragment present within pCPP430, but not contained in pCPP440 or pCPP450, were introduced by marker exchange mutagenesis into the chromosome of E. coli, suggesting a high degree of homology. Mutant E. coli transconjugants from this exchange mutagenesis that contained either pCPP440 or pCPP450 did not elicit the HR. This ability was restored when a subclone containing the 2.9kb HindIII fragment of pCPP430 was introduced in trans. These results strongly suggest that E. coli genes can functionally complement a portion of the E. amylovora hrp cluster.

hrp gene function. While there has been substantial progress in the molecular analysis of hrp genes, little is known concerning the biological role that the gene products of these loci play in the plant-pathogen interaction. Perhaps the best defined hrp gene is the hrpS portion of the hrpSR transcription unit of P. s. pv. phaseolicola. The deduced protein product of hrpS shares homology with known twocomponent procaryotic regulatory proteins (Grimm and Panopoulos 1989; Ronson et al. 1987). In support of a regulatory role, a functional hrpS gene is required for the transcription of reporter fusions within hrpAB, hrpC, and hrpD (Mindrinos et al. 1990) as well as within hrpE and hrpF (Rahme et al. 1991). It has been shown previously that some hrp mutations inhibit the transcriptional induction or function of other genes involved in the plantpathogen interaction, namely avirulence genes in P. s. pv. glycinea (Huynh et al. 1989; Lindgren et al. 1988). Thus, evidence is accumulating that hrpS is a positive regulator of bacterial genes which are required for several aspects of the plant-pathogen interaction.

The biological function of the remaining *hrp* genes remains unclear. As mentioned above, the *hrp* loci of *P. s.*

pv. phaseolicola were repressed in complex media but expressed at a significant level in planta. However, these genes were transcribed in defined minimal medium, and this expression was significantly reduced by raising the osmolyte concentration (Mindrinos et al. 1990). In a similar manner, transcription from eight E. amylovora hrp genes, as determined by expression of β -glucuronidase (GUS) reporter fusions, was low in complete medium (Beer et al., in press). Growth in minimal medium increased the expression of the GUS fusions. The addition of (NH₄)₂SO₄ to 50 mM reduced GUS expression to levels equivalent to those seen in complex media. An effect of pH on expression was also apparent; GUS activity was 10- to 50fold greater at pH 5.5 than at pH 7 in low-phosphate medium (Beer et al., in press). It is not known at this time how the response of hrp genes to culture conditions in vitro correlates with their function in planta.

Recently, hrp mutants of P. solanacearum and P. s. pv. tabaci were used to analyze the induction of pathogenesisrelated proteins and some of the plant stress response genes. Expression of several plant proteins, including phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL), chalcone synthase (CHS), and chalcone isomerase (CHI), enzymes in the phytoalexin biosynthetic pathway, and the pathogenesis-related proteins chitinase and β -1,3-glucanase have been correlated with the elicitation of the HR and plant resistance to pathogen attack (see Lamb et al. 1989 for review). While it is beyond the scope of this review to discuss the biological role of these plant proteins, hrp mutants have been used to analyze their induction in two systems. Vacuum infiltration of detached leaves of tobacco with cultures of P. solanacearum strains GMI1000 (incompatible), K60 (compatible), or GMI1178 (an AO-induced hrp deletion mutant of GMI1000) led to the accumulation of chitinase and β -1,3-glucanase transcripts and proteins 18 hr after inoculation (Godiard et al. 1990). Accumulation of these transcripts and proteins was also observed when the detached tobacco leaves were infiltrated with water. A different result was seen when whole bean plants were vacuum-infiltrated with P. s. pv. phaseolicola (compatible). P. s. pv. tabaci (incompatible), or with a hrp mutant of P. s. pv. tabaci (Jakobek and Lindgren 1990). As was seen in detached tobacco leaves, there was no significant difference in the ability of either the wild-type strain or hrp mutants of the incompatible bacterium P. s. pv. tabaci to induce PAL-, CHS-, CHI-, or chitinase-specific transcripts. However, infiltration of living bean plants with either the compatible pathogen P. s. pv. phaseolicola or water did not induce these transcripts. These transcripts were also induced by inoculation of the nonpathogenic plant bacterium P. fluorescens or heat-killed P. s. pv. tabaci. While the contrasting effects of the inoculation of compatible bacteria can be explained by differences in the host-pathogen systems or the inoculation of attached versus detached leaves, both of these experiments indicate that hrp mutants which do not elicit the HR are still able to induce plant genes that have been correlated with disease resistance.

Summary. It is clear that *hrp* genes play a central role in the ability of plant pathogenic bacteria to interact with the plant. They are conserved with respect to homology

and function within P. syringae pathovars, P. solanacearum, Erwinia species, and, apparently, E. coli. The most perplexing aspect of hrp gene analysis is the pleiotropic nature of the mutations. It is difficult to separate the attenuation of growth in planta from the loss of the elicitation of the HR and pathogenicity. Are the phenotypic effects of a hrp mutation due to the inability of the mutant bacterium to grow normally within plant tissue, or do hrp gene products participate more directly in the pathogenic response? It is important not to limit the analysis of these loci to their effect on pathogenicity and the elicitation of the HR. The finding that some hrp genes are structurally and functionally conserved within nonplant-associated bacteria such as E. coli strongly suggests that they act at a basic metabolic level. This idea is supported by the induction of hrp genes by varying nutrient conditions in bacterial cultures, independent of the plant environment (Beer et al., in press; Lindgren et al. 1989; Mindrinos et al. 1990; Rahme et al. 1991). In fact, recent experiments suggest that the requirement of hrp genes for the transcription of the avrB gene of P. s. pv. glycinea, a gene that is also regulated by nutrient conditions, can be explained by assigning to hrp genes the role of integrating information about carbon source availability (Huynh et al. 1989). Based on their phenotype and the presence of functional hrp genes in E. coli, we would expect functionally similar loci to be present within other nonpathogenic bacteria such as P. fluorescens.

The analysis of hrp loci and their function would be enhanced considerably by a focus of research efforts on one bacterial system. Based on currently published information, we found it difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain the physical or functional relationship between the various hrp mutations in the numerous genetic backgrounds that have been studied. Although some information concerning conservation of DNA homology between hrp genes from several bacterial species is now becoming available, it is unclear whether this DNA similarity will be reflected in the conservation of function of the various gene products. Erwinia amylovora, due to the conservation of this bacterium's hrp genes with those of E. coli, provides the greatest potential for the determination of hrp gene function through direct genetic comparison with the E. coli genome. Mapping of the location of the E. coli hrp genes, by traditional methods or through homology to the E. coli ordered clone bank (Kohara et al. 1987), will establish the relationship of hrp genes to known E. coli genetic loci and may lead to the determination of function. Once the functions of the E. coli and E. amylovora hrp genes are established, this information can be extrapolated to bacteria such as P. syringae and P. solanacearum that are not as genetically well-studied.

In conclusion, it can be said that a significant amount of information has been gathered concerning the molecular nature of hrp loci, but we are only just beginning to see a hint of the biological role of their gene products. It is hoped that future research efforts will focus on the biological role of hrp gene products in the plant-pathogen interaction, perhaps by using E. amylovora as a model system.

NOTE ADDED IN PROOF

A hrp gene cluster has recently been identified and cloned from X. c. pv. vesicatoria (U. Bonas, R. Schulte, S. Fenselau, G. V. Minsavage, B. J. Staskawicz, and R. E. Stall 1991. Isolation of a gene cluster from Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria that determines pathogenicity and the hypersensitive response on pepper and tomato. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions 4:81-88). This hrp region is approximately 25 kb in length and contains at least six complementation groups. Homology to this region is present in several pathovars of X. campestris, and the homology is high enough to permit genetic exchange of hrp mutations among some pathovars.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We wish to thank Peter B. Lindgren, Nickolas J. Panopoulos, Steven V. Beer, Steven W. Hutcheson, and Christian A. Boucher for informative discussions and access to unpublished data and preprints. We also appreciate the helpful comments that were made by Caitilyn Allen and Merelee Atkinson during the preparation of this manuscript.

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