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Genetic and molecular basis of nonhost disease resistance: complex, yes; silver bullet, no

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Nonhost resistance (NHR), in which a successful pathogen on some plants fails to overcome host barriers on others, has attracted much attention owing to its potential for robust crop improvement. Recent advances reveal that a multitude of underlying mechanisms contribute to NHR, ranging from components shared with recognition-based defenses up to recessive susceptibility factors involved in plant primary metabolism. Most NHR appears multi-factorial and quantitative. This implies that there is no single, 'silver bullet' NHR mechanism that can be used to broadly restrict pathogens in many or all crops.

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Introduction

Nonhost resistance (NHR) is a widespread phenomenon exhibited by most plant species that are able to resist microbes or viruses, which are successful pathogens on other plants. NHR is remarkable for its durability in nature and effectiveness against broad range of potential pathogen species, and thus is hoped to be a novel source of resistance mechanisms for improving crop plants against diseases caused by host-adapted pathogens. Current models of plant innate immunity involve two groups of surveillance receptors, pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) (Box 1) and nucleotide-binding and leucine-rich repeat (NB-LRR) proteins. These activate host plant defense responses following recognition of pathogen encoded non-specific microbial-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs) or specific effector proteins, respectively [1]. A conceptual

framework has recently been proposed in which PRRs, NB-LRR proteins and effectors, the three core components operating in host immunity, also determine the outcomes of the interplay between plant and non-adapted pathogens [2]. Here, we summarise recent advances in understanding the roles of multiple genetic and molecular components in determining the outcome of diverse non-host interactions.

Viruses and nonhost plants: not welcome

Plant viruses are biotrophic pathogens that are unique in that their multiplication and life cycle occurs entirely inside the host cell. As such, the incompatibility between a virus and its host can be as simple as the absence of host factors essential for the virus life cycle [3], or can be due to the presence of multiple layers of defense in the host plant that actively suppress viral pathogenesis [4]. Several recent reports reveal mechanisms underlying resistance of non-host plant to virus infection: Mutations in genes encoding DICER-LIKE or Argonaute proteins allow non-adapted *Potato virus X* to infect *Arabidopsis thaliana*, indicating that RNA silencing plays an important role in restricting non-host virus [5]. In tomato, the cellular protein tm-1 was shown to confer nonhost resistance to *Tobacco mild green mosaic virus* and *Pepper mild mottle virus* by interacting with their viral replication proteins to inhibit viral RNA replication [6]. By contrast, the recessive resistance in *Nicotiana benthamiana* to non-adapted *Melon necrotic spot virus* is owing to the absence of a compatible plant translation initiation factor, which hampers efficient translation of viral proteins required for RNA replication [7]. It is noteworthy that the above mentioned plant factors are also involved in plant defense against host-adapted viruses, hence, the molecular basis of NHR to viral pathogens may overlap with recognition-based or non-specific host resistance mechanisms and include both active and passive (lack of susceptibility factors) defense mechanisms.

Active defenses that determine NHR to microbial attacks: strength in diversity of host mechanisms

It is widely accepted that pre-formed and induced defenses condition plant NHR [8,9]. However, considering the enormous diversity in life cycle and infection biology of microbial pathogens, it is not surprising that a multitude of complex, and sometimes opposing mechanisms are involved in NHR. This notion is supported by recent observations that nonhost resistance of barley to different fungal pathogens is associated with largely distinct transcriptional responses [10].

Box 1 Glossary

Disease susceptibility gene: A gene that makes plant susceptible to certain pathogens.

Susceptibility factor: Host factor that is not involved in defense suppression but necessary for an adapted pathogen to grow and develop *in planta*.

Effector: Microbial secreted small molecule or protein that modulates host cell functions to enable colonization.

Glucosinolates: A class of sulfur-containing and nitrogen-containing natural products widely distributed in crucifers. Tissue damage or pathogen infection can trigger enzymatic hydrolysis of glucosinolates into a range of bioactive metabolites, some of which contribute to plant defense against pathogens and herbivores.

Host status: The capacity of a plant being a host to certain pathogen species.

Host–pathogen compatibility: The ability of a given pathogen to infect a particular host.

Microbe-associated molecular pattern: A small molecular motif that is conserved within a class of microbes and that can stimulate host immune response following direct recognition by the pattern recognition receptors.

Pathovar: A pathovar is a bacterial strain that is differentiated from other strains of the same species on the basis of their distinct pathogenicity to one or more plant hosts.

Pattern recognition receptors: Typically membrane-bound receptor-like kinases that detect the conserved microbe-associated molecular patterns and initiate the first active layer of plant innate immunity.

Phytoalexins: Low-molecular-weight antimicrobial natural products that are synthesized by and accumulated in plants following pathogen infection.

Recent advances in the genetic dissection of Arabidopsis NHR to a range of non-adapted fungal pathogens also suggest that overlapping and distinct genes or metabolic pathways are involved (Table 1). Earlier investigations revealed that three genes, *PEN1* (*Penetration 1*), *PEN2* and *PEN3*, are required for pre-invasive resistance to the obligate biotrophic fungus *Blumeria graminis* f. sp. *hordei* (*Bgh*), whereas the inhibition of hyphal growth largely relies on *EDS1* (*Enhanced disease susceptibility 1*), *PAD4* (*Phytoalexin deficient 4*) and *Senescence associated gene 101* (*SAG101*) [11,12]. Recent studies show that *PEN2* and three additional genes, *AGB1* (*Arabidopsis G-protein β -subunit*), *PMR5* (*Powdery mildew resistant 5*) and *Mildew resistance locus O 2* (*MLO2*), function in both pre-invasive and post-invasive resistance to the hemibiotrophic pathogen *Magnaporthe oryzae* [13,14^{*}]. *PEN2*, required for pre-invasive resistance to broad spectrum of pathogens (Table 1), encodes an atypical β -thioglucoside glucohydrolase that metabolizes tryptophan derived indole glucosinolates (GSL) to produce antimicrobials in living plant cells following pathogen attack [15]. Hiruma *et al.* report that *Colletotrichum* species can take on two different entry modes during infection: a melanized appressorium-dependant invasion normally observed on intact plant

Table 1**Arabidopsis genes involved in pre-invasive and post-invasive resistance to selected non-adapted fungal pathogens**

Genes	Penetration			Hyphal growth			Reference
	<i>Bgh</i>	<i>Mo</i>	<i>Cg-HTE</i>	<i>Bgh</i>	<i>Mo</i>	<i>Pcu</i>	
<i>PEN1</i>	+	–	–	+	–	–	[11–13,16]
<i>PEN2</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	[11–13,14 [*] ,16,17]
<i>PEN3</i>	+	–	+	+	+	+	[12,13,17]
<i>EDS1</i>		–		+			[11,13]
<i>PAD2</i>		–				+	[13,17]
<i>PAD3</i>		–	–			+	[16,17]
<i>PAD4</i>		–		+			[11,13]
<i>SAG101</i>				+			[11]
<i>AGB1</i>		+			+	+	[12,13,14 [*]]
<i>PMR5</i>		+			+		[13,14 [*]]
<i>MLO2</i>		+			+		[14 [*]]
<i>CYP79B2/B3</i>			+			+	[16,17]
<i>CYP81F2</i>			+				[16]
<i>EDR1</i>			+				[21 [*]]

+: genes required for inhibition of fungal entry or infection hyphal growth; –: genes dispensable for the outcome of interactions; *Bgh*: *Blumeria graminis* f. sp. *hordei*; *Mo*: *Magnaporthe oryzae*; *Pcu*: *Plectosphaerella cucumerina*; *Cg-HTE*: *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* Hyphal Tip-based Entry

surfaces, and a hyphal tip-based entry (HTE) that is predominant at wound sites of nonhost plants. Further studies show that Arabidopsis resistance to the HTE of *C. gloeosporioides* depends on the *PEN2*-related indole GSL metabolism pathway, whereas the mechanistic basis of resistance to appressorium-mediated invasion is still unknown [16].

The *CYP79 B2/B3* dependant tryptophan metabolism pathway is crucial in Arabidopsis resistance to the necrotrophic nonhost fungi *Plectosphaerella cucumerina* [17] and the oomycete host pathogen *Phytophthora brassicae* [18^{**}]. Two branches of this pathway, *PEN2*-related indole GSL metabolism and *PAD3*-dependent camalexin biosynthesis, act in tandem to confer resistance. However, disruption of both *PEN2* and *PAD3* only partially compromises resistance, indicating that additional trp-derived metabolites contribute to resistance [17,18^{**}]. These studies reveal a pivotal role of tryptophan-derived metabolites in Arabidopsis resistance to nonhost and host-adapted pathogens with distinct life cycles and infection biologies. A broader investigation of pathogen-inducible tryptophan-derived metabolism in Brassicaceae, reveals that the *PEN2*-related indole GSL metabolism is conserved, whereas other branches of the pathway, including camalexin synthesis may be phylogenetic clade specific [19]. Thus, they may belong to a catalytic landscape of secondary metabolism reflecting plant adaptation to complex interactions with a range of biotic challenges [20]. However, it should be noted that mechanisms independent of tryptophan metabolism also exist in Arabidopsis–fungi nonhost interactions. The gene *Enhanced disease resistance 1* (*EDR1*) that encodes a protein kinase, that

functions to at least partially, inhibit HTE of the nonhost anthracnose pathogen by upregulating expression of a group of defensin genes in Arabidopsis [21*].

Other plant species have also been used to characterize NHR to fungal infections. In barley, both *ROR1* (*Required for mlo-specified disease resistance 1*) and *ROR2* genes are involved to restrict cellular entry of non-adapted soybean rust fungi *Phakopsora pachyrhizi* [22]. *ROR2* is a barley *PEN1*-ortholog encoding syntaxin protein that is required for pre-invasive resistance to *Bgh* [23]. Recent findings that ADP-ribosylation factor GTPases are also required for both penetration-induced *ROR2* focal accumulation and full resistance to fungal penetration, provide further links between *ROR2*-syntaxin and multi-vesicular bodies in surface defense in barley [24]. These studies suggest that the evolutionary conserved *ROR2/PEN1* syntaxin-dependent secretory pathways are involved in defenses against diverse nonhost pathogens. Moreover, Bhuiyan *et al.* reported that the monolignol biosynthesis pathway is induced in wheat by powdery mildew infection and interfering with the pathway by RNAi-mediated gene silencing or enzyme specific inhibitors enhances penetration efficiency of both adapted and nonhost pathovars, indicating that this pathway contributes to fungal entry restriction in cereal plants [25]. By contrast, NHR in rice to cereal rust species is largely post-invasive and associated with active defense responses including callose deposition and production of reactive oxygen species, but the genetic basis of this durable resistance remains to be elucidated [26].

These examples represent the complex defense networks, probably activated following recognition of pathogen derived MAMPs or effectors, that quantitatively contribute to plant NHR to nonhost pathogens (see review [2,27]). A recent example demonstrates the role of MAMP perception in plant resistance to oomycete pathogen *Phytophthora infestans*. Resistance of *N. benthamiana* plants to different *Phytophthora* species varies from highly resistant to fully susceptible and *P. infestans* is moderately virulent on this plant. Silencing of genes in *N. benthamiana* homologous to Arabidopsis leucine-rich repeat receptor-like kinase *BAK1/SERK3*, previously shown to be a major modulator of defense responses triggered by oomycete MAMP protein INF1 [28], significantly enhances disease susceptibility to *P. infestans* [29].

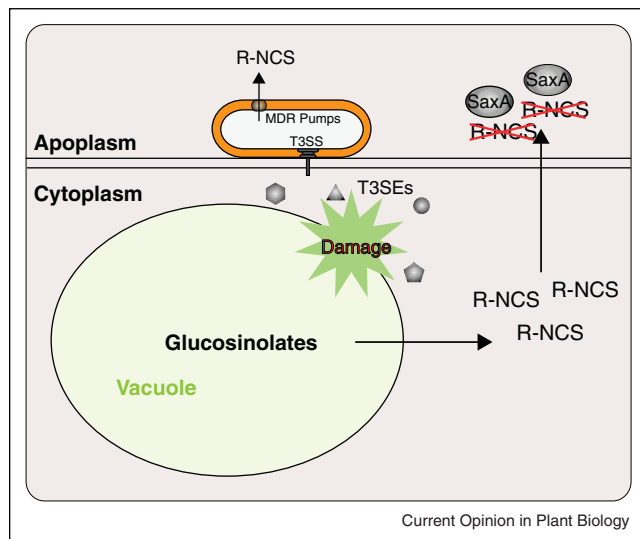
While Arabidopsis is a natural host of a subspecies of oomycete pathogen *Albugo candida* causing the white rust disease, it is predominantly immune to many subspecies isolated from other cruciferous plants. By studying the low levels of resistance variation among Arabidopsis accessions Borhan *et al.* were able to identify an NB-LRR gene, *White rust resistance 4 (WRR4)* that confers resistance to several subspecies of *A. candida*. The authors speculate that the prevalent resistance to non-adapted *A.*

candida results from recognition of pathogen effectors by multiple *WRR4*-like genes in Arabidopsis [30].

The role of MAMP-triggered and effector-triggered immunity in NHR is well corroborated in many plant–bacteria interactions. Transgenic expression of the Arabidopsis MAMP receptor EFR that recognizes bacterial elongation factor Tu in *N. benthamiana* and tomato, confers MAMP-responsiveness and enhanced disease resistance to virulent pathogens from different bacterial genera [31**]. An investigation on natural variation of Arabidopsis resistance to nonhost bacteria reveals that the flagellin receptor gene *FLS2* confers resistance to *P. syringae* pv. *phaseolicola* [32]. These observations demonstrate a positive contribution of MAMP-triggered immunity in NHR to bacterial pathogens. Likewise, the hemibiotrophic bacterium *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato (Pto) T1* is a tomato pathogen and unable to colonize Arabidopsis. Two type III secretion system-dependent effectors (T3SEs) from *Pto T1*, AvrRpt2 and HopAS1, elicit HR on Arabidopsis. Disruption of genes encoding either of these effectors in *Pto T1* or the NB-LRR protein recognizing AvrRpt2 in Arabidopsis significantly enhance bacterial growth [33]. Moreover, the conserved T3SE protein Eop1 from *Rubus* strains of *Erwinia amylovora* is able reduce the virulence of *E. amylovora* strains in non-*Rubus* hosts and functions as a host-range-limiting factor [34]. These examples indicate that effector-triggered immunity plays an important role in restricting non-adapted bacterial pathogens. However, it is still not clear how exactly the nonhost bacterial growth is suppressed in the apoplastic environment. Nevertheless, the findings that MAMP treatment of plants restricts bacterial injection of T3SE and that T3SEs can relieve this restriction may shed light on and stimulate further investigations of the underlying mechanisms [35*].

Despite multiple lines of evidence showing engagement of PRRs and NB-LRR proteins in NHR, we have found a natural product-based mechanism that restricts non-adapted bacterial pathogens apparently independent of pathogen recognition. Our observations show that aliphatic isothiocyanates (ITCs), derived from GSL breakdown typically following tissue damage of crucifers, inhibit the growth of most *P. syringae* pathovars for which Arabidopsis is not a host, but have no effect on growth of pathovars that colonize Arabidopsis, such as *Pto DC3000*. Subsequent investigations revealed that in *Pto DC3000*, a putative enzyme encoded by the *saxA* gene, involved in metabolising ITCs, acts with a group of multidrug efflux transporters to protect bacteria against ITCs (Figure 1). Disruption of these protective *sax* genes from *Pto DC3000* makes the mutant strain sensitive to ITC-treatment, thus leading to collapse of the bacterial population at the necrotrophic stage of infection when high levels ITCs are released in Arabidopsis young leaves. By contrast, Arabidopsis mutants carrying genetic lesions in aliphatic GSL biosynthesis, growth of the ITC-sensitive

Figure 1



Schematic diagram of ITC-based defense activation in the necrotrophic stage of infection and host bacterial strategies to overcome this chemical barrier. Bacterially derived factors, presumably T3SEs and/or toxins, trigger the cell death process and the release of glucosinolates from damaged vacuoles. Non-toxic glucosinolates are subsequently hydrolyzed by β -thioglucosidases derived from plant or bacteria to produce toxic isothiocyanates (R-NCS). R-NCS may further diffuse into the apoplast to suppress bacteria. The host bacteria secrete SaxA-like enzymes to detoxify R-NCS in the apoplast and the Sax-related MDR efflux pumps function to complement SaxA. Together, these confer bacterial tolerance to toxic ITCs.

mutant strain is rescued [36^{**}]. The data demonstrate an important role of ITCs-based defense in suppression of bacterial invaders. The preferential distribution of *saxA*-like genes in crucifer pathovars implies that ITCs may be one of the driving forces that shape pathogen host adaptation. Notably, biotrophic growth of the ITC sensitive *sax* mutant is not suppressed, indicating that distinct mechanisms mediate restriction of biotrophic growth of nonhost bacteria.

Consistent with the observations that many defense responses are shared by both nonhost and host resistance, aliphatic GSL biosynthesis has been shown to be crucial for Arabidopsis basal resistance to a necrotrophic ascomycete, *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* [37], indicating that it may be part of the complex defense metabolism networks that are activated differentially following attacks by pathogens with diverse life cycle and infection strategy [36^{**},37].

Plant factors passively affect NHR to microbial attacks: virtuously inhospitable

To colonize a host plant, pathogens have to overcome the complex defense networks and acquire nutrients necessary for their proliferation. To do this, many pathogens secrete effector molecules into the apoplast or inside host cells to directly quench plant defense [38] or reprogram

host cell to suppress defenses [39–41] and elicit metabolic shifts [42] to benefit pathogens. Many plant genes are also required for disease process and their disruption often leads to recessive broad-spectrum disease resistance, thus revealing a role as susceptibility genes [43]. Our knowledge on how these factors mediate disease susceptibility is still very limited, although they may be targets of pathogen effectors that negatively regulate plant defense pathways or susceptibility factors required for pathogen growth and development [43]. Here we explore the role of recessive resistance in NHR and summarize new insights on how genes, such as *MLO* and *Xa13*, affect host status.

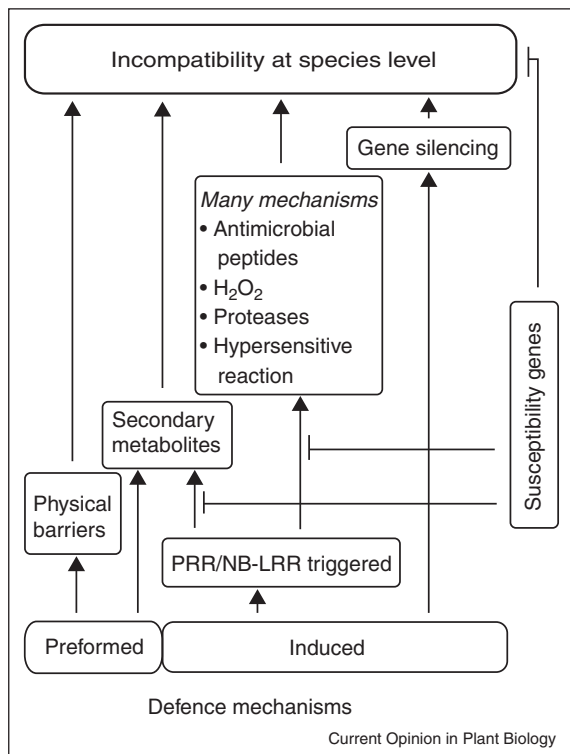
The downy mildew pathogen *Bremia lactucae* is pathogenic on lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*) but unable to cause disease on wild lettuce (*L. saligna*). These two species are inter-fertile, making it possible to analyze the inheritance of resistance in their progeny. Quantitative trait loci (QTLs) assays reveal that at least 15 QTLs, each effective at one or more plant developmental stages, determine nonhost resistance in *L. saligna* [44]. Some of these QTLs are recessive and pyramiding 3 of the recessive QTLs are sufficient to produce complete resistance to *B. lactucae* in young lettuce plants [45^{*}]. These studies clearly demonstrate that NHR are polygenic, quantitative traits that rely on both genetically dominant and recessive plant components.

Loss-of-function mutations in *MLO* genes confer durable broad-spectrum powdery mildew resistance in monocot and dicot plants, reminiscent of NHR phenotypes. The molecular basis of *MLO* or *mlo* mediated disease responses are not fully understood. However, recent data show that (1) in Arabidopsis the *mlo2*-mediated pathogen resistance requires the pathways that produce tryptophan-derived metabolites [46]; (2) transcription of *MLO* genes is co-regulated in both Arabidopsis and barley with a common set of genes required for defenses against diverse fungal pathogens [47]; and (3) disruption of *MLOs* in barley and Arabidopsis enhance plant susceptibility to *M. oryzae* [14^{*},48]. Hence, *MLO* genes appear to have a key role in defense regulation in diverse plant–pathogen interactions. Interestingly, some of the previously identified Arabidopsis susceptibility genes, such as *PMR5* and *EDR1*, were shown to be required for resistance to non-adapted pathogens [13,21^{*}], indicating that they have dual roles in mediating diverse plant defense responses.

Rice *Xa13* protein is a member of a subgroup of SWEET transporter proteins [49^{**}] that mediate sugar efflux, preferentially sucrose, into the leaf apoplast for phloem loading [50]. Pathogenic bacteria *Xanthomonas oryzae* pv *oryzae* (*Xoo*) secrete a specific transcription activator-like (TAL) effector that targets *Xa13* gene promoter and induces its expression to promote disease. Naturally occurring promoter mutations that disrupt bacterially induced *Xa13* expression confer recessive resistance to this *Xoo* strain in a panel of geographically diverse rice

lines [51]. However, *Xoo* strains carrying other TAL effectors can overcome *xa13*-mediated resistance by targeting genes encoding Xa13 homologs that are also capable of mediating sucrose efflux [50,52*]. Moreover, multiple *SWEET* genes are found in Arabidopsis and rice genome and many of the Arabidopsis *SWEET* genes are upregulated by bacterial or fungal infections [49**]. These discoveries not only help us understand how *Xoo* bacteria hijack native host physiological process for their own growth, but also highlight a central role of nutrition-based mechanisms in plant–pathogen co-evolution. This is further corroborated by the observations that plant amino acid metabolic status can selectively determine the outcome of plant–pathogen interactions [53**]. We expect that numerous examples of such quantitatively acting, recessive susceptibility genes will be discovered, but as long as they are required for highly specific facets of the pathogen’s infection biology, these may not all confer ‘broad-spectrum’ NHR (Figure 2).

Figure 2



Multiple plant factors lead to nonhost disease resistance. Both preformed and induced defense mechanisms confer NHR. Preformed defenses, such as release of antimicrobial secondary metabolites, can be activated at various stages of infection as described in this review. Many induced defense responses are probably triggered following pathogen recognition by PRRs or NB-LRR receptors. Gene silencing plays important role in restriction of non-adapted viruses. Some susceptibility genes negatively regulate plant defenses against otherwise non-adapted pathogens, whereas other susceptibility factors are required for the establishment and growth of the host-adapted pathogen.

Conclusions

NHR is a widespread phenomenon resulting from long-term co-evolution between plants and their numerous biotic associates. The genetic and molecular basis of pathogen resistance displayed at the species level overlaps with that mediating basal resistance to host-adapted pathogens. Plant species or clade-specific innovations of secondary metabolism have an important role in NHR. The NHR defense responses are predominantly triggered by perception of pathogen derived MAMPs or effectors, but recognition independent processes also function to limit non-adapted pathogens. An emerging role of plant primary metabolism in determining host–pathogen compatibility opens up new frontiers in studies of NHR. Understanding the genetic and molecular basis of NHR will inform future work on engineering crop plants with durable broad-spectrum resistance against adapted pathogens.

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